Korea TESOL Journal

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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Korea TESOL Journal

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

in collaboration with **Pan Asian Consortium of Language Teaching Societies**

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The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language.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

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

The Journal is also committed to the fostering of scholarship among Korea TESOL members and throughout Korea. As such, classroom-based papers, i.e., articles arising from genuine issues of the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. 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:

Classroom-Centered Research	Professional Development
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About Korea TESOL

Korea TESOL (KOTESOL; Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their professional 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 (the 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 diverse, inclusive, and 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, Classroom Management, 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 and event information.

Invited Paper

"Class Is Like a Family": Reflections of an Experienced Canadian TESOL Teacher

Thomas S. C. Farrell and Nicholas Moses
Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario, Canada

This paper presents a case study that examined the principles and practices of one experienced English as a second language (ESL) teacher as she reflected on her practice after teaching in Canada for 13 years. More specifically, this qualitative study sought to contribute to the discussion of the perceived interdependent influences of English as a second language (ESL) teachers' thoughts and behaviors through five stages of self-reflection using the Farrell (2015) framework for reflective practice. Overall, the findings suggest that the teacher's stated philosophy, beliefs, and theory are aligned with her classroom practices. In addition, the teacher exhibits many of the habits of expert teachers. Readers will find the positive experiences of this experienced teacher's reflections encouraging for their own teaching careers in a time when we all need some uplifting examples.

Keywords: reflective practice, ESL teacher development, teacher philosophy, beliefs, theory, and practices

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, reflective practice has been established as an important concept within the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), and within language teacher education, it has become "ubiquitous" (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 4). Indeed, Farrell (2015) points out that the impact of reflective practice can be felt across the majority of a teacher's professional life, from early teacher education programs to professional development programs for experienced educators. Freeman (2016) maintains that reflective practice offers a way

into the less "accessible aspects of a teacher's work" (p. 208). Despite its prominence, however, scholars in the field of general education have continued to struggle with how to implement or operationalize reflective practice, especially for language teachers (Mann & Walsh, 2013). To tackle this lack of application within the field of TESOL, Farrell (2015) developed a holistic, evidence-based approach that includes reflection not only on behavioral aspects of practice but also the spiritual, moral, and emotional non-cognitive aspects that are missing in other approaches. This paper uses the Farrell (2015) framework as a lens through which to explore the reflections of an experienced Canadian ESL teacher as she reflected on her philosophy, principles, theory, and practice and critically reflected beyond practice.

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Although there is not an accepted definition of what reflective practice is, generally speaking it suggests that teachers examine all aspects of their professional practice both inside and outside the classroom so that they can make informed decisions about their practice (Farrell, 2015, 2018a, b). Scholars maintain that reflective practice is central to a teacher's development because, as Zwozdiak-Myers (2012, p. 3) pointed out, it helps them "to analyze and evaluate what is happening" in their classes so that they can become more aware of what they do, why they do it, and as a result, provide more opportunities for their students to learn. Since its re-entry into the field of general education in the 1980s through the wonderful work of Donald Schön (1983), it has also been warmly welcomed within language teaching as being a desirable concept to instill in learner teachers and in-service teachers. However, it still remains a "fuzzy concept" (Collin & Karsenti, 2011, p. 570) because of its "problematic" (Walsh & Mann, 2015, p. 351) implementation in that most approaches take a "post-mortem" (Freeman, 2016, p. 217), "reflection-as-repair" notion of the concept. In addition, reflective practice has recently been reduced to a ritualized application of filling out predetermined checklists of desirable teacher qualities where the "person-as-teacher" has been omitted from the process (Farrell & Kennedy (2019). As Farrell and Kennedy (2019, p. 2) have pointed out, the "teacher (or person-as-teacher) has been separated from the act of teaching, and the act of reflective practice has

become 'routinized,' as teachers are encouraged to only answer retrospective questions about their practice (such as what happened, why did this happen, what comes next) in order to 'improve' their teaching." In order to address this separation of the teacher from the process of reflection, Farrell (2015) developed a holistic framework to reflective practice that acknowledges the inner life of teachers and where language teachers are included in the process of reflection for all aspects of their practice.

Reflective Practice Framework

The Farrell (2015) framework for reflective practice provides teachers with the opportunity to gain awareness and understanding of the origins, meanings, and impact of their actions within the classroom by reflecting on five interconnected and recursive stages: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and wider implications beyond practice.

Reflecting on *philosophy* is the first stage of the framework. This initial stage, considered by Farrell (2019) as a "window to the roots of a teacher's practice" (p. 84), enables teachers to examine the *teacher-as-person*. The second stage of the framework entails reflecting on *principles*. Throughout this stage, teachers explore their deeply held assumptions, beliefs, and conceptions of language teaching and learning. The third stage, *theory*, requires teachers to reflect on theories that underlie their practice; how they plan their lessons; and choice of activities, techniques, and methods. The fourth stage of the framework involves reflecting on *practice*. This stage provides an opportunity for teachers to develop a more in-depth understanding of their own teaching practices by systematically collecting and analyzing information about their teaching, such as through audio and video recordings or peer observations. The final phase, *beyond practice* or *critical reflection*, explores the moral, political, emotional, ethical, and social issues that impact teachers' practice both inside and outside the classroom.

METHOD

This study utilizes a qualitative case study approach (Merriam, 2009) to gain further insight into reflections of an experienced ESL teacher in

Canada. Most commonly used by qualitative researchers (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982), the qualitative case study approach emerged as the most suitable method of inquiry for this study due to its consistency with the descriptive and heuristic nature of reflective practice (Maxwell, 1992). Additionally, the goal of reflective practice stated by Farrell (2018a, b) is not necessarily "improvement" but rather to gain insight, further supporting the benefits of this research method. For these reasons, and because qualitative methods have been employed in many successful case studies in the field of TESOL (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Yang, 2019), the qualitative case study approach was the most optimal means for obtaining the required data.

Participant and Context

The participant in this study is a female ESL teacher, Robin (a pseudonym), a Canadian who teaches English within the Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) program at a large school in Ontario. She holds a bachelor's degree in applied linguistics with a focus on TESOL as well as Ontario Certified English Language Teacher (OCELT), Internationally Certified Teacher of English as an Additional Language (ICTEAL), TESOL trainer of methodology, Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB) Bootcamp, and Portfolio Based Language Assessment (PBLA) certifications. At the onset of this study, Robin had been teaching for 13 years and had experience teaching English to students of varying ages, from kindergarten to adulthood, as well as educating pre-service TESOL teachers in grammar methodology. Robin expressed an interest in this case study after discovering reflective practice during her graduate studies and hoped that engaging in reflection would not only lead to personal and professional development, but also potentially allow her to pinpoint areas for improvement within her institution.

Robin teaches ESL classes in the LINC program at a large public school in Ontario. At this institution, language classes are offered at several time points throughout the day, and students can opt to attend or not attend depending on their availability. Robin taught two classes daily from Monday to Saturday starting at 9 a.m., one focused on reading and writing, and the other focused on listening and speaking. Each class was approximately 2.5 hours in length. Robin's current students were of diverse ages and language backgrounds and had all

been assessed at a language proficiency level equal to CLB 4. At this benchmark, students can read and write short, simple paragraphs about topics of which they are familiar, understand simple formal and informal communication and conversations about familiar topics, and give simple information about common everyday activities (CIC, 2011). Due to the nature of continuous intake class attendance can fluctuate, and Robin sometimes taught classes of up to 40 students.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection period for this case study was approximately five weeks long and included written reflective tasks for the philosophy, principles, theory, and beyond practice stages of the Farrell (2015) framework, semi-structured interviews, and two 2.5-hour non-participatory classroom observations. Following the receipt of each written reflection, a semi-structured interview was conducted to explore the participant's responses in a more in-depth fashion. In total, six semi-structured interviews were conducted and recorded via a video conferencing platform: an initial interview to clarify and collect basic background information and five follow-up interviews pertaining to each stage of the framework. Additionally, the teacher submitted two 2.5-hour-long audio recordings of two of her Level 4 reading and writing classes via a video conferencing platform by using a small lapel microphone to collect data regarding her actual practices within the classroom. Prior to these observations, the teacher informed students that the focus of the study was on her actions and behaviors and not concerned with those of the students themselves.

Data analysis mainly consisted of addressing the main research question: What are the reflections of one experienced Canadian ESL teacher as articulated through her philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice? This guiding question informed all data collection and analysis procedures undertaken in this research project. The collected audio recordings were transcribed, coded, and analyzed using methods adapted from Merriam (2009). Throughout the process of analysis, the data were examined, repeatedly sorted, and compared against the research question to ensure complete accuracy and thoroughness. Methodological triangulation was utilized as a strategy to more fully comprehend patterns of convergence and divergence that emerged from the participant's data (Mathison, 1988), effectively augmenting the

validity and reliability of the findings.

FINDINGS

The findings of this study are reported according to how they emerged within the five stages of the Farrell (2015) reflective practice framework: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and critical reflection.

Philosophy

Robin's philosophy has been shaped by three traits: empathy, leadership, and a desire for ongoing education. Robin described herself as an empathetic individual, primarily due to her work experience. She explained that she has been teaching refugees and newcomers to Canada for the past five years and that often these individuals are in "really difficult situations" that could impact their performance in the classroom. She said,

> I think that [we] forget that we are teaching pretty vulnerable people and instead of being empathetic, [we] are sympathetic. I think being empathetic is more important so the students see you not as a superior but as someone they can trust in the class. I think that when they trust you, they are more willing to come to you with issues that are stopping them from learning English, or participating in class, and then also come to you with other challenges.... When you have that other attitude, students close off and they're not as open with you or honest about things that are happening.

Robin recalled an important experience that occurred while she was teaching in which a student had suddenly become very emotional and left the room during a writing class. She articulated that her empathy, coupled with the trust that she had built with her students, allowed this student to feel comfortable in revealing to her the childhood trauma that the written assignment had triggered. She said, "I think showing students that you are empathetic towards their situation, that you care about them, is so important" and that in the case of this example, "it allowed me to figure out what was stopping my student from participating in class."

In terms of leadership, Robin explained that from a young age, she

took the responsibility of organizing activities for her family members, and it is because of this that she said she knew that she would always be a teacher in some capacity. She said, "I was always one of the most outgoing members of my family. I would organize all the activities for my cousins during family gatherings. I used to always be the teacher in my activities with my family, so I guess I have always known I would teach something to someone at some point." Indeed, at the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, she volunteered her time to host professional development sessions for her colleagues that were designed to introduce them to the tools needed to teach English online. She said, "I began to train dozens of my colleagues in how to use online tools like Zoom and Google Drive" and that the reason she did so was to "support my fellow colleagues during a challenging time. I wanted to be a person that they knew they could trust and turn to during uncertain times."

Robin also described herself as a learner and articulated that the opportunities to travel that she was provided when she was young developed her desire to continue learning and discovering new things throughout her life. She said, "traveling at a young age really sparked my curiosity. I loved being able to visit historical places and learn about them and the people who lived there." Robin remarked that she had a renewed sense for continued education return after encountering several teachers in the first few years of her career that she believed were doing a disservice to their students by being resistant to learning about new teaching methodologies and practices. She further explained that she used those individuals as examples of the type of teacher that she did not want to emulate. She said,

> I think all teachers need to constantly be learning and willing to learn. I find so many teachers that are like, "oh, but I've always taught this way, it's always worked, why do I have to change?" and I think that it's really unfair for the students and for themselves. To me, that is not an ideal ESL teacher.

Robin also expressed that she enjoys learning about her students and their diverse cultural backgrounds. She said that she reduced her time teaching abroad because she "got to meet more people from different places teaching in Ontario."

Principles

This section presents Robin's reflections on her principles. These principles are categorized into three themes: language teaching, language learning, and teaching L2 speaking, as outlined in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Summary of Robin's Teaching Principles

Theme	Belief
Language Teaching	Consider students' needs. Be flexible/adaptable. Be honest.
Language Learning	Provide a positive learning environment. Requires building confidence.
Teaching L2 Speaking	Enable learners to use the language. Provide limited corrective feedback. Allow learners to discover grammar rules.

In terms of language teaching, Robin expressed several beliefs, the first of which was to consider students' needs. She said that she endeavors to provide tasks that are relevant and level appropriate for all her students to ensure they do not become discouraged with their learning but acknowledged that it is "really, really challenging" to account for everyone, as the proficiency levels and individual needs of her students are often varied. She said, "I definitely strive to have tasks that are level appropriate, and when it is challenging to do that for every single student, then this is when I provide extra support and encouragement." She also added that sometimes it is impossible to satisfy the needs of one learner as it "may be doing a disservice to others." Robin also remarked that her flexibility and adaptability have been integral in allowing her to navigate such a wide variety of student needs, as well as any "day-to-day" situations that arise, such as having no internet access. She said that teachers need to be able to improvise and "pull things out of nowhere" because "a lot of learning can happen from spontaneous situations and questions that arise during a live lesson." Next, Robin expressed the belief that teachers need to be honest with their students about what is happening in the classroom or when they do not know the answer to a question. She recalled feeling very embarrassed as a novice teacher when she was not sure of the correct

answer to a student's question and described an encounter with a high proficiency student who would "ask really tough questions" and "challenge" her answers. She said that experience made her realize that it was acceptable to admit that she did not know the answer to a student's question, and that "we make mistakes just like anyone else." Robin explained that she now uses those moments as a learning experience for the whole class and asks her students to help her find the answers; she said that this is beneficial for everyone as it is "way less stressful" for her and ensures that her students are "active in their own learning."

Robin articulated that language learning best occurs in a safe and positive environment where students are the focus and are encouraged to freely express themselves. She said, "My class is more like social time" and that she endeavors to provide tasks that allow students to share things about themselves and their cultures. Regarding this, Robin said, "They will write papers or do presentations about something they want to talk about ... because those are the things they know the most about, and they become a little bit more confident talking about that." Robin added that building confidence in using the language is integral to successful learning. She said, "I think when it comes to language, the learners don't need one thing to learn best, like a certain number of target vocab or grammatical structures, but they need some level of confidence to learn." She explained that building confidence may allow students to approach language learning with more of a willingness to make mistakes, and that those mistakes will not be as paralyzing. She recalled an experience with a student who gained confidence in her class,

> I had a learner ... and she was so nervous her first presentation, like shaking nervous, and then she stayed in my class for a really, really long time. And then she did another presentation, and she wasn't shaking, and she could speak clearly. She was so proud of herself. She ended up staying in my class for another year, and she would tell all the other students, "Oh, when I joined this class, I was always so nervous. My first presentation, I was shaking, and now I speak like this" ... that's obviously the goal, right? That by the end, or class by class, they're more confident using English and doing things.

Robin said that she tries to lead by example, and by being honest

when she has made a mistake or lacks an answer, she "shows that its okay to make mistakes" and that "hopefully my students won't be as scared to make them."

Regarding teaching L2 speaking, Robin primarily believes that learners should be able to use language in meaningful and functional ways, and as such, teaching L2 speaking should enable students to do so. She said, "Since I'm basically teaching life skills to my students, like how to get services or how to do a job interview, I try to give lots of practice situations for those kinds of things" and that she knows she has been successful when her students "[use] the language outside of the class for whatever reason, like ... doing a job interview." Robin believes that the best way to help her learners to become confident in using language is to provide corrective feedback but only when errors impact the intended meaning of a student's message. She said, "I think it's more important for them to focus on what they're trying to say in their meaningful communication and not how to say it." Indeed, Robin indicated that since her program is non-academic, it is more important that her students can have a conversation and "get their point across" than it is to correct every error and "[have] that breakdown in communication." She said that if she notices common errors amongst her students, she addresses them after a task, rather than during, as she believes that allows her students ample practice "without a lot of pressure." Robin also expressed that regarding teaching L2 grammar she believes in allowing learners to discover grammatical rules and structures for themselves. Robin explained that her program does not allow for a great deal of grammar instruction but that she includes it anyway, as it is "just honestly what the students want." She said, "I like students to discover the grammar on their own and work through it themselves, with classmates, or with me," and said that she provides lots of consciousness-raising activities to help her learners do so.

Theory

This section outlines Robin's theory as she reflected on her lesson planning protocols and delivery procedures. Regarding her lesson planning and delivery strategies, Robin explained that she is not required to follow a predetermined course syllabus or course curriculum created by her school board but rather that she is guided by her students' needs and goals, the CLBs, and PBLA, the teaching and assessment model

mandated by the school. She said, "I guess I create my own [syllabus], or maybe the students do, but it isn't for a time period. It is based on a topic."

Robin reported that the primary concerns of her lesson planning procedures are the needs and goals of her students. She said, "my lessons are planned based on the level of the students according to the CLB document and the topics that the students want to discuss in the class." Robin said that she plans her lessons based on theme because its often "very, very, very hard to ask students what they want to be able to do in English" as they often give broad answers, such as "they want to improve their English, they want to speak fluently, all of those things." When asked how she moves through the planning process, Robin indicated that she utilizes a forward-planning process in that she first considers the theme of the lesson, then she finds resources related to that theme, and finally she creates tasks based on what her students are expected to be able to do at a certain CLB level. She said,

> So, basically, I have to plan the whole thing just based on the theme. So, usually what I'll actually do first is just trying to find resources, because you can't create an assessment task or any kind of language task if you don't have a resource. So, I'll usually try to find resources and then base the lesson on that. So, I just found a video and watched it myself, extracted vocabulary, made a couple questions up. So, that, plus figuring out what kind of language tasks that they'll do within all of that.

Robin articulated that her planning procedures have changed over the years as she gained experience and amassed a collection of previously utilized lesson plans. She said, "Before they were really detailed. And I think the more you teach, you are able to look at an agenda and say, 'okay, we're going to do A, B, and C, vocabulary work means this ...' you already have in your mind what you anticipate vocabulary work to be." She added that she regularly updates her lesson plans by adding in new activities and themes and removing those that have proven to be ineffective. Robin said that this was necessary as "each class is different. [Some] students don't like vocabulary work that way. I have to do vocabulary work a different way." She also expressed, "I know it sounds super cliché, but being a good teacher means that you go back and revamp everything for the students that you have in the moment."

Practice

This section presents the findings of Robin's observed practices as summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Summary of Robin's Observed Practices

Observed Practice	Observation 1	Observation 2
Clearly stated instructions.	O	O
Diverged from original lesson plan.	O	O
Engaged in informal interactions with students.	O	O
Included small group activities in lesson.	O	N
Introduced new vocabulary.	O	O
Addressed individual learners needs/questions.	O	O
Corrected oral/written errors.	O	O
Gave positive feedback to students.	O	O

Note. O = Observed, N = Not Observed.

The theme for both observed lessons was culture and cuisine, as chosen by the students during the needs assessment performed at the onset of the semester. Robin's most observed practices were divergence from the lesson plan, engaging in informal interactions with students, and correcting oral errors. Robin's first lesson focused predominantly on vocabulary and also included some focus on grammar and pronunciation. However, before her first lesson, Robin was unexpectedly required to attend an impromptu staff meeting, and this disrupted her prepared lesson plans. Robin said that she had to omit the reading and group writing activities she had planned and added a much more in-depth discussion regarding vocabulary. Robin explained that her decision to focus mainly on vocabulary in the first lesson was twofold in that she felt that she "lost a lot of class time" and did not want to start a new task if she might be called away again, leaving her unable to answer any questions, and she believed it was "important they understood the vocabulary well in order to get through the readings [she] was going to assign." She added,

That's kind of the good thing about my work. I don't have expectations of exact material I will get through every day. So, if I don't manage to cover it one day, I will just do it the next. I can adjust everything to what my students want or need at that specific point in time. So, if they are having a difficult time with something, we can spend more time on that to make sure they understand.

Robin's second class also diverged somewhat from her lesson plan as students had many questions regarding the meaning, pronunciation, and part of speech of many of the vocabulary items encountered in this lesson. When asked if she regularly completes her lesson plans as written, Robin expressed that she always strives to run her lessons based on the students she currently has in her classroom and will always adjust her lesson plan based on their wants and needs.

Robin often engaged in informal interactions with her students, particularly at the beginning of the class. Examples of these interactions included complimenting a student on a new hairstyle and a discussion regarding Canadian driving licenses after a student mentioned that she was going to be taking her driving test soon. These interactions demonstrate the rapport that Robin has built with her learners and that they are comfortable interacting with her. They also display Robin's interest in her students, as she asks questions about their individual lives. When asked about the motivation behind these interactions, Robin articulated that she wants her students to know that she cares about them and that it was important to her to provide a "low-pressure" classroom environment to facilitate student engagement. She said,

My classroom isn't formal at all. We can chat and joke around because those things build the relationship, right? It's low pressure. And when you have a relationship, then students are more comfortable answering questions and letting you know when they don't understand. Also, I guess I want them to know that I care about them.

In both lessons, Robin provided corrective feedback to her students, typically in the form of a recast, but only in response to their pronunciation errors regarding the target vocabulary or if an error caused a misunderstanding. Excerpt 1 provides an example of such a correction observed in the second lesson:

Excerpt 1

St: And it is named after the Mediterranean Sea which is in the area. Some Mediterranean countries are Greece, Turkey, and the is land

T: Island

St: Island, yeah. So, island of Malta. But part of France, Spain, and Italy also have Mediterranean coast... lines.

T: Coastlines, good.

Note. T = Teacher, St = Specific student.

When students' utterances contained grammatical errors but the intended message was clear, Robin did not typically provide any correction. Excerpt 2 exemplifies this:

Excerpt 2

St: Ah, but the other main is the Mediterranean cuisine is include different countries but is varied.

T: Yes, good, yeah... What were the many countries?

St: Many countries is Italy, Spain, Greece, France.

Note. T = Teacher, St = Specific student.

Robin was observed providing students with many opportunities to speak throughout both lessons, by asking for volunteers, asking questions, eliciting responses, encouraging group or pair discussions, and by making herself available to answer questions and interact outside of the assigned coursework. She provided corrections, mostly regarding pronunciation, and offered plenty of positive feedback as well.

Beyond Practice

This section presents the findings from Robin's critical reflection beyond practice and especially her perceptions of power dynamics, both within and outside her institution, and how they impact her position as a teacher at the classroom level. Robin expressed that she felt generally appreciated and supported by the department and the school but admitted that she did perceive some issues with the way certain situations were handled. She said that while she believes her compensation is fair, she does a great deal of extra work-related tasks that are unpaid because she does not receive enough scheduled time to complete them while still

making herself available for students to ask questions. These additional tasks, Robin notes, are integral to a successful, functioning classroom, and encompass duties such as lesson preparation and grading. She remarked, "I think it would be better if we were given an hour or two paid where we don't teach, where we could do all this work that's pretty important to a functioning classroom."

Robin also expressed dissatisfaction regarding her job security, as every year the department goes through a "redeployment" in the spring. She explained that during redeployment, if a teacher with more seniority loses their class, then they "push out" those with less seniority in order to receive a new class. Regarding this she said,

> When one teacher loses their job, even though they are a good teacher, because another teacher's class closes, I don't think this is fair. I don't think we are treated equally. In this way, we aren't even treated as competent teachers. We are treated like numbers: the year of our seniority date.

This was a significant point of contention for Robin as she believed there was nothing that she could do to alter this redeployment policy in any way.

Robin also mentioned that she believes more needs to be done to help differently abled students or those with mental health conditions. She said that much like teachers are treated like numbers when it comes to redeployment season as mentioned above, students are also treated like numbers when they complete their initial language assessments. She remarked,

> So, students get assessed, and they're just numbers, and they get put into your class. And sometimes they come, and you have no idea why they're there. They're super, super low [proficiency]. And then you observe, like, oh, I think this person might have a form of a learning disability.

She also described a situation where she had a student who often could not concentrate or participate in class effectively due to a mental health condition. Robin articulated that there are very few supports or services available for these individuals and that it can be difficult for her to navigate these situations as she is not trained to do so. She said,

So, we're taking all these newcomers and refugees and their first point of contact is literally an ESL class. An ESL class! Like, we don't have all those resources and if the government wants us to have all those resources, like, give them to us!

Robin expressed frustration at the number of roles she feels that she is sometimes expected to fill as a TESOL teacher as "we literally don't have time, and we don't have all of the knowledge." She said, "We can only do so much, like we are literally language teachers!"

DISCUSSION

Overall, the findings suggest that the shared influence of philosophy, principles, and theory was evident in Robin's reflections. For example, her personality traits formed the basis of her principles and beliefs, which, in turn, influenced her theories. Many of Robin's reflections across all five stages of the framework appear to intersect via two common themes: building rapport and prioritizing students' needs.

Throughout her reflective journey through the five stages of the Farrell (2015b) framework, Robin frequently referenced the importance of establishing meaningful relationships and building rapport with students. This first became apparent when Robin stated that the best part of being a teacher was "meeting people and helping them" and described how fulfilled and rewarded she felt when her students described their class as "like a family" (the main heading of this paper). Robin identified empathy as integral to facilitating the development of meaningful relationships with her students and provided an example of a scenario when a student divulged that past trauma was preventing her from participating fully in class, and how approaching this difficult situation with empathy allowed her insight into how to best assist this student. Her self-described philosophy of expressing empathy in order to build trust, coupled with her gregarious nature reflects one of her primary principles: successful language learning best occurs in a safe, positive, and informal learning environment. Further, Robin's beliefs regarding rapport-building include responding honestly when encountering questions to which she does not know the answer. She expressed that handling situations in this way "makes [her] a human" and helps to lower barriers between her and the students by establishing a

non-hierarchical dynamic within the classroom.

Robin's principles and beliefs have been shown to influence aspects of her theory. Her belief that learning best occurs in positive and informal environments is reflected in her propensity for designing student-focused group-based lessons, such as engaging in whole-class discussions and opening the floor for anyone to provide an answer or opinion. Moreover, Robin stated that she typically incorporates pair or group activities in every lesson. These activities serve to build rapport between and among students and provides Robin an opportunity to engage with students more intimately than she is able to in the larger class environment. In practice, Robin was observed building rapport with students through lighthearted informal interactions, such as jokes or compliments, and by providing positive feedback and acknowledging exceptional answers. The relationships that she has cultivated with her students are evident, as in the first lesson Robin asked a higher number of informal questions than she did questions regarding the actual lesson materials. Through critical reflection, Robin addressed power dynamics that can often be found within educational institutions and reiterated her belief that cultivating a classroom environment where students do not feel a large power imbalance is one of the first steps in developing a strong rapport.

The second major theme to emerge throughout the stages of Robin's reflections is that of prioritizing students' needs. This commitment, first discussed in her philosophy, began at an early age with a desire to help her family members and continues to shape her practice. Robin articulated that she consistently seeks opportunities to learn, both about her students and their diverse cultural backgrounds, and through professional development opportunities, as she believes this will allow her to negotiate the needs and goals of her students more effectively. Robin's assertion that considering students' needs is a core teaching principle is likely influenced by these experiences. Further, she believes that the language skills she teaches should be directly wanted and needed by her students.

These philosophies and principles align with Robin's theories of planning lessons exclusively based on students' needs and goals. This aligns with policies within her institution, such as the mandated completion of needs assessments throughout the term. However, Robin's prioritization of students' needs extends beyond those of her institution, as she stated that lesson plans should always be flexible to account for

incidental learning opportunities that often do not align with the type of class she is teaching. This provides a challenge for Robin, as she must navigate a wide range of student needs and goals while still adhering to institutional practices of separating language skills into reading/writing and listening/speaking classes. In practice, Robin demonstrated her commitment to prioritizing her students' needs over the expectations of her institution by making herself available to answer any student questions, regardless of their direct relevance to reading and writing skills. This included spending time discussing pronunciation at the request of her students. Robin further demonstrated that she emphasizes meeting the needs of students through her reflections beyond practice, where she articulated her belief that more needs to be done to assist students who require additional support systems in order to be successful language learners. Overall, it is evident throughout Robin's reflection process that prioritizing the needs and goals of students is a highly valued and integral aspect of her teaching. This is the hallmark of an expert teacher in the making (Farrell, 2013). In fact, the results of this case study suggests that Robin meets all five of Farrell's (2013) habits of expert language teachers: accommodate learners' interests yet keep learning in mind, engage in critical reflection, develop routines and strategies integrating past experiences from multiple sources, plan lessons flexibly with an eye to the "bigger picture," and be actively involved with their learners beyond the classroom.

We believe that the case study presented in this paper is a valuable account of one experienced ESL teacher's intense reflections of her practice that can benefit all in the TESOL profession as they read her journey so far through the lens of the framework for reflecting on practice. As Robin herself noted, "Talking about our profession is cathartic and reading the findings made me feel more seen and understood as [the research] put it into words that I may not have been able to find." Similar to the use of the framework in the case studies outlined in the work of Farrell and Kennedy (2019), Farrell and Avejic (2020), Farrell and Macaplinac (2021), and Farrell (2022), we took a deductive approach to reflecting on practice by encouraging Robin to reflect from a theory-into-practice and beyond mode, or starting from Stage/Level 1, philosophy, through the different stages to Stage/Level 5, beyond practice. This was mostly because of convenience due to Robin's teaching schedule, but it also seemed to ease Robin into the reflective process rather that jump directly into her classroom teaching reflections

as suggested for more experienced teachers (e.g., Farrell & Avejic, 2020).

The purpose of encouraging ESL teachers to reflect on their practice is *not to look for best practice*; rather it is to get a holistic view of oneself as a TESOL professional. As Fanselow (1988) has noted, "Each of us [teachers] needs to construct, reconstruct, and revise our own teaching" (p. 116). We believe that the five-stage holistic framework we used as a lens for Robin to reflect provided Robin with details about her philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice critical reflection that helped her become more aware of herself as an ESL teacher. At the end of Robin's reflective journey, through the lens of the framework, we presented Robin with our findings above for her to reflect on her reflections and suggested that "without that challenge I guess I wouldn't truly be able to reflect." However, she also noted the benefits of such holistic reflections. She said that she realized that her own reflections as a teacher and the findings align with what "I have always thought to be true, which is that I put my learners' and their needs first. So, I am happy that through this process it is quite clear that my beliefs do align with my practice."

CONCLUSIONS

This study outlined and discussed the reflections of one TESOL teacher as she progressed through Farrell's (2015b) five stages of reflective practice: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice. The findings suggest that Robin's stated philosophy, principles, and theory are consistent with her practice and her reflections beyond practice, and that she prioritizes her students' needs above her own. Though generalization is always difficult from such a case study, as it has obvious limitations, such as the small sample size (one teacher), the short duration of data collection, and the inability to observe teacher practices in-person, we believe that readers may find much of Robin's reflections have relevance for their own context, practices, and reflections. We agree with Fanselow (1988) when he noted, "Here I am with my lens to look at you and your actions. But as I look at you with my lens, I consider you a mirror; I hope to see myself in you and through your teaching.... Seeing you allows me to see myself differently and to explore variables we both use" (p. 115). Indeed, in reading this

case study, we believe that many language teachers may be encouraged not only to engage in their own holistic reflections but are encouraged to see how one teacher is enjoying her teaching career. By engaging in such holistic reflections, TESOL teachers are able to construct and adjust their personal beliefs and practices to better provide optimal learning conditions for students within their classrooms. We leave the last words to Robin:

> Having the opportunity to reflect on ourselves as language teachers and our practice allows us to gain a better perspective of what we do, how we do it, and why we do it. If we want to evolve and grow as teachers, then reflection is necessary. If we want to stay stagnant and move through our practice on autopilot, then reflection isn't necessary, but this is a disservice to students − and if we aren't doing what we do for our students, then we have a major problem.

THE AUTHORS

Thomas S. C. Farrell is a professor of applied linguistics at Brock University, Canada. Professor Farrell's professional interests include reflective practice and language teacher education. Professor Farrell has published widely and has presented at major conferences worldwide on these topics. A selection of his work can be found on his webpage: www.reflectiveinquiry.ca

Nicholas Moses has an MA in applied linguistics from Brock University and is currently a freelance ESL teacher.

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Research Papers

Teacher Efficacy Development Among Pre-Service Teachers, Implications for the Korean Context and KOTESOL

Sun Young Park

Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center, Monterey, CA, USA

As teachers' beliefs and dispositions have a significant effect on teachers' instructional practices and their learning environment, teacher efficacy − the teacher's belief in their capabilities to plan and complete a course of action in order to achieve specific teaching goals in a particular situation − exerts a powerful influence on educational success or failure (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The current report summarizes the perceptions of teacher efficacy in nine diverse teachers in pre-service training at a U.S. foreign language higher education institute, sharing the outcomes of one focus group of a preliminary study (Park, 2022). The study found that teacher training adopting situated, adult learning is highly associated with the development of teacher efficacy in diverse pre-service teachers, and the factors impacting the development in teacher efficacy included mentor support, peer collaboration, peer observation, and real-life application through practicums (Park, 2022). Situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) focuses on how individuals learn and build mutual meaning as part of a community of practice as it relates to daily practices and social interactions in an authentic environment, opposed to solely in a classroom. The findings are discussed with regard to Korean ELT, where many pre-service/novice teachers may lack teacher efficacy, and how teacher language associations like KOTESOL can provide additional support to foster new and novice teacher efficacy.

Keywords: teacher efficacy, teacher identity, situated learning, a community of practice, teacher training, school climate

INTRODUCTION

Numerous research studies have advocated that the teacher is one key factor positively impacting student learning and school improvement (Berkant & Baysal, 2018; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Dunn et al., 2019; Novozhenin & López Pinzón, 2018). Teacher efficacy, one's belief in their competence, is one of the critical attributes that competent, successful teachers exhibit (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Efficacious teachers play a crucial role in influencing learning progress, increasing motivation and interest, and developing competencies in students to thrive in a complex, fast-paced real world (Al-Seghayer, 2017; Bernhardt, 2015). Literature supports correlations among teacher efficacy, teacher effectiveness, student performance, and teacher training (Pajares, 2002; Yough, 2019; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Notably, novice teachers who undergo shifts in teaching beliefs, values, culture, experiences, and practices necessitate heightened teacher efficacy (Horwitz, 1987) because an efficacy belief assists them in navigating through challenging processes and in reshaping their teaching identity in a new circumstance (Jungert et al., 2019; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Despite the increasing interest in teacher efficacy, little effort has been invested in investigating the development of teacher efficacy in language teachers who step into a new teaching environment.

This report attempts to review and highlight the perceived change in teacher efficacy and critical factors impacting the change in teachers who enter a new school based on qualitative data generated by means of semi-structured interviews and reflective journal entries. The research topic is important because it helps better fathom how teachers experience transformative processes and grow as teaching professionals in relation to teacher efficacy in a new context and reveals crucial factors nurturing teacher efficacy in diverse teacher training. A full understanding of how teacher efficacy develops and evolves in teacher training provides the institutional stakeholders with insightful information on how to cultivate a supportive community of practice that empowers teachers and students in the 21st century.

BACKGROUND

Teacher Efficacy in the 21st Century

As teachers face a myriad of challenges and demands in a complex and fast-paced 21st century educational environment, education currently places great emphasis on the empowerment of teachers with higher levels of teacher efficacy (Yoo, 2016). Teacher efficacy that affects teachers' attitudes and instructional approaches (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) is highly associated with a selection of instructional activities, performance, perseverance, teaching efforts, accomplishment, and self-regulation (Hoizberger et al., 2013; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Efficacious teachers are prone to experiment with state-of-the-art teaching methods they learned from teacher training, exercise self-regulation and self-reflection, and accommodate diverse students (Kim & Seo, 2018). Thus, educational entities strive to offer teacher training courses that infuse not only pedagogical and technological competence but also instill teacher efficacy in face of a rapidly changing educational landscape.

Dimensions of Teacher Efficacy

The dimensions of teacher efficacy entail student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). The interconnected dimensions of teacher efficacy conceptualize teacher beliefs about their competence in the classroom. First, efficacious teachers have a proclivity to increase student engagement by implementing various learning activities, motivating and provoking students' interests, involving students in critical thinking and problem-solving, and promoting peer collaboration (Choi et al., 2019). Second, teacher efficacy is also positively correlated with instructional practices (Alibakhashi et al., 2020; Graham et al., 2001). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy show openness to new ideas and exhibit a willingness to employ innovative instructional practices (Alibakhashi et al., 2020; Rubie-Davies, 2008) to bring about changes in students' learning. Third, class management is another dimension of teacher efficacy. Highly efficacious teachers cultivate a well-organized, optimal learning environment in which meaningfully challenging learning coupled with emotional support is highly cultivated (Tschannen-Moran &

Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teachers with heightened efficacy who can demonstrate systematic, organized, democratic, and learner-centered classroom management skills have clear expectations and standards for student learning and maintain students' attention and behavior on task.

Sources of Teacher Efficacy

As teacher efficacy does not emerge automatically (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2002), it is essential to understand how teacher efficacy develops and evolves. Four sources that influence teacher efficacy are mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states (Bandura, 1997). Mastery experience – teachers' experiences of students' success or failure – is the most impactful source of teacher efficacy (Watson & Marschall, 2019). Vicarious experience, learning from observing others' behaviors and modeling others' successes, is a second source of building teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Clark & Newberry, 2019). Observing other teachers successfully and unsuccessfully experiment with challenging tasks has a significant impact on the development of teacher efficacy. Verbal persuasion from mentors and peers such as positive enforcement, encouragement, and interpersonal support impacts a person's belief that they possess the capabilities to attain the desired goal, leading to the enhancement of teacher efficacy (Arslan, 2019; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Physiological and emotional states such as high anxiety, fatigue, and depression are negatively associated with teachers' beliefs and judgment of their capabilities. These negative beliefs and states can weaken teacher efficacy and subsequent teaching performance, whereas strong support from their schools, collaboration with colleagues, engagement in decision-making processes, and their internal physiological efficacy increase teacher efficacy (Voelkel & Chrispeels, 2017). A considerable number of research studies have suggested that mastery experience is the main source of teacher efficacy in seasoned teachers, whereas verbal persuasion is primary in novice teachers (Bandura, 1997; Fives & Buehl, 2010; Pianta et al., 2012; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001).

Teacher Efficacy in Pre-Service Training

As research studies have shown that teacher training in a collaborative culture is positively associated with teacher efficacy (Liu & Lia, 2019; Powell & Bodur, 2019), pre-service training can be an excellent approach to nurture teacher efficacy in teachers who enter a new community of practice. The U.S. educational system allows school leaders and administrators to select a design and delivery of teacher education based on their context because institute-based, situated training is more likely to address the needs and expectations of diverse educators (Vescio et al., 2008). However, teacher training has often been labeled as a superficial, monolithic, and fragmented event that does not facilitate transformation in teachers (Khumalo, 2019; Newman & Cunningham, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009; Yenen & Yöntem, 2020). Pre-service teachers often feel inadequate and ineffective to cope with a specific situation when they do not have corresponding knowledge, skills, beliefs, and values in regard to a particular community of practice (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Yough, 2019), leading to lower teacher efficacy. Since teacher efficacy as a strong indicator of pre-service teachers' success in their career is acquired early on and takes time to alter, a failure to develop teacher efficacy in pre-service and new teachers results in detrimental consequences on teacher performance, student learning, and school reform (Demirel, 2017; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

PURPOSE

Teachers are prone to exhibit lower levels of teacher efficacy in a new educational setting (Gundel et al., 2019; Lave & Wenger, 1991) because the new context requires them to form a different teaching identity in light of teaching beliefs, attitudes, pedagogy, culture, language (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Yough, 2019), content delivery (Smothers et al., 2020), and digital use (Kebritchi et al., 2017). Teachers with lower efficacy have difficulty utilizing innovative pedagogical and technological strategies (Barton & Dexter, 2019), adapting to a constantly changing instructional environment, and managing stress and burnout (Kim & Burić, 2020; Zee & Koomen, 2016). As teacher efficacy – a strong indicator of teachers' success (Demirel, 2017; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) – is shaped and established in one's early teaching

career, it is crucial for school leaders to gain a good understanding of how task- and context-specific teacher efficacy evolves and to strive to build teacher efficacy in pre-service teachers who step into a new community of practice (Çankaya, 2018). However, due to a dearth of qualitative research studies on the perceived changes of a malleable teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1977) in diverse teachers in a new educational setting, insights gleaned from further research in this area would enable school leaders, teacher trainers, and teachers to revisit existing pre-service training and make necessary changes adaptable and efficacious to the changing political, social, and educational contexts in the 21st century (Sprott, 2019).

PROCEDURE

The researcher recruited nine language teachers attending pre-service training whose target language was Korean, Chinese, or Farsi. They held an MA or PhD with teaching experience ranging from K−12 to university. The qualitative approach employed two data collection methods, viz., semi-structured interviews and reflective journals. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gain insights into feelings, opinions, and experiences of pre-service teachers, to exploit a complex phenomenon in a natural and authentic context, and to investigate emerging themes in depth (Cohen et al., 2007; Kvale, 2003; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The interviews were conducted twice with a three-week gap, once at the beginning and once at the end of pre-service training to exploit a complex phenomenon in a natural and authentic context and to investigate emerging themes in depth (Cohen et al., 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Another data collection strategy, reflective journal entries, enabled the researcher to collect unobtrusive and descriptive information in relation to choices the teacher participants made to improve pedagogical decisions and feelings they had on their performance (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Shanmugavelu et al., 2020; Zein, 2017). Using these data collection methods, the researcher probed into how diverse teachers perceive a change in teacher efficacy as a result of the situated pre-service training and significant factors influencing their perceived change. Recorded and transcribed interviews using the Otter.ai service along with collected reflective journals were transported into NVivo software to identify emerging themes and patterns. Seven

emerging themes related to the perceptions of teacher efficacy in pre-service teachers were identified, and five themes were categorized as main contributing factors to the perceived change.

RESULTS

Most of the teacher participants reported an increase in three dimensions of teacher efficacy: student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management. Seven emerging themes were identified in the perceived change of teacher efficacy in diverse pre-service teachers as a result of the situated pre-service training: connecting to the school climate; conducting learner-centered instruction; developing job-relevant, authentic teaching materials; expanding instructional strategies; incorporating critical and creative thinking skills; maintaining target language (TL) use; and creating a positive adult learning environment. Most notably, 78% of the teacher participants expressed that the acquisition of the school climate including school systems, functions, curriculum, goals and vision, student profiles, and teacher responsibilities resulted in the enhancement of teacher confidence and competence. The teacher participants also expressed their acquisition and implementation of various teaching approaches reflecting that school teaching philosophy and practices played a role in increasing teacher efficacy.

The teacher participants had opportunities to adopt and practice instructional approaches such as student-centeredness, incorporation of critical and creative thinking skills, the selection of authentic materials, and the maximal use of the target language during the pre-service training practicums. For example, most of the teacher participants remarked that attainment on a wide array of strategies and techniques addressing student variables (i.e., likes and dislikes, learning styles, strengths, weaknesses, etc.) and facilitating student collaboration made them feel more confident as a teacher. Also, their capabilities in developing real-life relevant and job-related materials followed by witnessing student active engagement reportedly boosted teacher efficacy. Seventy-eight percent (78%) of teacher participants reported that they were able to learn a variety of effective strategies and techniques to assess student learning, create good questions, utilize alternative explanations, and integrate instructional technology, resulting in their increased teacher efficacy. Seventy-eight percent (78%) of teacher

participants also reported their confidence in enhancing student learning by creating questions that required thinking skills. The importance of the use of the target language emerged due to their actual teaching experience through the practicum session. Sixty-seven percent (67%) of the teacher participants expressed the importance of providing TL exposure to students in class and their increased confidence in maintaining the maximum use of the TL. Lastly, 100% of the teacher participants claimed enhanced confidence in managing a new learning environment. Getting familiar with students and being informed of school norms and rules assisted them in creating a democratic and supportive learning environment.

Each educational entity has its own culture and climate, reflecting shared values, norms, goals, resources, and practices in which teachers' practices are situated. The school climate – a critical environmental factor in "human personal development, adaptation, and change" (Bandura, 2002, p. 71) – plays a vital role for teachers to carry out work and improve their practice addressing learning goals and visions (Vangrieken et al., 2017). Therefore, when pre-service/novice teachers engage in a socially situated learning process with its members (Griffin, 1995; Kucuk, 2018), context-specific and task-specific teacher efficacy develops within the context of the climate of the school in which they practice their teaching (Min, 2019).

The researcher also presented five themes in terms of factors impacting change in teacher efficacy in pre-service training: mentor support, collaboration with peers, observation on peer teaching, real-life application reflecting the school context, and a diverse community of practice in pre-service training. One-hundred percent (100%) of the teacher participants attributed their increased teacher efficacy to feedback and support from teacher trainers as mentors. Mentoring, positive reinforcement and interpersonal support from mentors, is positively associated with teacher efficacy (Arslan, 2019; Clark & Newberry, 2019; Watson & Marschall, 2019). Guidance from more experienced or competent teachers is conducive to enhancing teacher efficacy and performance in novice teachers (Hamman et al., 2006; Jungert et al., 2019). The literature postulates that feedback from more experienced mentors – verbal persuasion – is one of the four sources of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Seventy-eight percent (78%) of the teacher participants stated that working in collaboration with peers improved teacher efficacy. While

engaging in hands-on, problem-solving activities in collaboration with other pre-service teachers, teacher participants had opportunities to share different ideas, perspectives, and opinions with one another. A growing body of research has evidenced that teacher training in a collaborative culture is positively correlated with teacher efficacy (Lakshmanan et al., 2011; Liu & Lia, 2019; Powell & Bodur, 2019; Voelkel & Chrispeels, 2017). Fifty-six percent (56%) of the teacher participants claimed that observing peer teaching facilitated teacher efficacy. They stated that it was helpful to observe how certain instructional activities, strategies, and techniques were designed and implemented with success and how interactions between the students and teacher in actual classes proceeded. The literature states that peer observation is one of the four sources that influence teacher efficacy − vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1997).

Learning from observing others' behaviors and modeling others' successes contributes to building teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Clark & Newberry, 2019). Eighty-nine percent (89%) of the teacher participants reported that applying what they had learned from hands-on activities to actual classroom-based practicums with students improved their teacher efficacy. When teachers have a successful experience in experimenting with new instructional strategies in practice, their teacher efficacy to accomplish goals will increase (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Voelkel & Chrispeels, 2017). Seventy-eight percent (78%) of the teacher participants claimed that pre-service experience enabled them to gain a better understanding of the school climate and culture, to change their perspectives pertinent to teaching and learning process, and to align their teaching values and practice to the teaching philosophy and principles, leading to boosting teacher efficacy. As teacher efficacy can be translated into different connotations through lenses of cultural perspectives, a structural context, and a goal orientation in teacher training (Lin et al., 2002), diverse pre-service teachers in a new school environment experienced the desired transformation while interacting with other cultures (i.e., those of peer pre-service teachers, mentors, students, etc.) in a community of practice.

IMPLICATIONS FOR KOREAN ELT

The findings have relevant implications for the Korean context for new and novice K−12 teachers completing government-sponsored

English language teaching (ELT) programs (e.g., English Program in Korea, EPIK), commercial teach-English-in-Korea programs (e.g., Gone2Korea), and those employed through commercial higher education jobs boards (e.g., ESLROK) that often offer limited training and/or orientations to teachers that are frequently new to ELT and/or possess little familiarity with Korean K−12 or university education. Therefore, novice teachers new to teaching in Korea can benefit from coaching, mentoring, positive reinforcement, encouragement, and interpersonal support from peers and mentors to develop their teacher efficacy. At some level, these teachers can be understood as akin to the pre-service teachers in the study (i.e., individuals with some form of training but new to an educational setting). In most traditional ELT teacher training programs (i.e., pre-service training contexts), there are classroom practicum requirements in addition to coursework, which are also supported by face-to-face interaction and reflection with peers.

Novice teachers in Korean ELT do not necessarily benefit from robust pre-service training (i.e., Korean ELT programs and/or job site training) that adopts a situated, adult learning framework to foster the development of teacher efficacy among diverse teacher groups (i.e., Korean ELT teachers come from a variety of backgrounds). Macro-educational and ELT policy in the Korean context, like any other, is informed by complex national factors and change is imposed top-down. Meso-educational policies in auxiliary ELT programs, like EPIK, and commercial teach-English-in-Korea programs like, Gone2Korea, also experience change governed by broad top-down factors. However, micro-level policy forces are accessible for change. This is where the agency of language teacher associations, like KOTESOL, can establish micro-level ELT initiatives to develop teacher efficacy by going beyond the existing peer collaboration provided to promote and implement association programs and workshops that offer novice teachers in Korean ELT situated learning through elective mentor support, peer observation, and application through practicums.

Novice teachers would likely value the opportunity to participate in an elective mentor program where they are matched with a volunteer KOTESOL member in the same chapter that provides support on issues from instructional practices, classroom management, time management, and professional development. This type of program is modeled in TESOL International's Leadership Mentoring Program (LMP; tesol.org), which helps members become more involved in the association by

pairing up nominated individuals with TESOL leaders for mentorship for a year. The American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (actfl.org) offers the ACTFL Mentoring Program specifically to assist early career language teachers with support from a mentor to learn the skills to be successful in their current and future jobs. A similar program could be developed and offered to KOTESOL members who are new to Korean ELT to receive strong support from collaboration with colleagues and engagement in decision-making processes to build their internal physiological efficacy. With mentorship, the process of stepping into a new community of practice can be facilitated.

Peer observation and adapted real-life application through practicums may appear less feasible, as KOTESOL members new to Korean ELT most often work in different locations and obtaining permission to enter another school's classroom is slim to none. However, peer observation sessions or a peer observation workshop can be offered as part of the elective mentorship program, where teachers record themselves in the classroom, with school site permission, and the classroom recording can be reviewed and discussed together with the assigned mentor. Concerns of student privacy can be overcome by directing the camera to a position in the classroom where the teacher is primarily positioned. Time when the teacher may be out of view does not pose much of an issue, as this would likely be intermittent and the teacher's instructional practice will still be understood for discussion with the assigned mentor. If a recording is not permissible, the teacher can immediately reflect on their delivery of the lesson, taking notes of what went well, what did not go as planned, and areas of desired development to be discussed with the assigned mentor at a later time. The value of peer observation during practicums in pre-service teacher training programs is the trainee's reflection on their practice and the dialogue that emerges with the mentor, which informs the trainee's next teaching opportunity. This cyclical process over time provides the trainee the support of an experienced teacher to develop a more effective instructional practice and develop teacher efficacy. This same outcome can be achieved through the above alternatives to traditional peer observation and practicums.

Reflection also provides teachers with opportunities to raise self-awareness, delve into analysis of their own teaching, and enhance professional development (Chiang, 2008). Research studies indicate that reflection on classroom-based experiences assists pre-service/novice teachers to increase teacher efficacy (Chiang, 2008; Travil, 2014).

Teacher training, even informal training provided by language teacher associations, should incorporate and model systematic reflective practice to advance teacher efficacy in novice Korean ELT teachers and help them develop effective instructional strategies (Tavil, 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

This report briefly summarized perceptions of teacher efficacy in pre-service teachers and the main factors impacting any change in their perception of teacher efficacy. The researcher illustrated that teachers initially experienced difficulties in aligning their teaching identities to the institutional visions and goals, but situated, customized pre-service training had a positive influence on the development of teacher efficacy in diverse pre-service teachers. The acculturation into a school climate and acquisition of knowledge and skills in the areas of instruction, curriculum, and assessment enabled pre-service teachers to increase teacher efficacy. Also, various contributing factors increased teacher efficacy in the situated pre-service training, as identified in previous studies (Bandura, 1997, Lave & Wenger, 1991; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) including enactive mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and physiological and affective states in a community of practice. Efficacious teachers who have capabilities in shifting attitudes and approaches to ever-evolving educational demands in a new community of practice are the most important key in higher education classrooms (Emery et al., 2021), but failure to develop and enhance teacher efficacy in early career teaching professionals can be detrimental to teacher effectiveness, student achievement, and school improvement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Overall, situated, customized pre-service training reflecting the institutional culture, climate context, and practice fosters teacher efficacy in pre-service teachers and, in turn, causes positive changes in diverse pre-service teachers in the dimensions of learner engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management (Iyer & Reese, 2013). KOTESOL can support the development of efficacious teachers who have capabilities in shifting attitudes and approaches to ever-evolving educational demands in their new community of practice (e.g., Korean ELT).

THE AUTHOR

Sun Young Park is a faculty development specialist at the Defense Language Institute's Foreign Language Center (USA), where she has been designing, developing, and conducting pre-service and in-service training for over 19 years. Her interests include curriculum design, intercultural communication, motivation and autonomy, and professional development. Email: sun.young.park@dliflc.edu

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Using Self-Determination Theory to Examine Motivations of Korean EFL College Students Informed by Korean Studies

Nicolas E. Caballero and Meghan Yu
Yeonsung University, Anyang, Korea

Using self-determination theory and insights from research in the field of Korean studies, 155 college-level Korean EFL students were surveyed to ascertain the motivations they had for academic success in their English language studies. While the results showed that the introjected regulations played a big part, the majority of the students reported their motivation was more internal than external. Despite the instrumentality of English competency on a social level, the students' reported motivation was centered much more on their own inclinations for self-development.

Keywords: motivation, EFL learners, college teaching, self-determination theory, Korean studies

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, some of the most persistent questions that educators have faced were those of motivation: What makes the student crave learning? How does one cultivate the desire to learn? What motivates a learner from within? The way that educators understand motivation has undergone multiple pivotal changes throughout the history of motivation studies. Initial observations by early psychologists showed that people were motivated to act when reinforced by rewards (O'Hara, 2017). This understanding of the effects of external rewards explains what we now recognize as one type of extrinsic motivation existing within a more precise scope of motivation revealed by later studies.

It is the educators who most heavily feel the need to understand and harness the enigmatic drivers of motivation, particularly those of their students. This want and necessity is perhaps most persistent in the field

of foreign language education, where students' motivations to learn can be the ficklest. One country that struggles notably with this requirement is South Korea, a nation staunchly determined to acquire English proficiency and global relevance.

As researchers have continued to study and understand motivation, new definitions and theories have emerged. Psycholinguist Zoltan Dornyeï (1994) defined motivation as "motors" of human behavior by focusing on concepts such as instinct, drive, arousal, and need. This definition went deeper than the prior rewards-based behaviorist model by examining the more cognitive features of motivation. The development and evolution of these concepts on motivation led to the birth of the pertinent self-determination theory (SDT), which focuses on novelty and how "actions are more naturalistically organized" as well as the social aspects of motivation that interact with the reward system established by previous theories (Ryan & Deci, 2019). Based on this interplay between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, a large number of studies have emerged. These studies focused on ascertaining where people's self-reported individual drivers lie on a kind of continuum, along with explanations for being on one side or the other (Tuan et al., 2005).

SDT posits that motivational processes occur within an individual and, while intrinsic motivation is concerned with a "self" based on drives toward integration (Deci & Ryan, 1991), extrinsic motivation involves instrumental regulations on behavior that vary from context to context. The social aspect of extrinsic motivation is of importance to this study. Deci and Ryan (2000a) stated that "understanding these different types of extrinsic motivation, and what fosters them, is an important issue for educators who cannot always rely on intrinsic motivation to foster learning" (p. 55). If intrinsic motivation is present, favorable outcomes can be expected, but extrinsic motivation plays a big role in education, and the push for a learner to be successful may differ in how it originates, based on social and cultural contexts.

The authors of this study were inspired to wonder about the motivation of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. This is because the authors have observed, on multiple occasions, the vacuous lack of interest from their own students. While many of the above-mentioned studies have broadly covered motivation in the realm of learning due to the aid of teachers worldwide, an area that has yet to be deeply explored, especially in globally accessible English, is the motivation of Korean students, and especially Korea's EFL students.

Although some studies written in both Korean and English have examined Korean EFL students' motivations, their focus and the focus of this study are notably different.

This study focused on Korean university students studying EFL through the lens of SDT. Based on various constructs utilized by SDT, we examined the self-reported individual drivers of the participating students to form an understanding of how motivation works in the Korean EFL context. The interest of this study was capturing where the participating university students fall on the aforementioned continuum and what can be interpreted and applied by teachers in accordance with the current state of EFL teaching in South Korea.

PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

In this study, the motivational scores of EFL Korean College students were calculated and interpreted using an SDT framework to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. Does the social environment of English education for Korean EFL college students cause primarily introjected regulations for learning English?

RQ2. Do our participants reflect pre-established ideas (i.e., history and social conditions) on Korean EFL drivers and motivations in accordance with organismic integration theory and desire for English language competency?

The mean scores of the data allowed the authors to look at subconstructs of SDT to ascertain whether or not they followed the concepts informed by the discipline of Korean studies.

ENGLISH EDUCATION IN SOUTH KOREA

Foreign language education in Korea is as old as rice wine, older in fact. Since the Korean language did not have its own writing system until the mid-1400s, the widely used Chinese characters were adopted to write Korean from as early as the Three Kingdoms period of Korea (18 BCE – 935 CE), thereby prompting a closer relationship with China and

the vigorous study of Chinese language (Lee, 2015). The subsequent Goryeo Dynasty continued to emphasize foreign language study by training and socially elevating over 1,200 translators. By the end of the following Joseon Dynasty, Western languages were being added to the study lists as both political and educational reforms were taking place. English, German, and French language education began even before the fall of the Joseon Dynasty (Lee, 2015). With them came the rise of private schools, as well as the spread of ideas and presumptions associated with private language education that persist even today (Lee, 2011).

English became a permanent and dominant fixture of Korean education in the post-war economic growth period of the 1970s. It was in the middle of their "compressed development," known as the "Miracle on the Han," when Korea transformed itself from one of the poorest nations on Earth to one of the wealthiest in just about 35 years (Whittaker et al., 2007). This was a time when politically sharp leaders sought public support by appealing to the sense of global competitive pressure felt by most of the country at the time (Chung, 2011). When President Park Chung Hee mandated that every middle and high school would offer English as a mandatory subject taught for five hours a week, it was considered by most Koreas to be one of many essential steps toward an economically stable future (Lee, 2015).

Decades later, President Lee Myung Bak also hoped to use English to advance Korea's global standing. He proposed an "English Immersion Education" policy for high schoolers that would have had every class taught in English to promote faster English competency (Lee, 2015). President Lee's rhetoric on the positionality of English, underpinned by a doxic knowledge of the world as a battlefield and English as a key weapon for success, reflects the much deeper socio-historical desires and conditions that South Korea has internalized throughout its modernization (Lee et al., 2010) and still today.

However, despite its role in Korea's economic advancement, English education was no equalizer between the classes. As it had been in the Joseon Dynasty, English competency quickly became, and still is, a measurable signifier of economic status and a badge of wealth. As the public schools began to offer more and more English classes, the affluent flaunted their expendable income via private lessons and extracurricular study schools. It was the blossoming of the shadow education market wherein supplementary lessons were provided, at a great cost to parents,

outside of normal school (Lee, 2011). A recent Ministry of Education (2020) report shows South Koreans spent 6.14 trillion Korean won on English education for school-age children alone in 2019. A large portion of this spending has gone directly into the shadow education market, which some now view as a necessary component of an adequate education (Lee, 2005) essential to the individual success of students (Lee, 2011).

One of the other significant detrimental effects of shadow education is its contribution to inequality. While it was meant to be an equalizer, shadow education is now a reproducer and reinforcer of inequality (Lee, 2011), creating a wide gap between those affluent enough to afford it and those who are not. This means that one who has not received any shadow education could be quickly and easily sussed out as a poor boy from a poor family.

This obvious delineation helped to enforce a long-standing hierarchy within Korean society. According to the East Asian version of social Darwinism, as discussed by Liang Ch'I-Ch'ao and Kato Hiroyuki (Park, 2005, p. 75), national and racial competition at the level of civilization, meaning competition between nations, will only intensify over resources. In order for a nation and people to survive and win, the ignorant common people's absolute obedience to the competitive upper-class people (i.e., the nobility and the rulers) is an absolute prerequisite (Park, 2005, p. 75). This means that one's English ability gives insight into one's economic status, upbringing, overall education, and even social circles. Their English level would, based on these concepts, allow them to command a greater overall respect and attention from others. The English competent would have earned their seat at the table while those who had not would have a duty to follow them according to these values.

As evidence for this notion, a study on South Korean's motivations to learn English (Bacon & Kim, 2018) found that many participants were inspired by performative goals such as learning English to display employability, accommodate international visitors and native speakers, and satisfy parental expectations. Even in relation to other native Korean speakers, the participants wished to display educational and professional competitiveness by leveraging their English abilities to an audience of peers in relation to their own self-image.

One might think that such an omnipresent burden would lead to resentment among the learners of English in South Korea, but in truth,

the average Korean's relationship to their unofficial second language is much more complex. While it is true that there are some Koreans who harbor resentment towards the English language (T. Y. Kim, 2010), it may also be surprising to know that many genuinely enjoy learning English. Others still consider English to be their "golden ticket" to a life outside of Korea and a means to a broader integration with an imagined global community.

With such a complex relationship and history, the web that combines all of the issues surrounding English points to an aspect of instrumentality. It also generates a further complex expectation of external rewards from English competency, that is, competitiveness in the job market, higher social status, and even pride in oneself for doing well on behalf of the country (Lee et al., 2010). If political authority, society at large, authority within the nuclear family (i.e., parents), and public image are all potential motivating factors to learn English, that may leave little room for competence and autonomy (2 out of the 3 basic needs for fostering intrinsic motivation). This, in turn, leaves less room for a learner to integrate such a complex and pressured acumen into the "self" to foster internal development.

MOTIVATIONAL CONSTRUCTS OF SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Ryan and Deci, the creators of SDT, describe certain types of social and psychological cognitive theories that explain how a learner's desire to self-regulate their own learning processes is based on their social support systems and how they develop their own knowledge (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). SDT is a macro theory of motivation that has many subcategories to explain specific aspects of motivation as it pertains to learning.

There are five sub-categories of SDT, each of which serves to explain specific aspects of motivation as it pertains to learning. Those categories are Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), which concerns variability in *intrinsic motivation*; Organismic Integration Theory (OIT), which addresses *extrinsic motivation* in all its various forms; Causality Orientations Theory (COT), which involves people's tendencies to orient to environments and adapt their behavior in various ways; Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), which expands on the concept of

evolved psychological needs and their relations to optimal functioning and autonomy; and finally, Goal Contents Theory (GCT), which distinguishes between *intrinsic and extrinsic goals* and their impact on motivation (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Self-Determination Continuum

The Self-Determination Continuum Showing Types of Motivation With Their Regulatory Styles, Loci of Causality, and Corresponding Processes
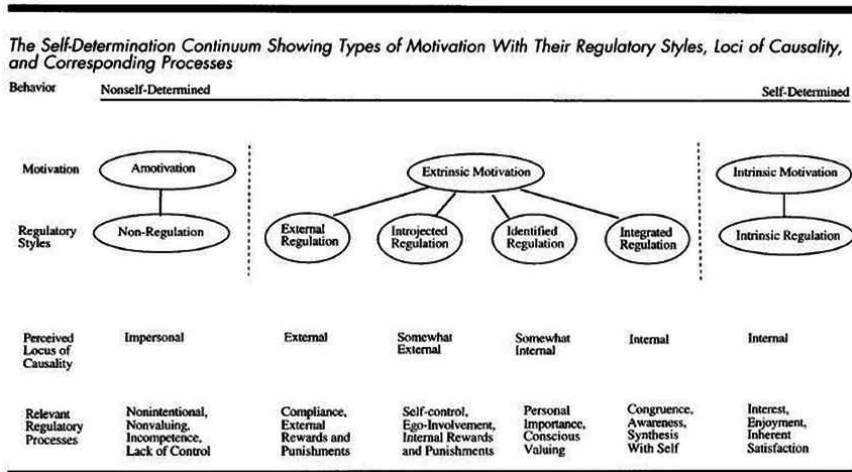
Note. From Ryan and Deci, 2000a.

Each of these sub-theories creates a multifaceted view of "motivationally based phenomena" (CSDT, n.d.). These sub-theories work together to create a complete profile of motivation based on decades of psychological research. CET tells us that perceived competence must be felt in tandem with a sense of autonomy (Deci et al., 1982), or to put it another way, when one tasks oneself to act, an assessment is made of their capabilities and resources based on their sense of volition and perception of self. These aspects of motivational phenomena exist within the individual's extending sense of self-as-process, or the self as a set of values, ideas, and interests that will develop and become aligned with the outside world to create meaning in one's life, which can be affected by assimilating to any given social environment (Ryan & Brown, 2003). We are always developing and the process of the self, or identity, is constantly changing. We can see this in ourselves when we look back on our successes or failures.

If a learner is in an environment present with autonomy,

competence, and relatedness, as explained in the BPNT established by Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 2000b; Ryan & Deci, 2000b), then that learner has the "nutriments" for well-being and optimal development. To clarify further, pursuits typically require great effort to be carried out, and to champion this effort most people require a feeling of agency in their own decisions, a belief in their ability to tackle hardships that may arise, and a camaraderie with those most important to us in executing those decisions. If these needs cannot be met, difficulty arises in continuing the pursuits in the face of adversity. According to COT, this leads behavior to be directed based on the growth-oriented mechanisms of interest (i.e., autonomy orientation), rewards or approval (i.e., control orientation), or having diffuse-avoidant behaviors and feelings of uncertainty about personal ability (i.e., amotivation orientation; Soenens et al., 2005). Whether a learner is oriented toward a specific learning behavior depends on what the basis of the orientation is.

These orientations can give a motivational researcher insight into levels of autonomy in motivated regulatory behaviors. OIT explains these regulations on behavior in a type of autonomy continuum that ranges from an extrinsic regulation based on external rewards to an integrated regulation of motivated behavior in which behavior is "self-endorsed" and is aligned with other self-endorsed values (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2011). In this way, motivation involves how we make our own guidelines or controls for our efforts and how free we are to act based on interest in our own well-being rather than desire for external rewards. On the controlled or less autonomous side of the continuum, there is an introjected regulation. This regulation refers to internalizing a value from one's social environment, sometimes at the cost of the harmony of psychological functioning due to actions being motivated by feelings of obligation and seeking approval (Gillison et al., 2009). Nie et al. (2014) found that the more autonomy given to workers, the more they felt compelled to not disappoint their superiors. As a result, the self-administered pressure sometimes can lead to negative psychological consequences. This shows that there can be negative effects such as challenges and internal struggles that can arise when internalizing values from external environments throughout the self-as-process development.

Our study acknowledges that educators in a variety of fields have repeatedly voiced the importance of recognizing levels of motivation in students in order to facilitate more autonomous learning environments (Munoz et al., 2020). While the entire structure of SDT is beneficial to

understanding motivation as a concept, to examine the motivation of Korean EFL students, this study only utilized the two sub-categories of OIT and the basic needs hypothesis. These two sub-theories, being so intertwined, created a framework to situate the analysis of extrinsic motivation in this study. One may wonder about the impact of cultural values on BPNT as each culture is different. In fact, Chen et al. (2015) found that to some degree, variations in "roles of value" exist between different cultures as well as in the cultural influence of promoting learner autonomy (Hu & Zhang, 2017). However, BPNT is a universal psychological process of a learner's development. For a well-rounded view of motivation pertaining to this study, not only an adequate motivational framework but also a view of the socio-cultural features of English education in Korea will resourcefully inform this study. Therefore, SDT presents a method of investigating the complex interplay of acquiring English as a foreign language.

Literature Review of SDT in the South Korean Context

The primary research in motivational studies involved investigators looking at students' attitudes and motivations following a socio-educational model (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). The same framework was also employed by Geddes (2016) when researching Korean students, along with a socio-cognitive approach to student perceptions of English language learning by T. Y. Kim and M. Kim (2018).

SDT has been previously used to interpret the psychological processes of learning in South Korean students with findings that show self-determination can lead to self-efficacy and positively affect academic achievement in elementary and middle schoolers (M. S. Kim & T. S. Shin, 2010), as well as in high schoolers, if confidence and autonomy are supported (C. J. Kim, 2013), especially in a class environment (Y. L. Kim, 2019).

As noted in the history of English education in South Korea, English proficiency is a necessary skill for Korean learners' success, not only for university exams and employment but even for social status. Han and Jeon (2012) observed that self-efficacy and competence were important to observe and foster in their research participants (a set of female

university students). Another study found that in order for self-efficacy to grow, Korean university students need relative autonomy to strengthen competence and academic achievement (Kwon & Yu, 2020). This existing research investigated important concepts that focused on what facilitates intrinsic motivation, but there still seems to be a lack of focus on the roles of external factors within an individual's motivational regulatory behavior. Particularly, consideration should be given to the cultural context of the learner's environment.

To further this inquiry, the motivation of Korean college students in terms of EFL can provide suitable details. It is necessary to expand the literature on cultural contexts that may explain primarily external motivation among ELLs. Like all fascinating subjects, motivation can be observed and analyzed differently depending on the framework and aims of the ones examining it. Therefore, we attempted to answer those remaining questions and bubbling curiosities by taking a different approach.

METHOD

This study made use of SDT as the primary framework due to the encompassing branches of its sub-theories. Despite the wide array of literature, research, and methodologies on motivation that exist in the above-mentioned frameworks, the methodical approaches of SDT were determined to be of more immediate value as the framework for this study. SDT has a framework within OIT (particularly the introjected regulation of motivation) that allows researchers to examine the motivations of Korean EFL learners in a social context, since they are as complex and multilayered as the social climate in South Korea.

We asked 155 Korean university students to complete a survey to determine where their perceived motivation fell on the motivation continuum put forth by Ryan and Deci (2000a; see Figure 1). We chose these students because they chose a major in which English competency is necessary for their future. The survey provided an opportunity to look at how self-determined they were when facing the challenge of English competency. We then quantified the results by calculating the mean scores of each question. This allowed us to observe the results and analyze them within the context of SDT.

To set the stage for motivational expectations among EFL Korean

college students, we took a brief look at the history of foreign language studies in Korea informed by the academic discipline of Korean studies and matched with Ryan and Deci's (2008) basic needs hypothesis. The analysis of the personal lives of the students with BPNT was not quantified in this study but was matched with the needs of learners on a societal level. It is expected that because of certain societal factors, some needs are either fulfilled by the social context explained above or may be lacking in learners. With this backdrop, the focus of self-reported motivation of Korean EFL students was conceptualized through the apt continuum of motivation belonging to OIT. This method informed the study by showing that if motivation is lacking, it might be due to an absence among the basic needs of the learner.

RESULTS

As made clear in the methodology section, in order to ascertain where our Korean college participants fell on the regulation continuum, a questionnaire was given to the students using a 1−4 Likert scale for each of the four regulations on the continuum. Participants showed that their motivations to learn English were mostly self-regulated. The highest mean score was the self-regulated integrated regulation at 3.26, followed closely by introjected regulation at 3.25. Although the projected top mean score was not that of the introjected regulation, it was a close second, as shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2. Mean Scores of Motivational Regulations in Korean EFL University Students
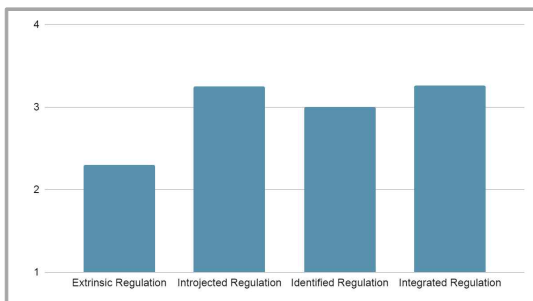
Note. N = 155. Motivational regulations appear in the order they appear on the continuum.

When taking a culturally and historically informed view of the results, it becomes apparent that there are a few marked societal pressures that are present in the context of ELLs within Korea. The results of the survey also show these pressures to be present (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. Survey Statements and Results

Statements	Results			
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. English is important because I want to get a higher test score or a higher paying job.	11	25	71	45
2. Learning to speak English is important to finish successfully in a job interview in my field.	1	3	47	104
3. Learning English is very important to my parents.	0	5	53	97
4. I look foolish if my English skill is lacking.	12	47	71	25
5. I enjoy learning English in general.	5	34	71	45
6. I love English-related interests of mine.	3	10	70	72
7. English is important because I want to understand Western culture.	5	43	62	45
8. I think learning English is important for the level of life quality.	2	5	42	106

When participants were asked if English skills are important in connection with aptitude test scores and jobs, the majority (119 participants) answered that they are important to them. When participants were asked if English skills are a type of employment gateway, for example, as an interview requirement, the majority (111 participants) answered that it was a type of gateway rather than independently important. When participants were asked if their English education was important to their parents, the majority (150 participants) answered that it was important. When asked whether they would feel foolish using poor English in their social environments, the majority (96 participants) answered that they would have a negative feeling. However, despite the various societal pressures, the participants reported enjoyment and personal reasons related to "self" as their motivations for studying. These align with a more integrated purpose rather than an instrumental one. When asked whether they enjoyed learning English in general, the majority (106 participants) answered that they felt positive about learning

English in general. When asked if they had a liking for English-related interests, the majority (142 participants) answered that they felt positive about English-related interests. When asked if they thought English proficiency was important for understanding Western culture, the majority (107 participants) answered that English was important for this reason. When asked if they thought English was important for a desired quality-of-life level, the majority (148 participants) answered that it was important.

DISCUSSION

The results showed that social environment did play a large role in motivational regulations connected with learning English. However, the majority were self-directed. While the introjected regulation of controlled motivation was the second-highest average based on data from the questionnaire, the integrated regulation of autonomous motivation scored the highest average by a difference of 0.01. This suggests that students can connect the motivation to study with societal factors, such as pressure to perform in the current climate. As explained above, societal factors range from personal pressure to family pressure and even national pressure to be successful in the pursuit of English competency. These results do not directly follow but do somewhat reflect the findings of Shim (2016), who found that when looking at the academic motivation of Korean university students, both autonomous and controlled motivations existed based on high identified regulation and extrinsic regulation scores in learners. The data in our study did not show extrinsic regulation to be the highest on the controlled motivational side of the spectrum but rather introjected. It also did not show the identified regulation to be the highest on the autonomous motivation side of the spectrum but rather on the integrated regulation side. Despite differences in the motivational regulations, there was a split in that the two highest scores were on the opposite sides of the spectrum. This shows that while the ELLs involved in this study felt the various pressures that exist in the current social climate of South Korea, they also have integrated regulations for a learning experience with Deci's "coherent sense of self" (Deci & Ryan, 1991).

The ubiquitous pressures of English education, as explored through

Korean studies, were observed in the results of the questionnaire. Instead of directly focusing on motivational regulations, we will discuss how our participants responded to questions pertaining to societal pressures in the existing literature and see where the numbers fall in regard to those social pressures.

Based on the results of Statements 1−4 (see Table 1), it is clear that participants have an instrumental or even external motivational regulation to study English based on the pressures imposed on them by parents or general society. Statement 4 shows that there is some kind of personal embarrassment about a lack of proficiency in English. The results support the various social pressures that were explained by research findings in Korean studies. Although it is not clear that there is any political pressure, it is clear that pressure from family and social circles was indeed present in our participants. In accord with OIC, there is a need for relatability that is present here, showing that the social situation has an effect on the motivational regulations that a learner will adopt on the path to integration on the continuum. The desire for competency was indeed present for various social reasons. These aspects of societal pressure that came out in the results could explain why the mean score for introjected motivation was so high.

However, despite the high mean score for introjected regulation, the identified regulation had the highest average that can be attributed to the results shown in Statements 5−8. The results of these items show that there were either intrinsic-like regulations or at least curiosity at play. While there may be numerous societal pressures, most of the participants in this study showed an intrinsic-like purpose for learning English. This answers our second research question in that pre-established ideas from Korean history and modern society do play a role, but most of the students in this study reported a more personal and near-intrinsic motivation for learning.

CONCLUSIONS

The data showed that a majority of the students were motivated by instrumental or introjected factors that point to instrumental advantages of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and can necessarily inform ELF-aware pedagogy (Anwar et al., 2020). However, most of the students reported integrating learning English to their "process-as-self,"

in that they had a desire to acquire English for self-development. Although the social aspects of English education might not allow for much autonomy in formal education, the experience was still reported as mostly positive rather than the negative experience anticipated from using methods like social coercion and pressure. It is possible, given the complexity of Korean history and the current social environment, that English language, both as an academic discipline and a form of personal growth, is connected to well-being. If that is the case, there are studies that showed how to foster well-being within English learners in the EFL context. The promotion of autonomous motivation and satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2007) in language learning and researched models show that well-researched methods can be employed to counteract student resistance and bolster engagement. Examples of these are the hope model to provide agency and goal-directed pathways to learners (Cromlish, 2016) and the effect of hope therapy on cognitive ability (Leeson, 2008).

Such models can aid in the role educators play. It also follows that educators should be "aware of motivational elements in order to support students in developing their learning techniques and to achieve their language learning goals" (Saranraj et al., 2014, p. 464). From the perspective of educators in the EFL context, a framework for understanding and fostering motivation deserves closer investigation as a glimpse into the students' journey as ELLs in terms of motivation. The study here was conducted using simple research methods and a small N-group.

SDT can result in the well-being of the learner and is interwoven with self-efficacy in students. The process of learning may, at times, be strenuous, as students are exposed to new information that they must internalize. However, if students can face a challenge through a self-efficacious lens and come out of the learning process with their autonomy, competence, and relatedness intact, they can view educational undertakings with determination rather than as a hopeless albatross on the necks of their academic futures. To help students further their self-determination, more research is needed to hone in on the finer points of facilitating motivation.

THE AUTHOR

Nicolas E. Caballero is an assistant professor at Yeonsung University in Anyang,

South Korea. He received his master's degree in TESOL from California Polytechnic University, Pomona, USA. He has been teaching ESL/EFL internationally, primarily in South Korea, for ten years. Research interests include motivation, self-efficacy, EFL pedagogy, and second language acquisition. Email: necaballero88@gmail.com

Meghan Yu is an independent researcher with a master's degree in Korean studies. She has been working and studying in South Korea for nine years. She is currently working as a historical tour guide in Seoul. Meghan's research interests include Korean modernity, the effects of the Park Chung Hee era, and Joseon Dynasty bawdiness. Email: meggieyuuu@gmail.com

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Teachers' and Students' Beliefs About Student Attention During English Classes

Yao Le

Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul, Korea

The purpose of this research was to study from the student perspective factors that affect their attention in the English language classroom and from the teachers' perspective factors they believe to affect student attention in the classroom. In particular, the classroom seating arrangement and the role of teaching aids were the primary areas of interest. The study used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to collect the data. The questionnaire data was calculated for percentages and the interview data was coded for analysis. According to the results, student attention can be affected by several factors: the seating arrangement, teaching aids, teachers' attire, and ringing cellphones. The results have implications for English teachers in Asia who teach junior high and high school students. In particular, it was found that teachers should arrange students' seating arrangement based on class objectives and learning culture, and choose appropriate teaching aids. Although more transparent, students should be required to adjust the ringtone of cellphones to silent mode and teachers should be conscious to wear appropriate attire.

Keywords: English class, student attention, seating arrangement, teaching aids, teachers' attire, ringing cellphones, Korea, China

INTRODUCTION

Attention in and out of the classroom influences a significant amount of our experiences in every step of life and affects the quality of life. If one is not attentive, there can be problems in communication, miscommunication can lead to disputes, careless reading may cause

misunderstandings, and distraction may even cause accidents. Attention is a state of mental alertness and a focused activity (Posner & Peterson, 1990). When an individual focuses their attention on a specific stimulus, they are more likely to be aware of the features of the situation/information and the action required or the response that suits the purpose, and the focused features are placed in awareness. Therefore, attention is highlighted as a mechanism for initiating learning (Ainley & Luntley, 2007; Chen & Huang, 2013).

However, one person cannot be aware and pay attention to everything simultaneously. Decisions of what stimuli are a priority are required. When deliberate attention is given to necessary stimuli, other stimuli are positioned in the background of one's mind and processing information. In addition, paying attention can be more difficult in school life, primarily where conscious learning of largely decontextualized abstract information is the main focus. In formal education, the speed of content presentation and how stimuli are presented differ from contextualized learning in real-world experiences. This forces students in classrooms to think carefully about what should be considered worthy of attention (Smith & Kosslyn, 2014). Also, different stimuli, both necessary and unimportant, are present in classroom learning, and these distracting stimuli can easily cause students to divert their attention from what should be deemed necessary stimuli. However, effectively attending to relevant content and giving it the appropriate level of attention directly impact students' academic grades and performance in the classroom, but many students do not realize the level of importance that attention has on their learning and English proficiency development.

All junior high school students must learn English in China, since the government requires students to do so. However, when Chinese students learn English, they often have difficulty concentrating on the classroom lecture. As the class period, and semester, go by, they often become more distracted, and they cannot maintain the needed level of attention for the classroom lecture. Some students may even give up studying English once the required course requirements have been met. When students cannot concentrate in English class, it can be incredibly frustrating for English teachers. However, teachers and students may have different beliefs about the factors that affect student attention. Therefore, this study aimed to explore factors that can affect student attention in order to better address the issue to ultimately improve students' English learning. The first goal was to identify what factors can

affect attention from a student point of view. The second goal was to identify teachers' beliefs about what factors affect student attention. The last goal was to compare students' and teachers' beliefs regarding factors that can affect student attention span. It was hoped that this research would be able to help teachers and students, in that English teachers would then be able to identify how to improve student attention, and students would be able to learn how to improve their attention in class through their own actions.

Accordingly, this study was guided by three research questions:

RQ1. From a student perspective, what factors do they believe to affect their attention in the classroom?
RQ2. From a teacher perspective, what factors do they believe to affect student attention in the classroom?
RQ3. How do student and teacher beliefs about factors affecting student attention in the classroom compare with one another?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attention is one of the most critical psychological attributes (Cicekci & Sadik, 2019) in learning. The level of attention utilized directly affects intellectual development and the absorption of knowledge (Abdullah, 2004). The appropriate level and focus of attention will make the acquisition of information more rapid, precise, profound, and lasting (Abdullah, 2004). One of the reasons for poor student achievement is lack of concentration (Abdullah, 2004). In this section, a definition of and discussion about attention is presented, Then, literature on the topic of student attention with respect to classroom seating arrangements and teaching aids is examined. These factors are the primary focus of this section, as they are an integral part of classroom instruction. However, there is also a brief discussion of literature on the impact of student and teacher practices (i.e., cellphone presence and attire) that can negatively impact student attention.

Definition of Attention

Since this study examines the effect of attention on learning, the definition of attention presented here focuses mainly on the relationship

between attention and learning or what might be called *learning attention* (hereafter, attention). Attention is a process that "encodes language input, keeps it active in working and short-term memory, and retrieves it from long-term memory" (Robinson, 2003, p. 631). It has been identified as an essential cognitive process in second language acquisition (SLA). Attention is part of the cognitive system that involves detecting and recording stimuli in memory (Philp, 2003; Robinson, 1995). It has prompted research and discussion in the field of SLA, as some have identified that learning can occur without explicit awareness, while others have documented that attention, and noticing relevant information and its parts, are required for language learning.

Ratey (2001) claims that the attention system is not a passive, reflex-based mechanism. The brain is not a passive device that gathers information but rather a device that functions by its intentional processes and predictive power. This concept of thought or consciousness is closely related to the attentional system, as attention enables us to have thought or consciousness. Fundamentally, consciousness is what allows us to transcend the physical context and create more elaborate notions in our minds. Danarjati et al. (2014) claim that attention is a person's response to activity concentration. It focuses on an object and consciously processes bits of information from many angles.

Additionally, within Gestalt theory, attention is described as having a relationship with shape and foundation. The shape refers to paying attention and focusing on specific information. The foundation refers to the processing of this information. The shape and foundation may change, but they continually interact to place new information in working and/or short-term memory (Cüceloğlu, 1994; Feldman, 1997; Senemoğlu, 2013; Schultz & Schultz, 2002).

Therefore, students need to understand the role attention has in the language learning process and deliberately use strategies as needed to avoid distractions and to have the appropriate level of attention when studying in any classroom, including English language learning. That is to say that the materials delivered may be processed, understood, and retained in the student's mind only if they thoroughly pay attention and attend to processing what is taught. Therefore, students must be aware of their level of attention and how well they are processing information in the language learning process in order to be effective learners.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT STUDENT ATTENTION DURING ENGLISH CLASSES

Literature on the topic of student attention with respect to classroom seating arrangements and teaching aids is discussed below. These factors are the primary focus, as they are an integral part of classroom instruction. However, there is also a brief discussion of literature on the impact of student and teacher practices (i.e., cellphone presence and attire) that can negatively impact student attention.

Seating Arrangements

Seating arrangements are part of the physical configuration of the classroom and offer additional impact on student attention based on teachers' organizational or stylistic choices. Fernandez et al. (2011) noted that face-to-face classroom seating arrangements affect student learning, motivation, engagement, and teacher–student and student–student relationships. According to Kaya and Burgess (2007), classroom space arrangements that provide students with plenty of room to move around, interact with classmates, and complete tasks positively affect students' task behavior, social engagement, and consequently, engagement and attention to instructional content. Another essential implication of such student seating arrangements is that they should allow for eye contact between teachers and students so that teachers can control and supervise student activities. Harmer (2010) described four common seating arrangements: rows, U-shaped configuration, circular arrangement of tables/desks, and pods of desk/tables.

Row seating has traditionally been the most common form of classroom arrangement. In most schools in China, teachers adopt such a seating arrangement. Students' desks are structured in rows and columns, with the teacher's desk or lectern at the front and center of the classroom. This mode is very convenient for teachers to manage large classes, because the classroom is neat and the space is fully utilized, it is conducive for teachers to manage instruction, allow all students to always have a view of the instructor, maintain order, and impart knowledge in a planned way, as well as being conducive for teachers to observe all student activities. It is the most suitable seating arrangement for large classes. Teachers can walk among the rows of student desks,

while still maintaining full control of the classroom. However, this kind of classroom layout highlights the centrality of the teacher's role and creates an authoritative feel of the teacher. Moreover, making students feel anxious is not conducive to teacher–student communication and student interaction, discussion, and cooperation. In fact, in this seating arrangement, teacher–student interaction is almost always one-way – from teacher to student – significantly reducing student feedback to teachers and among students.

The U-shaped seating arrangement is constructed so that the teacher is positioned at the U-shaped entrance, and the students sit facing the teacher. Such seating patterns have several advantages. For example, the arrangement helps teachers and students communicate as they are positioned relatively close to and facing each other. Specifically, such a seating arrangement takes up less space, as the students are more concentrated, and the distance between teacher and students is relatively short. It is suitable for teachers to teach new classes to create a situation where communication can occur easily between the teacher and the students, and for students to easily participate in communicative language activities and discussions. It is more convenient for teachers and students to carry out various performance activities as well. It is thorough because the short distance between teachers and students allows teachers to pay individual attention to students, and students can focus on the material presented on the whiteboard or projection screen and work with neighboring pairs without getting up and moving desks. In addition, teachers can also go back and forth between the students and the board/screen. Teachers can write on the board at the front of the class, and they can also go to the central area at any time to grasp the learning status of each student. Students can look at each other and listen to each other, which helps the exchange of information between teacher and students, and between students themselves.

Similar to the U-shape arrangement, desks can be arranged in a circle with the students facing inwards towards each other. The teacher in this arrangement would move more readily around the circle of desks while conducting instruction to assist individual students and/or monitor student pair/group work.

Pods of tables/desks (e.g., about four desks placed together) are also conducive to communicative language activities, as it places students in a team facing each other and making them able to work collaboratively or independently without getting up and moving, and it enables the

teacher to circulate around the classroom to monitor and assist students. One drawback of this arrangement, however, is that if there is a lot of use of the whiteboard, projection screen, or teacher-centered instruction, some students will be inconvenience by having to turn around to observe, depending on how the pods are positioned/angled.

Research has shown that teachers think that the selection of a seating arrangement can significantly affect student attention. Syaifullah et al. (2022) researched the impact of seating arrangements on student attention. Significantly, the study showed differences in how row and U-shaped seating arrangements affected students' learning attention. That study used a descriptive qualitative research method including an observation checklist and interview. Twenty-five students took part in the study. According to the observation checklist and interview, the U-shaped seating arrangement was more effective for maintaining attention than the row seating arrangement. The reason was that the U-shape seating arrangement helped students have better eye contact with their teacher. A language class requires a lot of communication, and communication where there is the exchange of meaningful information with each other. Meaningful information exchange happens more effectively when the participants are giving attention. Student engagement in learning is through eye contact with the teacher or among the students themselves because eye contact stimulates external factors to increase attention. Therefore, the U-shape seating arrangement was determined as the better arrangement for promoting eye contact. However, in one study the results showed that students did not think that classroom seating arrangement was a significant factor affecting their attention during English class (Getie, 2020).

Lotfy (2012) examined EFL classroom seating arrangements and how seating arrangements influence EFL learners. He used a questionnaire, which provided some important background for that research. He found that classroom seating arrangements may affect students' on-task and off-task participation when working in groups. To be specific, the total number of on-task comments made by one class of students in the row and column seating arrangement was 161, compared to 131 in the circle seating arrangement. This makes the ratio 1.2:1. The ratio of off-task-related comments in rows and columns to circles was 2:1. He also suggested further research to discover more about the effects of seating arrangements.

Therefore, well-designed seating arrangements can significantly

affect student attention. "Because seating arrangement is about the management of the classroom and space or situation, it is also discussed in the context of teaching and learning in educational psychology" (Syaifullah et al., 2022, p. 150). Student learning may increase when sitting comfortably. Their seats help them pay attention to objects of focus. It can be concluded from the above statements that seating arrangements can affect the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Seating arrangements work to develop the connection between teacher and students so that teaching can be performed as effectively as intended.

Teaching Aids' Impact on Student Attention

Teaching aids are tools or devices that facilitate the process of teaching and learning. There are various types of teaching aids, including traditional teaching aids (e.g., books and chalkboard), visual teaching aids (e.g., posters, diagrams, maps), mechanical teaching aids (e.g., audio teaching machines, video projectors). With the development of education reform, the means of teaching have also been greatly improved. Teaching has changed from traditional language explanation and communication with very basic tools to use of numerous technological tools. So, with the wealth of resources now available to teachers, they need to make instructional choices on what tools to use for what purposes and understand why they believe one may be more effective over another in each situation or activity. For instance, they can utilize objects and images to make abstract knowledge concrete. This approach could possibly better support the cognitive processing of younger students. For example, junior high school students are transitioning from perceptual thinking to rational thinking, and content that is too abstract may need to be scaffolded with such means that foster perceptual cognition to make sense of the abstract concepts.

One choice of teaching aids can be intuitive teaching tools, which refers to the use of visual teaching aids in teaching. These visual aids can be realia in the classroom, props for classroom instruction, posters, images of objects, and so forth. Using intuitive teaching aids to carry out teaching has been a conventional approach in language teaching for concrete items and abstract concepts. However, with the development of information technology, multimedia teaching has become widely available, and teachers, especially English teachers, have come to value and use multimedia more and more. Multimedia teaching integrates

sound, images, text, and animation, which can make up for the shortcomings of English classroom teaching without an L1 English environment outside of the classroom. It can be said to be an extension of the intuitive use of teaching aids. Large-capacity, multi-information, and high-efficiency teaching resources also enable the completion of teaching objectives while saving time and effort and increasing efficiency. Bice (1995) identified 31 software programs designed to mentor students with attention disorders in individual and group settings. He identified 21 strategies for teaching students with attention deficits. The research was focused on the characteristics of computer-assisted instruction and its impact on learning. Similarly, Brown (1994) found that the creative use of cartoon exercises in the classroom allowed students to use language skills dynamically, and the interaction increased their attention. Wlodkowski (1990) and Glasbergen (1996) argued that cartoons and cartoon-related activities can be very helpful in accommodating students and getting their attention.

The studies discussed explore the role of the classroom seating arrangement and teaching aids on student attention in the classroom. Although there are various other factors as well, such as the amount and type of stimuli, distractions like ringing cellphones, and teacher attire, only two, cellphones and teacher attire, are briefly discussed, as they emerged in some of the collected data. First, with cellphones being ubiquitous, they are often visible in the classroom, not put away in a backpack. There is a lot of debate as to whether they are an advantageous tool for teaching or a distraction (Klein, 2022). They do serve as an instructional resource in some cases, as students can make immediate response to polls in the classroom using polling apps, make textual posts on virtual bulletin boards, and conduct mini-internet searches for classroom activities. They do present interruptions when a student's phone rings, or a text message alert buzzes. They can be a distraction even during activities, and tests, as instead of producing language content independently, students may rely too heavily on copying published online text to complete an assignment or access information online during an exam. Cellphones can also be a distraction during communicative group activities, as instead of interacting with eye contact and attentive listening, students can be too engaged with research on their phone and less meaningfully engaged in conversation.

Another factor that can impact student attention is the teachers' attire. In China, like in Korea, most students wear a uniform so that

student competition in wearing the most fashionable clothing items and potentially suggestive clothing among middle and high school students is not an issue. There have been accounts outside of Korea where teachers have been criticized for their clothing, as it has been seen as a distraction due to the item's flaunty and/or tight-fitting nature. In China, as in Korea, the classroom dress code for teachers tends to be conservative and less relaxed than in some Western countries, where shorts and sandals may be worn by teachers. Female teachers most often wear knee-length skirts and dresses, or pants with a blouse or sweater, and male teachers wear pants with a collared shirt or polo shirt. So, if too much skin is visible or the teacher's clothes are flashy or overly informal, students may be surprised and distracted.

METHOD

This research aimed to research beliefs regarding factors that affect student attention during English classes from the perspective of both teachers and students. Therefore, in order to achieve this goal, the following three research questions were formulated:

RQ1. From the students' perspective, what factors do they believe affect their attention in the classroom?

RQ2. From the teachers' perspective, what factors do they believe affect student attention in the classroom?

RQ3. How do students' and teachers' beliefs about factors affecting student attention in the classroom compare to one another?

Participants

In this research, eighteen junior high school English teachers aged 25 to 35 years and seventy junior high school students aged 14 years old volunteered to participate. Among the teachers, there were fourteen females and four males (see Table 1). The four male teachers were coded as A1, A2, A3, and A4, while the fourteen female teachers were coded as B1 to B14. Four of the teachers, A1, A3, B1, and B2, had obtained bachelor's degrees, while the others had master's degrees. Some of the teacher's teaching experience consisted of over ten years, and some teachers' experience consisted of only one year. However, there

were some teachers whose experience consisted of three years and five years as well (see Table 2). These eighteen English teachers were Chinese, with Mandarin Chinese as their first language and English as a second or additional language. Their teaching methods were traditionally focused, namely, teacher-centered teaching methods. The teachers all majored in English, and none of them had studied abroad. They had always taught Chinese students of English, and they did not have any experience teaching international students whose mother language was not Chinese, such as Koreans or Japanese.

Among the seventy junior high school students, there were 45 girls and 25 boys (see Table 1). They were beginners at English, and they were 14 years old. They were eighth-graders in the same junior high school in China. However, they came from different English classes within the school. These students were first-language speakers of Mandarin Chinese, and they also had no study abroad experience.

Data Collection Tools

Due to the nature of the research, a mixed research method was preferred for this study. The data collection instruments were questionnaires and follow-up interviews. The questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data, and the interviews were used to collect qualitative data. Moreover, the interviews and questionnaires were used to triangulate the data.

To be specific, the questionnaires were developed by referencing the literature review discussed. The questionnaires were posted online and were answered online through a provided link. The students answered the questionnaires anonymously. All questions were based on Research Question 1 and Research Question 2 presented earlier. There were two types of questionnaires: one was for the students, and the other was for the teachers. First, the questionnaire for students included twelve questions. All questions were Likert scale response options. Items 1–4 mainly addressed the students' self-awareness of their attention in English classes. Items 5–7 asked how seating arrangement could affect their attention in English classes. Questions 8–10 investigated whether teaching aids could affect student attention in English classes. The last two questions addressed other factors affecting student attention in English classes, through open responses from the students. Second, the questionnaire for teachers also had ten items. It contained the same items

as the questionnaire for the students, and all items contained Likert scale response options.

Interviews can be regarded as one of the most effective tools in qualitative research (Creswell & Clark, 2004). The reason is that interviews can help researchers to find participants' actual views about the research questions through direct responses and follow-up inquires. In this study, a semi-structured interview was used. According to Creswell and Clark, the semi-structured interview can obtain more in-depth options regarding the research questions. Therefore, online interviews with teachers were conducted. The interview time was not strictly controlled so that the interviewees could speak freely. Interviews were conducted only with the teachers to understand their views more deeply. Interviews were not conducted with the junior school students, as due to their young age, it was thought that they might not be able express their ideas accurately. Six teachers who answered the questionnaire were randomly chosen to participate in interviews. The teachers were asked five open-ended questions (see the Outcomes and Insights section below) addressing the influence of seating arrangement on student attention and the impact of teaching aids on student attention during their English classes to understand their views regarding these two factors.

DATA ANALYSIS

Methods for Analyzing Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data. To calculate the percentage of responses to each item, the number of responses was divided by the total number of students. Then, the percentages were compared for each item regarding student and teacher responses. For example, in order to obtain statistical data, the first step was to tally the number of responses to each of the four response options (i.e., *agree*, *strongly agree*, *disagree*, *strongly disagree*) and then calculate the percentage of responses to each response option to derive a final result.

Methods for Analyzing Interviews

The interviews were conducted to collect a more specific understanding

of opinions among the teachers. Before conducting the interviews, the participants were asked whether they agreed to video recording of the interview to conduct better data analysis. After finishing the interviews, these videos were saved on the author's computer. At the same time, there was a corresponding transcript, and it was saved as an MS Word file. All the data were read several times in order to understand the materials and code the content. The data was coded and organized according to the topic of the research questions. Further, text segments were highlighted or assigned a code label and colored for easy identification. Then, the data were analyzed through discourse analysis, and finally generalizations and summaries were formed.

RESULTS

Demographic Information of Students and Teachers Responding to the Questionnaire

This section presents the participants' demographic information obtained through the questionnaire. Table 1 presents the student and teacher participants' number, percentage, and gender.

TABLE 1. Student and Teacher Information

	Male		Female		Total	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Students	25	35.71	45	64.29	70	100
Teachers	14	77.78	4	22.22	18	100

As shown in Table 1, there were seventy students and eighteen teachers. There are twenty-five boys among these students, accounting for 35.71%. Also, forty, 64.29%, of the participants were girls. In addition, among these teachers, there were fourteen females and four males, accounting for 77.78% and 22.22%, respectively.

Demographic Information of the Teachers Participating in Interviews

Table 2 shows information of the interviewees. As shown in the table, six teachers participated in the interview. Among these six teachers, the number of female and male teachers was equal: three female teachers and three male teachers. There were two male teachers whose teaching experience consisted of approximately ten years, Teacher E and Teacher F. Besides, one female teacher's teaching experience consisted of ten years, Teacher A, the other female teachers' teaching experience consisted of three years and five years, respectively. Teachers B, C, and D graduated from university with a bachelor's degree. The other three teachers had obtained a master's degree.

TABLE 2. Interviewee Information

Teacher	Gender	Teaching Experience	Level of Education
Teacher A	Female	10 years	Master's
Teacher B	Female	5 years	Bachelor's
Teacher C	Female	3 years	Master's
Teacher D	Female	5 years	Master's
Teacher E	Male	10 years	Bachelor's
Teacher F	Male	10 years	Bachelor's

Results of Student Questionnaires

Students' Self-Awareness of Their Attention in English Classes

There were four items regarding students' self-awareness about their attention in English classes (see Table 3).

Table 3 shows the results of the questions regarding students' beliefs about their attention in English classes. As shown in Table 3, 41.41% of the students thought that they could not concentrate in English class for a long time, and another 20% strongly agreed. Similarly, 42.86% of the students agreed that they were easily distracted in English class, while another 21.43% strongly agreed. Also, 42.86% agreed that they believed that some factors reduce their attention in English class, and an additional 24.29% strongly agreed. As for academic performance, 47.14% of the students stated that they agreed that attention could affect a student's English academic performance, and 24.29% strongly agreed. When combined with the *strongly agree* responses, over 60% of the

students agreed with each of these four attention-related items.

TABLE 3. Students' Self-Awareness of Their Attention in English Classes

Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In English class, you can concentrate for a long time.	4.29%	34.29%	41.41%	20.00%
2. Being easily distracted or having trouble concentrating in English class has become a problem.	4.29%	31.43%	42.86%	21.43%
3. My attention is easily disturbed in English class by some factors.	10.00%	22.86%	42.86%	24.29%
4. Attention can affect English academic performance.	4.29%	24.29%	47.14%	24.29%

As a result, it can be concluded that students were aware that they have some problems regarding their attention in English class and that it can negatively impact their academic performance. These results serve to answer Research Question 1, namely, "From the students' perspective, what factors do they believe affect student attention in the classroom?"

TABLE 4a. Students' Perspectives Regarding Factors That They Believe Affect Student Attention in the Classroom

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
5. I prefer U-shaped seating arrangements, because I can concentrate on the English class.	4	5.71	29	41.43	24	34.29	13	18.57
6. I prefer seats arranged in rows, because I can concentrate on the English class	7	10.00	21	30.00	25	35.71	17	24.29
7. Seating arrangements can affect concentration.	2	2.86	18	25.71	30	42.86	20	28.57

As indicated in Table 4a, most of the students believed that seating arrangement was a factor that could affect their attention in English class. Specifically, 42.86% of the students agreed that seating arrangements could affect their attention in their English class, and 28.57% of the students strongly agreed that seating arrangements could affect their attention in English class. Only 2.86% of students strongly disagreed with this view. Regarding U-shaped seating arrangements, 34.29% of the students agreed and 18.57 strongly agreed that they preferred U-shaped seating arrangements because they could concentrate better in English class in such arrangements. Regarding a preference for row seating arrangements, 25 of the students (35.71%) agreed that they could concentrate better in this seating arrangement, while 10% of students stated they strongly disagreed with this belief. From these results, it can be understood that there are different preferences for seating arrangements and how they affect student attention.

TABLE 4b. Students' Perspectives Regarding Factors That They Believe Affect Student Attention in the Classroom

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
8. Teaching aids like real things and PPT files, videos can affect my attention.	3	4.29	15	21.43	24	41.43	23	32.86
9. Intuitive teaching aids like real things attract my attention more.	0	0.00	13	18.57	25	45.71	25	35.71
10. Multimedia teaching aids are more able to attract my attention.	0	0.00	16	22.86	30	42.86	24	34.29

Table 4b shows students' beliefs on the effect of teaching aids on student attention. Most students thought teaching aids could affect student attention, accounting for 41.43% (agree) and 32.86% (strongly agree). However, 21.43% of the students disagreed with this statement, believing that teaching aids did not affect student attention. Only 4.29% of the students strongly disagreed that teaching aids have any effect on student attention.

The students also expressed their opinions on intuitive teaching aids

and multimedia teaching aids. They believed that intuitive teaching aids and multimedia teaching aids could affect their attention. Specifically, 35.71% of the students strongly believed that intuitive teaching aids could help them to focus in class, while 34.29% of the students strongly agreed that multimedia teaching aids could help them concentrate more in class. In addition, 45.71% of the students agreed that intuitive teaching aids could help them concentrate more in class, and 42.86% agreed that the multimedia teaching aids could help them concentrate more in class.

TABLE 4c. Students' Perspectives Regarding Factors That They Believe Affect Student Attention in the Classroom

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
11. The teacher's attire affects my concentration in class.	17	24.29	19	27.14	32	45.71	2	2.86
12. The sound of a ringing cellphone affects my attention in class.	20	28.57	25	35.71	20	28.57	5	7.14

According to the survey results, the sound of a ringing cellphone could not be regarded as a factor that negatively affected student attention in the classroom. Specifically, 35.71% of the students disagreed and 28.57% strongly disagreed that the sound of a ringing cellphone negatively affected their attention in the classroom. However, a slight majority of the students (27.14% and 24.29%) did not think that the teacher's attire affected their concentration in class (see Table 4c).

Teachers' Beliefs on Students' Self-Awareness Regarding Attention in the Classroom

There were four questions on the survey regarding students' self-awareness about their attention in the English class. The results are displayed in Table 5.

TABLE **5. Teachers' Opinions Regarding Student Attention in the Classroom**

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
1. In English class, my students can concentrate for a long time.	1	5.56	9	50.00	7	38.89	1	5.56
2. Students being easily distracted or having trouble concentrating in English class has become a problem.	1	5.56	13	16.67	13	72.22	1	5.56
3. Student attention is easily disturbed in English class by some factors.	1	5.56	1	5.56	13	72.22	3	16.67
4. Attention can affect English academic performance.	1	5.56	1	5.56	12	66.67	4	22.22

As shown in Table 5, teachers believed that students have problems concentrating in English class. Specifically, 50% of the teachers did not agree and additionally 5.56% strongly disagreed that students could read with appropriate concentration for long periods of time in English class. Moreover, 72.22% of the teachers said student attention could be affected by some additional factors, while another 16.67% of the teachers strongly agreed with this.

From the Teachers' Perspective, Factors That They Believe Affect Student Attention in the Classroom

TABLE 6. Teachers' Opinion Regarding Factors Affect Student Attention in the Classroom

Item	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
5. Seating arrangements can affect concentration.	1	5.56	2	11.11	13	72.22	2	11.11
6. Teaching aids have an impact on student attention.	1	5.56	2	11.11	13	72.22	2	11.11
7. Intuitive teaching aids attract students' attention more.	1	5.56	2	11.11	15	83.33	0	0
8. Multimedia teaching aids are more able to attract students' attention.	1	5.56	0	0	14	77.78	3	16.67
9. The teacher's attire affects students' concentration in class.	1	5.56	4	22.22	11	61.11	2	11.11
10. The sound of a ringing cellphone will affect students' concentration in class.	1	5.56	3	16.67	10	55.56	4	22.22

As shown in Table 6, 72.22% of the teachers agreed that seating arrangement would affect student attention, while another 11.11% of the teachers strongly agreed. In addition, 72.22% of the teachers agreed that teaching aids can affect students' concentration, and again, 11.11% of the teachers strongly agreed. Furthermore, 83.33% of teachers agreed that intuitive teaching aids attract students' attention more. Also, 77.78% of teachers agreed that multimedia teaching aids are more able to attract students' attention, with another 16.67% strongly agreeing. Regarding whether teacher's attire affects students' concentration in class, 61.11% of the teachers agreed and 11.11% of the teachers strongly agreed that it did. As for cellphones, 55.56% of the teachers agreed that a ringing cellphone will affect students' concentration in class, and an additional 22.22% of the teachers strongly agreed.

Outcomes and Insights from the Teacher Interviews

There were five interview questions for teachers on the teachers' questionnaire:

1. What seating arrangement do you use in your class? Why?
2. Why do you think seating arrangements can affect students' concentration?
3. Do you prefer to use intuitive teaching aids or multimedia teaching aids and why?
4. What are your expectations when it comes to student attention in class?
5. Do you have any special techniques you use to improve student attention?

Regarding Questions 1 and 2 above, there were different opinions among the teachers interviewed. For example, one participant shared,

Row and U-shaped seating arrangements act as external factors to influence students' learning attention. The U-shape is better applied to the classroom than the row-shape because it fosters better eye contact between the teacher and the student. The U shape can facilitate interaction between teachers and students and between students. U-shaped seating arrangements can stimulate student attention to the teacher or class. The U-shaped seating arrangement can be a stimulus to external factors that make students pay attention to the English class teacher because it allows a lot of interaction and communication between teachers and students and between students.

Another participant stated,

Well-planned seating arrangements can affect students' concentration. Because seating arrangements are about classroom management, locations or situations are also discussed in the context of teaching and learning in educational psychology. Learning may increase after students are seated comfortably. Their seat [location] helps them focus on an object.

Regarding Question 3, most teachers said that they liked to use intuitive teaching aids more than multimedia teaching aids, because

intuitive teaching aids are closer to life and allow students to concentrate on objects. For example, in a lesson teaching classroom supplies with the vocabulary item *pencil* among others, the teachers preferred to take out and show a pencil, so the students could focus on the pencil as realia in the classroom. However, when using multimedia teaching aids, such as showing a PPT or video, participants believed that some students would focus on the style in the PPT and imagery in the video rather than on the content presented.

With respect to Question 4, one participant shared,

> When I give the lecture to the students, students cannot concentrate on the lecture all the time. Therefore, I hope they can concentrate on the lecture in the middle of the lecture, because the important content of the lecture is the middle of the lecture.

This suggests that this participant, like other participants interviewed, is aware of their students' lack of ability to concentrate in class, and adjusts the instructional content strategically to better support retaining the principle information needed, which addresses question 5.

Additionally, regarding Question 5, one participant shared, "In order to improve the student attention, I occasionally say some digressions in class or randomly ask my classmates [questions]." However, the interview data didn't suggest any particularly unique strategies to engage or re-engage students in the classroom. Often teachers in general utilize videos, but most participants believed that multimedia can be less effective as students may concentrate on the design and/or visuals and not the content. Tailored resources guided by students' interests or interactive activities can be useful to grab and keep student's attention, but these or similar strategies were not mentioned in the responses to the teachers' questionnaire.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE KOREAN CONTEXT

The research findings related to data analysis were obtained through research tools consisting of questionnaires and interviews. According to the results of the questionnaire and interviews, there are several interesting findings. First, based on the results of the students'

questionnaires, from the students' perspective, factors they believed affected student attention in the classroom were seating arrangement, intuitive and multimedia teaching aids, and the sound of a ringing cellphone. Furthermore, from the teachers' perspective, teachers believed that seating arrangements, intuitive teaching aids, teacher's attire, and the sound of a ringing cellphone affected student attention during English classes in that order.

Among these factors, students and teachers had some of the same beliefs. For example, they both believed that seating arrangement was a factor that can affect student attention. In addition, different types of seating arrangements were believed to have a different impact on student attention. For example, it was believed that row seating was best used for independent work and that it can discourage student cooperation. They both preferred to recommend U-shaped seating or clustered chairs for cooperative learning groups. A huge reason was that in a row seating arrangement, it is the students in the first row who answer most of the questions asked in class. However, when using U-shaped seating arrangements, more students tend to focus on the learning process in the class and more students participate in answering questions. Therefore, different types of seating arrangements impact student attention differently. Teachers should choose seating arrangements carefully. Secondly, teachers and students both think teaching aids are a factor that affects student attention. In addition, they both think that real objects as teaching aids attract them more. Finally, teachers and students both think that the sound of a ringing cellphone influences student attention during English classes.

However, there are different beliefs regarding factors affecting student attention in the classroom between students and teachers. Students think teachers' attire cannot affect their attention during the English lesson, while teachers believe that teachers' attire can impact student attention.

Therefore, it is recommended that Korean junior and high school English teachers arrange students' seating arrangement for meaningful communicative interaction, like U-shaped arrangements or desk pods arrangements. Such arrangements are common in *hagwon* (after-school academies) where classrooms and class sizes tend to be smaller. However, in public junior and high schools, classes tend to be large, with 30 students, due to space limitations, and adherence to traditional teacher-centered instructional practices often result in row arrangement.

However, when feasible it is highly recommended that seating arrangements other than row seating be used.

As for the use of intuitive and multimedia teaching aids, the results suggest that visuals and realia are most beneficial for maintaining student engagement. However, with 21st century learners who have grown up with multimedia and smart devices, it may be valuable to explore further students' and teachers' beliefs and preferences on the use of multimedia teaching aids on student attention. Additionally, exploration for best practices to ensure the ringtone of cellphones is on silent mode is needed. Finally, although students did not indicate that teachers' attire was a factor that negatively affected their attention, it is one that teachers mentioned. Therefore, it may be of value to explore why this was a factor from the teachers' point of view in Korean junior and high schools, as it could be associated with the attire differences between native Korean English teachers and foreign English teachers.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, attention is essential for students' effective language learning. Moreover, attention can be affected by various factors, such as seating arrangement, teaching aids, teachers' attire and the sound of a ringing cellphone. This research investigated the factors that affect student attention from the perspective of teachers' and students' beliefs. In some cases, the two groups shared the same beliefs about factors affecting student attention, but with respect to factors there were differences between the two groups. From the results obtained from the questionnaires and interviews, it can be concluded that students and teachers both think that seating arrangement, teaching aids, and the sound of a ringing cellphone affect student attention. However, teachers and students also have different opinions on how they affect attention. Teachers think that teachers' attire can distract student attention, while students disagree with this opinion. Teachers also stated a preference for intuitive teaching aids, over multimedia teaching aids while this was not a preference made by students.

Based on a review of the relevant literature and the findings of this study, the above recommendations have been made for instructional classroom practice, and the following recommendations for future research are suggested. First, further research could be conducted to

examine the role of gender as a factor affecting student attention. Second, further studies should be conducted with larger participant sample sizes.

THE AUTHOR

Yao Le is a student in the TESOL program at Sookmyung Women's University in Seoul, Korea. She received her MASc in TESOL from the University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, Scotland, and has worked as an English teacher in private language institutes. Her research interests include English language education and educational psychology. Email: yaole2021@163.com

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Implementing Literature Circles for Reading Instruction in a General Education Classroom

Cynthia J. Brown
Willowbrook School, Glenview, IL, USA
Michelle Soonhyang Kim
USA Language Institute, Orlando, FL, USA
Concordia University Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA

Research suggests that literature circles are an instructional strategy for reading that can be beneficial to English as a second language (ESL) students because it incorporates the four components of language into one activity. The content of this study is focused on using literature circles in a fourth-grade general education classroom and aimed to identify the effects literature circles have on the development of reading skills for ESL students. Through the use of observation, student surveys, pre- and post-assessments, and daily reading responses, the study was able to determine literature circles had several positive outcomes for many students, not only the participating ESLs in the study. Small-group activities helped boost students' confidence by providing them with a comfortable space to practice English, and the nightly reading responses prepared the students for the next day's discussion. Through literature circles, students became more engaged in their reading and excited to participate. Although the study was conducted in an ESL context in the United States, practical implications for EFLs in Korea are discussed.

Keywords: literature circles, differentiated instruction, discussion, reading response, reading instruction

INTRODUCTION

Literacy instruction has always been something the first author has found challenging as an elementary teacher. By fourth grade, students

are at varying levels of reading abilities, and the gap only seems to grow wider between them. Some students still need phonics and fluency instruction, while others are comprehending middle school-level texts. When planning whole group instruction, the wide variety of needs makes it difficult to select appropriate texts. There are also many aspects to reading that make it challenging to diagnose specifically which areas to focus on to help students improve. Students often need many things to help them improve as readers, making it difficult to determine what sequence of skills to teach.

Coming out of teaching through a pandemic for three school years, the first author found that her literacy instruction had suffered the most. She used to rely heavily on small-group, differentiated instruction, which was not possible with her school's restrictions for the previous two years. With the loss of small groups as an instructional tool, she started to feel lost and unsure of the best ways to support her readers and began to heavily rely on individual activities. Now that school is mostly back to "normal" and restrictions on student interaction have been lifted, she wanted to feel more confident in her reading instruction again.

When considering her group of students this past year, the first thing that came to mind was that they were a social group. Having experienced three years of school in a pandemic affected their social interactions, and she noticed that her students craved social interactions. With this in mind, she knew she wanted to improve her reading instruction by researching instructional strategies that would allow her students to collaborate. Through researching instructional approaches, she discovered literature circles. This strategy allows students to read the same book, participate in collaborative discussions, produce thoughtful responses, and overall enjoy reading a book of their choice with their classmates (Espinosa-Cevallos et al., 2022; Gao & Wodai, 2022; Kim, 2003; Suh, 2019).

By improving literacy instruction strategies, all students in her classroom would benefit, but this specific research focused on the ESL students in her classroom. Reading and writing are two of the lowest areas of performance for her ESL students, and literature circles allowed her to incorporate reading, writing, speaking, and listening into their instruction. Through literature circles, her ESL students had daily opportunities to practice their literacy skills in a safe environment. At the outset of implementing literature circles, the study was co-constructed and co-authored with the second author as an academic research writing

mentor aimed to answer the question, "What impacts do literature circles have on my ESL students?" While exploring this question, the effects of literature circles on students' social skills and reading motivation were explored.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review explored literature circles as a reading instructional strategy and ways to implement literature circles in the classroom. It also intended to understand the potential benefits literature circles can have on ESL students' social skills. A few of the previous studies analyzed were conducted in other countries, but the literature circles in these studies were implemented in classrooms similarly to the studies done in the United States.

Classroom Implementation

As the teacher in this study (the first author; hereafter, "the teacher") began exploring literature circles, she realized that she first needed to understand exactly what literature circles are and how she could implement them in her literacy time. Literature circles are a reading instructional strategy that are similar to book clubs. The teacher provides the class with book choices, and the students pick which book they would like to read based on interest. Small groups are formed by the students' book selections and are often heterogeneous in terms of the students' reading abilities. The group has time to meet in class to create a schedule for daily reading and to discuss the book. As students are reading, there are response activities that can be assigned as questions or roles. Often, roles or jobs are decided upon by the students in the group to help motivate them to stay on task, and the jobs usually highlight student strengths. For example, a job might be "discussion director," where this student puts together five discussion questions from the reading and facilitates the discussion (Elhess & Egbert, 2014). The group may choose someone who is a leader or good at writing questions about their reading to take on this job. The role of the teacher is to listen to the discussion and observe, rather than to facilitate, the discussion (Elhess & Egbert, 2014). However, the teacher may offer guidance or

clarification to the group as needed.

Historically, teachers have been concerned about implementing literature circles because it is difficult to monitor all of the small-group discussions and some believe students will not make progress in their reading skills without explicit instruction from the teacher (Ainley & Day, 2008). Through research on literature circles, we know that it is an effective instructional strategy that can be especially motivating for more reluctant readers. Avci and Yüksel (2011) implemented literature circles in a fourth-grade classroom in Istanbul and found that literature circles were most effective for the lowest-proficiency readers. Literature circles held students accountable for their reading and required them to read more carefully and critically, knowing that they would discuss their reading with their peers (Avci & Yüksel, 2011). Students appeared to be more motivated by the discussion of the text with peers rather than their teachers.

Another concern raised in the literature is the focus of literature circle discussions on personal experiences rather than through a social, cultural, or political lens (Cloonan et al., 2020; Jocius & Shealy, 2018). Cloonan et al. (2020) suggested that one way to incorporate more social and political topics into the discussion is by implementing technology into literature circles. Students can use digital tools to further explore the setting or problems characters are facing. In order to use critical thinking, students often need scaffolded supports and teacher guidance to connect their personal experiences to social, cultural, or political issues. Literature circle discussions traditionally are facilitated by students rather than the teacher, which makes it difficult to incorporate critical literacy. Students are often unaware of some of the social justice issues facing the society they are living in, so it is hard to make connections without guidance from the teacher. Jocius and Shealy (2018) created a recursive book club cycle that allowed students to incorporate more social issues into their book club discussions. Their four-step gradual release model scaffolded and supported students in becoming independent with critical book clubs. Through whole- and small-group modeling and instruction, students were eventually able to facilitate their own literature circles discussions, which included a focus on social, cultural, and political issues. Jocius and Shealy (2018) showed that it was possible to shift discussions away from only personal experience to connecting students' experiences to the broader world.

Literature Circles and ESL Students

The studies reviewed reinforced the idea that literature circles are beneficial to ESL students because they incorporate reading, writing, speaking, and listening all in one activity. In one study, McElvain (2010) found that ESL students made significant progress in both their reading and writing because literature circles allowed there to be a somewhat equal amount of time spent on both language input and output activities. An equal amount of time was dedicated to silent reading, writing, and discussion, which allowed the students to spend an equal amount of time on each of these skills (McElvain, 2010). With an equal amount of time given to each of these areas, students were able to excel in all. When scaffolds are in place, literature circles can have many positive outcomes for ESL students. Ali and Razali (2019) found that reading aloud was an effective strategy for ESL students and could easily be implemented into literature circles. ESL students often have stronger listening comprehension than reading comprehension, so hearing the story aloud can help them access more challenging books than they would be able to read independently.

Literature circles are an instructional strategy that can be differentiated easily and therefore can meet the needs of diverse learners. One way literature circles can meet the needs of ESL students is by using small groups. Small groups often help students feel safer and more comfortable taking risks, as opposed to sharing with a larger group. There are many ways for students to participate in literature circles, and this instructional strategy allows students to participate as much or as little as they are comfortable doing (Heydon, 2003). This is especially important for ESL students. As they listen to the discussions and complete the differentiated response activities, they can build their confidence over time to become more comfortable participating in whatever way they choose (Heydon, 2003). ESL students need to learn language through expert speakers. Literature circles allow native English-speaking peers to model the language and possibly do it in a different way than a native-speaking teacher. Less formal language is used when speaking to peers than to adults, so literature circles help ESL students navigate the different uses of language (Heydon, 2003). They can help students understand what type of English is needed in different settings.

In summary, most of the studies reviewed agreed that for literature

circles to be successful, it is imperative that students have a choice in the books they will read as well as in the assigned roles within their small groups. Literature circles can be a beneficial strategy because they incorporate the four components of literacy − reading, writing, speaking, and listening − and allow ESL students to learn from native English speakers. All of the articles reviewed concur that literature circles can improve students' reading skills, and many found that literature circles were most effective for struggling, more reluctant readers.

METHOD

Research Setting and Participants

The data in this study was collected from a fourth-grade, general-education classroom in a suburban, public elementary school. This school accommodates students from preschool to fifth grade, with just over 400 students in the school. Of these roughly 400 students, 52 are identified as ESL, and eight are dual identified as ESL and Special Education. The school is situated in an affluent neighborhood and is historically a high-achieving school.

In the class in this study, there were 17 students ages 9−10. Of the 17 students, three had individualized education plans (IEPs), two students had a 504 plan, and five were ESL students. Two of the ESL students spoke Korean, two spoke Chinese, and one spoke Gujarati, and all were at varying levels of English proficiency. They receive pull-out English instruction for 30 minutes a day with the ESL teacher and some push-in support as needed. On the beginning-of-the-year screener, five students scored below grade level in reading, six scored at grade level, and six scored above grade level. The participants that were included in this study signed an assent form and had parental consent.

Data Collection

Throughout the study, multiple data collection methods were used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. To begin, the teacher analyzed the students' pre-tests from their fictional reading unit to identify some strengths and areas for growth. At the end of the literature

circles, the students completed a post-test, that was of a similar format to the pre-test. Because the tests were similar, the teacher could determine growth in their fiction reading skills from the beginning to the end of implementing literature circles. Along with the pre- and post-test data, the students completed daily reading response activities to give the teacher insight into the students' growth in their reading skills throughout the literature circles. These response activities coincided with the students' daily reading.

In addition to student response activities, the teacher kept a daily log of her notes and observations from small-group discussions. The students were used to her taking notes in their small groups, so this seemed normal to them. This log helped the teacher to understand how the students were progressing with their reading skills as well as their engagement throughout the literature circles. It was used along with a time-on-task analysis to determine the students' level of engagement. For the time-on-task analysis, the teacher recorded the percentage of students who were on task every two minutes during a twenty-minute discussion rotation twice a week (see Appendix C).

Data Analysis

To provide quantitative data, the teacher analyzed the students' pre- and post-test scores and identified areas where the students were able to show growth in their reading skills from the pre- to the post-test. She triangulated this data with the data from the students' daily reading responses and her researcher's log. As she reviewed her researcher's log, she checked whether the students' participation in their daily discussions matched the data from both their daily responses and their post-test.

When determining the students' level of engagement, the teacher was able to use both her researcher's log and the time-on-task analysis. The anecdotal notes from her log were paired with the data from the time-on-task analysis to determine how much time students spent on task and whether they appeared engaged in their small-group discussions and activities. The teacher analyzed student responses on the surveys as well to understand the students' perspectives on how engaged they were in their daily discussions. Engagement was determined based on preparedness, participation, and on-task behaviors.

Validity and Reliability

It is vital that the data collected is both valid and reliable. To ensure validity and reliability, the teacher provided data that was factual and accurate. When taking notes in her researcher's log, she only wrote down what she had witnessed and attempted to refrain from inserting her opinion or interpretation of the situation. When reflecting on the discussions, she was able to use input from the special education teacher and the teaching assistant, who were both present in the classroom during the literacy block, and their inquiry support helped the teacher to verify the observations in her notes.

By using multiple data collection methods, the teacher was able to triangulate the different sources of data to ensure the data was accurate. Each part of the research had multiple data points to cross-reference to ensure its validity.

FINDINGS

The question that this study aimed to answer was "What impacts do literature circles have on reading skills for my ESL students?" To answer this question, the teacher used both pre- and post-test data for a reading fiction unit to determine growth in her students' reading skills from the beginning of the unit to the end. The teacher's daily observation log, along with students' daily reading response activities, helped inform the teacher of her students' progress with reading skills. Through her observations, she was able to note how the students' discussions were impacted. A time-on-task analysis provided the teacher with information on student engagement during the literature circles, and the student surveys helped triangulate all of these data points. The following data has been organized based on the data collection method.

The Pre-Test

The pre-test was given in September of 2022 at the very beginning of the fiction reading unit. A book was read aloud to the students with the pictures shown under a document camera. At four points during the story, the teacher stopped reading and asked the students a question

about the story. The students responded by writing their answer on a page numbered 1 to 4 (see Appendix A).

Although other lessons had been taught before starting the literature circles, the pre-tests provided valuable information as to where the students were as readers before implementing the literature circles. The pre-test also helped inform the nightly reading response activities assigned to the students. The teacher was able to see where the students' strengths and areas for growth were with literature.

When analyzing the pre-tests, it appeared that students seemed to struggle the most with inferential questions. Question 1 asked, "Why do you think the old woman wanted the puppy to go away?" To receive full credit, the students should have been able to answer "The old woman wanted the puppy to go away, because she did not want to outlive anymore of her friends. She knew she would outlive the puppy, so she didn't want to get attached to it." Many students' responses were very practical, such as "The old woman couldn't take care of it," or "The other things in her house would not like a puppy," which is why so many of them did not receive credit for this response. The students who received partial credit answered in some way that the old lady did not want to get too attached to the puppy but left out why she didn't want to become too attached. Because so many students struggled with these inferential questions, I decided to focus on inferential comprehension for their nightly reading responses. These questions would also lead to richer discussions during their small-group discussion time because everyone's responses could be slightly different. Students would have to discuss the text evidence to support their inference and would receive feedback from their group members.

As shown in Figure 1, the students seemed to be most successful with the questions assessing plot and setting and theme (Questions 3 and 4). Theme is a skill that the students had spent a significant amount of time learning in both third grade and during their weekly library time. There were still less than half of the students who received full credit for it on the pre-test so it was decided to incorporate theme responses for discussion towards the end of their books.

FIGURE 1. Pre-Test Data
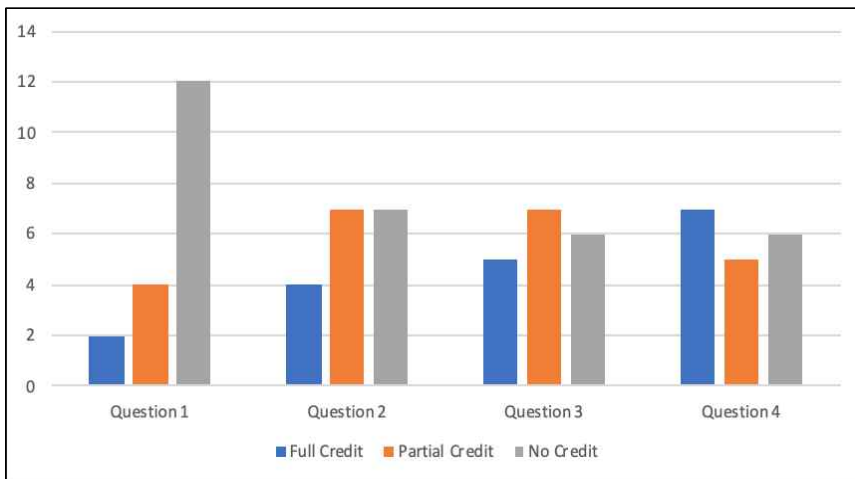
The Post-Test

The post-test was given to students in the same way as the pre-test. The teacher read aloud a realistic fiction story to the class and paused at four points throughout the story. At these pauses, the students were asked a question, and they wrote their responses on a piece of paper (see Appendix B). In analyzing their responses, they were assigned "full," "partial," or "no" credit.

A noticeable point on the post-test was that everyone made progress from the pre-test to the post-test. The students demonstrated the most growth in Question 1 (see Figure 2). This question asked the students to make an inference about the character using textual evidence. Almost every student was able to successfully make an inference about the character, and many were able to use evidence directly from the text to support their response. To receive full credit, students had to successfully make an inference and include textual evidence to support their inference.

The post-test showed that almost all of the students were able to make progress in their inferential comprehension. Sixteen out of the seventeen students showed significant progress from the pre-test to the post-test.

FIGURE 2. Post-Test Data
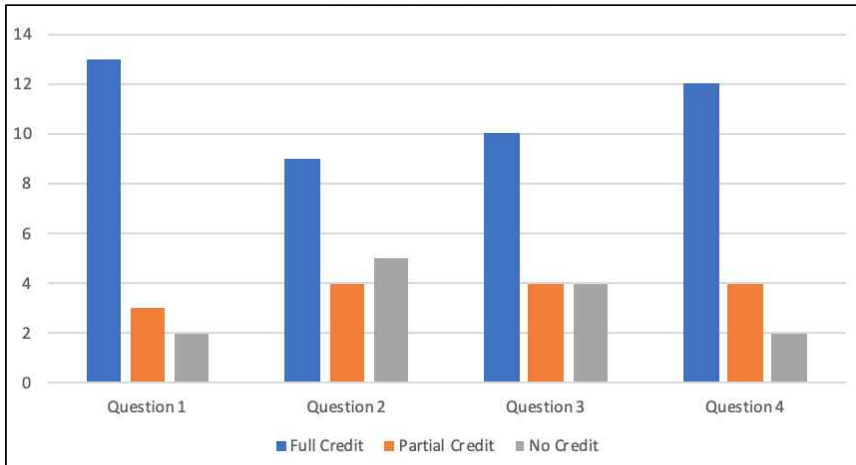
Daily Observations

Every day, as the students were meeting in their small groups, the teacher would rotate among the groups writing down her observations. She first noted how many students came prepared to the discussion, which meant they had thoroughly completed the reading response from the night before and brought their book and written response to the discussion. Every day, there was at least one student who did not complete their nightly reading response, the most being four students. It made it very difficult for these students to participate in the small-group discussions when they didn't come prepared. Some students would complete the assigned work the next night, but a few did not. When students did not complete their assigned work, the teacher noticed the rest of the group was readily willing to help the student by giving a summary of what was assigned and trying to involve that student as much as possible. If a student didn't complete their work, they would also tell the teacher in the morning and try to complete it by the literature circle reading time in the afternoon. It seemed like the students truly wanted to be a part of the discussion and didn't want to disappoint their classmates.

As the teacher listened to the small-group discussions, she would note students' participation, the depth of their conversations, and teacher

prompting. At the beginning of the study, the teacher noticed many groups were having more surface-level discussions and the flow of the discussion was not very conversational. Students were mostly providing a quick summary of what they had read, then going around the circle one-by-one and sharing their response to the nightly prompt. There were not many follow-up comments or questions when the students were sharing, mostly just listening and sharing one at a time.

Most groups also needed more teacher prompting in the beginning to have their discussions be more conversational rather than just sharing their written responses. All of the groups seemed to receive the teacher's feedback well because after the first week, she noticed that all of the groups were becoming much more independent in their discussions. At least one student in each group naturally seemed to become more of a discussion leader to ensure everyone was included and had an opportunity to share their ideas. One of these students was an ESL student who rarely shared her ideas with the whole group. All of the groups began to rely more on their nightly responses to begin their discussions and to refer back to when there was a lull in the discussion. Two of the five groups would still share responses to the nightly assignment individually, but students began to comment more on each other's ideas, and the discussions became more conversational as the study continued.

Student Reading Responses

Each day, the students had to read a section of their novel and then had a reading response assignment to complete. The topic of the response changed daily, but the first part was always a summary. When creating the reading response questions, The teacher decided to focus more on inferential comprehension questions because the students seemed to struggle more with these on the pre-test. She also thought that the inferential questions would help the students have better discussions within their small groups because everyone's answers would be slightly different. Students would be able to refer back to the text to support their responses and have more opportunities to respond to each other's ideas.

In the first few days of the study, the teacher realized that it was necessary to go back and be more explicit about the quality of work that was expected. Based on what she had seen from her students in class,

she didn't feel like the work that many of the students were turning in at the beginning of the study was an accurate representation of their abilities. After having a discussion on the quality of work that was expected in their nightly reading responses, it was felt that the students' work began to more closely reflect the students' abilities and provided more accurate data. As literature circles continued, the teacher noticed that the quality of student responses had improved. The daily discussion seemed to help inform many of the students' responses and make them more confident in answering the prompts. Some of the students even incorporated other students' ideas from the discussion into their response. It appeared that the students' inferential thinking was developing, and it seemed to help for the students to have the chance to discuss these inferences with their groups. The group discussions allowed students to receive feedback on their ideas from others who were also familiar with the book.

The reading responses seemed to help students feel more confident and prepared for the daily, small-group discussions. The groups were able to get started right away because they always had something to start their discussions. Many groups chose to start their discussions with a summary, making sure that they included the most important events, and then would begin discussing some of the other prompts. When discussions lulled, students would often refer back to their responses to pose another question or idea to the group. This became more natural as they progressed through the study. The teacher noticed that the students would refer back to their assignments frequently to make sure they had shared everything they wanted to with their group. The responses eventually became more of a crutch for the discussions rather than a script they would just read from.

Time-on-Task Analysis

The teacher conducted the time-on-task analysis seven times. To determine whether students were on task, she would check how many students were actively engaged in the discussion. Indicators included eyes on the speaker, responding to the speaker, and on-topic conversations.

In the beginning, it would take students longer to get started than later on in the study. After the first week, more students were on task right away when the discussion started and stayed more engaged throughout. It appeared as though the students were more excited to start

their discussions as they read further into their books. Initially, the teacher was unsure how long to give students for their discussions, so she started with 20 minutes. After the first few days, it was noticed that most students were off task for the last six minutes, so the discussion time was cut to 15 minutes. With the decreased time for discussion, more students were on task throughout the majority of the discussion. One group seemed to struggle with staying on task more than the others, so the teaching assistant was asked to sit with that group. Based on the time-on-task analysis, this seemed to keep that group much more on task, which helped the overall percentages of students on task increase. This group also had one student who rarely completed their nightly reading response, so it took this group longer to start, as they took time to figure out who completed the assigned work.

Student Surveys

Like many of the other data points, the teacher noticed that many students' responses on their surveys (see Appendix D) were improving as the study progressed. The students took eight surveys in total over the four weeks of the study. The student responses to the reflection statements were averaged for each week and converted to percentages. These percentages were organized into Tables 1 and 2 based on the beginning and end of the study, respectively.

Over time, it was observed that the number of students completing their reading stayed about the same, while more students improved their reading response entries as the study continued. Another survey item that stayed about the same throughout the study was being a respectful and caring listener throughout the discussion. Based on the survey results and the researcher's log, it could be seen that many students felt their discussions were improving as the study progressed. More students felt like they were asking clarifying questions, responding to others' ideas, and sharing important ideas in the middle of the study compared to the beginning. This aligned with the teacher's daily observation notes, showing that more students were participating more frequently and that many of the group discussions became more conversational.

TABLE 1. Beginning of Study (Week 1) Average Responses

Reflection Statement	Yes (%)	Somewhat (%)	No (%)
I completed my assigned reading before the meeting.	97.0	0.0	2.5
I wrote thoughtful and complete reading response journal entries.	75.0	24.5	0.0
I asked questions to clarify my understanding of the book and/or to help me better understand other group members' ideas.	58.5	0.0	41.5
I brought all required materials to the literature circle meeting (books and reading response).	86.0	0.0	14
I shared parts of the book that were important to me and why they were important.	69.5	19.5	11.0
I was a careful and caring listener by giving my complete attention to other group members when they were speaking.	86.0	14.0	0.0
I responded to other group members' ideas.	55.5	35.5	8.0

TABLE 2. End of Study (Week 4) Average Responses

Reflection Statement	Yes (%)	Somewhat (%)	No (%)
I completed my assigned reading before the meeting.	91.0	0.0	9.0
I wrote thoughtful and complete reading response journal entries.	86.0	14.0	0.0
I asked questions to clarify my understanding of the book and/or to help me better understand other group members' ideas.	76.0	15.0	9.0
I brought all required materials to the literature circle meeting (book and reading response).	85.0	0.0	15.0
I shared parts of the book that were important to me and why they were important.	76.0	18.0	6.0
I was a careful and caring listener by giving my complete attention to other group members when they were speaking.	82.0	18.0	0.0
I responded to other group members' ideas.	71.0	29.0	0.0

Overall, the literature circles were found to have many positive impacts on the students. Student growth was observed in their inferential reading skills and their ability to have collaborative discussions. The literature circles provided these ESL students an authentic way to practice English in a safe environment where all students in the group had a shared experience. The students were able to receive immediate peer feedback on their responses and deepen their understanding of their novel. Throughout the study, the students were able to improve both their speaking and listening skills, as they learned to listen and respond to one another's ideas in a small-group setting.

DISCUSSION

This study attempted to answer the question "What impacts do literature circles have on my ESL students?" While exploring this question, the study also analyzed their effects on students' social skills and reading motivation.

Many positive impacts of literature circles were found on the students, especially on the ESL students. When supports were in place, the ESL students were able to be active participants, and sometimes leaders, in the discussions. Some of these supports, as suggested by Ali and Razali (2019) and Heydon (2003), included audio versions of the text, chapter summaries, and sentence stems for discussions. Before students read the assigned daily chapters, the teacher would preview the response prompts with the ESL students so that they could be more focused on those questions while reading. The reading responses helped the ESL students come to the small-group discussions prepared with ideas they could share aloud. Through the discussions, students were able to deepen their comprehension of the story, which also helped them improve their responses. When analyzing responses from the beginning to the end of the study, students were able to be more descriptive and use more text evidence to support their thinking.

Another benefit of the literature circles was that they incorporated reading, writing, speaking, and listening with an authentic purpose. This is vital to good ESL instruction. McElvain (2010) found that literature circles allow ESL students to spend an almost equal amounts of time on these four components of language acquisition, which aided them in progressing in all four areas. When students are given real-world

examples of how English is used, it can be more motivating for students to learn the language (Scarcella, 1990).

Through the literature circles, the students were exposed to how reading is used at a fourth-grade level, read real books, and had many models of native English speakers using the language through many different modalities. During the discussions, the ESL students were able to receive immediate feedback on their writing, speaking, and listening from their peers in their small group. This also helped the ESL students to navigate language use in different settings. Instead of their reading instruction being teacher-to-student talk, the students were able to interact with each other and use less formal language to discuss their stories in a more relaxed setting. The quality of student reading responses improved from the beginning to the end of the study as the discussions allowed students to deepen their understanding of the story.

Through the teacher's observations, it was discovered that the literature circles were motivating for the more-reluctant readers, which aligned with Avci and Yüksel's (2011) findings. These students seemed excited and ready to participate every day and would ask throughout the morning what time they would get to have their group discussions. Having a purpose for reading seemed very motivating for these students. They were reading to be able to have collaborative discussions instead of just to answer questions or for fun. One of the most successful groups, based on their time on task, quality of discussion, and number of students following expectations, was made up mostly of struggling readers. Almost every time this group was observed, they were deep in discussion, responding to one another's ideas, and asking each other questions about the story. This group was almost always the last to finish their discussions because they continued to ask questions and respond to one another.

On the other hand, the teacher was surprised by the students who appeared to be unmotivated by literature circles. The students who didn't complete their work the most frequently were two of the higher-proficiency students, who almost always completed their daily homework. One of these students enjoyed reading the book but mentioned that he did not like the required assignments. The higher-achieving students are used to reading at their own pace and mostly for fun, so it seems that they preferred to go at their own pace rather than staying with the group. This follows Avci and Yükel's (2011) finding that the higher-achieving students were the ones who made the

least amount of progress from literature circles. This may be because they are not as motivated to participate in the literature circle activities. The daily reading responses also required these students to write their thoughts rather than only having to verbally express their ideas. For one of these students, he tended to shut down once writing was involved. This may have played a role in him not completing some of his nightly assignments.

Finally, the literature circles may have been more effective if they had been conducted completely in class rather than having homework assignments. Because some of the reading and the responses were homework, there was at least one student who came to class each day without having completed their response. When the response wasn't complete, it made it challenging for that student to fully participate in the discussion. If the student had completed the required reading, they could at least have shared some ideas and responded to others. If literature circles had been conducted solely in class, the teacher could have more easily overseen the work and ensured that all students completed their assignments. Students would have had ample time to complete their work with quality, and the teacher could have given immediate feedback on their responses. By doing literature circles only in class, it would have alleviated many of the challenges students faced in this study.

IMPLICATIONS FOR KOREAN ELT

Although the study was conducted in an ESL context in the United States, practical implications for EFL students in Korea are provided. With a review of recently published literature by the first author and support by the second author, who is professionally and personally acquainted with the Korean ELT context, the following practical instructional implications are offered.

Impact of Literature Circles Korean EFL students

Reading circles are prevalent in Korean ELT (Kim, 2003; Suh, 2019), and are widely used in other EFL contexts (Espinosa-Cevallos et

al., 2022). One study examined the effect of literature circles' impact on students extensive reading skills (Goa & Wodai, 2022), and the practice of extensive reading in Korean ELT is widely practiced. In fact, Korea has established KEERA, the Korean English Extensive Reading Association (https://www.keera.kr), for the promotion of extensive reading in and out of the classroom.

When reading circles, connected with existing extensive reading practices, operate around shared books based on the student group's interest, EFL learners have opportunities to engage in meaningful speaking practice, which is often limited in the Korean EFL standardized testing culture. Through guided discussions, students can deepen their comprehension of the story's or book's non-fiction content as they learn from each other. These discussions can be built around writing activities that are also examined/discussed in the reading circles, and therefore connecting reading, writing, speaking, and listening with an authentic purpose.

Impact of Literature Circles on Korean EFL Students' Social Skills and Reading Motivation

In EFL contexts, such as Korea's, there is often little opportunity to have social and personal interaction outside of the English language classroom. As a result, students often become adept at question-and-answer dialogues based on course content (i.e., a short-answer form of back-and-forth communication). This results in, especially at lower levels and among younger elementary learners, the inability to produce connected discourse beyond the sentence level, the absence of the use of cohesive devices to build a paragraph level of speech and form an argument or opinion. This leaves many students with only an "elementary proficiency plus (limited communication)" proficiency level (i.e., a 405−600 TOEIC score) in speaking after numerous years of study. Based on our study's findings, by offering students opportunities to interact through literature circles, preferably through in-class activities, learners can carry on discussions in English with their peers, summarize content, analyze plots, critique characters, etc., especially if implemented early and continued as a consistent practice throughout the learners' study of English.

In sum, the outcomes of this study are beneficial for Korean ELT,

as it recommends an instructional reading practice that engages students in meaning communication both orally and in writing; they are reading and listening to one another with a purpose. These factors are motivating for students and provide them with a risk-taking context to use the language. This offers a valuable learning experience for Korean EFL learners in the high-stakes assessment environment that they experience, where learning the language is most often in a lockstep curriculum, fully aligned with standardized testing requirements. However, lockstep curriculums aligned with standardized tests do not necessarily account for an important factor in language learning: student motivation. It is important to incorporate a variety of instructional practices that instill the desire to learn English that promotes proficiency.

CONCLUSION

Literature circles proved to be a valuable instructional strategy for all the students in this study. Not only did the ESL students benefit from participating, but almost all of the students in the class were able to demonstrate progress in their reading comprehension skills. Aside from reading skills, there were noticeable improvements in the students' ability to listen and respond to one another in collaborative discussions. These acquired discussion skills are likely to be beneficial to other students in other academic areas moving forward. Because of the benefits found through this inquiry, the teacher plans for literature circles to be an instructional strategy that she will continue to use and recommend other teachers to use.

When implementing literature circles in the future, the teacher plans to complete them fully in class. Students will have time to finish their daily reading and assignments during our scheduled literacy block. Almost every problem encountered in this study was an issue with the homework portion. Students would forget materials and leave them at school or have other commitments that didn't allow them the time to complete their assignments at home. More progress with students' reading and language skills is expected if literature circle activities are completed fully in class.

The literature circles were a fun and engaging way for the students to practice their reading skills for an authentic purpose. While developing their reading skills, the students were provided a safe

environment to decrease affective factors that could affect language acquisition and were allowed some choice in their learning. It was powerful to see normally quiet, reserved students find their voice and contribute to their group. The confidence students found in themselves during the literature circles will hopefully follow them on the rest of their language acquisition journeys.

THE AUTHORS

Cynthia Brown is an elementary school teacher at Willowbrook School in Glenview, Illinois, USA. She received her Masters of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, with ESL and bilingual endorsements, from Concordia University Chicago. Email: crf_browncj3@cuchicago.edu

Michelle Soonhyang Kim is director of the USA Language Institute, Orlando, Florida, and instructor of TESOL and Teacher Research at Concordia University Chicago, Illinois, USA. She received her PhD from Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, USA. Her recent research interests are pre-/in-service teacher preparation, academic oral classroom discourse, and online teacher education. Email: michelle.kim@cuchicago.edu

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APPENDIX A

Fiction Pre-Test

Pre-Comprehension Assessment: *The Old Woman Who Named Things*

Teachers will gather students with a clipboard that is prepared with either 4 boxes numbered 1-4, or 4 colored sticky notes to denote the four stopping points. Flag the pages listed below, and as you are reading aloud the following pages, stop to pose these questions and have students independently respond.

1. <u>Character</u>	2. <u>Vocabulary and Figurative Language</u>
P. 15 "Why do you think the old woman wants the puppy to go away?"	P. 19 "Listen again to this sentence: '...*and she thought herself pretty clever in this.*'" Explain what she means.
3. <u>Plot and Setting</u>	4. <u>Themes and Ideas</u>
P. 24 "It says, 'The old woman made a decision.'" Describe what caused the old woman to change her thinking.	End of story: "What is an important message readers learn from reading this book?"

APPENDIX B

Fiction Post-Test

Grade 4

Post-Comprehension Assessment: *Bad Case of Stripes*

Teachers will gather students with a clipboard that is prepared with either four boxes numbered 1–4, or four colored sticky notes to denote the four stopping points. Flag the pages listed below, and as you're reading aloud the following pages, stop to pose these questions and have students independently respond.

1. Character	2. Vocabulary and Figurative Language
How did Camilla change from the beginning to the end of the study?	Listen to this sentence again: "Camilla was poked and prodded, looked at, and listened to." What do you think the word *prodded* means in this sentence?
3. Plot and Setting	**4. Themes and Ideas**
How is Dr. Bumble's reaction to Camilla's stripes different than Mrs. Cream's?	What lesson do you think Camilla learned in this story?

APPENDIX C

Time-on-Task Analysis

2 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

4 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

6 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

8 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

10 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

12 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

14 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

16 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

18 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

20 minutes
Number of Students on Task _____/17

Percentage _____

APPENDIX D

Student Survey

Name _____   Date _____

Title _____   Author _____

Reflection Statements	Yes	Some-what	No
I completed my assigned reading before the meeting.			
I wrote thoughtful and complete reading response journal entries.			
I asked questions to clarify my understanding of the book and/or to help me better understand other group members' ideas.			
I brought all required materials to the Literature Circle meeting (book, journal, etc.)			
I shared parts of the book that were important to me and explained why they were important.			
I was a careful and caring listener by giving my complete attention to other group members when they were speaking.			
I responded to other group members' ideas.			

What was an important contribution you made to the discussion today?

_____
_____
_____

What was an important idea or explanation expressed by someone else during the discussion?

_____
_____
_____

Teacher Comments:

_____
_____
_____

Learning Strategies for Sheltered Science Instruction

Vanessa Martinez
Willowbrook High School, Villa Park, IL, USA
Michelle Soonhyang Kim
USA Language Institute, Orlando, FL, USA
Concordia University Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA

Research highlights the importance of cooperative learning strategies to support language acquisition for English language learners (ELLs). Most recently, the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), which provides content and language support, has been used in classrooms. This study identifies various cooperative learning strategies and activities to use in a sheltered science classroom. Sheltered courses are used to target language needs in addition to content objectives and standards. The central question of this study aims to identify and apply the most effective cooperative learning strategies and activities in a sheltered science classroom. Through the use of classroom observations, pre- and post-assessments, reflections, and surveys, we were able to determine that incorporating learning strategies and targeting content and language objectives resulted in an increase in student motivation and participation. Strategies used targeted specific learning targets for students, while increasing motivation and performance. Students became more engaged through the various activities and were looking forward to more. Implications for Korean ELT are offered for international schools and university contexts.

Keywords: learning strategies, English learner (EL), hands-on, sheltered, language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

A teacher wears many hats in and out of the classroom. I (the first

author) also believe that as teachers, we are always finding ways to improve our craft for the benefit of our students. This comes with trying new strategies, differentiating instruction, and going out of our comfort zone to do research. In doing so, we are straying away from the "one size fits all" approach and recognizing that every student is different. I have been teaching for three years now. On multiple occasions, I have heard veteran teachers complain about having to change their assessments because the majority of the students scored poorly. Not only that, but I have also heard them talk about strategies they have used once and never again because they did not work the first time. It is important to remember that every student is different, and with new students coming in every year, the assessments and strategies will not reflect the same results each year.

Throughout the years, and as I gain more experience in teaching, I have been allowed to work with different levels of students. Their needs range from academic and emotional to language needs. This year specifically, I am teaching the sheltered chemistry class, which is offered to our English language learners (ELLs). Sheltered classes target not only content knowledge but also focus on language acquisition and providing students with language support. Chemistry is challenging, especially for ELLs. My experience with teaching core chemistry and now sheltered chemistry has allowed me to reflect on my daily lessons and find ways I can better support my students.

With teaching a new course, especially one that requires language support, I want to explore different cooperative learning strategies that increase participation, discussion, and engagement among my sheltered ELLs. According to Irby (2018), ELLs, "benefit when their teachers utilize a wide range of English as a second language (ESL) instructional strategies" (p. 2). Through the process of applying strategies, questioning, and the act of reflection, I can identify the strategies that will have the most impact on student learning and engagement.

I am constantly asking myself if I am doing enough for my students. Are there strategies that I can incorporate in my daily instruction to teach the content but simultaneously meet their language needs? From the questions, I was able to generate my overall topic: finding effective cooperative learning strategies to incorporate in my sheltered science classrooms. I think it is an important topic to research as there has been a significant increase in ELLs in the past couple of years at my school. Through my research, I have been able to find the most effective

strategies that will not only benefit my science students but me, as well, as I continue to have sheltered courses in the future. Implications for Korean ELT are offered for international schools and university contexts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review conducted identifies various cooperative learning strategies that are most effective when working in ESL classrooms. These included hands-on activities, collaborative grouping, and the use of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP). A majority of the studies analyzed were conducted in a science classroom at the middle school level. They all started by identifying who the ELLs were and the support needed for language acquisition.

Understanding ELL Students

The majority of articles reviewed highlighted the importance of incorporating various strategies into daily instruction. They also stressed the importance of knowing who the ELLs are and understanding their needs. With an increase in ELLs each year, schools are running into issues on how to support the students in the classroom. From a study conducted by Irby et al. (2018), we learned that we should not keep language activities separate from content activities in the classroom. The problem then was the experience of the classroom teacher and the overall classroom environment. The focus of the study was to understand the needs of ELLs and the best strategies to support their learning. Strategies included collaborative and cooperative grouping, questioning, manipulatives, technology integration, and academic language scaffolding. Evidently, strategies incorporated in the classrooms helped make content more accessible to the students. The study pointed out that in an ESL classroom that also has native-speaking English students, 60 percent of instruction should incorporate one of the strategies to engage students and make the content more understandable.

In addition to highlighting the importance of strategies, Cho and McDonnough (2009) pointed out the challenges they present to teachers and the changes they make to instruction. The problem for a content teacher who has ELLs is that they are often unfamiliar with the various

English language learning strategies that can be incorporated into classroom instruction due to the lack of training and experience. ELLs increase in numbers yearly, putting increased demand on ESL teachers. This also results in ELLs being placed in mainstream classrooms with native English speakers. Cho and McDonnough looked at challenges experienced – both by the teacher and students – strategies used to accommodate ELLs, and the support needed for English language learning instruction. They found that the main accommodation all teachers provided was extra time, with changing the rate of speech being a close second. The two least supports given were providing ELLs with different tasks and/or instructional materials. They pointed out the importance of instructional training and having all teachers, not only ESL teachers, share the responsibility.

Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS) have replaced the science standards that teachers used in the past. The purpose was to update the model of sheltered instruction for science classrooms using NGSS (Buxton & Casswell, 2020). Using six instructional practices that were planned for use in the first year of the study, data were collected through teacher observation logs, interviews, and student assessments. The areas that were targeted were scientific investigation, the language of science, teaching multilingual learners, and assessing science learning. One of the outcomes of this study is something that we already know: We should not keep language activities separate from content activities in the classroom.

Van Orman (2021) examined the impact of science and academic vocabulary in science instruction. It was designed for sheltered EL classrooms for middle and high school students and used the NGSS. Science teachers developed a list of 90 vocabulary words that accounted for the conceptual needs in reading, learning, and assessment activities. Throughout 15 weeks, vocabulary words were reviewed and introduced through definitions, visuals, mini-scenarios, background knowledge, and various other activities. Repetition of words and making them meaningful were expressed as the most essential ideas in the study.

Learning Strategies: Collaborative Strategies and Hands-on Activities

Wilson et al. (2016) conducted research in multiple settings to determine

the effectiveness of certain learning strategies that would increase student performance, engagement, and motivation. "The focus of this study is to find the best practice methods for ELLs that will increase engagement, comprehension, motivation, incite critical thinking, and stimulate interest in science" (p. 32). Like in other studies, collaborative grouping and hands-on activities were highlighted due to the positive impact they have on ELLs learning. The most important findings by Wilson et al. are the importance of hands-on activities, visuals, meaningful discussions, and engaging students in critical-thinking activities that allow them to use both English and their native language.

Collaborative grouping is a constant strategy present in ESL instruction. Rance-Roney (2009) talks about the importance of grouping and how to create effective groups to maximize student growth. According to Rance-Roney, groups can be created using the following guidelines: oral language proficiency, personality, controlled grouping, shared first language, and academic grouping. Each targets specific skills for students to improve on in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. When students belong to three or more groups, they are able to participate in various discussions to meet the language and content objectives. It also helps them improve their communication skills with others.

In another study (Casey et al., 2007), the focus was designed to support students by using culturally responsive teaching to draw on their cultural backgrounds. The framework of this study followed Lev Vygotsky's theory of social interaction. In the lessons designed, students applied science-specific vocabulary through various hands-on activities. As a class, students created initial definitions and revised them in their science journals as they continued with each lesson. Not only were students working on vocabulary skills, but the teacher also reported an improvement in writing skills. Teacher notes and reflections, observations, student work, pre-test, and post-test scores, and teacher feedback were all used to interpret the success of the study. The results showed that students who engaged in reciprocal teaching and lessons demonstrated an increase in content understanding.

Similar to the studies mentioned above, Linares (2021) explored how a sheltered teacher engages and instructs ELLs in her class. The most important findings were the importance of hands-on activities, visuals, meaningful discussions, and engaging students in critical thinking activities that allow them to use both English and their native language.

Learning Strategies: SIOP Model

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) was common in various articles. Kareva and Echevarria (2013) talked about the components of SIOP and how it benefits second language learners through various strategies and techniques. The SIOP model promotes acquisition in the content area, but it also targets language development. This means that teachers are not only including content standards, like NGSS, in their lessons, they are including language standards. The same goes for objectives, both content and language objectives are identified. Language objectives allow oral practice in native and target languages, leading to the development of background knowledge and academic vocabulary. The Kareva and Echenarria study focuses on the importance of cooperative learning and reading comprehension strategies, amongst others, to develop learning for students. Using SIOP, cooperative learning strategies were found to enhance content and academic language learning for ELLs.

The SIOP model is one that has been much used in recent years. Similar to Kareva and Echevarria (2013), Settlage et al. (2004) found that the SIOP model promotes acquisition in the content area, but it also targets language development. Their study explored how inquiry can be scaffolded into sheltered instruction to examine the issues of teaching science to culturally diverse students. The model was designed to advocate inquiry through hands-on instruction, student–student interactions, discussions, and reflections. Overall, three areas of learning were targeted: inquiry-based teaching, science learning for EL students, and inquiry versus sheltered instruction. In the area of inquiry versus sheltered instruction, they highlighted the importance of using the SIOP model with ELLs, which provides content and language support.

In summary, the majority of the research studies looked at cooperative learning strategies that incorporated hands-on activities and group discussions to increase motivation and engagement in the classroom. With grouping strategies, they also highlighted having various groups for students to differentiate instruction. In addition, the studies used similar data-collecting methods: observations, surveys, and pre- and post-assessments. All of the studies agreed that using various learning strategies and using the SIOP model were most effective when teaching in ESL classrooms.

METHOD

Research Setting and Participants

This research study was conducted at a public high school in the United States. The school has over 1,800 students that come from various backgrounds. Courses offered to students range from AP and core to sheltered, co-taught, and many more. The participants involved in this study were 15 sophomore students between the ages of 15−16 in the sheltered chemistry class. They are all enrolled in sheltered classes, including chemistry to receive language support. To determine which level a student is placed in, the school looks at the students Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English (ACCESS) and the Standford Diagnostic Reading Test (SDRT) scores. ACCESS is given to students in grades K−12 to track their progress and proficiency in learning English.

The levels a student is placed in are as follows: Students who are at Level 1 get more one-on-one support and modified tests. These students get tests in their home language or with more pictures or with other modifications. Students who are placed in Level 2 are considered intermediately fluent in English. They are given more readings and vocabulary in English, with less one-on-one support. This level focuses on strengthening students' reading, writing, listening, and verbal skills in English. Students who are placed in Level 3 are considered to be advanced and all of their work is in English. They are expected to read, write, and speak English throughout the course. Students in Level 3 mostly work independently with almost no support from the classroom aide.

Based on their English proficiency levels, the participants in this study were either intermediate or advanced learners, making them Level 2 or Level 3. The class size was relatively small compared to the core classes. Out of the 15 participants, 12 of them were fluent in Spanish while the remaining spoke Arabic. While the majority of the participants spoke Spanish, they understood English well. With it being a smaller class, students were able to move around in the classroom and lab area. The participants had been enrolled in ESL classes prior to high school. At their middle schools, they received language support to aid in acquiring English.

Since they were Level 2 and Level 3 learners, all work was given to them in English. The students carried out activities and participated in various strategies while being observed. They participated in surveys and discussions to provide feedback on whether the strategy used was effective in increasing their motivation and engagement in class. All of the material was given out in English, including the consent form. Only parents who did not consent to the participation of their child in the study returned the form, otherwise, they were included in the study.

Data Collection

The primary methods used to collect data in this study were teacher observations, interviews, pre- and post-assessment scores, questionnaires, and reflections. One of the data sources looked at was the students' ACCESS scores and reading class placement. The ACCESS test was administered to all ELLs and measured their proficiency in four domains. These domains were reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Using the students' scores in each of the domains, and their overall composite score, I (the first author) was able to determine which areas the students were struggling with. I used their reading level placement to determine if they were a beginner, intermediate, or advanced learner. This also helped me understand whether they were Level 1, 2, or 3 students. I also used my grade book to collect data. Using the grade book, I was able to look at the students' scores on assignments. I used this to see the category breakdown of assignments and see which they were struggling with in labs, classwork/homework, or tests/quizzes.

One of the biggest data sources that I used was teacher observations. Keeping a journal is essential when conducting observations. I easily wrote down notes as students were working independently and as a group in the lab. As I implemented various strategies, I wrote down notes on how students reacted to a certain strategy. I also wrote down comments that students made or any changes I would make to each strategy. This all seemed normal to the students, since I usually walk around the room and take notes. The most important question to keep in mind as I took notes was my research question: What are some cooperative learning strategies that can improve content and language acquisition in sheltered science classes?

In addition to the observations and note-taking, I used questioning and reflective methods to collect data. Questioning was used to stimulate

a discussion with students to determine what strategies worked well. From the information I gained, I reflected on what I would continue to incorporate and what would be changed or removed. The reflections helped me better understand my students and how they learn. From these reflections, I not only monitored their progress but also evaluated my own strengths and weaknesses.

Lastly, I used student surveys to measure student engagement and participation. The survey was given at the end of the lesson when a new strategy was used. The survey was handed out on paper and students wrote their responses to the questions. Each question focused on the strategy that was used and whether they thought it was useful. The survey questions were aimed at answering the overall question of the study: What are some cooperative learning strategies that can improve content and language acquisition in sheltered science classes? The plan was for students to take these surveys as a form of metacognitive thinking.

Data Analysis

After obtaining the ACCESS scores, I determined which domain students were struggling with the most. This helped me get an understanding of which areas to target throughout each lesson and activity. By determining which domain − reading, writing, speaking, or listening − my students needed to improve, I was able to select multiple learning strategies to incorporate in my lessons. Additionally, I used the pre-/post-test scores to measure students' academic growth. Students took a pre- and a post-test at the start and end of the study. From the scores, I was able to see whether the lessons helped increase their performance. Using the student survey feedback, I searched for similarities and differences based on student responses. The feedback provided some insight as to which strategies were most effective and favored. Throughout my analysis, I used my observations and reflections to determine if the strategies were beneficial for sheltered instruction.

Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of this study were essential to the analysis of this study. All materials and forms submitted were kept

confidential and stored away in a locked cabinet. Participants answered questions after a new learning strategy was used to provide feedback on their overall learning experience. To ensure the validity of the responses, all the questions were kept the same for all students and for pre- and post-tests. This provided consistency for the students in their responses. Throughout the study, the participants had the option of withdrawing their participation. Those who chose to withdraw from the study had no repercussions. A safe space was created for students to share with others freely. They were not pressured to share but had the opportunity to share when they were ready. No participant received special attention for their participation in the study. To maintain confidentiality, data was collected anonymously. There were no names associated with any particular data.

When conducting this study, I collaborated with others through inquiry support. According to Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2020), there are four different collaborative strategies: shared inquiry, parallel inquiry, intersecting inquiry, and inquiry support. Inquiry support is when "teacher candidates or practicing teacher inquirers can take full ownership of their inquiry project but invite one or more professionals who are not currently engaging in inquiry to support their work" (p. 95). Through inquiry support, I was able to get feedback from teachers who had multiple perspectives. For the most part, all levels of chemistry tend to cover the same topics and try to follow the same schedule. However, since my sheltered students had language needs, I was able to adapt and create materials that worked best for my students. Although we tried to follow the same schedule and cover the same topics, in the end, the sheltered class had its own curriculum. This worked in my favor because I was able to change my lessons to better support my students.

My research question was: What are some cooperative learning strategies that can improve content and language acquisition in sheltered science classes? Through inquiry support, I could invite other sheltered and ESL teachers into my classroom to conduct observations and give constructive criticism regarding improving student engagement. I used their constructive criticism to improve my skills as a teacher and better my instruction. In addition, they shared some strategies and techniques that they used and even helped me research new ones for all sheltered teachers to use.

RESULTS

When collecting data for this study, engaging in all components of inquiry was important to ensure validity and reliability. The misconception behind using all components of inquiry is that most see it as a straight line: developing a wondering → collecting data → analyzing data → taking action → sharing. Instead, inquiry has to be seen in the form of a circle, where there is no beginning or end (Dana & Yendol-Hoppey, 2020). To start the inquiry circle, the question regarding the best learning strategies for sheltered science instruction arose. In order to follow through with the inquiry cycle and ensure triangulation, multiple data sources were looked at. I gathered information through various activities, lessons, and surveys given to the students. While collecting data, I took notes based on observations and student reactions. This helped to ensure that there was no bias, and it seemed normal to the students, as I normally walk around the room taking notes. The study focused on incorporating various learning strategies to support instruction for ELLs placed in sheltered science classrooms.

ACCESS Scores

The first set of data analyzed was the student's overall ACCESS scores. ACCESS scores were used to pinpoint which language area (reading, writing, listening, speaking) students were struggling in. I looked at their scores in each domain and their overall composite score. To collect data, activities focused on incorporating hands-on activities, various cooperating strategies, and a SIOP lesson, all dealing with the topic of "Atomic Structure." Figure 1 represents the average ACCESS scores of the fifteen students in each domain, in addition to an average class composite score.

The average of the class in each domain was as follows: reading 3.9, writing 3.7, listening 3.2, and speaking 3.2. The average composite score of all 15 students was 3.8. According to WIDA score reports, a composite score of 3.8 means students are at Level 3: Developing ELLs and over halfway towards achieving proficiency Level 4: Expanding ELLs (WIDA, 2014, p. 10). Upon looking for the ACCESS scores, some students did not have any reported due to being new students in the

district. Therefore, I looked at their placement in reading classes, which corresponds to their ELL level according to the WIDA rubrics.

FIGURE 1. Average ACCESS Scores in Each of Four Domains
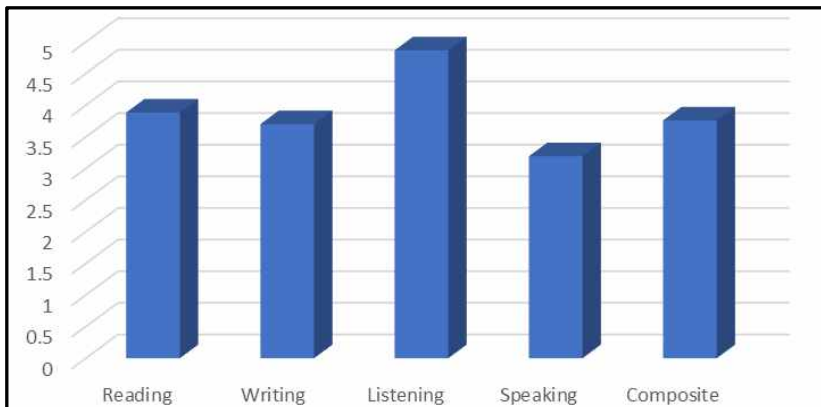
Learning Strategies

The first strategy that was introduced to the students was a hands-on activity in which students worked with a big magnetic atom. The students used this atom to identify the nucleus and the electron cloud. In addition, they were asked to identify which subatomic particles (protons, neutrons, and electrons) were located in the atom. Once students were familiar with the atom, they used magnetic positive, negative, and neutral particles to practice making elements on the periodic table.

Another strategy that was used was the Jot Thoughts activity. The students were given the word *atom* at the beginning of the first lesson. They were given five minutes to write anything they could associated with the word *atom*. After five minutes, they shared what they had written down in a small group setting. Another strategy used was called One Stray. For this strategy, the students worked together in the lab area to answer questions on a whiteboard. Each person was assigned a role, and the person who was selected as the spokesperson was in charge of explaining to the other groups. It works like a gallery walk, however, instead of everyone moving, one person from each group is traveling with the hand-held whiteboard, explaining to others how they got their

answer.

The last learning strategy used was collaborative grouping. Small-group and whole-group collaboration and discussions were a big part of the class, too. Since class sizes are small, it leaves more room for students to work and talk together. It also makes them feel more comfortable being in a room with fewer people to judge them. Having students collaborate with one another in groups is a good way to scaffold comprehensible input in the classroom. Students are either placed with someone with the same native language, or I switch it up and pair them with someone with a different language, either way, students get language support in their L1 or L2 depending on who they are partnered with.

At the end of each strategy use, the students answered a six-question survey. Table 1 displays the responses to the survey given after the students had used all three of the strategies. The results show that 60% of the students reported being engaged throughout each strategy and less than 13% were still confused. In addition, 100% of the students reported liking the strategies and being willing to use them again in class.

TABLE 1: Student Survey Questions and Responses

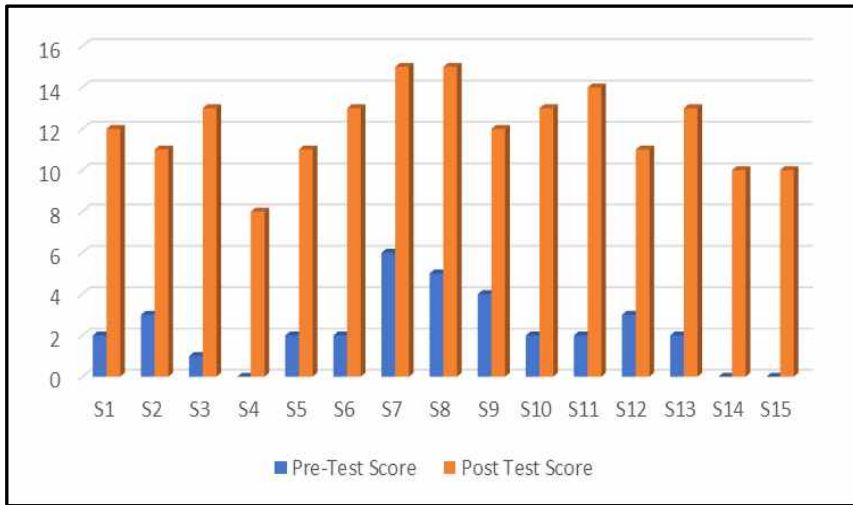| Question	Responses	
	Response	**No. of Responses** ($N = 15$)
How do you feel?	• Confused • Good • Engaged	2 4 9
Did you like the activity?	• Yes • No	15 0
Would you use it again?	• Yes • No	15 0
Learning preference?	• Alone • Small groups • Whole class	1 10 4
Open to more?	• Yes • No	13 2
Any changes?	Student answers varied: • More stuff like this • Group work; not by myself • More examples and models	

When asked how they prefer to learn, approximately 67% of the students responded that they preferred working in small groups. They really liked the variety in their groups and being able to work with all their classmates at different points in the lessons. Only one out of the 15 students reported that he liked working alone. This is normal, since one student is known to be nonverbal and works independently. The results also showed that 87% of the students were open to trying out more strategies in the future. The last question asked students what they would add or change to classroom instruction, and most reported adding more activities like the ones they did throughout this study. They also mentioned that they would like to work in groups and have models more often.

SIOP Lesson

The purpose of the SIOP lesson was to focus on reading comprehension, writing proficiency, oral communication, and listening. Kareva and Echevarria (2013, p. 240) talk about the components of SIOP and how it benefits second language learners through various strategies and techniques. In addition, the SIOP lesson incorporated content and language objectives, which are both essential when teaching students who are in ESL. The language objective was for students to communicate and work collaboratively to determine the topic for the unit.

During the lesson, the students were given multiple opportunities to discuss with their peers or as a whole class. To provide writing support for Level 1 students in Lesson 2, I provided sentence frames to scaffold the English learners who are acquiring a new language. Sentence frames can be modified based on the language proficiency of the students. Some ways in which sentence frames can be differentiated are writing sentences that express language function, replacing target words with blanks, or providing word banks/lists along with original sentences that have target words eliminated. Prior to starting the lesson, students took a pre-test to determine what they already knew. After the three strategies were used and the SIOP lesson conducted, the students completed the post-test. Figure 2 represents the assessment scores for each student.

FIGURE 2. Pre- Verses Post-Assessment Scores

At the beginning of the study, the students took a pre-test on atomic structure. The test consisted of multiple-choice and free-response questions. Using the initial student pre-test scores, the predicted post-test scores were determined for the students. These scores were determined by the chemistry teachers. From their initial scores, students were expected to show a four-point growth between their pre-test and post-test. The four-point growth target was used to come up with the predicted score guide (see Table 2). Students with a predicted score of 8 or higher would have a goal score of 13, with the maximum being 15 points. After going through the SIOP lesson and each learning strategy, the students completed the post-test.

The post-test used the same questions as the pre-test. The data gathered from the assessment showed an increase in scores. All of the students who took the post-test scored higher than their predicted score. The purpose of this study was to inquire about the best learning strategies for sheltered science instruction. The data gathered from the surveys at the end of each activity showed that the students preferred having models that they can use, working in small groups, and having various ways to learn.

TABLE 2. Initial Pre-Test Scores and Predicted Post-Test Scores

Initial Score	Predicted Score
0 – 1	5
2 – 3	6
4 – 7	8
8	13

DISCUSSION

The data gathered from this study shows that incorporating learning strategies in sheltered science instruction improves student engagement and performance. The data were most similar to what was found in the literature review. The data were collected through student surveys, assessment scores, and reported ACCESS scores. The data collected represented student growth from the time the students took the pre-assessment to the end when they completed the post-assessment. The results showed that the students worked better when they had manipulatives that they could work with (such as the model of the atom). The results also showed that the students were more engaged when working in the various group settings because they had others to talk through the problems with. Through the literature review conducted, multiple sources reported that hands-on activities and collaborative grouping were effective strategies (Cho & McDonnough, 2009; Irby et al., 2018; Settlage et al., 2004). In addition, other strategies not found in the reviewed literature were also used.

In analyzing the data, it became clear that the students were engaged and performed better when using a model or working in small groups. When the students were asked to work independently at their desks, with no models, there was a lot of confusion and a lack of engagement. Overall, all 15 students surpassed their expected goal on the post-assessment. From the data collected, a direct correlation was found between the learning strategies and SIOP lessons used to increase engagement and student achievement. Over 80% of the students were open to more strategies being implemented in the classroom.

An important takeaway from this study is the importance of differentiation and using new techniques. The results from the survey

given to the students showed that they learn best when working in small groups. In that same survey, the students expressed changes to be made in the classroom so that lessons look more like what was being used in this study. This finding resonates with the statement by Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2020) that "studying teaching strategies and techniques can lead to discoveries that wouldn't become apparent in the absence of systematic study, discoveries can lead to new and significant changes in teaching practice" (p. 25). Studying and implementing new techniques allows teachers to break away from their usual routines and comfort strategies, which will overall enhance their teaching and student learning.

The results from this study supported the predicted research findings: The study effectively identified and incorporated cooperative learning strategies and the SIOP model to improve sheltered science instruction. The research demonstrated that ELLs learn more effectively where there is differentiation in the classroom and when language and content standards are being assessed.

LIMITATIONS

Although this study was conducted with reliability and validity in mind, there are some possible limitations of the study. One limitation is that the study used student ACCESS scores to determine which strategies to use. The limitation to this is that not all the students had ACCESS scores reported; therefore, I had to use other means to determine their language proficiency. I used their class schedules and looked at which reading level they were placed at to get an idea of which level of proficiency the student was at. Although this helped me conduct my study, it was not an official score report for three of the students. Another limitation is the amount of time the study was conducted over and the number of topics covered. In the future, it would be interesting to see how the strategies hold up in different units covered in chemistry. One final limitation is that these strategies were used towards improving sheltered science instruction. It would be interesting to see how they are applied in other content areas.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE KOREAN CONTEXT

Content-based instruction (CBI) via English as a foreign language and English-medium instruction (EMI) are informed to varying degrees by English-only policies on the rise in Asia, including Korea, and so this study's outcomes provide practical insight for Korean ELT.

At the K−12 level, there are two types of school contexts that could benefit from the outcomes of this study on sheltered content (i.e., science) instruction: international schools and foreign schools. (Korean and foreign nationals can attend either type of school, but the distinction is whether Korean nationals receive a Korean high school diploma.) In these schools, instruction is primarily delivered in English as part of school policy due to the demographic of foreign nationals, Korean nationals returning from overseas schooling in English, and/or the internationalization of Korean society and the educational system. Among Korean universities, there has been an increasing implementation of EMI (Bolton et al., 2022; Chang et al., 2017; Cho, 2012), particularly with regard to business, science, and technology instruction. However, there have also been models for sheltered bilingual and immersion instruction at the primary and secondary levels (Lee, 207), positively impacting the learning divide between children of lower and upper socio-economic classes (Jeon, 2012).

In any ESL/EFL context, without strategies, the learner is susceptible to the ebbs and flow of the tide, having little to no involvement in their learning path. Second, if teachers are not adjusting and accommodating their learners' needs and/or preferences, they will be less engaged and motivated. Although this focuses on the implications for international and foreign schools, and universities in Korea, it simply takes us back to basics: meaningful input, purposeful student engagement, and teacher examination of practice.

CONCLUSIONS

Learning strategies and the use of SIOP in sheltered science instruction provide support in learning for ELLs. Previous research conducted by Van Orman et al. (2021) and Cho and McDonnough (2009) supports the use of learning strategies to differentiate classroom

instruction. Differentiation is important because it helps the teacher meet the individual needs of students. Aside from providing language and content support for the students, the use of learning strategies and the SIOP model increased student motivation and performance in the classroom. Strategies selected in this study were meant to target the domain that the students most struggled with, according to their ACCESS scores. By targeting a specific domain, it not only increased student achievement in science, but overall, as well. Due to the results shown in support of cooperative learning strategies and the SIOP model, the first author will continue to use them in classes.

The data collected throughout the study showed how much of an impact differentiation has on student engagement and performance in the classroom. The data collected provided evidence and results to the question regarding the best learning strategies for sheltered science instruction. From the data collected, we can conclude that the best learning strategies for sheltered science instruction include hands-on activities and collaborative grouping. In addition, the data also shows the importance of differentiated instruction. Differentiating learning strategies used and lesson formats can increase student engagement and performance in an ESL classroom.

The research found in this study can be utilized by other sheltered science teachers. Teachers can utilize the data collected in this study to gain insight into various learning strategies used in the classroom. In addition, they will be able to use the data gathered from the SIOP lesson to understand how to implement language and content standards and objectives in their daily lessons. The results show that using SIOP alone, already incorporates learning strategies that target improvement in performance, motivation, and language acquisition. Additionally, teachers can use the information in this study to assess and implement new techniques. It also opens the door for more collaboration between teachers to share ideas.

Overall, the findings in this study demonstrated that learning strategies help increase student achievement, motivation, and language acquisition when used properly and effectively. ELLs benefit from differentiated instruction that target each of their four domains: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This research has shown that cooperative learning strategies are effective methods for supporting ELLs and improving their learning experiences.

THE AUTHORS

Vanessa Martinez is a high school science and ESL teacher at Willowbrook High School in Villa Park, Illinois, USA. She received her Masters of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, with ESL and bilingual endorsements, from Concordia University Chicago. Email: vnss.mrtnz98@gmail.com

Michelle Soonhyang Kim is director of the USA Language Institute and instructor of TESOL and teacher research at Concordia University Chicago. She received her PhD from Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, USA. Her recent research interests are pre-/in-service teacher preparation, academic oral classroom discourse, and online teacher education. Email: michelle.kim@cuchicago.edu

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APPENDIX A

Student Survey Questions

1. How did you feel during today's activity?
2. What did you think of today's activity? (Did you like it?)
3. Would you be against using this strategy again?
4. How do you prefer to learn? (Alone, with classmates, in a small group with the teacher?)
5. Would you be open to trying out different strategies to improve learning?
6. What is one thing you would change, or add, to our classroom to help you learn science?

APPENDIX B

SIOP Lesson

Subject of Unit:	Reading comprehension, writing proficiency, oral communication, and listening.
Subject of Lesson:	Chemistry: Atomic Structure
Suggested Grades:	Grade 10
ESL Level:	Level 2: Early Intermediate Learner Level 3: Advanced Learner
Student Profiles:	The classroom in which I implemented this lesson was Freshman Sheltered Chemistry. There were a total of 15 students in this class, all of whom were fluent in Spanish. Students who are placed in sheltered classes have smaller class sizes and access to an aide in the classroom.
Unit Objectives:	Students will develop reading strategies, including asking questions, making predictions, and problem-solving.
Content Objectives:	Students will be able to explain what makes up an atom. Students will be able to sketch the makeup of an atom. Students will be able to calculate the subatomic particles of an atom based on given information.

Language Objectives:	Students will communicate and work collaboratively to determine the topic for the unit.
Materials:	Atomic Structure Outline Notes and Presentation Slides Drawing Atoms worksheet Whiteboards and expo markers Lab tables and window markers
Procedures:	• Upon entry, students were provided with fill-in notes to complete for the day. • After completing the notes as a class, they were given a worksheet with atom-drawing questions. • In their lab groups, they worked together to draw the four atoms given, with the correct number of protons, neutrons, and electrons. • The drawings were done on the whiteboards given to students with expo markers. Students also had the option of drawing their atoms on the lab tables with window markers. • After all groups drew their atoms, we had a whole-class discussion to go over the individual drawings. At this point, students had an opportunity to make corrections on their worksheets before turning them in for points. • At the end of class, students were given a survey to complete based on the outcome of the lesson and how they felt throughout the activity.
Assessments:	Informal: Students also participated in a whole-class discussion by sharing the drawing of their given atom and explaining the drawing to the class. Unrelated to the content of the lesson: Students were given a survey to complete based on the learning strategies applied in the lesson.

Brief Reports

Designing International Learning Experiences for Sustainability

Ondine Gage and Christi Cervantes

California State University, Monterey Bay, Monterey, California, USA

This paper presents an interdisciplinary view on the pedagogy and practice of virtual exchange for building species identity. Faculty in TESOL and human development reflect on the experience of designing and implementing interdisciplinary virtual exchange and the value of sustainability-oriented virtual learning experiences that cross national boundaries. We suggest that COIL collaborations build a sense of species identity, bringing the world into the classroom, to support global healing.

Keywords: sustainability, COIL, TESOL, reflective practice

INTRODUCTION

Reflective practice provides teachers the opportunity to examine their pedagogy and enhancements to pedagogy. This paper presents an interdisciplinary view on the pedagogy and practice of virtual exchange. Faculty in TESOL and Human Development reflect on the experience of designing and implementing virtual exchange and the value of sustainability-oriented virtual learning experiences that cross national boundaries. As the global pandemic and inclement weather attributed to climate change has touched every nation, dialogs expanding cultural connections, cultural awareness, and human empathy are imperative to civic engagement. Inspired by Birch's (2022) edited volume on English language teachers as peace educators, the authors of this paper suggest that international virtual exchange may offer opportunities for faculty and their students to learn others' perspectives on sustainability, building both international and intercultural awareness of the challenges and

possible solutions for global sustainability.

In the early 1990s, the drive towards globalization and potential for e-learning motivated a need for change in higher education to prepare students to participate in the global economy of the 21st century. The promise of global interconnectedness at the beginning of the millennium prompted universities around the world to "internationalize," defined as ''the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions" of universities (Knight, 2003, p. 1). Whether through e-learning or mobility exchange, internationalization holds the potential to fulfill the fundamental purpose of higher education, which is "the production and exchange of new knowledge about the world and its inhabitants" (Doscher, 2019, para. 8). Internationalization reflects the zeitgeist of the 21st century due to burgeoning globalization and the promise of e-learning (Doscher, 2019). However, after the first decade of the millennium, those interested in the marketization of internationalization began to question the value, while others argued against political motivations for internationalization (Hawanini, 2011). As we now embark on the third decade of the new millennium, we have witnessed the many challenges brought by globalization and the ways in which globalization has contributed to climate change and ultimately the global pandemic. Perhaps it is time to consider Hawanini's (2011) call for universities to create learning ecosystems to "integrate the institution into the emerging global knowledge and learning network" (p. 7) to solve the problems we face today.

DISCUSSION

Promoting a Global Civil Society

Birch's (2009) book, *The English Language Teacher in the Global Civil Society*, proposed that English language teachers use "our strategic positions and power to educate for a peaceful and sustainable world" (p. 4). Birch builds on the work of critical linguists such as Pennycook, who has questioned whether English language teachers promote cultural imperialism. Birch suggests that we take a hard look at our profession and consider the ways in which teachers can use their positioning to

build a more peaceful and just world. With the Earth Charter as a model, she proposes that English language teachers contribute to a "sustainable world that embraces species identity" (p. 2) as opposed to a national or individual identity. Using the English language as a medium, teachers could examine civic culture, identify shared interests, and build the potential for reciprocity in order to support peaceful societies. As a follow-up to this work, Birch's (2022) edited volume examines educational policy, teacher training, and classroom research, illustrating approaches that promote social justice, empathy, and mutual sustainability. At the heart of this work is an allegiance to *species identity*, or the identification of community within all humankind, and the operationalization of a global civic society. Birch suggests that English language teachers use English as a medium for promoting civic culture, empathy, understanding, common interest, and reciprocity that crosses international boundaries. This paper draws on both the aims of internationalization as a site for engaging in a global network for knowledge-building and Birch's charge to use our positioning in support of a global civil society. The authors of this paper consider the potential of international collaboration across disciplines to build awareness of the challenges and promote what Birch identifies as *glocal* awareness. Glocal includes situations that have implications both globally and locally.

For example, the global pandemic has become a glocal endemic with both a global and local impact. Moreover, inclement weather attributed to climate change has also had a glocal impact, touching every nation, including South Korea (Seo, 2022). The United Nations marks climate change as the single greatest threat to human existence in their 2019 report. These are situations that impact everyone locally and globally. As noted in a recent *New York Times* article, "We are in a strange, unsettling purgatory. It's clear that the world has slowed the pace of warming since the Paris accord was established in 2015. But it's also clear that the forces resisting change are powerful, and that the world remains on track to blow past relatively safe warming thresholds" (Sengupta, 2022, para. 2). Given our collective glocal challenges, the goals of internationalization could be used to build awareness of mutual challenges and to identify solutions for the purpose of ensuring our mutual survival.

Sustainability-Oriented Faculty Learning Communities

Sustainability concerns are interdisciplinary, as suggested by the University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) definition: "the integration of environmental health, social equity, and economic vitality in order to create thriving, healthy, diverse, and resilient communities for this generation and generations to come" (2016, para. 2). Within the California State University system, six campuses came together in spring 2022 in a faculty learning community to advance the notion of building an interdisciplinary dialog on sustainability. Rather than house this conversation strictly in environmental science, faculty in art, psychology, education, business, health sciences, TESOL, foreign language, and more, participated in learning about issues of sustainability. The initial conversations began by acknowledging the documented international emotional toll of climate change and global mourning for our planet identified by psychologists as *eco-anxiety* (Barry, 2022; Hickman et al., 2021). Moreover, we also shared an acute awareness of the impact on our students and their families. In the so-called aftermath of the global pandemic (for which nomenclature has been adjusted to an *endemic*), as faculty, we found empowerment in our collective dialog. We began to explore and share resources for coursework to empower our students with the understanding that we can contribute to building dialogs around sustainability regardless of our discipline. From reducing the use of plastics, shifting to plant-based diets, to identifying opportunities for water conservation and the reduction of dependence on fossil fuels, to enacting a civic voice, we acknowledged that when we take action and become part of the solution, our local activity has a global impact. Each faculty member committed to building a sustainability-oriented unit into our collective syllabi to empower our students to be a part of a glocal solution.

Collaborative Online Intercultural Learning

COIL as a Site for Interdisciplinary Dialogs on Sustainability

The authors of this paper suggest that collaborative online intercultural learning (COIL) collaborations between international faculty might also provide fruitful opportunities to build not only intercultural awareness but also glocal opportunities for identifying adaptable global

solutions. Collaborative online intercultural learning, also known as virtual exchange, is the collaborative design of course activities by faculty teaching at different universities around the globe (Guth, 2020). Through international team-based or dyad-partnered activities, students meet with international partners to complete various course learning experiences. In our university, we began exploring COIL in 2019 as a way of introducing intercultural learning early in the university experience, so that students might be inspired to plan for travel study later in their college study. However, as many of our students hold concurrent employment, often providing their own and their families' livelihood, at best, 10% of the students could participate in travel study. Therefore, promoting COIL pedagogy on our campus appeared to be a way that we could bring the world to our classrooms and without contributing to the global carbon footprint.

Additionally, COIL pedagogy provides sites for building multidisciplinary perspectives. Mestenhauser (1998) in his book, *Reforming Higher Education Curriculum*, critiques the traditional academic model. He argues that the traditional academic model of the scientific inquiry that reproduces "variables to the smallest units of analysis" (p. 23) is not useful and creates self-perpetuating silos. Instead, Mestenhauser calls for integrative and interdisciplinary thinking, which he suggests is enhanced through openness to intercultural experiences and adaptation. Likewise, echoing Mestenhauser, Cronje's (2018) "rhizomatic learning," or the ability to pay attention to the interconnectedness of the world and participate in system learning, centers not on reproducing the argument of others but seeing patterns in conceptual models within one context that may be useful in another. Cronje's model is centered on six principles of learning needed today, which include critical thinking and problem-solving; collaboration and leadership, agility, and adaptability; initiative and entrepreneurialism; effective oral and written communication; and accessing and analyzing information; as well as curiosity and imagination. In sum, we suggest that COIL curricular experiences may create social contexts where students must adapt to flexible uses of language or identify technology to fill communication gaps and perhaps different perspectives and approaches to content. In essence, carefully designed COIL collaborations may provide opportunities for rhizomatic learning, bringing together the talents of many cultures for the common good.

Partnerships with South Korea

South Korea as a nation has invested in technology for decades and is a logical collaborator for COIL exchange. South Korea has some of the fastest internet in the world, with a 98% internet penetration rate. Moreover, South Korean popular culture also has a global impact on youth through phenomena like K-pop, K-drama, and film (Song, 2018). While the Lancet report on eco-anxiety did not include students in South Korea (Hickman et al., 2021), a recent media study in South Korea provides a window on the contemporary characteristics of the younger generation (Song, 2018). Song reports that the youth have become increasingly frustrated due to advanced capitalism, in which privatization moves the market through deregulation of capital markets and reduced trade barriers. While the South Korean economy has been very successful, at the same time, this has resulted in challenges to full-time stable employment, a drop in marriages and birth rate, and challenges to the potential for upward mobility. As a result, this generation is more economically divided. Song (2018) suggests that these conditions have contributed to trends such as *meokbang*, livestream eating shows in which viewers watch people eat and interact with the eaters (Song, 2018). Song contends that the confluence of pressure to produce has resulted in social media (such as meokbang) aimed at resisting the established social order. South Korean youth have much to offer the global community. The authors of this paper believe that collaborations with South Korean universities would provide mutually beneficial opportunities for students to build international relationships and species identity around sustainability. In the next section, we describe the ways in which we envision potential COIL collaborations in our two disciplines, human development and TESOL.

How COIL Exchange Can Be Utilized in Human Development Courses

Central to the field of human development are issues of sustainability such as concerns for development and well-being across the entire lifespan and within multiple social and cultural contexts of development. These core concerns echo Birch's (2022) notion of species identity. Moreover, ecological theories of development, such as those of Harkness and Super's (1994) developmental niche framework and

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory, highlight interconnections between environmental characteristics, human activities, and cultural belief systems to explain variation in development and well-being. On our college campus, sustainability is also explicitly enjoined with sociocultural considerations. This "inclusive sustainability" is described as "a commitment to improving the environment and the lives of those living within it regardless of income, class, or identity" and as the promotion of "cultural and ethnic traditions that support, respect, and provide stewardship for the earth and its resources" (Inclusive Sustainability Plan 2020, 2020, p. 10). This inclusive sustainability calls for the cultivation of cross-cultural competencies to tackle challenging community and global issues. Our human development students will need these competencies as they go on to pursue postgraduate study in education, social work, and mental health fields and ultimately establish careers in culturally and linguistically diverse communities in California. As Garcia-Murray and Tervalon (2017) note, it is imperative for professionals in public health and service careers to build cultural humility and communication skills to work effectively to address inclusive sustainability and thrive in their professional fields.

As the human development contributing author, I have participated in the SUNY COIL professional development (at SUNY) for the purpose of building a COIL unit in my undergraduate course, Cross-Cultural Human Development. One important objective of the course is to foster global awareness. We discuss the issue of sustainability in a global perspective (especially regarding indigenous lands), but to a greater extent, we explore the complexities of what it means to thrive, from early childhood to late adulthood, across cultures, and in relation to specific physical and social settings. I use vivid readings and memorable videos that illustrate cultural contexts of development and assign a series of informal reflection writing assignments involving cultural comparison. Yet, it seems that the overall topic of culture and cultural variation remains rather abstract and challenging for many students when they are tasked with writing a formal paper involving cross-cultural analysis and ecological considerations. I have concluded that the missing component in the students' development of a cross-cultural inquiry orientation is live interaction with students from other countries. Opportunities to dialogue with students in other countries has great potential for fostering deep thinking about human thriving and well-being in cross-cultural and ecological contexts. First, international virtual exchange has the potential

to foster cross-cultural competences such as intercultural communication skills and cultural humility, which can also be useful in their future careers. Second, students learn from their international partners' experiences and cultural expertise in thinking about human challenges and human thriving. Third, international virtual exchange ideally leads to intercultural collaborative experiences that address social issues such as inclusive sustainability and youth wellness, which currently are a concern in many countries.

Based on my SUNY COIL professional development, I have designed a four-step plan for an international virtual exchange component in the Cross-Cultural Human Development course. Its final collaborative product is a set of student recommendations on conditions and activities that promote youth thriving and well-being, with the recommendations founded on cross-cultural data, conversations about youth challenges in the partner countries, and collaborative problem- solving on thriving and well-being in the context of sustainability issues. South Korea is an ideal COIL partner in that it shares with the U.S. similar concerns about youth mental health issues (e.g., Lee et al., 2021; Wong, 2022). The first step of the virtual exchange plan is focused on team- and trust-building, with students engaging in ice-breaker activities such as discussing favorite memories from childhood and adolescence. The second step starts the preparation phase. Over two weeks, students and their COIL partners discuss three cultural examples that are selected to expand students' minds regarding children's potential and thriving, that is, young Japanese children taking independent trips to school and the store, young Danish children exploring a forest and using knives with minimal adult supervision, and groups of Dutch preadolescents being dropped in the middle of the forest at night and given the task of using teamwork to find their way back to the base without adult help (Barry, 2019). Student discussions of these cultural examples involve (a) comparing their reactions and their own experiences and (b) developing a cross-cultural analysis of the potential value of these activities for fostering youth thriving and increasing understanding of sustainability. The third step focuses on the intercultural collaborative project of developing a set of elaborated recommendations for youth thriving and well-being, which is based on the above cultural examples, exploration of other cultural examples, and a discussion of youth challenges in the students' countries. In the final step, students reflect on what they learned from their COIL collaborative work – including what they learned about

intercultural teamwork and problem-solving.

How COIL Exchange Can Be Utilized in Teacher Training Programs

Students planning to be teachers in California also major in liberal studies, which includes introductory courses in structural linguistics. The course learning outcomes include: building a foundational understanding of metalinguistic awareness for teaching reading, and understanding of the universal components in language and language acquisition in order for teachers to serve students from the diverse language communities in California. As the TESOL contributor to this paper, I have taught this course for over two decades and questioned the effectiveness of traditional transmission models of lecture and problem-solving approaches to linguistic pedagogy. As a result, three years ago I redesigned the course to include an applied COIL project.

In designing the activities, I follow the recommended SUNY COIL activity model described above by my colleague. Students collaborate with COIL partners in four interactive tasks through email, Zoom, Flipgrid, and other messaging applications. In the ice-breaker activity, they apply their knowledge of the taxonomy of the vocal tract by introducing themselves to their partners in three different languages on Flipgrid, where at least one language is completely new to them. In following the task, they reflect on both familiar and new phonemes, building a Venn diagram of the phonemes in their respective languages and noting the shared versus unique phonemes. Second, they write an autobiography of their own language learning experiences and then interview their partners about their language learning experiences. This second activity, which is aligned with course content on language acquisition, offers multilingual students the opportunity to examine their own experiences within and outside of formal academic contexts for language learning. By interviewing their COIL partners, who have learned English as a foreign language in formal school contexts, they collect qualitative data comparing and contrasting different contexts for language learning. Finally, they conduct a language analysis by asking their partner to translate a set of sentences with which they then examine the similarities and differences in phonology, morphology, and syntax of their partner's languages. In the final culminating task, they compare what they learned from their partners and apply the metalinguistic

knowledge learned in the course to the context of comparing and contrasting the differences between theirs and their partner's language and learning experiences. Students also consider the challenges of their partners and whether the challenges are aligned with the language differences.

During the last three years, I have collected data looking at how students have achieved the learning outcomes of the course by conducting this applied COIL collaboration in an introductory course in linguistics. While the research design and initial findings are described elsewhere (Gage, 2022), the key findings have been that students were better able to conceptualize the abstract course concepts and apply the metalinguistic language of structural linguistics as a result of the collaboration with their international partners. In summary, the COIL collaboration showed evidence of (a) the students' ability to adapt linguistically to the circumstance of the COIL collaboration for the purpose of relationship-building; (b) students show evidence of building tolerance of linguistic differences and empathy for their interlocutors when communication needs repair; and (c) many students, who were from the non-dominant language communities in the U.S., expressed difficult emotions around language learning and discussed the need for greater empathy towards the children they would teach in the future. In essence, the COIL collaboration gave them the opportunity to formally apply the metalinguistic language to describe and analyze the findings of their COIL experience. Moreover, lectures and readings in first and multiple language acquisition gain relevance when applied to their own and COIL partners' lived experience. Adding the COIL collaboration to the course has shifted the pedagogy from a transmission model of learning to a constructivist model.

CONCLUSION

Our experiences in designing and implementing COIL collaborations in our respective human development and linguistics courses has expanded our pedagogical perspective. We see tremendous value in COIL collaborations for building glocal awareness around topics of sustainability, that is, issues that impact students both locally and globally. From measures for improving the care of our planet like conservation and reduced use of plastics, to social and emotional

development, to building empathy and greater understanding for communicative competence, students value the opportunity to connect with another human being on the other side of the globe. Moreover, these glocal issues within the context of the COIL partnerships become a point of common interest and concern. Given our intra-state university commitment to building sustainability units into our syllabi, we call for international collaborations with South Korean universities around issues of sustainability. Because the U.S. and California have a considerable number of Korean heritage communities, we see international collaborations as valuable opportunities for connecting with heritage cultures. COIL collaborations help to build a sense of species identity by bringing the world into the classroom so that students may consider topics through the multiple perspectives of their international partners. These partnerships create a connection to places around the globe and the people who live there. These experiences contribute to students' ability to communicate across cultural and linguistic barriers. Birch (2022) argues that peace education must be long-term and sustainable − starting at the grassroots through connections between people; "it cannot be subject to the whims of policymakers or administrators" (p. 2). The global challenge cannot be focused on who can use up Earth's resources driving us more quickly to self-extinction but towards a model of temperance and collaboration in order to heal our planet. We suggest that international university collaborators can make the same commitment to species identity and bring our students together.

THE AUTHORS

Ondine Gage is an associate professor of education with an MA in linguistics and a PhD in education, concentrating in language, literacy, and culture studies. She is currently the chair of the Academic Senate Committee on International Programs at CSU, Monterey Bay, and teaches courses in linguistics and language acquisition. Her research areas include collaborative online international learning (COIL) / international virtual exchange (IVE), language awareness, metacognition in writing and genre development, and vocabulary development. She has coordinated a TESOL certificate and taught in South Korea, and has extensive experience living and working in the Middle East. Email: ogage@csumb.edu

Christi Cervantes is an assistant professor of human development and family science at California State University, Monterey Bay, with a PhD in

developmental psychology. Her research and teaching focus is on social and cultural contexts of children and families, cultural contexts of children's emotional development, and parents' beliefs about children's development. One of her earlier research projects studied Korean-origin mothers' beliefs about young children's emotions and characteristics of mother–child conversations about emotion. She has also conducted similar research with Mexican-heritage families with young children. Email: ccervantes@csumb.edu

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Collaborative Writing as English-Language Educators: Creating Third Spaces and Engaging in the Margins

Michele McConnell
Fresno Pacific University, Fresno, CA, USA
Kelly Metz-Matthews
San Diego College of Continuing Education, San Diego, CA, USA

INTRODUCTION

Even for all the changes in multilingual writing pedagogies that the last several decades has produced, writing is nonetheless still often taught and imagined as a solitary act in which writers are individually responsible for making all decisions and completing all research and writing tasks in service of a singular end product (Hirvela, 1999). The image of the lone writer struggling over a text is burned into most of our collective understanding of the writer's experience and the writerly identity. Early in our own academic careers, as undergraduate students earning degrees in English, we both experienced the sometimes-isolating nature of writing cultivated by many university writing programs and faculty. We didn't have the experience or, frankly, the gumption to push back on those frameworks at the time, and so, most of our writing was subsequently conducted in seclusion. We collaborated with our peers and professors only when discussing mentor texts and/or engaging in peer review. Today, we see how even those latter practices – things like peer review – are considered "pseudotransactional" (Wardle & Downs, 2020) and performative rather than authentically participatory. Within those pseudocollaborative contexts, students routinely write for imagined audiences and purposes and only "collaborate" during the required peer review stage of a project. In what follows, we'll frame writing as a successful and productive social act that happens both in the margins and through the creation of a third space in which writers are more attuned to process, complexity, and one another's needs, epistemologies, and

strengths.

Pedagogical practices in both first- and second-language writing still frequently focus on the *product* of writing rather than on the *process* of writing (Storch, 2005). The result of this is that learners tend to focus their attention and time on the end product rather than metacognitively on their writing process and development. In other words, while traditional practices – actions like outlining, creating arguments, drafting, revising, etc. – are intended to foster written communication skills, students are left to practice in solitude as opposed to gaining communicative competence and writerly confidence in more authentic, applicable ways (MacLean et al., 2017).

As both writers and faculty, we have long noted a lack of pedagogical training for English-language educators in the area of participatory and collaborative writing pedagogies. While there is often a focus on collaborative learning and communicative praxis for the amelioration of speaking and listening skills, writing instruction remains largely teacher-directed with the single-authored document as the end goal. This is reminiscent of Freire's (2007) banking model in which processes and knowledge are dictated to students as vessels rather than as potential generators/creators. This view of writing as a prescribed solitary act is problematic for several reasons, not the least of which is that such practices fail to underscore that writing is collaborative within most professional, academic, and creative contexts. We aren't alone in these sentiments. Lunsford and Ede (1994) wrote:

> We feel confident in saying that the traditional model of solitary authorship is more myth than reality, that much or most of the writing ... is done collaboratively, and that, in fact, much of what we call "creative" writing is collaborative as well, though it almost always flies under the banner of single authorship. (p. 418)

Interestingly, even genuinely collaborative writing is incorrectly viewed as singularly authored (Lunsford & Ede, 1994). This, we contend, is more a *coding* problem than anything else; in other words, educators and writers aren't properly coding the many collaborative acts that go into writing as *actual writing*. For instance, the dialogue between collaborators that leads to the formation of an argument is rarely coded as writing, and yet the act of dialoguing with others is as important a part of the writing process as the literal act of putting pen to paper or

fingertips to keyboard.

If we pull back the image of the lone writer hovering over a keyboard, we find that writing, whether in a first- or second-language context, is inherently social in nature (Bracewell & Breleux, 1994; Bracewell & Witte, 2008; Chenowyth & Hayes, 2003). At the most basic level, writing is a negotiation between the writer and the audience. It allows for civic participation in society, the discussion of ideas, and rumination on earlier work and arguments. It is a practice that derives from observations and experiences in the world, nourished by the communities within which writers reside (Sperling, 1993). Yet, these negotiations between writer and audience, while inherently participatory and community-based in practice, do not always lead to what is viewed as multi-authored documents.

Allen et al. (1987) shared that collaborative writing is a process in which a group of writers participates in substantial interactions, shared decision-making practices, and responsibility for a shared document or written product. Fung (2010) added to this view by referencing 21st century dispositions, in particular around managing disagreements and conflicts. We agree with both Allen et al. (1987) and Fung (2010), but we take a more liberal approach, especially in regard to the thinking that collaboration must be *substantial*. In our view, collaboration need not be substantial or robust in terms of quantity (i.e., word count), but instead should be generative and speak to broader project development. In some respects, this speaks to the idea of quality over quantity, of impact over intent. We aren't suggesting that the literal amount of writing a partner puts into a project doesn't matter but that it isn't the only thing that matters. In our framing, things like dialogue, thought partnership, negotiation of meaning, and written work *in the margins* (both literally and figuratively) become more integrated and valued parts of the writing process and end product. This framing also suggests that the value of collaborative writing − for both the novice and the more-experienced writer − is not solely in the writing itself, but more importantly in the third space it creates and the writerly identity that is developed or transformed in the process.

Engaging in the Margins

Benefits of Collaborative Writing: Margin-Talk & the Third Space

The concept of a "third space" is not a new one (see Bhabha,1994; Gutiérrez et al., 1999; Soja, 1996). In most views, the third space is created when collaborators negotiate meaning, ideas, even conflict. The act of collaboration is one that is essentially recursive in nature because writers move between idea generation and revision, oral communication and the negotiation of meaning, and written dialogue. As we have found in our own writing partnership, collaborative writing also requires metacognition and critical self-reflection. After all, it would be impossible to leverage one another's strengths − something we personally view as critical to strong collaborative writing practice − without knowing what those strengths are and how they might manifest in a particular project.

We have long posited that we live best socially, and so we write best socially (Metz-Matthews & McConnell, 2023). Certainly, as faculty who collaborate frequently, we've experienced this ourselves. Michele, for example, has a background in the teaching of secondary English and the training of secondary English teachers in linguistically diverse communities. Kelly has a background in critical applied linguistics and teaches English to adult speakers of other languages. What we bring to any writing project is unique. Knowing ourselves and each other in more than a mere surface-level way is what allows us to capitalize on our various skill sets and funds of knowledge toward the improvement of a particular end product. Not only that, the work we do in the margins − that is, comments in the margins of a document, literally, or the margins of our dialogue and engagement, figuratively − allows for us to merge our expertise, generate new ideas through our differences, and transform our writerly identities.

In a study comparing individual and collaborative writing processes and products, Storch (2005) found three benefits to collaborative writing: (a) while in-class collaborative writing products were typically shorter in nature, their grammatical accuracy and linguistic complexity were more succinct and demonstrated more competence; (b) students who worked collaboratively engaged in greater dialogue, and negotiated and adopted

different processes than those who worked independently; and (c) those who worked in collaborative partnerships received immediate, in-the-moment feedback. We've observed this not just as collaborative writers ourselves (we are in fact frequent writing partners) but also as English-language educators. By way of example, we've assigned essays in our second-language writing courses that included a social annotation task in which students engaged in authentic discourse via the margins of a shared document over several rounds of review and dialogue. Students were provided with three types of annotation for use on their own and with their peers, including (a) questions for self/peer, (b) developmental notes for self/peer, and (c) shows of confidence. After leaving a first round of annotation comments in the margins of their own draft, students shared their work with a peer who replied back to the first student's annotations, adding their thoughts to the conversation in the margins. This literal margin-talk − which we view as a scaffolded introduction to collaborative writing − went on for several rounds. As we've documented in other work (see Metz-Matthews & McConnell, 2023), this resulted in increased metacognition, reflection, negotiation of meaning, and writerly identity development and confidence.

We suggest that it is through negotiated communication via oral dialogue and written marginalia that a person might develop and transform not just their writerly identity but also their understanding of the broader systems in which we, as both novice and experienced writers, are all suspended. We have observed this both with our own students and in ourselves. In line with our observations, Trimbur (1989) noted that collaboration can generate knowledge of differences and, with proper pedagogical delivery, can offer learners an opportunity to identify systems of power and subsequently transform those power differentials. What's more, as faculty who engage cross-culturally and transnationally, this third space has proven to be a particularly rewarding space for learning and transcending cultural norms around written, oral, and visual communication. As collaborative writing requires negotiation, participants in a writing group or partnership must be able to suspend their perspectives in order to honor the varying worldviews and epistemologies of others in the group/partnership. In a similar vein, Toyosaki (2012) posited that this type of practice requires intercultural sensitivity and a place where our identities simultaneously stand out and merge together to form new learnings. Of critical importance especially on the heels of the COVID-19 pandemic and its transformation of collaborative and

teaching/learning modalities, this type of writerly identity development occurs in both in-person and virtual spaces (Dooly, 2011).

Potential Challenges of Collaborative Writing

While writing collaboratively often supports writers in accomplishing more in a shorter amount of time, the process may be affected negatively by the personalities involved, their existing funds of knowledge, the technology available to each collaborator, and the types of texts individuals within the group are familiar with reading and writing (Wardle & Downs, 2020). Unfortunately, adding new members to an existing collaboration is sometimes easier said than done. This is because collaborators co-create their own set of communicative rules and norms; and the longer collaborators work together, the more challenging it can be for outsiders to join an existing group, leading to potential hierarchical tensions (Wardle & Downs, 2020), especially in cross-cultural and transnational spaces. We aren't suggesting that this enculturation into an existing group isn't possible (see the 1998 work of Cazden for more on this) but that it is challenging.

There are also ethical implications to be considered when engaging in or, especially, when assigning collaborative writing tasks and projects. According to Lunsford & Ede (1994),

> As Foucault's work suggests, collaborative writing itself constitutes a technology of power, one we are only beginning to explore. As we carry out such exploration, as we investigate the ethics of collaboration and the ways in which collaborative writing challenges the traditional power relationships, we need to bring students into the discussions, asking them to work with us to examine how authority is negotiated, shared, and distributed. (p. 435)

When assigning writing tasks, the learner's/writer's experience must be forefronted and acknowledged. Collaborative writing projects are not for everyone and may fail due to a learner's/writer's inexperience, interpersonal communication skills (or lack thereof), concerns of fairness (Chisholm, 1990), or concerns about inaccurate peer edits (Nelson & Murphy, 1993). The truth is that some personalities work well independently, and to ignore this would be to put into peril those individuals' likelihood of success. Finally, some students may ultimately

view the process of writing as a private act (Lunsford & Ede, 1990; Murau, 1992). As educators, we must consider these realities when assigning this type of work.

CONCLUSIONS

It's likely that the number of projects involving collaborative writing will continue to grow in the future, especially following technological advancements that support in-person, virtual, cross-cultural, and transnational collaboration (Kessler et al., 2012). In this brief report, we've argued that writing is indeed a social act even as a great many educators continue to frame writing as a singular, solitary activity. There are some potential challenges to collaborative writing, though many of those are surmountable and/or circumventable given sensitivity and ethical consideration. At its core, our framing of writing as inherently social asks that educators and writers alike re-*code* certain tasks − for example, thought partnership, argument formation, and margin-talk − as acts of writing instead of mere preparation for a writing task. We argue that collaborative writing has a plethora of inherent benefits and successful outcomes, including the use of marginalia as dialogue, the creation of a third space in which both meaning and identity are constantly negotiated and transformed, valuable in-the-moment feedback, and greater linguistic complexity and accuracy. In short, we contend that collaborative writing is about process and development with and alongside one's peers as much as it is about any end product.

THE AUTHORS

Michele McConnell is an assistant professor of teacher education and director of the Master's in Teaching at Fresno Pacific University in Fresno, California, USA. She received her PhD from the University of San Diego and is a longtime educator across the disciplines of English, writing, and teacher education. Email: michele.mcconnell@fresno.edu

Kelly Metz-Matthews is on the faculty of the English as a Second Language Department at San Diego College of Continuing Education in San Diego, California, USA. She is a PhD candidate at the University of San Diego and a longtime educator across the disciplines of English, rhetoric, and teacher

education. Email: kmetz@sdccd.edu

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Book Review

Review of *The Stoic Teacher: Ancient Mind Hacks to Help Educators Foster Resiliency, Optimism, and Inner Calm*
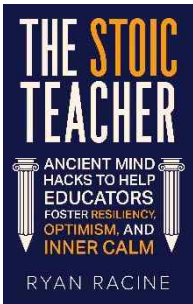
By Ryan Racine
Branford, CT, USA: Alphabet Publishing (2022).
Pages: viii + 94. (ISBN: 978-1-956159-12-7, Paperback)

Reviewed by Jake Kimball

INTRODUCTION

Philosophy. Stoic philosophy? Say what? You are probably wondering how ancient philosophy is relevant to teachers in Korea in the 21st century, especially when conference themes and general ELT discussion trend toward integrating modern technology, digital literacies, and common core 21st century skills. Even though the origins of Stoicism can be traced back to Athens in the 3rd century BCE, as the Axial Age wound down, Stoic philosophy is indeed relevant to us as teachers today, over 2,000 years later. Stoicism embodies four virtues: wisdom, justice, courage, and temperance. And these virtues never go out of style.

SUMMARY

This recent publication is short, practical, and easy to read. The style is personal and casual as if the author talks directly to you one-on-one.

It is not a how-to methodology book, as there is little background information or narrative. But there are plenty of reflection questions, boxes, and charts to brainstorm ideas and ample opportunities to make lists, goals, and commitments. These are all seeds for deeper thinking. Topics covered are ones that all teachers face at some point in their careers: a novice teacher entering a classroom for the first time, intent on changing the world one learner at a time, or a veteran teacher suffering from burnout, perhaps lacking agency, etc. This book is aimed at teachers in general, not necessarily ELT instructors, so topics are universally relevant, regardless of context. *The Stoic Teacher* provides readers with a pathway to take the journey alone or with a group.

CONTENTS

Chapter 1, Preparing for the School Day, is a lesson in reflection. It begins with a recommendation for getting into the habit of journaling (Richards & Lockhard, 1996). Journaling provides a perspective on critical teaching incidents and the more mundane events in our professional lives that deserve circumspection. Here in the first chapter, we are asked to reflect on issues within our power to control and those we cannot. At the end of the chapter, there are several ideas to facilitate reflection. These questions can be answered matter-of-factly. But really, they are meant to be thought out more deeply and sincerely. Chapter 2 focuses on the daily stresses that come as part and parcel of a teacher's life. How does one deal with negative emotions as we go about our business? Chapter 3 is about reframing workplace events. It also incorporates ideas from the previous chapters. I found chapter 4, Finding a Role Model, to be a thoughtful commentary on the Stoic virtue of improving oneself and what to do when you have no mentor. In short, this chapter encourages a positive growth mindset (Dweck, 2016). Chapter 5, Dealing with Imposter Syndrome, is for those of us who work with colleagues and are subject to evaluations. That's all of us. Practicing Stoic Self-Care is the topic of chapter 6. Wellness and self-care happen to be trendy topics in ELT, and for a good reason (Mercer & Gregersen, 2020). Here we are asked to examine our schedules and be more mindful of how we spend our time.

As the short book winds down, a chapter on Resources for Professional Development offers suggestions for further reading and

building a like-minded community. There are many parallels with ELT professional development and associations such as Korea TESOL. In chapter 8, we have parting advice from other teachers who have led their own Stoic journeys. Finally, the Bibliography runs three pages.

EVALUATION

There is much to like about this brief journey of reflection from a Stoic perspective. Ancient philosophy is for the here and now. Many of the topics or issues coincidently appear in Philip Kerr's *30 Trends in ELT* (2022) and *Teacher Wellbeing* (Mercer & Gregersen, 2020).

The Stoic Teacher is not an academic study or a serious philosophic inquiry. It is conversational in tone and style. At times, Ryan Racine, the author, comments on his own shortcomings and self-doubt as a teacher. This approach, seldom seen in publications, is fresh and candid. And it is this vulnerable manner that helps ease our insecurities as teachers.

Think of this book as an excursion rather than a grand tour. Many teachers are hardworking and have little time to dedicate to professional development or self-reflection. With its size and scope, *The Stoic Teacher* is portable enough to be a catalyst for surface-level introspection. However, readers looking for a more Socratic deep dive into the examined life will also find the discussion fruitful. To get the most out of this book, I highly recommend engaging with it, writing out your answers to questions, and experiencing the power of journaling. When you do, you just might begin to embody the Stoic virtues of wisdom, justice, courage, and temperance.

THE REVIEWER

Jake Kimball holds an MSc in educational management in TESOL from Aston University, and his research interests include program evaluation and classroom dynamics. He is also the facilitator of the Classroom Management Special Interest Group. Taking part in teacher development activities has been a long-time interest. He is an assistant professor of English in the Liberal Arts Department of Semyung University in Korea. Email: ilejake@gmail.com

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Appendices

Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication

ARTICLE I. GENERAL PROVISIONS.

Section 1. Purpose.

The Korea TESOL Ethical Standards for Research and Publication (hereafter referred to as "the Standards"), designed to promote and maintain high ethical standards concerning professional research and publication, shall provide the guidelines for the organization and operation of the Korea TESOL (hereafter, KOTESOL) Board on Research and Publication Ethics, entitled to investigate any wrongdoings against the ethical policies described in the Standards.

Section 2. Scope of Application.

The Standards shall apply to all research related to KOTESOL, manuscripts submitted to the official scholarly publications of KOTESOL, and materials submitted to and presented at scholarly events of KOTESOL. These include the following:

1. *Korea TESOL Journal*
2. *KOTESOL Proceedings*
3. *The English Connection*
4. Korea TESOL International Conference Extended Summaries
5. The Korea TESOL website
6. KOTESOL event program books and website (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)
7. KOTESOL event presentation content, either in-person or virtual (including international, national, chapter, and SIG conferences, symposiums, and workshops)

ARTICLE II. ETHICAL PRINCIPLES.

Section 1. Ethical Principles of the Author.

(a) The *author* (as defined in Art. VIII) shall perform faithful research.

(b) The author shall make the research process transparent.

(c) The author shall be open to constructive criticism of the author's *work* (defined in Art. VIII) by *reviewers* and the *publication chief* (defined in Art. VIII).

(d) The author shall disclose conflicts of interest and be transparent as to any entity that may be supporting or may profit from the author's work.

(e) The author shall not infringe on the privacy, autonomy, rights, or well-being of an individual through a procedure in execution of a work or through the outcome of a work.

(f) The author shall not publish (*publication* defined in Art. VIII) the work of another as the author's own.

(g) The author shall make a concerted effort to adhere to research and publication ethics set out herein.

Section 2. Ethical Principles and the Work.

(a) A work shall conform adequately to the submission requirements of the *publication* (as defined in Art. VIII).

(b) A work shall conform adequately in contents and organization as prescribed by the publication.

(c) A work shall demonstrate respect for participants' autonomy, privacy, and well-being. This includes the use of language that is sensitive to people and places; the avoidance of deficit-centered perspectives that demean participants; weighing potential risks in relation to benefits of the work and taking steps to minimize such risks, especially when considering working with vulnerable groups; and throughout all aspects of the research, being attentive to the well-being of the participants. All work should make a positive contribution to the body of knowledge and ultimately to society.

Section 3. Breach of Ethical Principles

Breaches of research and publication ethics include the following:

1. Fabrication, the act of falsely creating nonexistent data or outcomes.

2. Falsification, the distortion of content or outcomes by artificial manipulation of research materials, equipment, or processes, including selective reporting; or by arbitrary modification or

deletion of data.

3. Plagiarism, the appropriation of another person's ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit. This includes self-plagiarism, the appropriation of the author's earlier published ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit.

4. False authorship, the allocation of principal authorship or other publication credit that does not reflect, in any justifiable manner, scientific and professional contributions of an individual to a work.

5. Multiple submissions, the submission of a manuscript that has already been published, accepted for publication elsewhere, or concurrently submitted for review to another publication.

ARTICLE III. AUTHORSHIP AND AUTHOR OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. Acknowledgement of Sources.

An author who submits a manuscript shall include proper acknowledgement when drawing upon the ideas, concepts, words, or research of another, including any additional information obtained during the review and proposal evaluation process.

Section 2. Authorship and Author Responsibility.

An author shall have responsibility for and take credit for only the work to which they have made a substantial contribution.

Section 3. Authorship and Contribution Disclosure.

(a) An author shall clearly disclose their relevant affiliations and positions.

(b) In the case of a submitted work with multiple authors, all contributing authors shall be disclosed.

(c) Authors shall be listed in a descending order of the contribution made to the work. Each author shall be able to clearly justify their role and contribution to the work.

(d) No individual shall be credited with authorship without making a contribution to the work.

Section 4. Submission of Manuscript.

An author shall not be permitted to submit a manuscript for review that has already been published elsewhere, that has been accepted for publication elsewhere, or is being reviewed for possible publication elsewhere. If a case of multiple submission occurs, the author shall notify the KOTESOL publication(s) to investigate the acceptability/unacceptability of the multiple submission.

Section 5. Revision of Manuscript.

An author shall strive to revise their submitted manuscript in accordance with the feedback and suggestions provided by the *reviewer* (defined in Art. VIII) and *publication chief* (defined in Article VIII) during the review and editing process. This includes revisions in accordance with the publication's style guidelines. If an author disagrees with a requested revision, they shall provide in writing relevant evidence and justification for not making the requested revision, which shall then be taken into consideration by the publication chief prior to a final decision regarding acceptance.

ARTICLE IV. EDITORIAL PANEL OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. An *editorial panel* (defined in Art. VIII) makes decisions regarding the publication of a submitted work. In the decision-making process, each member of the editorial panel shall respect the integrity of each other member as a professional educator, scholar, and/or researcher.

Section 2. An editorial panel shall review fairly the quality of a submitted work and whether it complies with the submission guidelines and review criteria. Submitted works shall be evaluated objectively without regard to affiliation, age, gender, and other personal characteristics of the author.

Section 3. In order to give each submitted work due opportunity to be reviewed and evaluated objectively, the publication chief shall ensure that the reviewer(s) of a work shall have suitable expertise in the area covered by the work, shall be able to

make fair and unbiased decisions, and shall not have any conflict of interest with the work or author.

Section 4. The publication chief shall ensure that neither the contents of a submitted work nor the identity of its author be disclosed during the review process to anyone outside that review process. In the case of a blind review publication, the identity of an author shall, in addition, not be disclosed to the reviewer(s).

ARTICLE V. REVIEWER OBLIGATIONS.

Section 1. A reviewer, upon accepting a review request by the publication chief, shall follow the guidelines set forth for review of the work, including the ethical principles described in Articles II and III; complete the review within the designated time frame; and submit the review results to the publication chief.

Section 2. A reviewer shall review a work independently, fairly, and objectively. The reviewer shall explain and support their judgements adequately in the review report made to the publication chief in such a manner so as the basis of the comments may be clearly understood.

Section 3. (a) If the reviewer feels inadequately qualified to fairly and objectively conduct a review of the assigned work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of their withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.

(b) If a reviewer detects a possible conflict of interest of any type between the reviewer and either the author or their work, the reviewer shall notify the publication chief of the reviewer's withdrawal from the review process for the work in question.

Section 4. In the review of a work, a reviewer shall respect the author's integrity as a scholar and professional, and respect their right

to do independent research.

Section 5. A reviewer shall treat a work for review with the utmost confidentiality. The reviewer shall not disclose any information about the work under review or discuss its contents with a third party during the review process, which culminates with notification of review results to the author.

ARTICLE VI. THE BOARD ON RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION ETHICS (BORPE).

Section 1. Organization.
(a) KOTESOL shall establish a Board on Research and Publication Ethics (hereinafter, BORPE) whose duty shall be to oversee matters (that are in KOTESOL's national scope) related to ethical standards.
(b) The BORPE shall be composed of four (4) permanent members: the Publications Committee chair, the Research Committee chair, the Diversity Committee chair, and the Korea TESOL Journal editor-in-chief, When the BORPE is convened to consider a case, up to three (3) additional members may be appointed by the BORPE chair on an ad hoc basis for the duration of the proceedings.
(c) The Publications Committee chair shall serve as the BORPE chair, and the BORPE chair's term of office shall correspond with that of the Publication Committee chair's term of office.
(d) Entities within KOTESOL that are not explicitly managed or facilitated by a national committee, such as chapters and SIGs (special interest groups), may establish their own boards to oversee, investigate, and deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics in the spirit of the standards set forth herein.

Section 2. Duties.
The BORPE shall deliberate matters related to research and publication ethics, including administrative affairs related to the implementation and revision of the Standards, and investigate

possible violations of the Standards. In the case where the BORPE determines that a violation has been committed, the BORPE shall recommend an appropriate response to correct the violation; if sanctions against the violator are suggested, the sanctions shall be presented to the National Council for approval.

Section 3. Meetings and Operation.

(a) Meetings shall be convened, either in-person or virtually, as deemed necessary by the Chair or when requested by the KOTESOL President.

(b) A majority of the BORPE members shall constitute a quorum for a meeting. A decision of the BORPE shall be considered valid with the concurrence of a majority of the members present at the meeting. But a BORPE member involved as an author of the work under investigation shall not be permitted to participate in the meeting as a BORPE member.

(c) The meeting shall be held in a closed-door session. The author suspected of misconduct shall be asked to appear at the BORPE meeting if the BORPE deems it to be necessary.

(d) When resolution of a case appears relatively simple and thus does not appear to require intense discussion and deliberation, opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members may be rendered in writing (e.g., via email) when so requested by the Chair, and in lieu of an in-person or virtual meeting. A final written resolution shall be based on the written opinions and suggestions of the BORPE members.

Section 4. Author's Obligation to Cooperation.

An author suspected of a breach of the Standards shall be obliged to cooperate fully and faithfully with the BORPE in its investigation into that possible breach of the Standards. The author's cooperation shall include, but not be limited to, submission of requested documents and appearing before the BORPE (virtually, if necessary) if called upon to do so.

Section 5. Investigation of Misconduct Allegations.

If there is an allegation of a possible violation of the research and publication ethics as set forth herein, the BORPE shall begin an

investigation as expeditiously as possible and give the author ample opportunity to respond to allegations within a time period set at up to three (3) months from the date of notification to the author. The BORPE shall have the right to request that the author provide ample clarification with respect to alleged misconduct or violations of research and publication ethics.

(c) The BORPE shall scrutinize the author's clarifications and judge if the author's provided clarifications are satisfactory. If they are not deemed satisfactory, the BORPE shall ask for further information in order to make a proper judgement with respect to the allegations.

(d) The BORPE shall conduct investigation of misconduct and violation of research and publication ethics in accordance with the procedures set forth by COPE (Committee on Publication Ethics) in its guidelines for journals and publishers (https://publicationethics.org/).

(e) The BORPE shall finalize any investigation and review as expeditiously as possible within a period of not more than six (6) months.

(f) The BORPE shall not disclose the identity of an author or informant involved in an allegation of misconduct until a final decision has been made in the matter. But, the sharing of information shall be allowed if

(i) there is no response from the author,

(ii) the response from the author is inadequate as determined by the BORPE chair,

(iii) more than one publication is thought to be affected,

(iv) disclosure of such information is necessary to enact the resolution recommended by the BORPE (see, e.g., Section 6(d)).

(g) The BORPE shall report to the President their findings in an investigation of allegations of misconduct along with a description of their rationale and dissenting arguments, and any suggested resolution or remedy to be imposed on the violator(s).

Section 6. Punitive Action

(a) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of light severity, the President may decide to accept and implement the punitive action or bring it before the National Council for

consideration.

(b) In a case where the BORPE recommends a punitive action of considerable severity, the President shall bring it before the National Council for consideration.

(c) In a case brought before the National Council, the Council, taking the recommendations of the BORPE into consideration, is the final arbiter of the matter, determining an appropriate response by a simple majority vote of the Council members present.

(d) The President shall be able to take punitive action ranging from a warning to suspension or revocation of KOTESOL membership of an author found to be in violation of the Standards as set forth herein. The President shall also have the right to notify other organizations or individuals of the punitive action taken. A typical example of a punitive action would be the following: If misconduct is proven, a manuscript already accepted for publication in the Korea TESOL Journal shall be rejected, and in the case where the research is already published in the Korea TESOL Journal, the research shall be removed (in the case of digital publication) or notification shall be made of cancellation of the research (in the case of print publication). The author of the research shall not be allowed to make a submission to the Journal for three (3) years following the punitive action.

ARTICLE VII. COPYRIGHT.

Section 1. A KOTESOL publication may protect its published material with a copyright, a statement of which is conspicuously displayed within the published material.

Section 2. A KOTESOL publication may enter into a copyright agreement with the author of a work to be published by the publication, an agreement in which both parties are bound to uphold the conditions of the agreement.

Section 3a. In case a dispute should arise between a KOTESOL publication and an author who have entered into a copyright agreement, the onus is on the publication and author to

resolve the dispute.

Section 3b. If however a satisfactory resolution to the copyright agreement dispute cannot be reached by the publication and the author, the case may be brought before the BORPE for resolution following the procedure set forth in Article VI.

ARTICLE VIII. PROMOTION OF RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION ETHICS.

KOTESOL shall make a concerted effort to make conspicuously available not only these Standards but also materials that an author may use prior to submission of a work to aid in ensuring that research and publication ethics are not breached.

ARTICLE IX. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS.

Terms used in this document shall be defined as follows:
1. *Author* shall refer to any individual(s) submitting a manuscript for review to a KOTESOL publication, submitting a proposal for review for an oral presentation, and/or making an oral academic presentation.
2. *Work* shall refer to any manuscript submitted for review/evaluation, any summary or abstract submitted for review/evaluation, any proposal submitted for review/evaluation, or any oral academic presentation and their accompanying materials.
3. *Publication* shall refer to any listed item in Article I, Section 2.
4. *Editorial Panel* shall refer to the individual(s) designated by a publication to render a decision on acceptance/rejection of a work for publication.
5. *Publication Chief* shall refer to the individual of a publication holding the topmost decision-making powers.
6. *Reviewer* shall refer to any individual(s) selected by a publication chief to evaluate the quality of a work.

ARTICLE X. AMENDMENT OF THE STANDARDS.

The Standards may be amended in accordance with protocol set forth for amendment of the KOTESOL Policy and Procedures Manual.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROVISIONS.

- These Standards shall take effect as of May 24, 2020.
- Amended September 27, 2020, by the Korea TESOL National Council.

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 800–1,200 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 confirming this should accompany submissions.

Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th ed.), especially for in-text citations, reference items, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics included in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). Graphic text must also follow APA style. All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs (pie graphs, bar graphs, etc.) 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-journa

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