

Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

The 20th PAAL Conference

“English Language Education Policy and Practice: Asian Perspective”

December 5-6, 2015
College of Liberal Arts
Korea University, Seoul, KOREA



Pan-Pacific
Association of
Applied Linguistics

About the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics

The Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL) is a nonprofit organization of researchers who work on English education and applied linguistics in Asian and pan-Asian contexts. PAAL also welcomes researchers in related fields such as foreign language education and literature.

The Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL) is a joint association between PAAL Japan and PAAL Korea, and the journal is indexed in Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) and ERIC.

PAAL Korea

<http://paal.kr>

PAAL Japan

<http://www.paaljapan.org>

Table of Contents

Opening Address	iv
Congratulatory Address	v
History of PAAL	viii
Program	xi
Keynote Speech I	3
Keynote Speech II	7
Symposium	13
Session A	35
Session B	39
Session C	45
Session D	51
Poster Session I	57
Session E	83
Session F	91
Session G	103
Session H	114
Poster Session II	123
Korea University Campus Map	150

Opening Address

Hyun Jin Kim

Co-Chair of PAAL

(Cheongju National University of Education)

Honorable guests and distinguished scholars, it is my great pleasure to welcome all of you to the 20th International Conference of PAAL. I'd like to express my sincere appreciation to all the participants, and also I'd like to express my deepest thanks to all the PAAL members who have worked so hard to make this conference possible.

I am greatly honored to have two distinguished scholars as keynote speakers for this landmark conference, Professor Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin from Chulalongkorn University and Professor Angel Lin from University of Hong Kong, distinguished speakers from Japan, Hong Kong, and Korea, and many presenters from different countries.

This year's conference theme of PAAL is "English Language Education Policy and Practice: Asian Perspective." This theme well reflects the concern that we, as Asian English language teachers and researchers, need to consider today in order to reflect on where we are at and where we are headed for. Through this conference, I hope to share various insightful and constructive ideas about English language education policy and practice from Asian perspective with many international scholars. I believe that the featured speeches by keynote speakers, symposium, and all the presentations in concurrent sessions will bring us opportunities to expand and deepen our understanding in ELT and applied linguistics. I look forward to interesting and insightful debates.

Once again, welcome to the conference and enjoy your time in Seoul.

Thank you.

Congratulatory Address

Kyung-Ja Park

Honorary Chair of PAAL

(Prof. Emeritus, Korea University)

Dear Participants, Distinguished Speakers, Ladies and Gentleman.

On this occasion of the 20th PAAL Conference I am very much excited and honored to be here at the venue where the first PAAL conference was held in 1996.

I remember July 1996 vividly when PAAL was first organized as a joint collaboration between the two universities(Korea Univ. and Waseda Univ.). The association started from a small group young scholars: the founding members have now grown up playing leading roles not only for the association but also for the global world.

Looking back, the inception of PAAL was not an accident, I think. The localization of English is increasingly important in this era of globalization. The *three dimensions of understanding(Intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability(Smith, 2009)* are important for mutual understanding and successful communication among people from diverse cultural backgrounds. We know that the acceptance of linguistic as well as cultural diversity of English becomes inevitable for the smooth and successful communication with people from different cultures and regions(Crystal, 2013).

Not only an exposure to these diverse varieties of Englishes spoken in this world but also how to deal with problems resulting from these varieties are important for us to understand those who are speaking other varieties of English than ours. We know that the goal of learning English is to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds, not just to communicate with native speakers of English. Thus acceptance of regional as well as cultural varieties of English has now become inevitable. English employed by native speakers(NSs) of English also has its local differences. It is important and necessary for speakers of English to recognize and acknowledge English with both regional and cultural differences since we're living in the 21st century with the nonnative speaker(NNS) population outnumbering the NS population. English employed today has cultural and regional varieties with the features reflected by the speakers and in many cases these features play a very crucial role in making themselves understood in communication process. No one can stop people using English reflected by their own culture. The world is ever changing and so are people and the language. And English cannot be an exception to it whether we like it or not.

Global English(English used globally) has cultural as well as regional features. We feel that the English with both regional and cultural differences is the spice of life. We should respect one another whether they're NSs or NNSs. We know that not only NNSs of English but also NSs of English should learn from each other not to be

misunderstood. Mere mimicking NSs of English cannot be the solution of the problems at hand. Simple imitators have no place to stand in this global world. No one would like to be just simple imitators. We know that students can do best when they're encouraged to think of the problems at hand and to try to look for better solutions for themselves with their own ideas. They should be encouraged to pay more attentions to what they need to do, what they can do best and should do. They are the ones who know the best what they need to do and can do.

When PAAL was first organized, it has been deeply involved in Cross-cultural Distance Learning Project(CCDL) between the two(and later nine?) universities. Since 1998 students of both universities have been exchanging their ideas and thoughts through the IT mediated classes, Video conference classes(VC), and the On-demand Lecture Series on World Englishes and Miscommunications. Many thesis and dissertations have come out as a result of the joint collaboration and have been presented at PAAL Conferences.

PAAL has emphasized the global features of English to look for best ways to solve problems on English education, which will eventually help both native and nonnative speakers of English better understand what English education should aim at. Through PAAL we've learned what to do and how to do when we are faced with language and cultural problems. We've learned how to respect others with different cultural backgrounds, how to understand others

and how to make ourselves understood. We've also learned that there are different varieties of English and that there are the things that both native and nonnative speakers of English cannot overcome. We've come to understand what we can and cannot do. We've come to understand the importance of acknowledging diverse varieties of English for better and efficient intercultural communication.

As a co-founder of this association, I feel very much touched and moved to see the beautiful growth of this association and of the members. It's my pleasure and honor to congratulate PAAL and its members for what they have done for global English education.

Finally I would like to take this opportunity to express my warmest gratitude to: (1) all the participants and the invited speakers for their support of PAAL, (2) the organizing committee members of Korean side of PAAL for their hard work to make this 20th anniversary a very memorable and unforgettable one, and (3) the Japan side of PAAL, and Prof. Nakano, my dear sister, for their collaboration to make this conference a very special one.

Thank you very much, indeed.

Congratulatory Address

Michiko Nakano

Honorary Chair of PAAL

(Prof. Emeritus, Waseda University)

History of PAAL

Bok Myung Chang

Conference Chair

(Namseoul University)

Owing to the collaboration between Korea University of Korea and Waseda University of Japan, the establishment of PAAL became a reality in 1996. Initially, this association was called the Waseda-Korea University English Teaching and Psycholinguistics Association and its original aim was to promote the scholarly exchange between the two universities. In other words, that association was founded for the purpose of providing mutual opportunities for cooperation through widely informing of the ongoing new studies in the field of applied linguistics and English teaching.

The first joint meeting was held in Korea University of Korea with the intention of providing the foundation for scholastic research (1996). The research papers, presented in this meeting, had not only put emphasis on the significance of English acquisition and method of English teaching but also asserted emphatically that the heavier weight was being given to English as a foreign language day by day, both in Korea and Japan. Afterwards, this kind of meeting came to be held every year and the second meeting was arranged to be held in Waseda University in 1997, the next year. In this 2nd meeting, the performative aspect in terms of language learning and teaching was highlighted.

When it was 1998, the meeting between two universities that used to be a small scale symposium developed into a full-fledged academic conference. The association's title was changed to the Japan-Korea Association of Applied Linguistics (JKAAL) as the association developed and the third meeting was held in Sungkonghoe University of Korea. In this meeting, the subjects such as the Application of grammar theory to English teaching, Universal Grammar and Communicative language teaching and the Speech act in English classroom, were discussed to a greater depth.

In 1999, our association came to have a turning point as the fourth meeting was to be held, jointly with the event of "AILA 99" in Tokyo. On this occasion, the number of the international member came to be increased saliently and the title was changed into PAAL (the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics) because the existing title of JKAAL meant only for Korea and Japan. Scholars from USA, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines and Australia, joined PAAL. The examples of researches on English teaching, progressing under various environments, were shown through the theses presented in the 4th conference.

The fifth conference (2000) was held in Hawaii University, located in Honolulu, Hawaii, USA and diverse subjects like computer-based language teaching and cross-cultural language learning were introduced in this meeting. Also, it was suggested through this meeting that PAAL could be reformed to act as a world-class association.

Participants flocked from all parts of the world to attend the sixth PAAL conference(2001) in Je-ju national university of Korea and keynote speeches on the various topics, ranging from English teaching curriculum to World Englishes, were delivered by numerous eminent international scholars. It was decided in this meeting that the next 7th conference would be held jointly with AILA 2002 and the venue for next meeting would be the

'Regional English Language Center(RELC)' in Singapore. It was noteworthy that the seventh conference was to be held in Singapore because Singapore was the first Asian Country, excluding Korea and Japan. Over 100 scholars, including Jack C. Richards, Hon-Min Sohn, and Teresa Pica from more than 10 countries were in attendance at the seventh colloquium in Singapore. Afterwards, the colloquiums were held continuously in various universities like Namseoul University of Korea, University of Edinburgh of United Kingdom, Kangwon National University in Korea, Pattaya in Thailand, University of Hawaii, New Hankyu Kyoto Hotel, Hanyang Women's University, The Chinese Univ. of Hong Kong, Wenjin Hotel of Beijing, Ajou University, and Waseda University. As the continued meetings were to be held unremittedly, many prominent scholars in the world, including Alan Davies, William O'Grady and Richard Smith, came to take part in our colloquiums. So this association keeps on being developed on the strength of those speeches and presentations, delivered by prominent scholars in the world. The information of the date, venue, and country of 20-year PAAL conference was summarized in the following table.

Currently, PAAL is comprised of over 400 members from all over the world and the academic journal of PAAL, being published twice a year, is listed in the index of database like ERIC and LLBA. The editorial board of PAAL journal is occupied by such prominent scholars as Robert Bley-Vroman, Alan Davies, Willam O'Grady, Hom-Min Sohn, Teresa Pica, Dennis Preston and Peter Sells. It is also remarkable that the members of PAAL are engaged in the project of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL), a joint project for which 15 universities, including University of Edinburgh of United Kingdom, National University of Singapore, De La Salle University and etc. are closely allied.

Compared to other associations, the distinguished difference is that it focuses on the research of English teaching and applied linguistics in the dimension of Asia and pan-Asia. PAAL is one of the few societies that are interested in diverse fields related to applied linguistics such as foreign language teaching and literature. PAAL is willing to be a constant starting point, from which the commencement of new researches in English teaching related field starts and to provide a forum that could be of stimulus to academic research.

Especially, I would like to express my deep appreciation and gratitude to Prof. Emeritus Kyung-Ja Park and Prof. Emeritus Michiko Nakano. Prof. Emeritus Kyung-Ja Park, actually she has been my academic advisor since I was a freshman in Korea University. Working together with Prof. Emeritus Michiko Nakano, Prof. Park founded PAAL and cultivated this association as one of the successful international academic association. I am sure that this conference could not be grown up like this great international conference without their efforts and contributions to the PAAL. And I really hope that PAAL would be more a wonderful academic association in the future.

Thank you so much!

<Table: History of PAAL Conference>

Year	Date	Venue	Country
1996	July 13-14	Korea Univ.	Korea
1997	July 28-29	Waseda Univ.	Japan
1998	August 3-5	Songkonghoe Univ.	Korea
1999	August 2-5	Waseda Univ.	Japan
2000	July 24-26	Univ. of Hawaii at Manoa	U.S.A
2001	July 30 –August 1	Cheju National Univ.	Korea
2002	December 13-15	SEAMEO RELC	Singapore
2003	August 4-5	Kibi Univ.	Japan
2004	August 19-20	Namseoul Univ.	Korea
2005	August 2-4	The Univ. of Edingurgh	U.K
2006	July 27-29	Kangwon National Univ.	Korea
2007	December 19-21	Royal Cliff Beach Resort	Thailand
2008	August 20-22	Univ. of Hawaii at Manoa	U.S.A
2009	July 30 –August 2	New Hankyu Kyoto Hotel	Japan
2010	August 17-19	Hanyang Women’s Univ.	Korea
2011	August 8-10	The Chinese Univ. of Hong Kong	Hong Kong
2012	August 21-23	Wenjin Hotel, Beijing	China
2013	August 19-20	Ajou Univ.	Korea
2014	August 17-19	Waseda Univ.	Japan
2015	December 5-6	Korea Univ.	Korea

Keynote Speech

English Education for the Second Decade of The 21st Century

Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin

Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

Sudaporn.L@chula.ac.th

Abstract

This paper describes the scenario of the second decade of the 21st century where there are many changes to all the factors related to education around the world. Language education has a big challenge to answer the needs of the 21st century graduates. The language planning and policy in many countries around the world focuses on a strong L1 for the existence of national identity and culture, English as the first L2 for knowledge accessing and sharing, and also other languages as needed for the relevant job market at the time. Language curriculum development needs a lot of rethinking in terms of versatility to answer the vast and fast changes of academic disciplines, international collaboration, fast and vast knowledge construction, and changing job markets. Thinking skills represented by language needs to be enhanced in language learning supporting the students to learn language in a meaningful manner. Integration of language skills in the 3 dimensions: understanding, generating, and extracting information both in the spoken and written

mode need to be done through novel class activities. Coursework books should only be used as supplementary media. Social Constructivism is proposed to answer the needs of the 21st century outcomes.

Keywords

21st Century Outcome Based Education, Social Constructivism, Versatilist

Introduction

The big challenge facing language teachers around the world is the world connectivity through the availability and the advancement of information and communication technology. Connectivity links the students to other parts of the world through the English language. Knowledge accessing and knowledge generating are facilitated by the ICTs that can range from a desktop computer to a smartphone with very smart software or apps. The shift in terms of knowledge accessing, mobility of job markets, emergence of new disciplines, and the artefacts used in schools, offices, and work places are changing so vast and fast. The

student outcomes of the 21st century is the passion and the ability to learn, unlearn, and relearn. Teaching English probably cannot only be done through textbooks. Authentic media and materials can be easily accessed in the classrooms. Problem learn (Delors, 1996) based and project based instruction with novel task designs to support the students to use English both in the spoken and written mode. Explicitly English grammar teaching can be done from the errors emerged in students' performance. Monitoring students' learning by teachers, peers, and also self-monitoring can be done without giving pressure to the errors the students make. Metalinguistic knowledge or language awareness should be enhanced through students learning activities.

1 The Global Scenario of Learning

The great paradigm shift in teaching and learning arises from the facts about knowledge explosion, knowledge obsolescence, changing students, changing job markets, and emerging disciplines. Learner autonomy is needed to prepare the students for this changing world. We may argue that the knowledge about English grammar does not change much. However, the English lexicon has increased a great deal due to the language contact and emerging disciplines. Students should be empowered with their ability to construct their knowledge about English and share their knowledge not only about the English language

but also any issues using English using English as a medium of instruction.

2 Social Constructivism

Social Constructivism-SC approach first introduced by Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) is well adopted in many modern learning theories and practices (Frawley, 1997), i.e., socio-cultural theory, constructivism, constructionism, collaborative and interactive learning, flipped classroom, for example.



The main concept of the theory can be concluded in a few paradigms shown in the figure above (Luksaneeyanawin, 2007), i.e., thinking is through language, and learning is through thinking. The essential learning factors are the intercommunication among the more knowledgeable and the less knowledgeable people, the intra communication of the learners, these communication is more effective if it is

done in a dialectic way. It is also suggested that the learners and the instructors should be aware of the actual stage of learning and the potential stage of the learning development. This leads to effective instructional scaffolding where instructors could support students with different proficiency levels.

3 The How of Social Constructivism-SC in the English Classroom

3.1 Project Based and Content Based Learning

Learning language is learning how to mean. Thinking in the language learned is one of the most important skill to be developed. The Behaviorist skill based instruction focuses on the four skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The skills in SC approach are thinking, understanding, generating, and extracting. In Project Based and Content Based learning students need to think about their project, drawing the mind maps using SC skills in preparation of the questions, putting them in a proper sequence, seeking for answers through extracting the information from different resources, writing up the content and summarizing what learned both in writing and oral presentation. These abilities could be gradually developed by progress report that can be collaboratively planned. Students will learn the language in a real context with meaningful

contents relevant to their needs and interests.

3.2 Assessment

Formative assessment using the project report to support the students' thinking, and to solve the language problems with Emergent grammar. Grammar will only be taught explicitly in the context of errors emerged from the students' work. Using standardized diagnostic test for summative pre and posttest is a must for student development.

4 Metalinguistic Knowledge

Raising students' language awareness can be done through discussion of students' errors in class with the support by teachers and peers. Self-authorship (Baxter Magolda, 2008) is very essential in learning autonomy. Students should be able to identify the errors and give the reasons in the identification process reflecting their metalinguistic knowledge. The knowledge could be the consequences of L1 transfer, overgeneralization, hyper correction, or the transfer of training from faulty materials or unqualified teachers. Language awareness can enhance the students' self-monitoring system leading them to create less errors in their future performances.

5 The Dilemma in Curriculum Design

Another issue in English education of this

second decade of the 21st century is the dilemma of the curriculum design among the Generalist, the Specialist, and the Versatilist. Most countries that teach English as a foreign language may find that the national English curriculum focus on general English at the K1-12 level. ESP courses are encouraged to be implemented more at the tertiary level. How are we going to design ESP courses that will answer to the various needs of the vast changing job markets? A versatilist version where a strong Basic English education using the SC task based, research based, or project based is suggested to answer the needs of the society rather than ESP.

6 Conclusion and Discussion

The paper describes the paradigm shift in teaching and learning to answer the needs of the 21st century. Social Constructivism is proposed to be used for language education. The how of SC is spelt out and exemplified with successful learning outcomes. The dilemma of curriculum design is also discussed and suggestion for the design that would work well with this fast changing world is given.

7 References

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2008). Three elements of self-authorship. *Journal of College Student Development*, 49 (4), 269-284.

Delors, Jacques, et al. (1996). *Learning: The Treasure Within*. Report to UNESCO of

the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century. UNESCO Publishing

Frawley, W. (1997). *Vygotsky and Cognitive Science: Language and the Unification of the Social and Computational Mind*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Luksaneeyanawin, S. (2007). Unfolding Linguistics. In Wirote Aroonmanakul (ed) *Unfolding Linguistics: A Festschrift for Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin*. Bangkok: Chulalongkorn University Printing House

How Language Varies: Theorizing Differences between Everyday Language and Academic Language

Angel M. Y. Lin

Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong
angellin@hku.hk

Abstract

In this paper language variation is theorized using Jim Cummins' notions of 'BICS' and 'CALP' and genre and register theory from the Sydney School. Ahmar Mahboob's three-dimensional framework integrating sociolinguistics language variation theories and register theory is further discussed to explore ways of using L1 academic language awareness in scaffolding the learning of L2 academic language.

Keywords

Language Across the Curriculum (LAC), Academic Literacies, Genre and Register Theory, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Introduction

How language varies has important educational implications, for if language varies according to its use in different contexts, then students need to develop language proficiencies appropriate for use in different contexts. In this paper different theorizations of language variation are discussed for their implications for academic literacies education.

1 BICS and CALP

How language varies has important educational implications, for if language varies according to its use in different contexts, then students need to develop language proficiencies appropriate for use in different contexts. Jim Cummins (1980/2001) has proposed two dimensions of language proficiency: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). We use BICS in our everyday life, such as in conversations with family members and friends, informal interactions with shop assistants, or casual chit-chat on Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter or Internet forums. In contrast, we use CALP to understand and discuss academic topics in the classroom and to read and write about these topics in school assignments and examinations. It is best to conceive of BICS and CALP not as discrete categories but as lying on a continuum. Similarly, it is best to see spoken and written modes as lying on a '*mode continuum*' (Derewianka, 2014, p. 165) and as it is important to provide ample support and

explicit guidance to students, especially English language learners (ELLs), as they move from the everyday spoken mode to the formal academic

written mode and in moving from BICS to CALP as mastery of CALP does not come naturally and requires explicit instruction even for L1 speakers.

2 Genre and Register Theory

While Cummins' conceptions of BICS and CALP provide broad orientations in understanding the differences between everyday language and academic language, a theory of language and in particular, Michael Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan's work in register theory as well as Jim Martin and David Rose's work in genre theory, will help us elaborate what BICS and CALP mean in functional linguistic terms. It will also help us gain a deeper understanding of how students can be helped to master L2 CALP, and how L1 CALP can facilitate this in the process.

When we produce a text we are constantly making choices among different vocabularies, grammatical patterns and different ways of organizing the text. The choices we make in a text depend on:

5. The relationship between the participants: speaker/listener; writer/reader (i.e. the tenor)
6. The subject matter of the text (i.e. the field)
7. The channel of communication: written or spoken (i.e. the mode)

These three factors together determine the register of the text. We can think of a culture as consisting of different conventional ways of doing things (or different social processes),

including different ways of organizing texts to achieve different social purposes. These different ways of organizing texts to achieve different social purposes are called different genres. In Sydney School genre theory, genre is defined as a 'staged, goal-oriented, social process' (Rose & Martin, 2012, p.54). It is said to be 'staged' and 'goal-oriented', because a genre typically goes through different rhetorical stages to achieve its primary goal or social purpose. In a nutshell, we can say that texts are organized and constructed in different ways according to their genre (purpose) and register (field, tenor, mode); the genre shapes the overall organization or structuring of the text (e.g. what kinds of stages through which the text unfolds to achieve its overall purpose) while the register shapes the lexico-grammatical patterns of the text (Derewianka, 2014).

3 Mahboob's Three-Dimensional Framework of Language Variation

Sociolinguists' current consensus about how language/texts vary can be summarised as follows:

Language varies based on (i) whether we are talking to people in our community (local) or people outside our community (global); (ii) whether we are speaking or writing; and (iii) whether we are engaged in everyday or specialized discourses (Mahboob, 2014). In this framework (Figure 1), we can identify eight

different domains in which language varies depending on different values on the three dimensions (i.e. field, tenor and mode) of the context of communication. The first four domains include language variations that reflect local usage and they can vary in the following ways: (i) local everyday written; (ii) local everyday oral; (iii) local specialized written; (iv) local specialized oral. The other four domains involve global usage that varies with the dimension of written/oral and the dimension of everyday/specialized: (v) global everyday written; (vi) global everyday oral; (vii) global specialized written; (viii) global specialized oral. These four domains of language usage differ from the first four domains in that they refer to contexts of language usage where participants need to communicate with people who do not share their local ways of using language. In using this framework, it must be pointed out that there is considerable variation within each of these eight domains depending on the specific aspects of each context of communication (Mahboob, 2014). The framework, however, provides us with an overall sociolinguistic ‘roadmap’ to chart out the different possible domains in which a student will need to develop different appropriate kinds of language proficiencies (e.g. BICS, CALP). The framework can thus inform our work in curriculum planning.

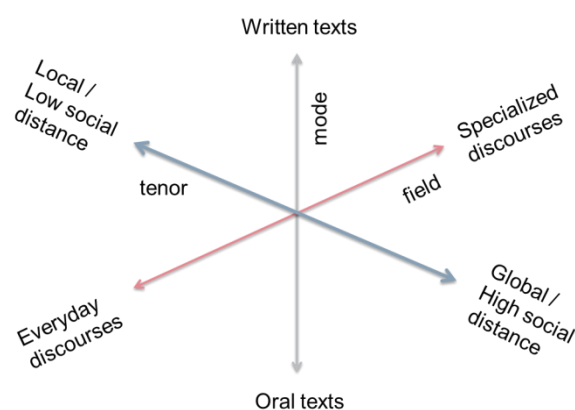


Figure 1. Mahboob's Framework (Mahboob, 2014)

4 L1 and L2 CALPs

It seems that Cummins' CALP would map onto the 7th and 8th domains of Mahboob's 3-dimensional framework and BICS would map onto the 1st and 2nd domains. It seems that the student who has developed a good foundation in CALP in one language is likely to have an enhanced *metalinguistic awareness* of CALP, which involves the need to realize a certain set of values in academic registers, and different languages offer different concrete lexico-grammatical choices to realize them. This is similar to Cummins' notion of surface features of L1 and L2. These surface features will be different in different languages. However, the overall communicative purposes of academic genres and their textual schematic structuring (i.e. the stages through which a text unfolds to achieve its overall purpose) will be similar. For instance, an academic science text describing flowering plants is likely to have a similar overall purpose and textual structuring whether

it is in L1 or L2. Given the increasing globalizing trends in academic discourses, the genres and texts in academic contexts across different societies and languages (i.e. in the 7th and 8th domains) are likely to be sharing more similarities than differences.

5 References

- Cummins, J. (1980/2001). The entry and exit fallacy in bilingual education. In C. Baker, C., & N. H. Hornberger (Eds), *An introductory reader to the writings of Jim Cummins* (pp. 110-138). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Derewianka, B. (2014). Supporting students in the move from spoken to written language. In A. Mahboob, & L. Barratt (Eds.), *Englishes in multilingual contexts* (pp.165-182). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre Relations: Mapping Culture*. London: Equinox.
- Mahboob, A. (2014). Language variation and education: A focus on Pakistan. In S. Buschfeld, T. Hoffmann, M. Huber & A. Kautzsch (Eds.), *The Evolution of Englishes* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-281). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Symposium

Korea Educational Policies & Practices:

English curriculum & Assessment

Lee, Moonbok Ph.D.

Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation



Korean Educational Policies & Practices: English curriculum & Assessment

Lee, Moonbok Ph.D.

Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation



TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. Historical background on Korean Education

II. English Curriculum

III. English Assessment

- Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-referenced
- Grading of English Tests in Korea

VI. New Directions

2

Historical background on Korean education

- Hendrick Hamel's account of Korean education in 17th century

The nobles and the free men take great care for the education of their children. They place their children under the direction of teachers to learn to read and write. The people of this country are very enthusiastic about [education] and the method they use is gentle and ingenious. Teachers offer their students the teaching of earlier scholars and constantly cite their example of those who attained fame through high scholarship. The boys devote their time to study day and night (Choe, 1987, p. 98).

3

Historical background

cont

- “ The Story of Spring Fragrance” (*Chunhyangjeon* in Korean), Korea's best-loved folktale

The protagonist, *Yi Doryong*, is able to save his sweetheart, *Spring Fragrance (Chunhyang)*, from a venal new governor by placing first on the government exam. He is consequently appointed a secret inspector who anonymously wanders the countryside checking up on local administrators, and, in the nick of time, coming across the new governor oppressing the love he left behind in the countryside.

4

English Curriculum in Korea

1st ~ 6th National Curriculum (1954~1996)

- Grammar-oriented education in practice
- Introduction of the College Scholastic Ability Test(CSAT), 1993
- Introduction of primary English education, 1995

7th National Curriculum ~ (1996~Now)

- Four skills balanced education
- Emphasis on communicative language learning
- Level-based English instruction
- Performance assessment



English Curriculum in Korea

Background to the plans for criterion-referenced Grading in the English section of CSAT

- Using CSAT English section as a vehicle for the reform of English learning & teaching
- Lowering the stakes of CSAT English section
- Lessening the burden of English test preparation
- Preparing for the test through schoolwork only
- Lowering the cost of so called "private" education



Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-reference

Purpose

Criterion-referenced Test

- To determine individuals' achievements in relation to a clearly stated criterion
- To find out how much a student know before/after instruction

Norm-referenced Test

- To determine individuals' achievements relative to their peers
- To discriminate among individuals



Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-reference Score Interpretation

Criterion-referenced Test

- Each individual is compared with a preset standard
- A student's score is simple above or below the standard or criterion

Norm-referenced Test

- Each individual is compared with others.
- A student's score is expressed as a percentile, or a stanine.



Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-reference Examples

Criterion-referenced Test

- PISA
- TIMSS
- NAEP
- NAEA
- IELTS

Norm-referenced Test

- ACT
- SAT
- GRE
- TOEFL
- CSAT



Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-reference

Benefits

Criterion-referenced Test

- assessment for learning; adjusting instruction accordingly
- linking curriculum, teaching and assessment

Norm-referenced Test

- Providing useful information when making educational decisions about individuals



Criterion-referenced vs. Norm-reference

Drawbacks

Criterion-referenced Test

- Not easy to comprehensively articulate the criteria
- Not easy to generalize the results

Norm-referenced Test

- Issue of unfairness can be raised.
- Promoting competition rather than cooperation among students
- Not easy to set and interpret different levels of achievement



Grading of English Tests in Korea

CSAT: currently a norm-referenced test

The stanines grading for
the current English section of CSAT

Stanines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Ratio	4%	7%	12%	17%	20%	17%	12%	7%	4%
Interval	0-4%	4-11%	11-23%	23-40%	40-60%	60-77%	77-89%	89-96%	96-100%



Grading of English Tests in Korea

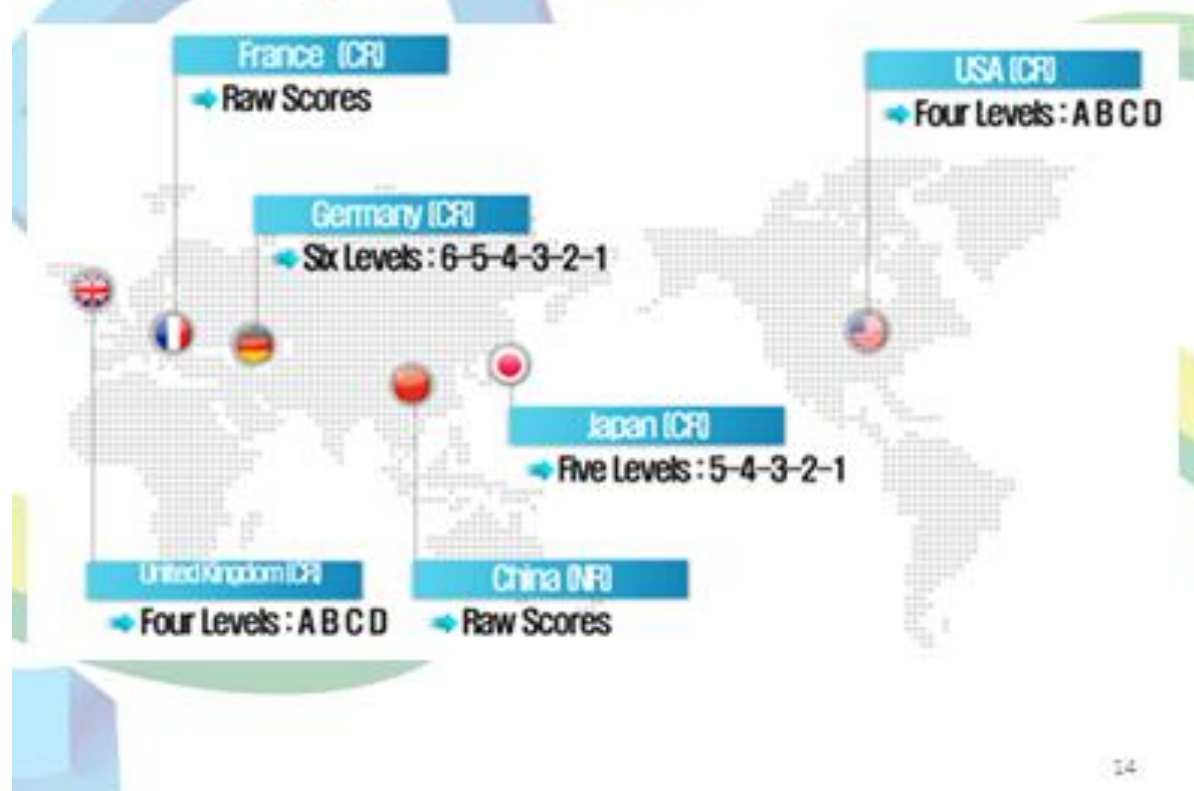
CSAT: to be a criterion-referenced test
beginning the 2018 academic year

The criterion-referenced grading to be
adopted for the English section of CSAT

Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Ratio									
Score Range	100-90	89-80	79-70	69-60	59-50	49-40	39-30	29-20	19-0



Grading of English Tests Abroad




14

International Examples of English Grading in School

Country	Grading
France	Criterion-referenced in middle and high schools; Using raw scores; Class average, maximum and minimum scores provided
Germany	Criterion-referenced in middle and high schools; Using 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 (with 1 being the lowest and 6 being the highest)
U.K.	Criterion-referenced in middle and high schools; Using A, B, C, and D



International Examples of English Grading in School



Country	Grading
U.S.	Criterion-referenced in middle and high schools; Using A, B, C, and D
Japan	Criterion-referenced in middle and high schools; Using 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest)
China	Norm-referenced in elementary, middle, and high schools; Using raw scores



New Directions

English Curriculum

Current Practices	New Directions
Academic oriented	Communicative competency oriented
Receptive skills (reading, listening) oriented	Productive skills (speaking, writing) oriented
Focus on linguistic knowledge per se	Focus on the use of the target language



New Directions

Teaching & Learning

Current Practices	New Directions
Teaching to the test	Communicative language teaching
Heavy focus on listening & reading in school	Four skills on balance
Teacher-centered instruction	Student-centered instruction



New Directions

Teaching & Learning

cont

Current Practices	New Directions
Lack of opportunities for practice in and out of the classroom	Autonomous learning
	Ample opportunities for practice
	Taking advantage of ICT



New Directions

Assessment

Current Practices	New Directions
Norm referenced	Criterion reference
Intense competition for earning higher scores on CSAT	Assessing for learning (AFL) Integrating formative and summative assessment
Receptive skills oriented multiple choice test items	Technology-assisted assessment



Concluding Remarks

- ❖ **Positive washback effects of change in grading system**
 - **Lessening the competition/burden of English test preparation**
 - **Facilitating the implementation of communicative language teaching in English classrooms**



Our Recent English Education Policies and Practices in Japan

Michiko Nakano

Waseda University

nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

This report outlines the recent proposals made by Ministry of Education, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2008, 2010 and 2013. The 2013 proposal made a great deal of impact among English educators in Japan, since MEXT utilized six levels in the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) which has been widely influential in the world since 2001. The present presentation deals with the feasibility of the 2013 proposal.

Keywords

English Education Reform, CEFR

Introduction

Japan has not introduced English Education into the primary school education till 2011. For this matter, Japan is the last country in Asia to undertake this practice, since many other countries had introduced English into the primary level much earlier than 2011. In my generation till 2010, English was taught in Middle schools. The policy makers went through this education and many of us who had studied abroad for graduate studies had not have any

difficulty in following research subjects abroad.

The main reasons for the disapproval of or reluctance to the earlier instruction of English come from the following popular belief among Japanese people. One is that fundamentals in Education should be taught in our mother tongues, Japanese. Otherwise, primary pupils would be lost or the subject matter, half digested. To strengthen this belief, there was some evidence that in immersion schools, half of the pupils became semi-linguals, that is, they are not only poor at English, but also poor at other school subjects. Japanese had been translating western knowledge and concepts into Japanese since 1867. For this reason, we have been confident that we can teach successfully any school subjects in Japanese. However, globalization has advanced in the 21st century. Parents wished their sons and daughters could possess sufficient English proficiency to cope with globalization. They firmly believed in the earlier education in English. Before 2011, English was not a school subject, but private schools introduced English lessons at primary levels. According to the MEXT survey in 2007, 97.1 % of the primary schools had English

lessons in their schools. According to the MEXT Policy till 2010, English was allowed to teach in Comprehensive lessons (総合の時間) in which International Understanding was one of the several teaching points including Moral Education. English had been one of the foreign language activities. Home room teachers were asked to teach English. For these reasons, at some schools, English was taught only once a year, while in some other schools English was taught 70 45-minute class hours. MEXT wished to standardize the amount of English exposure to the pupils, in order to guarantee the equal access to English among Japanese pupils. The sample textbooks called English Notes 1 and 2 were published in 2009. They are meant to familiarize English sounds, numbers, color names, days, greetings and daily routine conversations. In 2011 we started to introduce English in the 5th and 6th grades but not as a school subject. This means that there was no exam and that their performance was not assessed. In my view, English Notes 1 and 2 in 2009 are much better than ‘Hi Friends’ in 2011. The latter textbooks are supposed to be spiral and gradual, but too much repetition of the similar kinds of exercises.

In Middle schools, before 2011 3 45-minute class hours, which means 105 class hours a year, and after 2011, 4 class hours were allocated, which means 140 hours per year. In my time, 5-6 class hours were allocated. Before 2011, listening and speaking were focused. In 2011

onwards, four skills, listening, reading, writing and speaking were focused and integrated. Teaching method was altered from teacher-centered to student-centered. The vocabulary size of 900 words before 2011 was increased into 1300 words.

In High Schools, 2013 was a turning point in English Education. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the main points of reforms.

Table 1

Before 2013		2013 Reform	
		English Communication Basic (2)	
English I	(3)	English Communication I	(3)
English II	(4)	English Communication II	(4)
Reading	(4)	English Communication III	(4)
Oral Communication I	(2)	English Expressions	(2)
Oral Communication II	(4)	English Expressions	(4)
Writing	(4)	English Conversation	(2)

Table 2 vocabulary Size

	Old	New
Middle School	900	1200
High School	English I + 400	Communication I +400
	English II + 500	Communication II +700
	Reading + 900	Communication III +700
Total	2200	3000

1 MEXT 2013 Proposal

In 2013, December, MEXT announced 2016 English Education Reforms to cope with Globalization and at the same time issued the practical schedule. As Table X shows, the goals of English Language Education are specified explicitly, based on the CEFR levels. By the time of 2020, Olympic year, we have to radically upgrade the formal education and transform it into the international standards. In 2016, the new course of study will be issued. The textbooks will be composed and completed

in 2017, based on the new Course of Study. The textbooks are supposed to be authorized by the MEXT in 2018 and the new textbooks distributed in 2020.

The gap between the current practice and the 2020 goals is enormous. At the primary level, 3rd and 4th graders are supposed to engage English Activities to familiarize the sounds, formulaic phrases and daily greetings, but in the 5th and 6th grades, English becomes a school subject. 71,000 home-room teachers in charge of 3rd and 4th graders as well as 73,000 home-room teachers in charge of 5th and 6th graders have to go through special trainings, in order for them to instruct English in English. The MEXT proposed that 20,000 regional leaders to organize these training camps. The MEXT assists special areas in which 15000 pupils will receive intensive lessons.

At Middle/ High Schools, 10,000 English leaders will be chosen and they provide intensive trainings as well as daily trainings within each school. The number of Assistant English Teachers (ALTs) will be increased; they will be allocated to 5000 schools.

Table 3 CEFR-based 2020 Reform

Current	2018--2020
Primary School: Familiarization	Primary School A1
Middle School A1 STEP 3rd Grade	Middle School A2 (STEP pre-2nd Grade)
High School A2 -- B1	High School B1 and B2:
STEP Pre-2nd Grade or 2nd Grade	(STEP 2nd or STEP pre-1st Grade)
	University: C1 and C2: (STEP 1st Grade)

2 Discussion

The MEXT 2013 proposal finally managed to

make English Education globally and internationally appropriate. However, we would face various challenges: Teacher Training, sudden increase of vocabulary size and the methods of teaching. In 2003, MEXT proposed that English teachers should have the proficiency level of STEP Pre-1st Grade, TOEIC 730 or TOEFL 550. According to JACET-Sig survey in 2002, out of 1278 teachers, 706 (55.2%) possessed STEP Pre-1st Grade, 271(21.1 %), 1st Grade, and 236 (18.5%), 2nd Grade. About 23 % did not have sufficient proficiency in English. High School teachers have to instruct B1 and B2 materials in English. This suggests that they require at least C1 and ideally C2 skills. We will face the urgent necessity of efficient Teacher training. As in Europe and USA, to-be teachers should go to College of Education after graduation. In my experience, MA holders are much more suitable as teachers than BA holders, since they acquire not only research skills but also better at four skills.

As for the vocabulary size, according to Aikawa (2007), in China, Taiwan and Korea, in primary schools, 987 words are introduced, in the 1st grade of middle schools, 282 words, in the 2nd 3rd grades, 1565 words, in the 1st and 2nd grades of high schools, 2894 words; by the third grade of high school, 3496 words are presented to students. In Norway, high school graduates reach at C1; 6500~8000 words are supposed to be a part of active vocabulary. In Asia, we

should follow Norwegian examples.

Teaching methods should be student-centered and more interactive. ICT use should be encouraged at all levels of Education. Cyber interactions with peer students would make our students more engaged, since they provide authentic opportunities of communication

3 Recerence

MEXT (2013). The execution plan to innovate the English education for globalization

Hong Kong's English language education policies: The changing role and pedagogy of English in different times

Tae Hee Choi

Hong Kong Institute of Education

choith@ied.edu.hk

Abstract

This presentation illustrates the close relationship between the politico-social roles of English, educational infrastructure and English language education (ELE) policies in Hong Kong (HK). It first presents the current ELE and other relevant policies, which is followed by description of the current educational infrastructure and systems (e.g., teacher education and educational policies in general) as well as of the historical backdrop against which the role of English and its pedagogy have evolved. Analysing documents which showcase current practice of ELE such as items of the college entrance exam and guidelines for textbook licensure, it presents how the ELE policies are realized, reflecting the local situations. It concludes with trends in ELE policies in HK and their implications for a wider context.

Keywords

English language education policies, Hong Kong, biliterate-trilingual policy, factors shaping policies, globalisation

1 Background

Official agendas of ELE policies in HK

Language education in HK since the 1997 handover is underpinned by its biliterate-trilingual policy, learning of two written languages, Traditional Chinese and English, and three spoken languages, Cantonese, English and Mandarin. ELE has long been an indispensable part of HK education policies, particularly since the British colonial period. The focus of ELE has been developing communicative competencies to use English for everyday life. The current aims of ELE in HK, as prescribed in the territory-wide *Curriculum and Assessment Guide* (Curriculum Development Council [CDC] & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority [HKEAA], 2014, p7), still reflect the historical focus as follows:

- to provide learners with learning experiences to increase their language proficiency for study, work, leisure and personal enrichment; develop their knowledge, skills, values and attitudes; and promote lifelong learning so as to enhance their personal and intellectual

development, cultural understanding and global competitiveness.

The aims, rather than being limited to the mere development of English proficiency, are comprehensive and center on the development of students as a whole – life-long learners who can compete globally and accommodate varied cultures in response to the “changing socio-economic demands” of the globalised world (CDC & HKEAA, 2014, p2). Relevant teaching methodologies, particularly task-based learning which stresses on the communicative function and the purposeful use of the language, are thus put forth to realize the aims.

2 Hong Kong’s historical relationship with English

English, despite often being referred as “broken English” (Bolton, 2003, p148) at the time, was first spoken in the region of current HK by Cantonese-speaking locals who had commercial contact with people from various countries as early as in 1720s. English became a communicative medium for a vast majority in daily life and as the medium of instruction in most schools (MOI) since the colonization by Britain between 1841 and 1997, and has since symbolised economic prosperity and status (Kan & Adamson, 2010). The benefits and prestige brought about by good English proficiency are still valid in post-colonial times despite the increasing importance of Mandarin. English proficiency is still a crucial criterion for access to

higher education and employment, and also perceived to be a tool to ensure global competitiveness of HK. Consequently, the move of designating two thirds of the schools as Chinese medium schools initiated by the Education Department in 2007 faced strong oppositions and was soon replaced by the fine-tuned MOI policy in 2010 which allows the use of English as the MOI as long as the school proves its capability. Throughout the years, English has retained its image as the language for success and upward mobility locally. However, it remains to be seen how the ever growing presence of China will affect the status and role of English in HK.

3 Existing educational infra-structure

Due to limited space, in this contribution to the proceedings, only two aspects of the educational infra-structure will be discussed, teacher education and the college entrance exam. Plans on teacher education and development include all the abilities required to promote students’ language competencies, whole-person development and thus global competitiveness in this ever-changing era, thus exhibiting coherence between the curricular prescription and the human resources development plan. Pre-service English language teacher programmes develop, first, English proficiency and the abilities involved in teaching and assessing lessons in English (Coniam & Falvey, 2013), which is measured and assured by the compulsory Language Proficiency Assessment

for Teachers undertaken by all teacher candidates. Generic skills (e.g. creativity and critical thinking) are taught through various modules on educational degree programmes. Finally, the attitudes and values deemed necessary for living in the ever-changing highly interconnected world (e.g., cross-cultural sensitivity, global citizenship) are nurtured through adding General Education programs to HK curricula of tertiary education in 2012. All these measures do complementarily provide the ingredients for realizing the prescribed multi-faceted aims of ELE.

The Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education (HKDSE), the current college entrance examination, on the other hand, focuses primarily on the direct measurement of the four areas of English proficiency – listening, speaking, reading and writing – both separately and in an integrative way (HKEAA, 2014). Acting as the gatekeeper of higher education, HKDSE requires all candidates to obtain at least level 3 (out of 5) in English in the HKDSE examination (HKEAA, 2013) so as to get a place at the eight government funded degree-level educational institutes in HK. Similarly, its counterparts, the A and AS-level Use of English examinations (UE) and the Hong Kong Certificate of Education (HKCEE) which were effective until 2012, also measured actual English proficiency (Qian, 2008). These examinations, despite being offered in different times, all ensures that college entries have reached a satisfactory level of English proficiency, reasserting that English is the language for success and upward

mobility.

4 Conclusion

Under current ELE policies, English is perceived as a strategic tool for students to achieve personal development, and global competitiveness. In contrast to other contexts where English has traditionally been only a school subject, the curricular objective to develop students' actual proficiency is realized, due to its long-standing role as a communicative tool and corresponding educational infrastructure. The current policies demonstrate the close relationship between ELE policy development, HK's historical relationship with English, and educational infrastructure. Achieving a high degree of coherence between education in general and ELE, HK shows its capacity as well as its ambition to remain as a leader in the Asia Pacific region in the face of globalisation. (See Choi [forthcoming] for further discussion on ELE policies of HK, Japan and South Korea.)

5 References

- Bolton, K. (2003). *Chinese Englishes: A sociolinguistic history*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Choi, T.-H. (forthcoming). Globalization of English language education: Comparison of three contexts in East Asia. In C.-M. Lam & J. Park (Eds.), *Sociological and philosophical perspectives on education in the Asia-Pacific region* (pp. xx-xx). Hong Kong: Springer.

- Coniam, D., & Falvey, P. (2013). Ten years on: The Hong Kong Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers of English (LPATE). *Language Testing*, 30(1), 147–155.
- Curriculum Development Council, & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority. (2014). *English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (Secondary 4 - 6)* Hong Kong, China: Education Bureau.
- Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority. (2013). *Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education examination*. Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority.
- Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority. (2014). Category A - HKDSE Core Subjects: English Language.
- Kan, V., & Adamson, B. (2010). Language policies for *Review of Education*, 8(2), 167-176.
- Qian, D. (2008). English language assessment in Hong Kong: A survey of practices, developments and issues. *Language Testing*, 25(1), 85 - 110.

DAY 1 (Saturday, December 5, 2015)

Session A (Room 314A) Moderator: Yuji Nakamura (Keio University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:30-9:55	A-1	Validity Consideration in Designing an Oral English Test Cui Dan (Harbin Engineering University) Luan Jing (Harbin Engineering University)
9:55-10:20	A-2	Acquisition of the Three Prepositions <i>in</i> , <i>to</i> , and <i>into</i> Miki H. K. Bong (Shinshu University)

Session B (Room 314B) Moderator: Eiichiro Tsutsui (Hiroshima International University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:30-9:55	B-1	Global Political Economy of English: The Promotion of English in East Asia in the 21 st Century Han-Yi Lin (National Taipei University of Technology)
9:55-10:20	B-2	Cloze Tests in Terms of Readability and Test Item Content Yuji Nakamura (Keio University) Adam Murray (Miyazaki International College) Kazunari Shimada (Takasaki University of Health and Welfare)

Validity Consideration in Designing an Oral English Test

Cui Dan¹ and Luan Jing²

¹Harbin Engineering University, ²Harbin Engineering University

cuidan@hrbeu.edu.cn, arialluan@hrbeu.edu.cn

Abstract

To make oral test accurately reflect the actual English spoken ability of candidates and play its role in guiding and promoting the improvement of English learners in the teaching, we must ensure that the design of scientific questions, the feasibility and validity of judgments to make an accurate and fair measurement of testers' language ability.

Keywords

Validity Consideration; Oral English Test; English speaking ability

Introduction

With the development of society, the requirements of English speaking ability and an effective measurement of this ability are getting higher and higher. Some Oral Proficiency Tests in the world are speaking test of the "Business English Certificate" (BEC) by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicated (UCLES), and the oral examination of IELTS and TOEFL by University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicated (UCLES), British Council and the IDP Education Australian. Major domestic oral examinations are oral proficiency test of College Entrance Examination, College English Test 4 and 6, and Public English Test System. Nowadays, oral English proficiency test are being more welcomed by the society so as to become an important indicator of foreign language proficiency in social recruitment and employment of graduates.

To make oral test accurately reflect the actual English spoken ability of candidates and play its role in guiding and promoting the improvement of English learners in the teaching, we must ensure that the design of scientific questions, the feasibility and

validity of judgments to make an accurate and fair measurement of testers' language ability. In this field, research and practice on oral tests in West start earlier than China and a lot of hard work has been done. Thus this paper is based on the past researches on foreign language tests and the relevant literature on the validity of oral English examination, combined with the domestic situation of oral English tests, to explore some major aspects, especially focusing on test forms, in considering the validity of designing oral English test.

1 Test Forms

In comparison, the content of simulated oral proficiency interview are unified, and the testing process and evaluation process are separated, so it will not influence by the other factors (e.g., the difficulty of the test: the difficulty of the oral proficiency interview may be different with different examiners, while simulated oral proficiency interview does not have this problem,) and the validity of it is high. However, due to the lack of interactive communication and low face validity, this form of oral test was initially used in minor languages test when it lacked qualified examiners. But in recent years, it has been gradually recognized and became an alternative and supplement of some oral tests (Stansfield, 1991; Stansfield & Kenyon, 1992; Shohamy, 1994; Kenyon & Rschirner, 2000).

¹

Therefore, in practice, that we should adopt oral proficiency interview or simulated oral

¹ This paper is funded by the International Exchange Program of Harbin Engineering University for Innovation-oriented Talents Cultivation

proficiency interview depends on the type and purposes of the oral tests. Stansfield (1991) confirms that OPI is fit for the classification test and course evaluation test, and SOPI is more suitable for the large-scale test which requires high reliability. Shohamy (1994) persists that when we choose the forms of oral test, we should consider all aspects of factors, such as, accuracy, feasibility, practicability and equity, etc.

Besides, many researchers also analyzed the concurrent validity of two forms of oral test. Stansfield (1991) uses the Pearson correlation coefficient to analyse them and find out that they are related between 0.89 and 0.95. In 1992, Kenyon and Stansfield used G-study to analyze the error score, and the results showed that the main factor which leads to different scores was the examinee's spoken language ability, so the difference of the oral form does not differ significantly.

However, researchers believe, simply the result of quantitative analysis of scores can not prove the two oral forms are exactly the same. They should be compared from different perspectives by qualitative analysis (Shohamy, 1994). Shohamy (1994) adopts qualitative method to conduct a pre-test validity (priori-validity) and late validity (posteriori-validity) analysis. The two oral forms turn out to be quite different in communication strategies and discourse features. In simulated oral proficiency interview, candidates pay more attention to the correctness of language output and express with more formal words, which are closer to the written expression. Oral proficiency interview enables candidates an easy involvement in communication and candidates pay more attention to interaction and communication to convey meaning. In addition, simulated oral proficiency interview often leads to a more narrow range of expression, such as limited description, report and dictation. Therefore, Oral proficiency interview and simulated oral proficiency interview are non-interchangeable.

2 Scoring

The role of a standard oral test is to ensure that the test accurately and fairly measures the candidates' ability to use the target language, which also means that validity consideration is essential in designing an oral English test. Therefore, the design of

scientific, objective and operational assessment criteria is an important part of an oral test. Usually, a standard oral test is mainly related to the accuracy, fluency, relevance and interaction of candidates' discourse output.

3 Examiners

Besides, whether test results can objectively reflect the candidate's oral proficiency also lies in examiners' accurate grasp of the scoring standard. That is to say, it is also an effective method to train the examiners to learn the evaluation standard of an oral English test to make them reach an agreement in the oral interview. Apart from this, some oral samples can be selected as a pretest for examiners to raise the reliability of the test.

4 Conclusion

To conclude, the validity of oral English test is affected by many factors (such as the oral form, scoring criteria and the professional quality of the examiner, etc.) and there is still much to learn and improve in domestic oral English test to ensure the validity of it and truly promote the development of oral teaching.

5 References

- Shohamy, E. (1983). The Stability of Oral Proficiency in the Oral Interview Procedure. *Language Learning*, 33, 527 - 540.
- Shohamy, E. (1994). The Validity of Direct Versus Semi-direct Oral Tests. *Language Testing*, 11, 99 - 123.
- Stansfield, C. & Kenyon, D. (1992). The Development and Validation of a Simulated Oral Proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 76, 129 - 141.
- Stansfield, C. W. (1911). A Comparative Analysis of Simulated and Direct Oral Proficiency Interviews. In S. Anivan. (Ed.) *Current Developments in Language Testing*. Singapore: Regional Language Center.

Acquisition of the Three Prepositions *in*, *to*, and *into*

Miki H. K. Bong

¹Shinshu University

Hkb22@shinshu-u.ac.jp

hkb22cam@gmail.com

Abstract

This study investigates how Japanese speaking learners develop the three English prepositions, namely *in*, *to*, and *into*, addressing the research questions on second language (L2) learning strategies and interlanguage development hypothesis: (1) what roles of L1 (first language) play in L2 acquisition of these prepositions in English; (2) whether objects (syntactically, *Complement*) of prepositions (BOTTOM-UP), or verbs, nouns, or adjectives (syntactically, *Head*) that antecede (Select) prepositions (TOP-DOWN) are crucial factors in identifying and acquiring various senses of prepositions in English; (3) whether these three prepositions in English are developed by JSLs in the same way or not; and (4) which senses of these three prepositions are learned more easily than others.

Keywords

Feature Reconstruction Hypothesis, Lemmatic Transfer Hypothesis, SLA, Prototypicality Hypothesis, Full L1-Through Hypothesis

Introduction

This research is set out to contribute to the discussion of the two competing L2 acquisition theories: namely the Feature Reconstruction hypothesis with the Lemmatic Transfer Hypothesis derived from the Minimalist Model of Language Acquisition (Bong 2009), and the Prototypicality Hypothesis with the full L1 Through Hypothesis (i.e. L2 is learned/developed only through L1) derived from the Cognitive Model of Language Acquisition based on the Proto Theory.

1 Background and Rationale

1.1 The Feature Reconstruction Hypothesis

The Minimalist Model of language acquisition assumes that learners have a built-in preference towards economical options, owing to Economy Principles (Bong 2005, 2009). In this model, the

acquisition process is of 'making and testing hypotheses' about the settings of parameters and sets of features for lexical items expressed in the triggering input according to their ability to parse the input. One of the main arguments of this model is that the processes of L1 acquisition, language change and L2 acquisition are governed by the same **Economy Principles** but involve different causal factors in the divergence of parameter settings and in the Selection and Construction of features in the lexicon. Bong (2005) proposes that different causal factors are the quantitative and qualitative variability of input and the role of L1 lexicon in L2 acquisition process (i.e. lexicon contact view), which is derived from the Feature Construction (L1) /Re-Construction (L2) Hypothesis. The main predictions are that L1 plays roles as providing possible options for sets of semantic and syntactic features when parsing L2 input, and as increasing the obscurity and ambiguity of meanings/senses used in the triggering input when learners are parsing the input (i.e. the L1 Lemmatic Transfer Hypothesis) (Bong 2011).

1.2 The Prototypicality Hypothesis

Under the Cognitive theory, all senses of any polysemous word (such as prepositions) are assumed to have a prototypical sense (senses), and others less prototypical ones extending in some way from the prototypical sense (Hayashi 2008). Under this theory, L1 acquisition of English prepositions is referred to as an extension process of cognitive principles in learning schematic properties of any polysemous words through *body movement* assuming 'semantic relatedness' between senses of prepositions and other schematic principles that are operative, while L2A involves an extension of *Schematic Principles*, not through body movement, but *via L1* (i.e. *The Full L1-Through Hypothesis*). In addition, proponents for the prototypicality hypothesis claim that *prototypical ones are easy to acquire*, while *less prototypical ones are more difficult to acquire*.

2. Methodology

Table 1. Details of Experiment Japanese Subjects

Group (Num)	OPTMean	OPT Score Range
JSL G1 (13) (Elementary)	112.69 (56.3%)	100~120 (50%~60%)
JSL G2 (24) (Pre-intermediate)	124.67 (62.3%)	121~129 (60.5%~64.5%)
JSL G3 (20) (Intermediate)	137.65 (68.8%)	130~150 (65%~75%)
Total (57)	126.49 (68.8%)	100~150 (50~75%)

3 Results and Discussion

Table 2 English Preposition Adequate Placements

	JSL G1(13) (Element.)	JSL G2 (24) (Pre-Interm)	JSL G3 (20) (Intermed.)	Total (57)
in	84/247 (34.0%)	152/456 (33.3%)	145/380 (38.2%)	381/1083 35.2%
to	57/208 (27.4%)	101/384 (26.3%)	111/320 (34.7%)	269/912 29.5%
into	24/117 (20.5%)	55/216 (25.5%)	52/180 (28.9%)	131/513 25.5%
	165/572 28.8%	308/1056 29.2%	308/880 35.0%	781/2508 31.1%

→Low in achievement in general

Table 3 English Preposition Wrong Placements

	in placed	to placed	into placed	Total (three)
@ in	381/1083 35.2%	98/1083 (9.0%)	34/1083 (3.1%)	
@ to	107/912 (11.7%)	269/912 29.5%	46/912 (5.0%)	
@ into	78/513 (15.2%)	62/513 (12.1%)	131/513 25.5%	

→L1 roles, systematic errors.

Table 4 Three Easiest Types of Sentences

in	(in) Sentences (spatial enclosed)	Frequency
1	She is (in) hospital at the moment, not an outpatient. (入院)	46/57 (80.7%) Less prototypical
2	(In) general, humans tend to have an easy time.	39/57 (68.4%) Least
3	She is absorbed (in) her studies.	37/57 (64.9%) Less

→ the Differential Difficulty claim of PH

to	(to) Sentences (Spatial Direction)	Frequency
1	He went to the aquarium at 3:00pm.	44/57 (77.2%) Most
2	He was kind enough to give her a lift (to) the station.	42/57 (73.7%) Most
3	She shouted (to) him; he turned his face to her. (向かって)	29/57 (50.9%) Less

→the core/prototypical senses, learning strategy

	(into) Sentences (Spatial Movement)	Frequency
1	Three police officers burst (into) the office.	38/57 (66.7%) Most
2	The security firm got (into) trouble.	23/57 (40.4%) Least
3	The teacher divided the class (into) three groups.	19/57 (33.3%) Less

→ the Different Difficulty claim of PH

Table 5. Most Difficult Types f Sentences (>10%)

in	(in) Sentences (Spatial Enclosed)	Frequency(57)
1	The instant that she saw me, she ran (in) the opposite direction.	0 (0%)
2	I rarely write letters (in) pen these days.	2 (3.5%)
3	He was shot (in) his right arm.	3 (5.3%) Most
4	I will be back (in) two and a half hours.	5 (8.8%)

→ the Differential Difficulty Claim of PH

to	(to) Sentences (Spatial Direction)	Frequency
1	The key (to) the front door is missing.	1 (1.7%) Most
2	She used to wake up (to) the sound of an alarm.	2 (3.5%)
3	(To) our great surprise, the meeting was a great success.	3 (7.0%)
4	He devoted himself (to) drinking.	5 (8.8%)

→ the Differential Difficulty Claim of PH

	(into) Sentences (Spatial Movement)	Frequency
1	When he got married, he was well (into) his fifty.	1 (1.8%)
2	She has an insight (into) character of others.	1 (1.8%)
3	He is being pressured to grow (into) a strong man.	5(8.8%)

→extended L1 roles, the full L1Through hypothesis

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the results do not support the claims of the Prototypicality Hypothesis such as the differential difficulty, the learning strategy claim of via L1, the core concept and extension claim. Instead, the L1 Lemmatic Transfer hypothesis seems to provide plausible accounts for systematic errors or mis-placements of prepositions owing to the claims of the Feature Re/Construction hypothesis of other causal factors (language change view) such as ambiguity and obscurity of the input and so on are supported by the current findings.

5 References

- Bong, H. K. (2005). *Economical Parameter Setting in Second Language Acquisition: Japanese Speaking Learners of English*. Doctoral Dissertation: University of Cambridge.
- Bong, H. K. (2009). *A Minimalist Model of Language Acquisition*. UK: VDM Verlag.
- Bong, H. K. (2011). 'Lematic Transfer in Second Language Acquisition' in the Proceedings of PAAL International Conference.
- Bong, H. K. (2014). 'Acquisition of the English Preposition 'with' Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences.. No.8: pp 48-63.
- Hayashi, M. (2008). *Second language acquisition of English preposition*. Tokyo: Eihosha.

Global Political Economy of English: The Promotion of English in East Asia in the 21st Century

Han-Yi Lin

National Taipei University of Technology
hanyilin@ntut.edu.tw

Abstract

This study investigates the global political economy of English promotion in East Asian countries, including Taiwan, China, Japan, and South Korea, in the 21st century. By employing documentary research and semi-structured interviews, it examines the politico-economic, socio-cultural and historical dimensions in the process of English promotion in terms of national and institutional promotion and individual practices and perceptions in the context of East Asia. In East Asian societies where economic development, education and cultivation of manpower are emphasized, through the discourses of globalization, economic nationalism and neoliberalism, English as a dominant language in international domains is considered a competence or skill which can be acquired through education, investment and personal endeavors. Under the framework of global political economy, English language education policy and the demand of international communication skills have made English competence a resolution or a pretext for national competitiveness and individual economic achievement. Overall, English promotion in non-English East Asian countries is an economics-and-politics-driven, self-justifying mechanism which illustrates how the value of English and the social and individual investment on English teaching and learning are legitimated and how English as commodity is marketed through a synthesis of discourses, presuppositions, and national policies.

Keywords

English promotion, global political economy of English, East Asia, the ELT industry, commodification of English

Introduction

In the context of East Asia, Taiwan and other non-English East Asian countries have experienced a rapid growth in the ELT industry and changes in education policy for improving national English ability since the 1990s (Ho and Wong, 2003; Nunan, 2003). For these countries, the rationale for

promoting English and problems regarding English education are similar in many respects. Similar to the process of modernization in the twentieth century, globalization and internationalization are the predominant themes in the late 20th and the early 21st centuries. This process has also been seen as the so-called 'Englishization' of the world's political, economic and social communications. This trend is considered necessary in today's globalized world and perceived as instrumental in stimulating economic competition. In the competitive environment existing between countries such as China, Japan, South Korea and Taiwan, it is assumed that national levels of English proficiency can enhance human capital as a resource, and thus make the country more competitive. As a result, English has been promoted by the state governments and educational or ELT institutions through various measures and discourses in these countries.

The aim of this research, thus, is to investigate the global political economy of English promotion in the context of East Asian countries (including China, Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea) in the 21st century. It examines the politico-economic, socio-cultural and historical dimensions in the process of English promotion in different institutions and in certain contexts. The intention is to offer an interdisciplinary study on this phenomenon by employing the framework of global political economy. The focus is on the process of English promotion in the local and global politico-economic systems where English promotion influences on and is influenced by their developments and interactions. Interdisciplinary theories, approaches and methods are employed in this research.

1 Research Framework and Global Political Economy of English

This study regards English promotion as a political-economic and socio-cultural process which constructs and is constructed by effects of domestic and international structures, institutionalism, and cognitive structures in a specific context. Therefore, significant institutions or phenomena of English

promotion in relation to certain political-economic and socio-historical contexts are selected and examined in this study. By applying O'Brien and Williams' (2010) framework of global political economy, the research inquiry of this study is to explore how the process of English promotion is constructed by and constructing the political-economic and socio-cultural context. In order to investigate the process of English promotion in a more specific and empirical way, two types of institutions are considered significant in the process of English promotion, i.e. the state governments and international institutions of English promotion, and therefore, are selected as research targets. At the center of the investigation is the process of English promotion launched and conducted by the governments of East Asian countries, namely China, Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea, and by international institutions which offer a range of service related to the English language such as certified language proficiency tests and English courses in these areas. Documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews are employed as research methods.

2 Promotion of English in East Asia: National Policies, Institutional Promotion, and Individual Practices

The national promotion of English in East Asia in the 21st century is economics-driven. Since English is strongly associated with the process of globalization, the development of information technology, and economic growth, for East Asian countries whose economy heavily depends on international trade and hi-tech industry, English promotion is considered an indispensable national policy. Through the discourse of global English capital, English is regarded as a solution for the severe competition in the global market and thus becomes the main focus for non-English East Asian countries in the beginning of the 21st century.

According to the analysis of relevant documents and interviewees' responses, to a certain degree, the value of English is constructed by and is constructing the process of globalization, national policy, institutional practices and individual perceptions. English in non-English East Asian

countries can be regarded as a kind of capital or commodity which has been promoted by emphasizing its instrumental as well as socio-cultural value. And that creates national and individual aspirations for the possible economic and socio-cultural returns which strengthen the promotion of English and encourage the development of the ELT industry.

This study suggests that in East Asian societies

where economic development, education and cultivation of manpower are emphasized, through the discourses of globalization, economic nationalism and neoliberalism, English as a dominant language in international domains is considered a competence or skill which can be acquired through education, investment and personal endeavors. This kind of assumption leads to economics-driven language education policies in these non-English East Asian countries. The discourses of English, language education policies and the unsatisfied result of the state English education not only strengthen the demand of English in the region but also lead to the prosperous development of international and domestic ELT industry which offer products and services of the English language, including the need of English language tests. The development of using English language tests as requirement for education and employment has resulted in an English testing industry which further creates the demand of English learning.

As a result, under the framework of global political economy, English language education policy and the demand of international communication skills which can be attributed to discourses and presuppositions on economic success have made English competence a resolution or a pretext for national competitiveness and individual economic achievement. This type of discourses and governmental measures associated with English education can be regarded as the dynamics of English promotion. Overall, English promotion in non-English East Asian countries is an economics-and-politics-driven, self-justifying mechanism which illustrates how the value of English and the social and individual investment on English teaching and learning are legitimated and how English as commodity is marketed through a synthesis of discourses, presuppositions, and national policies.

3 References

- Ho, W. K. & Wong, R. Y. L. (eds.) (2003) *English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: Changing Policies and Practices*. Singapore: Times Academic Press.
- Nunan, D. (2003) The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly* 37(4): 589-613.
- O'Brien, R. and Williams, M. (2010) *Global Political Economy: Evolution and Dynamics*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cloze Tests in Terms of Readability and Test Item Content

Yuji Nakamura¹, Adam Murray² and Kazunari Shimada³

¹Keio University, ²Miyazaki International College, ³Takasaki University of Health and Welfare

nkyj@flet.keio.ac.jp

amurray@edu.miyazaki-mic.ac.jp

shimada-k@takasaki-u.ac.jp

using two readability measures, the Gunning-Fog

Abstract

The purpose of the present study is two-fold: 1) to discuss important cloze testing issues for assessing reading, and 2) to analyze the cloze test section of an in-house university placement test. With the use of readability statistics and item difficulty, it may be possible to determine the best predictor of student performance. Also, attention must be paid to the clear categorization of item contents such as knowledge, logic, vocabulary or grammatical ability.

Keywords

Cloze tests, assessing L2 reading, readability statistics, placement test

Introduction

One of the most popular and researched types of reading assessment task is the cloze procedure. It is based on the fact that a message can be understood without attending to every word and the receiver can often anticipate what will be next (Green, 2014). The ease in which they can be prepared and their potential to be objectively scored make them attractive (O'Toole & King, 2010; cf. Oller, 1979). They are constructed using specifications such as deleting every seventh word.

1 Method

1.1 Subjects

Since 2006, Keio University Faculty of Letters has been administering an in-house placement exam twice each academic year. For this analysis, the results of 10 exams (approximately 800 test-takers each) are examined.

1.1 Materials/Instruments

The cloze section of the examination has one passage with 10 multiple-choice cloze questions with four options. For this study, the contents of 10 passages and 100 cloze questions were examined.

1.2 Analysis Procedures

The passages were examined in terms of readability

(G-F) Index and Flesch Reading Ease (FRE). Also, other aspects were considered such as vocabulary

levels, lexical density, and genre. In addition, the content of the 100 multiple-choice cloze questions were investigated in terms of item difficulty, the item discrimination index, and the category of each test item.

2 Results and Discussion

2.1 Results and Analysis of the Passages

2.2 Flesch Reading Ease

FRE is a 100-point scale used to describe how difficult a text is likely to be. Texts in the range of 90-100 are considered very easy, while those in the range of 0-29 are extremely difficult or confusing.

Table 1 shows the passages ranged in difficulty from 38.8 to 50.3. The three tests with the highest scores (PTs 1, 4, and 5) are relatively easy, while the three tests with the lowest scores (PTs 8, 10, and 2) are rather difficult with PT2 being very difficult.

Table 1. Flesch Reading Ease Scores

PT 1	50.3	PT 9	44.9
PT 4	49.8	PT 3	41.2
PT 5	48.1	PT 8	40.9
PT 6	46.8	PT 10	40.7
PT 7	46.7	PT 2	38.8

2.3 Gunning-Fog Index

G-F Index is a widely used measurement that estimates the number of years of education (based on the U.S. system) that would be required in order to understand a passage when read for the first time. The lower the number, the more understandable the content will be. Results over seventeen are reported as seventeen, where seventeen is considered the post-graduate level.

Table 2 shows that the reading passages ranged from 11 to 15. The three passages with the highest scores (PTs 8, 2, 10) are difficult, while the three passages with the lowest scores (PTs 1, 6, and 5) are relatively easy. Since a score of 17 indicates post-graduate level difficulty, the passages with

scores over 14, are considered to be difficult. When compared with FRE scores, G-F scores are comparable.

Table 2. Gunning-Fog Scores

PT 8	15.97	PT 7	14.25
PT 2	15.67	PT 3	13.56
PT 10	14.57	PT 1	12.87
PT 4	14.56	PT 6	12.42
PT 9	14.40	PT 5	11.74

2.3.1 Test Takers' Performance Difficulty

Table 3 shows the average score of the 10 cloze questions. The average scores ranged from 0.76 to 0.45 with PTs 1, 9, 2 being the easiest and PTs 10, 8 and 4 being difficult.

Table 3. Average of Item Difficulty

PT 1	0.758	PT 3	0.582
PT 9	0.643	PT 5	0.563
PT 6	0.621	PT 10	0.496
PT 7	0.604	PT 8	0.462
PT 2	0.586	PT 4	0.453

When the results of Tables 1, 2, and 3 are compared, the two readability scores (FRE and G-F) are related to the test takers' actual performance. For example, PTs 10 and 8 were predicted to be difficult and the test takers' performance confirmed it. Similarly, PTs 1 and 6 were predicted to be easy and was confirmed. Thus, these two readability formulas provide test makers with a rough idea of text difficulty for making cloze tests.

2.3.2 Genre Classification

In Table 4, the genres of the passage topics are presented along with item difficulty (average score of 10 items) with difficulty scores ranging between 0.76 and 0.45. Social sciences and humanities can be both easy and difficult, whereas natural sciences tend to be intermediate according to this data.

Table 4. Genres and Item Difficulty

social sciences	0.758	natural sciences/ medicine	0.582
social sciences	0.643	natural/social sciences	0.563
humanities	0.621	humanities	0.496
social sciences	0.604	social sciences/ medicine	0.462
humanities	0.586	social sciences	0.453

2.4 Results of Analysis of Cloze Questions

2.4.1 Categories and Difficulty of Items

The analysis revealed that the four categories of items (vocabulary, knowledge, logicity, grammar)

could be used to make items of various levels of difficulty.

2.4.2 Item Difficulty and Discrimination Power

Table 5 shows that many items are rather easy items in terms of difficulty. For example, an item with a discrimination index score of 0.55 and a difficulty score of 0.84. Generally speaking, many test writers think that difficult items have more discriminating power than easy items, which this data shows is not necessarily true.

Table 5. Categories and Item Difficulty

Category	Difficulty	Dis. Power
knowledge	0.84	0.55
logicity	0.81	0.50
knowledge	0.78	0.49
knowledge	0.87	0.47
logicity	0.76	0.46
vocabulary	0.68	0.46
knowledge	0.60	0.46
vocab/knowledge	0.83	0.45

Note. The table includes the items with discrimination index scores higher than 0.45.

Similarly, many items that are supposed to have little discriminating power are rather difficult items in terms of difficulty.

3 Conclusion and Implications

By comparing the readability statistics for each cloze passage with student performance, it may be possible to determine which statistics are the best predictors. Also, item discrimination should be taken into consideration when examining the test takers' performance.

Many cloze-test designers use a rational deletion procedure according to the grammatical or discourse functions. Therefore, attention must be paid to the clear categorization of test items such as grammar, logicity, vocabulary, and knowledge.

4 References

- Chapelle, C., & Abraham, R. (1990). Cloze method: What difference does it make? *Language Testing*, 7, 121-146.
- Green, A. (2014). *Exploring language assessment and testing*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Oller, J. W. (1979). *Language tests at school*. London, UK: Longman.
- O'Toole, J. M., & King, R.A.R. (2010). A matter of significance: Can sampling error invalidate cloze estimates of text readability? *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 7, 303-316.

DAY 1 (Saturday, December 5, 2015)

Session C (Room 314A) Moderator: Eunpyo Lee (Eulji University)

Time	Session	Presentation
13:30-14:00	C-1	A Model of a Valid and Reliable English Proficiency Exam for University Language Programs James M. Sims (Tunghai University)
14:00-14:30	C-2	Adapting Team-based Learning to Asian EFL Contexts Peter Carter (Kyushu Sangyo University)
14:30-15:00	C-3	Leveraging the Power of SNS in Language Education Kiyomi Fujii (Kanazawa Institute of Technology) James A. Elwood (Meiji University) Yasuo Uotate (University of Florida) Yuka Matsuhashi (Temple University Japan Campus) Brent Wright (Kanazawa Institute of Technology) Barron Orr (University of Arizona)

Session D (Room 314B) Moderator: Eun-Mi Yang (Kkottongnae University)

Time	Session	Presentation
13:30-14:00	D-1	The Effects of Listening Training Based on Top-down and Bottom-up Processes Yuichiro Nego (Waseda University)
14:00-14:30	D-2	Perceptions of Native-Speakerism across Different Groups in Japan Kahoko Matsumoto (Tokai University)
14:30-15:00	D-3	Advancement and Evaluation of Ebook/Elearning Widget Suite Enriquez Guillermo (Waseda University) Satoshi Yoshida (Waseda University) Michiko Nakano (Waseda University)

A Model of a Valid and Reliable English Proficiency Exam for University Language Programs

James M. Sims

Tunghai University
sims@thu.edu.tw

Abstract

With the encouragement of the Taiwan Ministry of Education, most universities in Taiwan now require their students to attain certain scores on a language proficiency test such as the TOEIC in order to graduate. Many universities are in the process of creating their own language proficiency exams. However, there are few models for educational institutions to follow when creating their own exams. This paper presents the steps a university in Taiwan followed to create an English proficiency exam with a high reliability, appropriate validity and strong correlation to the TOEIC. It is hoped that this paper will serve as a model for other schools that want to create their own English proficiency exams.

Keywords

Language proficiency test, language program, language test construction, placement exam

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present the procedures a university followed to create a language proficiency exam with an appropriate validity, and high reliability. First, the paper outlines the procedures that were followed to create the three sections (grammar, reading, and listening) of the exam. Next, the steps that were used to determine validity and estimate reliability are presented.

1 Literature Review

This paper endorses the notion of language ability consists of separate components embodied in four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing and suggests integrating several isolated components with skill performance as a means to demonstrate the integrative nature of language ability. Hence the proficiency test presented in this paper was constructed around language components

(grammar) and skill performances (reading and listening). As recommended by Brown (2004), the following six procedures for developing a language test were employed in the construction of the exam: 1) determine the purpose of the test, 2) design test

specifications, 3) construct test items, 4) evaluate and revise test items, 5) specify scoring procedures, and 6) perform validity and reliability studies.

2 Exam Construction

2.1 Determine the Purpose

The exam was created to serve three purposes: 1) to place students into different levels of classes, 2) to create a diagnostic tool to help identify students' weaknesses and strengths, 3) to evaluate the effectiveness of the program by using it in a pre and post test format to measure improvements in students' general language ability after one school-year of instruction. To reflect its major purpose, the exam was named the New English Placement Exam (NEPE).

2.2 Design Test Specifications

The NEPE was constructed to assess three constructs: Grammar, Reading, and Listening (see Sims, 2008). The Grammar Section (20%) was composed of two cloze paragraphs with 10 questions. The Reading Section (40%) was composed of two short passages with 5 questions per passage and one longer passage with 10 questions. The Listening Section (40%) was composed of three parts: Short Dialogues (7 questions), Short Passages (7 questions), and Appropriate Response (6 questions).

2.3 Construct Test Items

Individual teachers developed items using the desired specifications as a blueprint. Next, test committees composed of five to seven experienced teachers reviewed and revised each item. Next, the test item was submitted to a coordinating committee of three teachers who were not directly involved in the production of the exam item to ensure it was valid based on a comparison of test specifications and the test item. Finally, after the exams the test committees evaluated and revised or discarded items based on item analysis.

2.4 Evaluate and Revise Test Items

Cloze texts, reading passages, scripts, and questions were evaluated then accepted based on item difficulty, item discrimination, and distractor analysis from previous administrations. Item difficulty was used to ensure a near normal distribution of scores, to make each sub-section of the exam progressively more difficult, and to create an overall total mean score of between 55-60%. Item discrimination was used to differentiate appropriately between high and low test takers. Distractor analysis was used to make sure that distractors were efficiently distributed.

2.5 Specify Scoring Procedures

The Grammar Section was composed of 20 questions for a total of 20 points. The Reading Section was composed of 20 questions for a total of 40 points. The Listening Section was composed of three parts: Short Dialogues (7 questions), Short Passages (7 questions), and Appropriate Response (6 questions) for a total of 40 points.

2.6 Perform Validity and Reliability Studies

In order to determine whether the NEPE was an appropriate instrument, three methods were used to investigate the validity of the test. First, a content validity study was conducted based on a comparison of test specifications and test content. These comparisons were made by three teachers who were trained in language teaching and testing, but were not directly involved in the production of the exam. These teachers concluded that the exam items were appropriate measures of the desired test specifications.

Second, a construct validity study by means of an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed after the first administration of the NEPE to investigate clustering among the observed variables from the test performance. Both EFA and CFA confirmed that the NEPE measured three constructs: grammar, reading, and listening. Moreover, the factor structure indicated that constructs were measured by the corresponding variables (tasks) within the NEPE: the two grammar clozes measured grammar; the three reading passages measured reading, and the three listening tasks measured listening. This solution supported the test structure proposed by the test designers, and served to validate the inferences made based on scores on this exam. Quite simply, the test structure derived via factor analysis reflected that intended by the designers.

Third, a cross-comparison correlation study between the NEPE and the TOEIC was

conducted to investigate the concurrent validity of the NEPE. The results indicated that the total scores of the NEPE had a high correlation ($r=0.89$) with the total scores of the TOEIC. The listening section ($r=0.83$) and grammar/reading sections ($r=0.83$) also had strong correlations. These correlations imply that the NEPE has strong concurrent validity similar to that of the TOEIC.

A split-half method was used to estimate the content reliability of the NEPE, while a Cronbach's alpha approach was used to investigate the item variance reliability. The Spearman-Brown split-half reliability coefficient was calculated to be $r=0.873$, while Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was $r=0.868$. The NEPE can be considered a reliable instrument based on these high reliability coefficients.

3 Discussion and Conclusion

The NEPE has been used for two school-years for the purposes for which it was designed. Informal feedback from teachers indicated that the exam placed students into appropriate levels. On a diagnostic level, exam results indicated that students have problems with inference questions on the reading section and with certain grammar points. As a result, teachers have focused more on helping their students to understand and make inferences and initial data from the post-test indicate that these efforts are paying dividends.

The construction of the NEPE was no minor accomplishment. The designing of test specifications required identifying points to be tested and then determining appropriate and practical means to assess these items. The construction of items was a time-consuming process that required the evaluation and revision of items. However, all this attention to details of construction resulted in a cost-effective, time-saving, accurate and reliable instrument.

1. References

- Brown, H. D. (2004). *Language assessment: principles and classroom practices*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Sims, J. (2008). Tunghai freshmen English for non-majors program. *Tunghai Journal of Humanities*, 49, 353-374.

Adapting team-based learning to Asian EFL contexts

Peter Carter

Kyushu Sangyo University
p.carter@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp

Abstract

Team-based learning is an approach to teaching initially developed as a response to larger class sizes, but which has evolved into a method known for its ability to engage students, invigorate classrooms, and provide superior learning outcomes in complex subjects. It is now widely used in English-speaking countries, but has seen less adoption in Asia in comparison to similar instructional designs such as cooperative and problem-based learning. Despite its promise, a decade of action research into the use of team-based learning with Asian EFL students suggests that its principles need some adaption for maximum effect.

Keywords

Team-based learning, EFL

Introduction

Team-based learning (TBL) is a highly structured form of small-group instruction that strategically organizes students into teams, utilizes a "flipped" class preparation method (although TBL pre-dates the flipped model by some decades, see, for example O'Leary & Donovan, 1998) and is noted for its ability to improve both student engagement and learning outcomes (Hake, 1988).

1 Principles of TBL

Its originator, Larry Michaelsen, first started using TBL in the 1970s, and has made incremental improvements to the method since then. He lists four principles to make team-based approaches successful: first, that groups must be properly formed and managed; second, that students must be made accountable; third, that assignments must promote both team development as well as learning; and fourth, that students must receive regular and immediate feedback (Michaelsen & Sweet, 2011).

2 Adapting TBL

Based on these principles, it can be seen that TBL has much to offer, especially in classes where students are engaged in pre-professional activities, such as teacher license programs.

However, student learning diaries and other feedback collected over the past 10 years have consistently shown that some of Michaelsen's ideas

need altering in order to obtain truly positive results with students in EFL settings (Carter, 2010). These include reducing the size of the teams from up to seven members (Michaelsen & Sweet, 2011) to around four, providing clearly defined roles for each member (such as having each team comprised of a researcher, a writer, a presenter, and a captain), and having these roles rotated in a cycle that means every student will perform each role at least once. After teaching pre-service teachers for around 10 years, it seems that the optimal use of TBL for L2 learners is when the first semester is conducted in a more traditional style such as through the use of casual groups for discussion sections. The current system in use at Kyushu Sangyo University is for the system described above to be carried out in a course entitled "Communicative Language Learning", which has the students learn and practice teaching the principles of CLT across the four skills. Student feedback to date has been overwhelmingly in favor of the split instructional design of the two-semester course. Over 80% of students claim that by learning in a traditional style in the first semester, and then as part of a team in the second, they get a new appreciation for what preparation, responsibility, decision-making, and meaningful feedback entail.

3 Conclusion

TBL is not a particularly ethnocentric teaching method, and there is no reason it could not work exactly as Michaelsen recommends it. However, it does appear that the greater clarity and smaller team sizes serve to focus the students' minds, which is almost certainly very helpful when they are asked to perform in class entirely in their second language.

4 References

- Carter, P. (2010, June). *The use of small-group learning in 2nd language teacher training classes*. Paper presented at the International conference on teaching and learning, Temasek Polytechnic, Singapore.
- Hake, R. (1998). Interactive-engagement versus traditional methods: A six-thousand-student survey of mechanics test data for introductory physics courses.

American Journal of Physics 66: 64-74.

Michaelsen, L. K., & Sweet, M. (2011). Team-based learning. *New directions for teaching and learning*, 2011(128), 41-51.

O'Leary, R., & Donovan, C. P. (1998). Developing High Performance Teams in the Public Management Classroom. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 4(2), 147-156.

Leveraging the Power of SNS in Language Education

Kiyomi Fujii,¹ James A. Elwood,² Yasuo Uotate,³ Yuka Matsuhashi,⁴ Brent Wright,⁵ and Barron Orr⁶

^{1,5}Kanazawa Institute of Technology, ²Meiji University, ³University of Florida, ⁴Temple University Japan Campus, ⁶University of Arizona

kfujii@neptune.kanazawa-it.ac.jp, elwood.jim@gmail.com, yasuo@ufl.edu, yuka.matsuhashi@gmail.com, b-wright@neptune.kanazawa-it.ac.jp, barron@email.arizona.edu

Abstract

Based on our preliminary investigation involving blog exchange activities between English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) learners, the authors conducted further research using Facebook as the exchange platform. The assignment included a series of video and written exchanges between EFL and JFL learners at universities in Japan and the US (N=124). In the video assignments, students introduced themselves, talked about their school's campus, showed scenes from their daily lives, and explained their favorite places and activities. The data is comprised of questionnaire responses collected before and after the project and reflection logs entries from the treatment groups. In this paper, we will provide an overview of the project and report the results attained through the analysis of the data. Furthermore, we will share pedagogical implications of the results, suggest additional ways to implement a language exchange project using SNS, and share some of the challenges encountered when doing a language exchange project.

Keywords

EFL, JFL, SNS, informal learning

Introduction

Technological developments have changed language learning and opened a new spectrum of possibilities (Jauregi & Canto, 2012; Fukai, Nazikian, & Sato, 2008). Online tools, such as SNS, facilitate communication and encourage language learning, as shown by previous studies (Hirotsu & Lyddon 2013; Fujii, Elwood, & Orr, 2010). This project aims to stimulate students beyond standard classroom learning into informal learning. This means orienting classroom goals towards promoting voluntary, self-directed learning outside of the classroom, the environment where 70% of learning takes place (Falk & Dierking, 2002). To this end, the authors developed an approach to encourage informal language learning through the use of online platforms that facilitate social networking, creating a learning community.

2 Overview of the project

This paper deals with the second year of a three-year project, conducted in autumn, 2014.

2.1 Facebook

The authors made private group pages on Facebook where students interacted only in English or only in Japanese. Students at each institution were divided into four groups with four English pages and four Japanese pages. The students who were in Group 1 at both schools shared the English Group 1 page and the Japanese Group 1 page, while Group 2 students shared the Group 2 English and Japanese pages. In total, there were 32 groups, and students could only see the posts made to their group.



Figure 1. Students' interactions on Facebook



2.2 The assignments

Four assignments were given: (1) Self-introduction, (2) My university, (3) College life, and (4) a topic their own choosing. Students posted a video for each topic in the target language. The instructions were to speak as naturally as possible for at least one minute without pauses and not looking at notes.

2.3 Participants

The participants in this project were 72 students enrolled in an intermediate English course at a university in Japan and 52 students enrolled in second-year and third-year Japanese courses at a university in the US.

3 Results and analysis

Data were gathered through questionnaires and reflection logs.

3.1 Materials

Students were surveyed pre-project (baseline) and post-project (after the project) and once again three months after the project using questionnaires to measure changes in motivation, international posture, cultural competence, willingness to communicate, and willingness to use technology. Students completed a reflection log using open-ended questions at the end of the semester to gauge their perception of the activities.

3.2 Questionnaire results

Pre- and post-project questionnaire data indicate significant increases in motivation, willingness to communicate, and cultural competence.

3.3 Reflection log results

Participants were asked open-ended questions about their experience doing the project. All learners stated that they learned language and cultural points from viewing their counterpart's video posts. Many students wrote that they were glad this project gave them the opportunity to interact with native L2 speakers, as both universities are located in places where there are few native L2 speakers. Also, students wrote that they enjoyed using SNS. Several EFL groups stopped posting videos and did not make any comments on the JFL learner's videos. Some students cited group dynamics (not working well with other group members) and technology difficulties (video editing) as the main reasons for not continuing with the activities.

4 Pedagogical implications

As evidenced from the survey and reflection log data, there were positive results in many areas. One difficulty that arose was when one group did not complete an assignment, leaving their counterpart without a group to interact with. To alleviate this problem, the authors intend to make a page where all groups from one EFL and JFL class can interact.

This way, if one group does not complete an assignment, there will still be several other groups doing the activity, allowing the interactions to continue. While SNS platforms like Twitter and LINE are popular in Japan, many Japanese students do not have Facebook accounts. Some were hesitant to set up a Facebook account because they were unfamiliar with it several students had privacy concerns. Many Japanese students had no

experience with video editing. While the content of the assignments may not have been difficult, editing the videos and uploading them to Facebook caused problems for some groups. By explaining the features of Facebook and providing simple video editing instructions students will be able to give more attention to the language components of the exchange (videos and comments).

5 Acknowledgement

Supported by JSPS KAKENHI, Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) No. 25370656.

6 References

- Falk, J. H., & Dierking, L. D. (2002). *Lessons without limit: How free-choice learning is transforming education*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Fujii, K., Elwood, J., & Orr, B. (2010). Collaborative mapping: Google Maps for language exchange. In M. M. Wei & A. Fukai (Ed.), *Research, practice, and theory of Japanese language education: Proceedings of the 22nd meeting of the Central Association of Teachers of Japanese [CATJ 22]* (pp.44-50). Indiana: Purdue University.
- Fukai, M., Nazikian, F., & Sato, S. (2008). Incorporating sociocultural approaches into assessment: Web-based peer learning and portfolio projects. *Japanese Language and Literature*, 42(2), 389-441.
- Hirotsu, M., & Lyddon, P. (2013). The development of L2 Japanese Self-introductions in an asynchronous computer-mediated language exchange. *Foreign Language Annals*, 46 (3), 469-490.
- Jauregi, K & Canto, S. (2012). Impact of native-nonnative speaker interaction through video-web communication and Second Life on students' Intercultural Communicative Competence. In L. Bradley & S. Thouësny (Eds.), *CALL: Using, learning, knowing [Proceedings of EUROCALL 2012 conference in Gothenburg, Sweden]* (pp. 151-155).

The Effects of Listening Training Based on Top-down and Bottom-up Processes

Yuichiro Nego

Graduate School of Education, Waseda University
nego.lama.goat@gmail.com

Abstract

This study examined and compared the effects of top-down- and bottom-up-based listening training on listening comprehension skills of Japanese learners of English. Participants were 80 senior high school students, who were grouped into a top-down group and a bottom-up group. They each underwent a total of eight listening training sessions, before and after which listening comprehension tests were administered to assess the improvement in their listening comprehension skills. The results of the tests showed that the top-down group significantly outperformed the bottom-up group in terms of the increase in test score, though the listening comprehension skills of some learners in both groups declined over the training sessions.

Keywords

top-down, bottom-up, listening training

Introduction and Literature review

In listening comprehension, two processes are assumed to take place, namely top-down and bottom-up processing. Whereas the bottom-up processing refers to the process of putting together the smallest pieces of information into larger units of information, the top-down processing refers to the operation to process lower level information with the help of higher level information. The concept of these processes has been applied to methods of teaching listening, hence top-down and bottom-up training in class. The effects of both types of training on listening comprehension skills have been examined in various studies. For example, the bottom-up training that aimed at enhancing word recognition skills through dictation with explicit phonetic explanations did improve listening comprehension skills (Kiany & Shiramiry; 2002; Satori, 2010). On the other hand, the top-down training, whereby listeners learned how to predict, infer, monitor and interpret speech by referring to one's schemata and contextual information, also improved listening comprehension skills (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Although several studies thus verified the efficacy of both types of training, few studies have compared them in terms of the impact on listening comprehension

skills. Hence, the current study investigated and compared the effects of both types of training on learners' listening comprehension skills.

1 Method

1.1 Participants

The participants were first-year students in two classes in a Japanese senior high school ($N = 80$). They were designated as the top-down group ($n = 39$) and the bottom-up group ($n = 41$). There was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of level of the participants' listening comprehension skill, as was proved by the result of an independent sample *t*-test on the pre-test ($t = 0.560, p = 0.577$).

1.2 Procedure

The participants attended a 10- to 15-minute training session eight times. In each session, both groups listened to the same material three times and tackled different tasks respectively. The bottom-up group did a dictation task at the first and the second listening while listening to a paused audio material. After the second listening, they received an explicit phonetic explanation about words or phrases that seemed difficult to recognize. At the third listening, they were instructed to exclusively attend to the taught phonetic features while reading the script of the audio material. On the other hand, the top-down group first activated their schemata with some key words so as to predict the content of the material. Following the pre-listening activity, they first listened for the gist of the material referring to their activated schemata. After the first listening, they predicted and inferred parts of the material that they had not yet entirely comprehended, with the use of the information that they had obtained. At the second listening, they listened for more information about the material while monitoring their comprehension. Finally, they tried to grasp all the information about the material.

Before and after the treatment sessions, both groups took listening comprehension tests for assessment of the improvement over the period of training sessions. The test consisted of 10 questions, each of which had the participants listen to a

monologue and answer a multiple-choice question about the information given in the monologue.

2 Results

Table 1. Results of the tests

group	pre-test (T1)		post-test (T2)		T2 – T1
	M	SD	M	SD	
TD	4.31	1.96	5.80	2.43	1.49
BU	4.56	2.07	5.05	2.31	0.49

Table 2. Distribution of the participants

	TD	BU
increase	26	19
no change	9	5
decrease	4	17

Table 1 summarizes the results of the top-down group (TD) and the bottom-up group (BU) on the pre-test and the post-test. The repeated measures *t*-test was conducted in order to see if there was a significant improvement over the period of the treatment sessions. Furthermore, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted on the increases of both groups from the pre-test to the post-test for the comparison of the effects of both types of training. The analysis showed that only the top-down group made a significant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test ($t = -4.742$, $p < 0.000$). Furthermore, the top-down group's increase in terms of the score was significantly larger than that of the bottom-up group ($t = -2.014$, $p = 0.047$).

Table 2 shows the number of the participants, divided into three categories according to the types of change that they made in the test score from the pre-test to the post-test: increase, no change, and decrease. As can be seen, some learners in both groups decreased their scores through the treatment sessions.

3 Discussions and Conclusion

This study demonstrated the advantage of the top-down training over the bottom-up training in terms of the effects on listening comprehension skills. There are several possible reasons for this result. One is that the bottom-up training may need more time than the top-down training for the improvement of listening comprehension skills, since linguistic knowledge, which is the main source for bottom-up processing, may not be readily available for use, whereas top-down processing mostly draws on schemata, which already exist in learners' minds. Another plausible reason is that the level of the materials used for the tests may have been too easy for the members of the bottom-up group. In other words, they may have

already had good skills in processing the text in a bottom-up manner before attending the training sessions and therefore they may have benefited less from the bottom-up training.

As for the declines in the listening comprehension skills, it might be hypothesized that each of the two types of training made the participants excessively rely on either top-down or bottom-up processing. As a result, some learners in the top-down group may have resorted to their existing knowledge too much and disregarded what they decoded during listening, while some learners in the bottom-up group might have blindly focused on the decoding of individual words and failed to capture the gist of the text.

There are several limitations in the current study. For example, task variation in the comprehension tests was limited. Furthermore, there may have been a ceiling effect on the increase in the score. Nevertheless, the current study may suggest that top-down training is more effective than bottom-up training and both types of training can have an adverse effect on listening comprehension skills.

4 References

References

- Kiany, G. R., & Shiramiry, E. (2009). The effect of frequent dictation on the listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners. *TESL Canada Journal*, 20(1), 57-63.
- Satori, M. (2010). The effect of teaching phonetic information through repeated practice of dictation and reading aloud in L2 listening class. *Language education & technology*, (47), 159-180.
- Thompson, I., & Rubin, J. (1996). Can strategy instruction improve listening comprehension?. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 331-342.
- Vandergrift, L., & Tafaghodtari, M. H. (2010). Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: An empirical study. *Language learning*, 60(2), 470-497.

Perceptions of Native-speakerism across Different Groups in Japan

Kahoko Matsumoto

Tokai University, Japan
mkahoko@tsc.u-tokai.ac.jp

Abstract

In this paper, the results of a questionnaire survey and interviews on different and changing perceptions of native-speakerism in Japan are shown and discussed. Though the belief of learning English from native speakers being ideal is still strong, teachers, students, parents and company workers seem to have different reasons for and attitudes towards native-speakerism, by which they are making realistic decisions.

Keywords

Native-speakerism, English as a lingua franca

Introduction

Up until the 1990's, there was a generally-held belief that learners can acquire English more naturally and effectively by being taught by a native speaker, which is the major part of the concept of native-speakerism (Houghton, 2013). However, as the idea of world Englishes or English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2004) attracted attention, this blindly-supported belief has faced challenges from various standpoints. First, the definition of a native speaker; in other words, what constitutes a status of native speaker depends on situational or political requirements and conditions. Second, changes in the abilities required for so-called "global human resources" in the globalizing world where cases of a non-native speaker doing business with another non-native speaker have become more common (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1999). And lastly, the models of English abilities themselves are going through changes as English has been embraced as a lingua franca, thus local or cultural variations treated as necessary or welcome additions.

1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the changing perceptions of native-speakerism across different groups with different expectations of or aspirations for teaching or learning English. Added interviews should help tease out illicit perceptions especially when an increasing emphasis has been placed on English both in education and industries.

1.1 Subjects and Method

A cross-sectional questionnaire survey was

conducted to 96 teachers (55 Japanese and 41 native-speakers), 503 students and 45 parents respectively, covering both secondary and tertiary schools as well as 62 company workers who use English constantly in their work. Also, 2 to 3 in-depth interviews were done with the respondents deemed representative of each group.

2 Results

2.1 Questionnaire results

The following 3 questions in the questionnaire with 5-point Likert scale found varying responses from different groups:

Q1. Do you think it is ideal that English be taught by native speakers?

Q2. Do you think your (your students'/your children's) English would improve more by being taught by native speakers than by Japanese teachers?

Q3. Do you think that Japanese schools should hire more native speakers for their English classes?

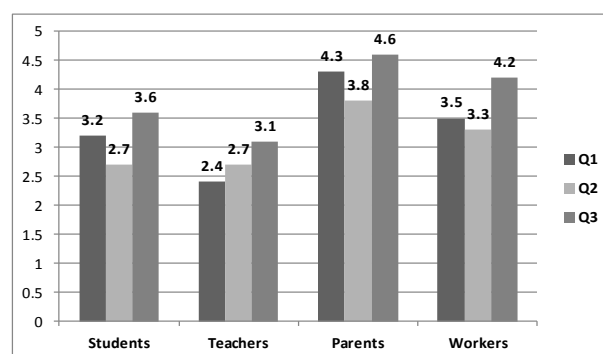


Figure 1. Responses of Different Groups.

2.2 Interview results

The free comments section of the questionnaire and in-depth interviews further elucidated the reasons for the different responses.

1. Students' responses were divided by their proficiency levels. High achievers valued the exposure to "natural" English provided by native-speaker teachers while low achievers supported Japanese teachers' detailed instructions.

2. Teachers' responses were not so divided by their

being a native speaker or not as their beliefs of what kind of English should be taught and how.

3. Parents' responses varied with their backgrounds, but a self contradiction was seen; while they valued "authentic, natural" English in teaching, they wanted their children to become communicative speakers even with "broken" English.

4. Workers' responses were the most realistic; while they generally preferred to be taught by native speakers, they placed more value on intercultural competence than native-like pronunciation and fluency.

2.3 The definition of a native speaker

In response to the question soliciting the definition of a native speaker (Q4), a majority of answers were as follows.

1. A person whose mother tongue is English (41%)
2. A person who was born (and/or raised) in an English-speaking country (25%)
3. A person who has come from an English-speaking country (23%)

However, when the ambiguity of the term was pointed out by the researcher at the interview, many interviewees changed the definition to "a person whose English is (almost) perfect". Still, the prevailing image of a native speaker seems to be a westerner, but not an Asian or African speaker of English.

2.4 The aspects of English which should be taught by a native-speaker teacher

When asked about which aspects should be taught by a native-speaker teacher, all respondents predominantly chose oral aspects as follows.

1. Speaking/Conversation/Pronunciation (89%)
2. Listening (71%)
3. Different Cultures (44%)
4. Writing (39%)
5. Vocabulary/Expressions (38%)
6. Reading (21%)
7. Grammar (8%)

3 Conclusions

The following are the best possible generalizations of the results with considerable variances in each group.

1. It was found that our "native-speaker myth" operates without having any clear definition of a "native speaker". However, the predominant image is always a westerner.
2. While parents were the group who preferred teaching by native speakers most, it could be due to their lack of knowledge on English education. By and large, opinions were very much varied in each

group depending on different factors.

3. Though the public (students, parents and company workers) have rather a positive image of classes taught by native speakers, teachers have different points of view, especially where the organizational power issue is involved.

In sum, though the belief on native-speakerism is still prevalent, teachers, students and especially company workers seem to have their own, more realistic views on the effective way to learn English and their aims as lifelong learners, that is, what kind of English users they want to be in future. It was as if they separated their adorations for native-like pronunciation and fluency and the practical needs analyzed and limitations set by themselves.

4 Future Directions

In order to discover more interesting elements or tendencies, some text analysis of the interviews will be done. Also, a cluster analysis with more subjects added is planned, hoping to find hidden tendencies both within and across groups.

5 References

- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Graddol, D. (1999). "The decline of the native speaker" In Graddol, D & Meinhof, U. (Eds.). *English in a Changig World, AILA Review, No.13*, 57-68.
- Houghton, S.A., and Rivers, D.J. (2013). *Native-Speakerism in Japan: Intergroup Dynamics in Foreign Language Education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Jenkins, J. (2009). English as a lingua franca: interpretations and attitudes. *World Englishes*, 28(2), 200–207.

Advancement and Evaluation of Ebook/ELearning Widget Suite

Enriquez Guillermo¹, Satoshi Yoshida² and Michiko Nakano³

¹Faculty of Science and Engineering, Waseda University, ²Global Education Center, Waseda University,

³Waseda University

enriquez@shalab.phys.waseda.ac.jp, syoshida@aoni.waseda.jp, nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

This paper provides a brief overview of the current status of our ongoing project to examine the usability of digital teaching/learning materials (i.e., e-textbooks) developed for a tertiary-level English course. In the project, we created samples of e-textbooks with an application called iBooks Author. To make the e-textbooks more interactive, we developed a suite of e-learning widgets using HTML5 and JavaScript, and embedded it to the ebook file. As a progress report of the project, this paper reports on the most recent version of our original widgets called (1) Clicker, (2) Rearranger, (3) Eraser, (4) Theme-Rheme and (5) Semantic Linker (previously called Lexical Linker) and discuss the future direction of our e-textbooks on the basis of the usability surveys conducted among English learners and teachers.

Keywords

e-Textbook, Tablet PC, Interactive Widget

Introduction

With the increasing popularity of ICT devices such as smartphones and tablets, the potential of digital teaching/learning materials (i.e., e-textbooks) has recently drawn significant attention. Indeed, the effective use of such digitalized materials has been promoted to facilitate easy-to-understand classes in Japan (MEXT, 2011) and thus a number of teaching/learning materials have been currently provided in a digital format along with a traditional paper-based version. These include the authorized textbooks for elementary schools and junior/senior high schools although those digitalized versions have been provided not as authorized material but as supplemental one. In the light of this situation, we have been conducting a series of experiments to examine the usability of e-textbooks developed for a tertiary-level English course called *Critical*

Reading & Writing (CRW). The purposes of our project have been to create samples of e-textbooks on the basis of the existing paper-based textbooks, to explore how to make those digitalized materials more interactive, attractive and effective with the aid of various sorts of widgets (i.e., small applications compatible with ebook file) designed to facilitate

students' English learning on multi-touch friendly devices, and to evaluate the usability and ultimately the effectiveness of those materials for learning English as well as the relevant linguistic concepts. This progress report provides a brief introduction to our widgets called (1) Clicker, (2) Rearranger, (3) Eraser, (4) Theme-Rheme and (5) Semantic Linker.

1 CRW and Textbook

CRW is a tertiary-level English language course offered at Waseda University. This course has been developed with reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001) and currently offered in two levels: *Intermediate* and *Advanced*. Indeed, the target level of the advanced course has been set at CEFR C1 level, that is, the students are expected to become more able to read the texts critically and write "clear, well-structured expositions of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues" (p. 62). Our sample e-textbook has been based on a paper-based textbook of CRW intermediate level.

2 Advancement of a Suite of eBook Widgets

2.1 Lessons learned from previous version

In Enriquez, Yoshida and Nakano (2013), we presented widgets embedded in an e-textbook (iBooks) developed using HTML5, JavaScript, and KineticJS. Through the usability test conducted therein, we learned that while the widgets showed utility, the multistage interactions (i.e. multiple input methods to complete a single exercise) were a detriment to their usability. In particular, the multiple inputs and linguistic concepts involved in the "Lexical Linker" widget we deemed too cumbersome in retrospect. For our new versions, we chose to focus on limiting the main linguistic concept and interaction method to one for each widget.

2.2 Current Widgets in eBook Suite

The previous interaction of our suite contained three widgets. We have increased this to five: Clicker, Rearranger, Eraser, Theme-Rheme, and

Semantic Linker. “Clicker” and “Rearranger” are similar to their former counterparts, but with cleaner interfaces (aesthetically).

2.3 Eraser Widget

The “Eraser” widget is the first new addition to the suite. A common problem for new English speakers is knowing when to omit words (i.e., ellipsis). In English, we often omit some part of sentences that can be inferred from adjacent passages. For instance, in the following passage, “Oh, the pan's been washed, has it?” “It hasn't **[been washed]**, has it?” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 606), we can leave out **[been washed]** in the second sentence because the interlocutor can presume what hasn't done. Another problem for new English learners is a lack of knowledge on when to substitute the words with a variant (i.e., substitution). To avoid the redundancy of the text, we usually substitute a repetitive part of sentence with a variant like *so* in the following example; “Kate, I must say this fish is cooked beautifully” “Thank you Craig so much for saying *so*”. The “Eraser” widget attempts to handle this by allowing users to erase one or a consecutive group of words and select a word or phrase to replace them. The words to be erased are selected via a single-finger, swipe interaction. This is intuitive to users as it models how they would perform this task with pen and paper.

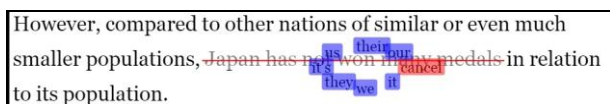


Figure 1. Eraser widget (cropped)

2.4 Theme-Rheme Widget

The “Theme-Rheme” widget is the second addition to the suite. According to Halliday and Matthiessen, (2014, p. 89), the *Theme* is defined as “the element that serves as the point of departure of the message” and *Rheme* as “the remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is developed”. With the clear understanding of the concepts of Theme and Rheme, students are expected to be able to grasp the thematic structure of text. In order to display this, users perform a single-finger tap on the space between a sentences last word of the theme and first word of the rheme. This places a blue box around the theme and a red box around the rheme to differentiate them visually. Further, users are able to single-finger drag lines from small boxes at the beginning of themes and ends of rhemes. This allows users to recognize how they are intertwined to show thematic representation of the text.

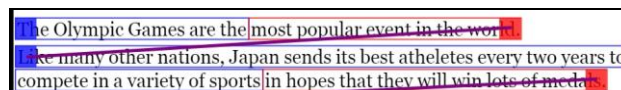


Figure 2. Theme-Rheme widget (cropped)

2.5 Semantic Linker Widget

The final new addition to the suite is the “Semantic Linker” widget. In essence, it is a simplified version of our previous Lexical Linker (Enriquez, Yoshida & Nakano, 2013). Like the previous version, we are interested in teaching users the lexical and semantic links between words (e.g., link between semantically related words such as *Olympic* and *medal*; cohesive ties between pronouns and their antecedent noun). However, in place of the previous input method involving switching modes, users now simply single-finger tap words to either assign them to or remove them from certain groups. This results in groups of words being connected by colored lines, indicating their semantic relationship. While this new widget lacks the range of the “Lexical Linker” widget, the simplified scope allows for a dramatically simplified interaction.

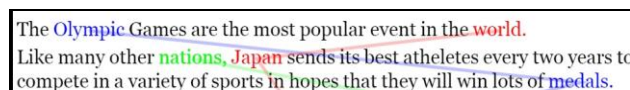


Figure 3. Theme-Rheme widget (cropped)

2.6 Summary and Future Work

In this paper we provide a brief overview of the current status of our ongoing project to create e-textbooks, in particular for a tertiary-level English language course. As we have shown before, html-based widgets compatible with an ebook reader allow us to create interactive e-textbooks allowing students to practice concepts learned in class, similarly to a workbook, but with a potentially larger set of exercises. These types of eBooks could be used both in class and at home to further their understanding of English grammatical concepts. For future works, we intend to continue improvements to ease-of-use and aesthetics of existing widgets, further develop additional widgets, and incorporate data collection abilities related to user performance.

3 Selected References

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge.

DAY 1 (Saturday, December 5, 2015)

Poster Session I (Room 315) Moderator: Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji University)

Time	Session	Presentation
15:00-16:00	P-1	A Study of the Distributions and Realizations of Variants in the English Voiceless Alveolar Stop Kwanyoung Oh (Jeonnam National University)
	P-2	Does a Corpus Analysis of Robert Phillipson's Theory of Linguistic Imperialism Reveal Any Characteristics that Justify it Being Labeled, by Some Scholars, as a Conspiracy Theory? Thornton Sean (Toyo University)
	P-3	A Blended Learning Model for the Intercultural Communication among EFL Learners in Asia Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul University)
	P-4	A Study of Medical Students' TOEIC Results Eunpyo Lee (Eulji University)
	P-5	Fake Kanji Recognition by JSL Learners from Non-Chinese Character Culture Areas, Chinese and Japanese Yoko Okita (Juntendo University)
	P-6	A Study of CLIL Activities in Japan: In Search of Practical effects in Middle Schools Yuko Tominaga (Senshu University)
	P-7	Technical and Management Issues of Making Flipped Videos: How to Get Started Eiichiro Tsutsui (Hiroshima International University) Kazuharu Owada (Tokyo College of Music) Norifumi Ueda (Komazawa University) Michiko Nakano (Waseda University)
	P-8	Right Node Raising in Typed-Dependency Representation Masanori Oya (Mejiro University)
	P-9	Relationship Between Learners' Motivation Toward Computer-Mediated Communication Activities and Their Perceived Sense of Autonomy, Competence and Relatedness Satoshi Yoshida (Waseda University)
	P-10	Self-Assessment of Coherence Yoko Suganuma Oi (Waseda University)
	P-11	Comparing Native and Non-native English through Significance Tests and Effect Sizes Yuichiro Kobayashi (Toyo University)

A Study of the Distributions and Realizations of Variants in the English Voiceless Alveolar Stop

Kwanyoung Oh

Division of International Studies,
Jeonnam National University
okyoung@jnu.ac.kr

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the allophones of the English voiceless alveolar stop /t/ when Koreans pronounce words and phrases involving the sound. For this, we record their allophonic realizations of the /t/, classify them into six allophonic categories, and then identify the frequency of the occurrence of each allophone in six different environments. In fact, Korean is incompatible with English in the corresponding relations between the phoneme(s) and allophones of the voiceless alveolar stop. In spite of this fact, from this experiment study, we can recognize that Koreans may perceive several variations of the sound as well as realize each correct variant as expected on each different position. Also, through the analyses of the allophones both in distributional and phonetic aspects, we can find certain parameters that cause Koreans to pronounce each different allophone in the different environments repeatedly. In addition, by exploring the parameters of variants of the voiceless alveolar stop, we may provide a useful cue to be reconsidered in Korean English education.

Keywords

allophonic variation, alveolar stop, aspiration, unreleased

Introduction

The differences of variants of the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ often provide a cue to discriminate English dialects. That is, the sound has several types of variants depending on English dialects. In Korean, there are three types of phonemes, /t^h/, /t^ʰ/, /t/, but in English, these are just the allophones of one English phoneme. Therefore, it will be interesting to conduct an experiment on the variation of the sound on Korean subjects as second language users and learners. First, we will set up six different environments for the sound to be used in words and phrases as in citation. Second, we will fix the variants to be examined in this study targeting Koreans. Because, though there are several kinds of variants in English, it is fully possible to predict what kinds of variants Koreans can perceive and pronounce either by existence in their native

language or by English education. Third, we analyze the variants of Korean speakers both in distributional and acoustic aspects and identify a useful cue to be considered in English education through examining the patterns Koreans repeatedly show.

1 Assumption

According to Pitt et al (2011), the realizations of variants regarding a sound are closely associated by exposure frequency and variant recognition. If we accept this, we suggest that Koreans easily perceive and pronounce some variants of an English voiceless alveolar stop, like aspirated [t^h] and flapping [ɾ], since they have been exposed to English education for a long time. Furthermore, these variants are regarded as occurring in Korean. On the other hand, the variants of the voiceless alveolar stop can be classified by positional strength hierarchy in English native speakers (Buizza and Play 2012). That is, the variations of the sound are differentiated by the strength depending on environments of occurrence of the sound in words and phrases, which may be related either by its position or stress, from the weakest position as in ____# (word-final) to the strongest one as in #____ (word-initial). However, we have a doubt about the positional strength hierarchy of the sound, since we can't be sure that as second language learners, Koreans will produce a certain kind of variant at each different position. However, we suggest that there is a tendency for Korean speakers to pronounce /t/ as variant types which mainly occur in their native language, rather than based on positional differences. Therefore I will perform an experiment for identifying these things.

2 Experiment

I conducted an experiment on 15 Korean university students to observe variation types realized when they pronounce words and phrases involving an English voiceless alveolar stop, and then analyzed variants in distributional and acoustic aspects. For this, first, I set up six different environments, in which the /t/s occur within words as well as in phrases.

A. Procedure

Participants were presented a list involving a series of words, and given instruction about how to pronounce them, in a sound proof room. Also, a Sony ICD-P330F Recorder and an ECM-S959C microphone were used for the recording of the participants. After recording the participants, the sound files were transmitted to a computer.

B. Environments and Variations

The experimental words used for this study are classed into 6 different environments with some related words as in the following.

- a. __# (word-final)
heat, great, let, in the left, in respect, etc.
- b. __.C (pre-onset coda)
catkin, nightcap, outcome, that person, etc.
- c. ^(ʰ)V__'V (intervocalic onset (foot-initial))
pretend, attend, for the task, in his teaching
- d. ^(ʰ)V__V (intervocalic onset (foot-internal))
pretty, liter, where to, keep to the point
- e. C.___ (post-coda onset)
after, fifty, doctor, ought to, past tense
- f. #___ (word-initial)
time, top, text, to go, to say, to see

After the Korean students pronounced these words and phrases, first, we listened to each word or phrase of their sound files of the 15 persons and classified all realizations of /t/ in the words and phrases into the variants of six categories as follows: Aspiration [t^h], Affrication [tʃ], Unreleased [t̚], Glottalization [t̚ʔ], Flapping [ɾ], and Deletion [-]. Second, we observed what variants frequently occur in what environments, compared with other variants. Third, we also analyzed the variants in acoustic aspects, since the articulatory characteristic of the stop /t/ contains three steps in detail, such as a close progress, a silent hold phase, and a transient burst in sequence. Generally, the variation in aspiration, affrication, glottalization, and flapping has both a hold phase and a release phase. Therefore, for ambiguous cases in the two phases, we need to measure duration and amplitude of variants, and confirm that the discrimination of variants is carried out more clearly.

3 Results and Discussion

From this experimental study, the results have provided some insights in variations of an English voiceless alveolar stop, which has the most diverse variants among sounds, as follows:

- Although most of the Korean speakers who participated in this experiment have learned English as a foreign language for several years, we can identify their abilities in terms of what kinds of variants they can perceive and realize like the variants concerned in this study.
- Through distributional analyses of variants of /t/, we can discover parameters regarding what makes the inconsistency between expected variants in certain environments and their actual realizations in the cases.
- Relying on the sound analyses of duration, amplitude and speech rate, and the comparison of previous studies on native speakers, we can recognize that Koreans show large differences in certain environments in the variations of /t/.
- We can find out what variants Koreans favor or disfavor in certain environments through a detailed examination of frequencies of variants. Furthermore, we also can observe that Koreans especially have weakness in any realizations of /t/ among the six categories tested.
- It is well-known that most Koreans have a foreign accent in their speech. However, from this study, it is possible for us to examine the causes of their unnatural speech, and to utilize our findings in English education usefully.

4 References

- Buizza, E., & Plug, L. (2012). Lenition, fortition and the status of plosive affrication: the case of spontaneous RP English/t. *Phonology*, 29(01), 1-38.
- Eddington, D., & Taylor, M. (2009). T-glottalization in American English. *American speech*, 84(3), 298-314.
- Honeybone, P. (2001). Lenition inhibition in Liverpool English. *English Language and Linguistics* 5, 213-249.
- O'Brien, J. (2010). Perception and English t-glottalization. Laboratory Report, 230.
- Pitt, M. A., Dilley, L., & Tat, M. (2011). Exploring the role of exposure frequency in recognizing pronunciation variants. *Journal of phonetics*, 39(3), 304-311.

Does a corpus analysis of Robert Phillipson's theory of Linguistic Imperialism reveal any characteristics that justify it being labeled, by some scholars, as a conspiracy theory?

Thornton Sean

Faculty of Life Sciences, Toyo University
sean@toyo.jp

Abstract

Phillipson's theory of Linguistic Imperialism has been called a conspiracy theory by some other scholars. This study aimed to empirically assess the theory of Linguistic Imperialism and to determine whether there is any validity to that accusation. Three corpora were built and analyzed: a Phillipson corpus, a conspiracy theory corpus, and a control corpus. Ertel's DOTA - "Dogmatism Text Analysis" technique was used to assess the level of dogmatism present in the three corpora. The hypothesis being that there could be a correlation between the level of dogmatism and the level of conspiratorial thinking.

Keywords

Linguistic Imperialism, conspiracy theories, corpus, Robert Philipson, dogmatism, DOTA.

Introduction

The identification of Linguistic Imperialism as a conspiracy theory by Spolsky seems to fall short of both the intensity of malice, and the severity of the cover-up, that tends to be found in 21st century conspiracy theories. This research aims to simultaneously provide some insight in what seems to constitute a conspiracy theory, and some empirical measure of how that relates to Linguistic Imperialism.

There are three background elements to consider corpus linguistics, Linguistic Imperialism, and conspiracy theories.

Corpus linguistics involves the construction and subsequent analysis of banks of language data. Using computer software, these collections of text can be subject to quantitative analysis with a view to yielding empirical results about the patterns of language use employed within either a body of texts, or an individual text. This approach permits the swift processing of a large amount of content.

The basic theory of Linguistic Imperialism is that dominant nations take overt and covert action to use their language as a tool to consolidate their dominance. Amongst the perspective on this topic Phillipson champions it; Spolsky accuses it of being a conspiracy theory, Davies questions whether it might be a hoax or a parody, while Canagarajah

accepts it, and focuses on solutions.

There has been a proliferation of conspiracy theories over the last two decades. The Internet has made it possible for anyone to champion any idea, but many of these ideas can be traced back to authors such as: Mullins, Sutton, Irving, Icke and Tsarion. Within this study, Linguistic Imperialism is compared to such ideas as: the military industrial complex, Big Pharma, the Illuminati, Holocaust Denial, and the Anunaki.

1 Methodology

In the case of the Phillipson corpus, the forming of the corpus began with the acquisition of articles from academic journals. The criteria for inclusion were simple: that the articles are authored by Phillipson alone, and that Linguistic Imperialism is the subject matter. Eleven such articles were found. Significantly, Phillipson agreed to make a complete copy of his book, *Linguistic Imperialism Continued*, available as the core of the corpus. The resulting corpus comprised approximately 229,000 words.

To identify which authors or ideas should be included in the conspiracy theory corpus books about conspiracy theories were consulted. Inclusion in the corpus was restricted to texts that had been published as books. Within that restriction further filters were applied, for example: about half of the available works of Icke would be in the genre new age rather than conspiracy theory, and were thus not included. This corpus totaled approximately 2.6 million words.

One other corpus was made, which could be termed a 'control' corpus. It features a combination of academic articles and master's degree dissertations in total around 252,000 words. The articles were from the fields such as applied linguistics, business studies, international communications, international studies, and English studies.

Wordsmith Tools was used to build raw frequency lists for each author, as well as for the combined five-author conspiracy corpus, and the DOTA dictionary was applied to these lists. This served two purposes: primarily it was viewed as a filtering mechanism in the search for words to hone in on for more detailed analysis, additionally, it would give

an indication of the levels of dogmatism and open-mindedness present in the works of each author, which in turn could highlight other areas for investigation.

The first approach to the corpora was through the lens of DOTA. Initially examining Linguistic Imperialism in terms of dogmatism and open-mindedness could prove an efficient way of identifying lexis that warrants further investigation, as well as getting a base reading of its evident level of dogmatism and, by extension, its possible level of exaggeration.

Frequency lists were built using Wordsmith, one for each author, plus a general conspiracy one and a general academic writing one (the control corpus). Each DOTA word was then looked at in each corpora, and the raw frequency and percentile frequency was recorded. From there the lexis that had exact percentile frequency matches between Phillipson and another, were examined on a concordance level.

2 Analysis & Discussion

What the data seems to indicate, is that Phillipson's works, according to the shared terms frequency, are the least dogmatic by no small margin, and the dogmatism levels are very close to the control corpus. These observations do not extend to the frequency of shared open-minded terms, wherein Phillipson ranks higher than average, but closer to the conspiracy theorists than to the control corpus.

A limited number of DOTA terms were found to have exact percentile frequency matches between Phillipson and at least one other author. Among the dogmatic words, all, cannot, and only had exact matches, and within that all and only were shared with high frequency. Within the open-minded words also, can, often, possible, and several all had exact matches, and within that also and can had particularly high frequency. The concordance level examination targets were determined by these frequencies.

3 Results

What was found at a concordance level was highly variable. Although there was clearly a stark difference in the content specifics of Phillipson and Icke, their underlying sentiments seemed much closer. Their use of "can" highlighted matters regarding agency, the history or agency, and the reaction – or lack of reaction – to the agents by the general population. Phillipson and Mullins' use of "cannot" also seemed important, with a focus on what they are attempting to do or trying to prevent. The use of "only" in Phillipson and Tsarion actually served to highlight the differences between their

works. While "possible" in Phillipson and Irving showed that sometimes a target word doesn't reveal much of anything. The collocations of "several", in Phillipson and Sutton, proved divisive. Most of them are of almost no interest, but the collocation "several decades" often had a sinister undertone for both authors.

4 Conclusion

All five conspiracy theory writers scored substantially higher in their levels of dogmatism than the numerous academic works that they were set beside, including Phillipson's theory of Linguistic Imperialism. At a glance, this could be taken to entail that there is a positive correlation between being a writer of conspiracy theories, and writing in a dogmatic manner. By extension, this would imply that if this correlation stands, then Linguistic Imperialism couldn't reasonably be labeled as a conspiracy theory.

However, the question still remains as to why Spolsky (among others) felt it reasonable to dub Linguistic Imperialism a conspiracy theory.

5 References

- Canagarajah, A., (2003), *Resisting Linguistic Imperialism*, OUP
- Davies, A., (1996), *Ionizing the myth of linguisticism*. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development.
- Ertel, S., (1972), *Insight and dogmatism*, Psychologische Rundschau, 23.
- Phillipson, R., (2009), *Linguistic imperialism Continued*, Routledge.
- Spolsky, B., (2004), *Language Policy*, UK, Cambridge University Press

Korean college students' L2 learning experience in a short-term study abroad context: A grounded theory approach

Eun-Mi Yang

Kkottongnae University

emyang@kkot.ac.kr

Abstract

The aim of this study is to explore the college students' experience in a short-term English study abroad context qualitatively. Reflective journals and follow-up interviews of 11 students were analyzed employing the grounded theory approach. According to the successive procedure of open coding and axial coding, a framework of an organizing scheme was established along with the time flow of the students' experience, and finally a core category emerged.

Keywords

English study abroad / L2 identity restructuring / cross-cultural communication / grounded theory

Introduction

With the effort of globalization of the colleges, English study abroad programs have recently been actively developed and expanded in Korean colleges. With this rapidly growing short-term English study abroad programs by colleges, studies are required to understand their educational and sociocultural aspects as well as their efficiencies. Two research questions which guided this study are as follows:

- (1) What are the characteristics of the 2-month English study abroad program students participated in?
- (2) What are students' expectations and motivations before the program participation and what results did the program lead to in the aspects of language and culture learning and students' inner selves?

1 Method

Reflective journals and follow-up interviews of the participants of the English study abroad program were analyzed employing the grounded theory approach among qualitative research methods. According to the successive procedure of open coding and axial coding, a framework of an organizing scheme was established along with the time flow of the students' experience, and finally a core category emerged. Grounded-theory based data analysis is considered a suitable method to explore

the interactions between the actors and the society in a specific social structural context.

2 Participants and data

The participants are 11 students from a university in Korea who joined a summer English study abroad program. They are non-English major students with high-beginning to intermediate level of English proficiency. The data used for this study are students' study plan before joining the program, students' reflective journals during the program which they wrote once a week for two months, and post-interviews 2 months after the program.

3 Characteristics of the English study abroad program

The students studied in a university language center in the Philippines for 8 to 10 hours a day on weekdays for a 2 months period. The classes a day included 4 hours of 1 to 1 class, 2 hours of 1 to 5 class, 2 hours of 1 to 10 class, 2 hours of optional special classes. They lived in an on-campus dormitory where students from other countries are residing together.

4 Results

Line-by-line open coding of the journal writing and interview data generated 252 concepts, which were classified 42 sub-categories. Finally, they were abstracted into 15 categories as in Table 1.

Table 1. Abstracted categories & sub-categories

Categories	Sub-categories
Motivated investment	Setting a goal for English learning and cultural exchange
	Expecting improved self
Longing	Disturbance of vague awareness
	Fluttering heart
	Discovering other's strength
Cross-cultural understanding	experiencing exotic culture
	accepting differences
	experiencing unusual culture
Dealing with	Spurting

stress of English learning	Having developmental tension
Being on-the-spot	Confidence from real experience
	Aiming real life training
	Immersing in English environment
Sense of difference	Homesickness
	Unfamiliar culture
	Diversified options
Cultural capital	Heightened leisure accessibility
	New opportunity
Simple mindedness	Feeling happiness about my present status
Presenting go-ahead face	Aggressiveness
	Challenging mind
	Self-directed learning and problem solving
Reconstructing environment independently	Sense of independent responsibility
	Finding competitiveness of the training program
	Reinforcing strength of training program
Maturing relationship	Communicating and sharing in emotional dimension
	Learning caring mind
	Supporting colleagues
Enhancing global citizenship	Expanding global human network
	Experiencing global diversity and respecting differences
	Awareness of frog-in-well & expanding global perspective
Motivating English learning	Overcoming fear of English use & having confidence
	Sense of achievement
	Improving heuristic learning ability
	Heightened interest in English
Building future vision	Linking the training expiring and future
	Bearing the world
Reconstructing identity	Discovering unknown self
	Reflectiveness and critical mind
	Self-efficacy
	receptivity

A paradigm model was drawn from axial coding as in Figure 1.

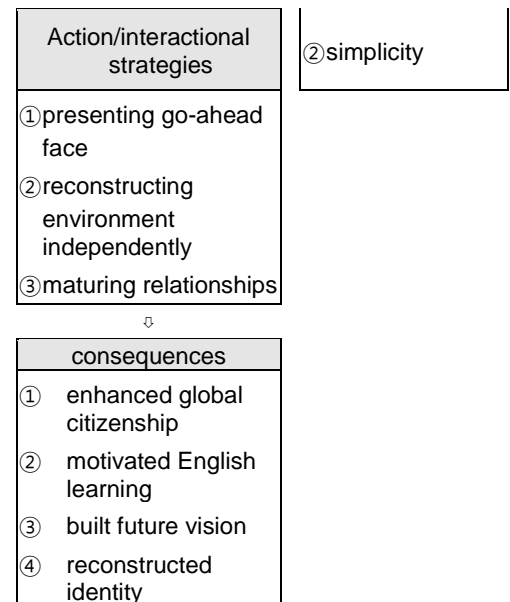
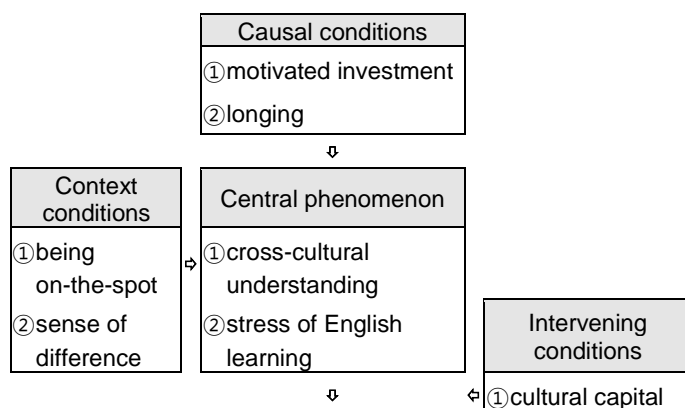


Figure 1. Paradigm model drawn from axial coding

5 Conclusion

The core category, the central phenomena experienced by the students, was postulated as “building social and cultural capital to be a better-suited global citizen and expanding L2 identity through motivated investment.” It implies that the emergence of the core category depends on the degree of the participants’ “motivated investment” in their learning goal, such as English proficiency improvement and cultural understanding to be more successful in the global community. As a result of the “motivated investment”, “social and cultural capital” was formed inside the participants’ mind in the sense that they gained meaningful social and cultural assets which could be used to form their identity as a global citizen. Furthermore, they expanded or reconstructed their identity with the enhanced or newly-found traits such as initiative, active and challenging attitudes in a study abroad context.



A Study of Medical Students' TOEIC Results

Eunpyo Lee

Eulji University
elee@eulji.ac.kr

Abstract

This study looks into two different medical students groups over the 3 year period to compare the results to examine whether having more mock tests prior to the standardized TOEIC tests enhances their test scores. Their final TOEIC scores were compared upon administering five mock tests for one group, and three for the other group. The students were interviewed to learn of their motivation to study the TOEIC. The group of 5-mock-tests scored the average of 838 on the final test, increase of 16 points from 822, whereas the group of 3-mock-tests showed 872, increase of 39 points from 833. These results show that the number of mock tests does not reveal any correlation with the test scores. Through interviews with the students, it was learned that they were externally motivated by their parents' expectations toward them, chances to go abroad, and financial rewards upon good scores.

Keywords

Medical students, standardized TOEIC test, mock-tests, motivation for higher scores

Introduction

As English has been strongly emphasized to be a must-acquired language for modern Koreans especially in case of admission for higher institution and/or job recruitment, the results of the standardized English tests like TOEIC, TOEFL, or TEPS are often requested. Among them, the TOEIC scores have played a role in various areas as a measurement of applicants' English competence when applying for school, work and promotion.

A large number of universities still adhere to graduation qualification policy which requires their students to obtain certain scores of the standardized English exam as part of the graduation requirement.

Although high scores of the TOEIC do not necessarily guarantee fluency in speaking of the test takers, it is worthwhile to examine what helps and motivates students to obtain high scores and improve the results. The objectives of the study are 1) to see if fewer mock tests attribute to lower test results in the standardized TOEIC test by comparing the results of the medical students of 2014 (3 mock tests) with those of 2011 (5 mock tests), 2) to examine if and how the subjects are

motivated to improve the test scores through face to face interview, 3) and to look into the implication of the findings.

1 Literature Review

Place figures and tables in the paper near where they are first mentioned, if possible. Wide figures and tables may run across both columns. Table 1 is an example of tables. Insert a line between text and figures/tables. Titles of tables should be appeared on the top of the table. Use a 10-point Arial font in tables.

2 Graduation Policy

Obtaining certain requirement scores from the standardized English test is one of the graduation qualifications for all students by the summer of their graduation year except medical students who should finish the requirement by the second year with the minimum 700 TOEIC. Otherwise, they cannot proceed to the third year of medical school curriculum and are bound to repeat a year until they meet the requirement.

3 Motivation

The Motivation plays a crucial role in any kind of learning, and it is one of the ultimate factors for success in learning a foreign language. Gardner and Lambert (1959) are the founders of motivation theory and they identified two motivational orientations which are integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. The concept of motivation was also outlined by Deci and Ryan in their book published in 1985, *Intrinsic-extrinsic motivation*. Human motivation can be seen to exist on a six-point continuum, from amotivation that is non-internalized, non-regulation through four categories of extrinsic motivation of external, introjected, identified, and integrated regulation, to intrinsic motivation that is fully internalized, intrinsic regulation.

4 Method

The first year medical students in the Practical English in 2014, a required course of the medical

school curriculum, were the subject of the study. They had 3 mock tests of the TOEIC and their results were compared with the group of medical students in 2011, given 5 mock tests. After each mock test, strategic tips on the listening comprehension were given during the class hour. Then, each subject was interviewed face to face, to see if they were motivated to study TOEIC and to improve their scores. The interview questions were written on a master sheet and their answers were classified whether their motivation was intrinsic or extrinsic.

5 Discussion

Medical students are usually considered as a hard working elite group with strong motivation toward leaning. In fact, they belong to the top 0.5 percentile rank in academic performance. Their College Scholastic Aptitude Test scores in English are the top first level. There are about 10% of the total medical students who were educated in the English speaking countries and their proficiency level is similar to that of native speakers of English. Also another 10% of the students had overseas English learning experience prior to entering E. University where the study was done. However, most of the students had not taken the TOEIC test before.

The average total scores were 838 in 2011 of 5 mock tests, increase of 16 points from the average 822 of mock tests, and 872 in 2014, increase of 39 from 833 with 3 mock tests. So, these results indicate that more mock tests did not result in higher score improvement.

Through the interview, it was found that all the subjects were motivated to improve their scores though not all tried hard. Those in the over 800 range showed most competitive attitudes stating that they wanted to obtain points near the maximum scores of 990. It showed 92% of the students had extrinsic motivation and among them, 84% were externally regulated.

6 Conclusion

This study examined two groups of medical students' TOEIC results to see if giving more mock tests affected the test results positively. The results showed that upper level students' test results were not influenced by the number of mock tests administered. These students were strongly motivated and externally regulated.

The study is not without limitations. A sample size of 40 in one medical school is not enough to generalize its results in anyway. There may be other variations if it were done on a larger size. And since there were more subjects who were exposed to

English speaking countries' education, the group of 2014 may have showed higher average and different results. However, it is plausible to conclude that academically highly motivated students in the range of 800 or higher TOEIC scores are less likely to be affected by the number of mock test or other training in order to improve scores.

7 References

- Brown, H. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (4th ed). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Brophy, J. (1999). *Research on Motivation in Education: Past, Present, and Future*. In T. C. Urdan (Ed.), *The role of context* (pp. 1-44). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Clement, R., Major, L., Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1977). Attitudes and motivation in second language acquisition: An investigation of Ontario francophones. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 12, 1-20.
- Dornyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language Learning*, 40, 45-78.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. New York: Longman.
- Gardner, R. (1985). *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitude and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Lee, E. (2012). A review of an enhancement course for college students' standardized English test. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 18(1), 153-169.
- Murray, B. (2007). Classroom Motivation of Korean EFL Students from the Perspective of Self-determination Theory. *English Teaching*, 62(4), 391-409.
- Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, 63, 397-427.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Classroom*. New York: Longman.

Fake Kanji recognition by JSL learners from non-Chinese character culture areas, Chinese, and Japanese

Yoko Okita

International Center, Juntendo University
y-okita@juntendo.ac.jp

JSL-NC-B, JSL-NC-I, Chinese and Japanese

Abstract

This study examined the differences of Fake Kanji (Chinese characters in Japanese) recognition to examine what kinds of Kanji forms are difficult to recognize for second language learners of Japanese from non-Chinese character culture areas (JSL-NC), Japanese, and Chinese. Fake Kanji was chosen because, the correct rates of Fake Kanji were lowest in the five stimulus, Fake, Pseudo, Korean, Wrong, and Real groups in all participant groups. JSL-NC in this study did not learn Chinese characters in their mother languages. The Japanese language competency of Chinese participants varied from beginning to advance. The participants were asked to decide if a character is true (exist) or not true (does not exist) by pushing a key. Graphically unstable forms were easily rejected by all participants than graphically stable ones. Although, length of the two horizontal lines in the two characters are crucial to differentiate meanings, such as 末 vs. 末, or 土 vs. 土, the correct rates of Fake Kanji of each pairs were very low in all participant groups. Native Japanese and Chinese might not pay much attention to the details of graphic features of Kanji, because they can easily get the correct meanings from the context.

Keywords

Fake Kanji, Recognition, Non-native speakers

Introduction

The purposes of this study is examining differences in correct rates of Fake Kanji recognition by JSL-NC, Chinese and Japanese. Kanji (Chinese characters in Japanese) are graphically very complex. Learning Kanji must be a big burden for those who encounter Kanji in their adulthood for the first time. Examining what kind of graphic features of Kanji are difficult for JSL-NC contribute facilitating their Kanji learning and developing effective teaching materials for them.

1 Background

The author's previous study (Okita, 2013) showed that the correct rates of Fake Kanji were low in all participant groups. In this study, the author investigated more in detail Fake Kanji among

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The participants were 9 (2 male and 7 female) beginning level JSL-NC-B, 9 (3 male and 6 female) intermediate level JSL-NC-I, 10 (3 male and 7 female) Chinese, and 12 Japanese (4 male and 8 female). JSL-NC-B and JSL-NC-I have lived in Japan from 3 to 5 years at the time of experiments. The mean ages of participants were 28.6 years ($SD=3.1$) for JSL-NC-B, 29.4 years ($SD=4.1$) for JSL-NC-I, 24.6 years ($SD=4.4$) for Chinese, and 25.6 years ($SD=4.7$) for Japanese. The JSL-NC-B consisted of 1Mongolian, 1 Poland, 1 Nepali, 2 Vietnamese, 2 Myanmar and 2 Bangladeshis. The JSL-NC-I consisted of 1 Indonesian, 1 Pakistani, 1 Nepali, 1 Ghanaian, 3 Myanmar and 2 Bangladeshis. The JSL-NC had no formal Japanese language learning experience in their countries and took only beginning level Japanese language courses in Japan. JSL-NC-B took the intensive beginning Japanese course for 6 month after their arrival to Japan at a university. They studied 317 Kanji in the textbooks during the course.

2.2 Stimuli

There were four groups of Kanji character stimuli, Fake, Pseudo, Wrong and Real. Fake has very minor wrong graphic features based on learners' mistakes. Combinations of components do not exist in Pseudo. The position of a semantic radical was inverted horizontally or vertically in Wrong. There were 15 Fake, 15 Wrong, 20 Pseudo, 10 Korean, and 30 Real Kanji characters.

2.3 Procedure

Each character was presented randomly one by one in the computer monitor and remained until a participant's reaction. The participants were asked to decide if a character is true (exist) or not true (does not exist) by pushing a key. The participants' reaction and reaction time were recorded. Kruskal-Wallis tests and post hoc pair wise comparisons were used to compare the mean correct rates of a Fake character between

participants groups.

3 Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows the mean correct rates of 15 Fake Kanji for the four participant groups.

Kruskal-Wallis tests results indicated that significant differences were found in five Fake Kanji, F2 ($F(2, N=43)=13.2, p=0.004$), F8 ($F(2, N=43)=7.86, p=0.049$), F11 ($F(2, N=43)=13.6, p=0.003$), F12 ($F(2, N=43)=11.7, p=0.003$), and F15 ($F(2, N=43)=17.6, p=0.001$). In F2, JSL-NC learners were significantly better than Japanese and Chinese to reject F2. In F8, Japanese was significantly better than JSL-NC-B. None of JSL-NC-B answered correctly. In F11, Japanese and Chinese were significantly better than JSL-NC-I. In F12, Chinese were significantly better than JSL-NC-B. In F15, Japanese and Chinese were significantly better than JSL-NC-B. JSL-NC-I was not always better than JSL-NC-B, such as F2, F3, F8, and F11. Fake with graphic instability, such as F12 and F15, were much easily rejected than Fake with graphic stability, such as F1. Further, JSL-NC-I was better than JSL-NC-B in F1, F12, and F15. It seems that although knowledge of Kanji graphic features does not develop in JSL-NC in a linear manner, JSL-NC acquired sense of graphic stability of Kanji according to their progress. Japanese and Chinese were bad at rejecting F2, F3, F4, F5, F8, F9, and F14 those had very minor graphic errors, even if these error might differentiate meaning of characters, such as 土 vs 士. It is suspected that Japanese and Chinese can easily make changes their first wrong recognition from the context as skilled readers.

4 Conclusion

Japanese and Chinese were not good at rejecting Fake characters which had very minor graphic errors. Japanese and Chinese might easily correct their mistakes and get the right meaning of Kanji from the context. However, it might be difficult for JSL-NC learners to correct their initial mistakes once they failed to recognize graphic features of Kanji. It does not seem that Kanji knowledge develop linearly in JSL-NC.

5 References

Okita, Y. (2013). Reaction toward false Kanji by native and non-native speakers of Japanese. *Selected papers of the 17th conference of PAAL*, 72-81.

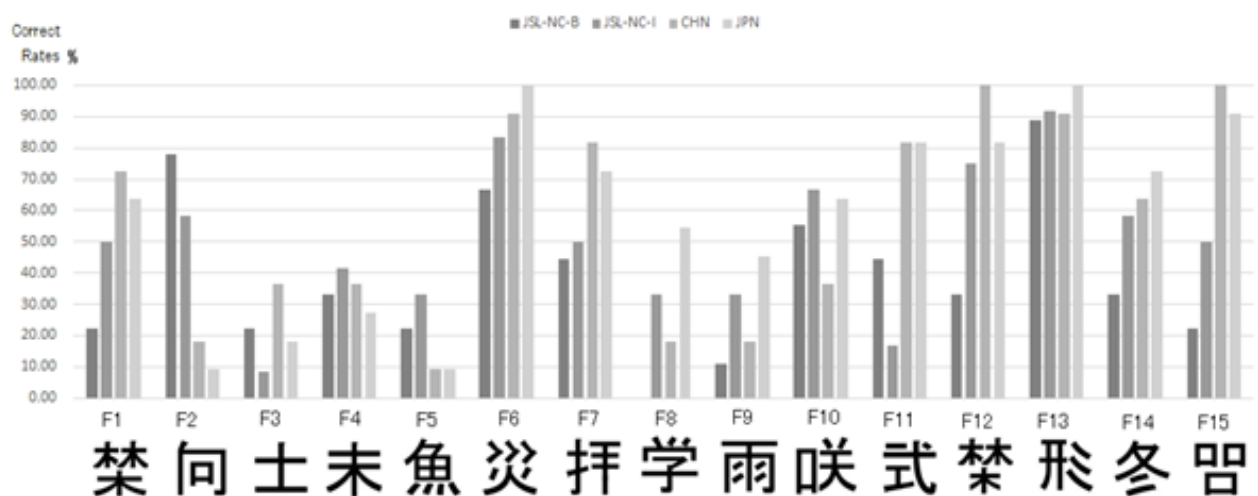


Figure 1: Mean correct rates of Fake Kanji for the four participant groups

A Study of CLIL Activities in Japan: In Search of Practical Effects in Middle Schools

Yuko Tominaga

Senshu University
yukotominana@yahoo.co.jp

Abstract

The objective of this research is to detect how CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) activities work in Japanese school settings, especially in middle schools. The participants were the second-year students (age 13 to 14) of a middle school in Tokyo, Japan. They were divided into an experimental group and a control group. The participants of the experimental group were regularly given eight reading materials based on CLIL for six months, while the participants of the other group were given two of them at random for the same term. The reading materials were related to what the participants had already learned in other subjects: science, math, history, art, and so on. The materials were also organized according to the syllabus of the school so that the participants could make use of their background knowledge easily. The answers of their comprehension checks and questionnaires were analyzed statistically, and the result indicated that the learners of the experimental group were able to enjoy learning English referring to their background knowledge they had.

Keywords

CLIL, autonomous learning, content, cognition, community, communication

Introduction

In EFL classrooms, many learners are struggling with learning English, and also many teachers are struggling with teaching English. Under EFL settings, it is unusual for learners, especially Japanese learners living in an island nation, to experience opportunities to use English in their daily life. In EFL settings, classrooms should be a place where they can use English as much as possible.

In order to detect some clues to and make suggestions for better teaching English to learners in EFL settings, this paper, in the perspective of the use of knowledge of their background, attempts to analyze the questionnaires and the interviews for the learners, focusing on CLIL aspects: content, communication, cognition, community. By using

reading materials based on the syllabus of the school, this study investigates how the participants understand and find clues to unfamiliar words or expressions making use of their background knowledge already they learned in other subjects: science, math, history, art, and so on. It is expected that significant awareness — when and how learners have their eyes opened to autonomous learning—would be suggested for better teaching. As an interim report of the whole research, this paper shows the situation and part of the result of the control group.

1 Method

1.1 Participants

The participants were 37 second year students (age 13 to 14) in a middle school in Tokyo. According to the result of a nationwide proficiency test, they were seen as average students. Some students who had special background were removed from the participant list in advance. For example, the students whose parent was a native speaker of English or who had stayed abroad more than a year.

1.2 Materials

The reading materials used in this survey were based on science and math. The topic of the science material was ‘how are clouds formed’, and that of the math material was ‘parallelogram and trapezoid’. Both topics were already introduced to the participants in each subject lesson. The reading materials consisted of 80 to 120 words, and authentic materials were selected.

1.3 Procedure

This survey was conducted in a second year English class from September to February in 2013 and 2014. The participants read the reading materials after they learned the topics on clouds and figures in each subject class based on their syllabus. After reading materials they answered the questions focusing on language forms, contents, and cognition. The answers were categorized into four groups: content, communication, cognition,

community. The four factors are based on CLIL concept, and they are significant contributors. The data for each factor was divided into two aspects: positive or negative..

2 Results

As for the aspect of language forms, more than 50% of the participants did not show their interest in language learning. They tend not to solve the problems positively by themselves. However, 90% of them answered that they understood the content of the reading materials, and they were able to infer unfamiliar words using their background knowledge and rather enjoy reading than ever. Also, the result shows that they tend not to use English outside of the classroom. They do not try to use it; on the other word, they have no chance to use English in their daily life except for schools. This result is related to cognition. However, in fact, 80% of them seem to be interested in foreign cultures, sports, and music. They seem to have a desire to get information of foreign events in English, but they do not have enough amount of input to do it. Selection of the reading materials which meet their interest is a significant factor for community.

3 Conclusion

Among their comments, more than 60% of them mentioned that they wanted to talk with native speakers of English freely on business or trips. The result shows that they have a dream to be able to use English freely in the future. They are now on the middle way of learning English, and, especially, they are now in the input period. They are struggling with learning English. They might be irritated, because there are some walls that they cannot go over. In order to make their dream come true, teachers always need to choose well-thought materials seriously and pay attention to what their students have learned or are interested in. CLIL offers some of the useful activities for the practical teaching and learning.

The purpose of learning foreign language is to learn not only language use but also the way of communication with people in foreign countries. For the learners who are not interested in learning foreign language, in this study English, it is important to have a new viewpoint to enjoy studying a foreign language. The use of CLIL based on authentic resources in class would help them find another new entrance to learning foreign language.

4 References

Bentley, K. (2010). *The TKT course CLIL module*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe. (2002). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Coyle, D., Hood, P & Marsh, D (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Deller, S. & C. Price (2007). *Teaching other subjects through English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.206-257). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction, and second language development: An empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(4), 557-587.

Maeda, T. (2002). Language learning strategies used by Japanese high school learners and achievement. *Language Education & Technology*, 39,137-148

Mehisto, P., Marsh, D & Frigols, M. (2008). *Uncovering CLIL*. Oxford: Macmillan.

Yassin, S. (2010). Teaching science through English. *International CLIL Research Journal* , 1 (3), 46-50.

Technical and Management Issues of Making Flipped Videos: How to Get Started

Eiichiro Tsutsui,¹ Kazuharu Owada,² Norifumi Ueda,³ & Michiko Nakano⁴

¹Hiroshima International University, ²Tokyo College of Music, ³Komazawa University, ⁴Waseda University

tsutsui@ic.hirokoku-u.ac.jp

and caring about low achievers. However, teachers

Abstract

As MEXT (2014) puts forward the idea of flipped learning in educational contexts in Japan, flipped learning may be one of the hottest topics for language teachers in Japan. As Cockrum (2014) points out, flipped learning is not just about making videos. We, flippers, may always put a large amount of time and effort into organizing ideas as to what kinds of educational content and messages should be delivered either in classrooms or in videos. But for most beginners, making videos may be one of the daunting tasks. So, we have to discuss these things at all levels. Beginners may not be technologically literate. They may not want to spend so much time creating videos. They may not want their videos to be seen by other people. These issues can prevent language teachers from flipping their classes, and may eventually delay the spread of flipping activities. This study aims to describe what kinds of technical problems we have experienced and what kind of management should be undertaken to get flipping started.

Keywords

Flipped videos, Flipped Classroom, ICT

Introduction

As Cuban (2001) claims, education sometimes can't keep pace with current trends. Much the same is true of recent educational situations that have not fully realized the benefits of information and communication technology (ICT) across all levels of school in Japan, especially average elementary or secondary public schools. Quite shockingly, OECD (2012a) revealed only 9.9 % of junior high school teachers responded in the affirmative to the survey question ("I have students use ICT for projects or class work.") This percentage (9.9%) was the lowest among the 35 countries or regional areas that participated in the survey as opposed to the average (M = 37.5%) or other highly-ranked countries, such as Denmark, Norway, and Australia (73.9%, 73.8%, 66.8% respectively).

Another issue here is teachers' longer working hours. In addition to their longer statutory working hours (OECD, 2014b), they have some extra work, involving club activities, meetings and paper-work,

in Japan do not necessarily spend much of their time in teaching-related work (OECD, 2014a). Against this background, MEXT reiterates the importance of ICT use in educational contexts. This movement is quite natural because it is not at all unusual to think about the efficiency and productivity with the help of ICT use (i.e., sharing materials through course management system and collaborative teaching.)

Another concern raised by MEXT may be due to delay in the process of globalization as well as the people's relatively lower English proficiency levels, as can be seen in Tono (2014), which reveals that 80% of Japanese EFL learners are categorized into either A1 or A2 CEFR level, both of which are equivalent to Basic English Users. With this thing and that, in "Reform Plans for English Education to Deal with Globalization" (MEXT, 2012a), MEXT suggested that more extracurricular, student-centric activities (such as irregular module class or extensive reading) should be introduced, and that the CEFR level target was set one notch higher. Since the year 2012, along with learners' frequent ICT use, they have been repeatedly adopting the term "Active Learning (AL)" in their official reports. They defined AL as "a general term of teaching and learning that integrates students' active engagement and participation as opposed to a one-way lecture-type teaching" (MEXT, 2012b). They state that AL can effectively contribute to discovery-, problem-solving-, experience-, and research-based learning, through group discussion, debate, and group work in classroom settings. In their reports, flipped learning is perceived as one of the examples for promoting AL. Bergmann and Sams (2012) also regard flipped learning as a "gateway to active learning".

1 How to get started

1.1 ICT survey

As a first step, it is important to be aware of students' ICT literacy and network environments surrounding them, i.e., school Wi-Fi or Internet access at their home. If your students are kids, you may have to ask their parents about their ICT

environment. One example of technology parent surveys is given by Fulton (2014). When you go ahead with the BYOD approach, it may be safe to have your Wi-Fi or extra low-end devices ready, so that some students or groups can freely make good use of them in class.

1.2 Video-making

Screencast-o-matic seems to be popular among novice flippers. Its free and commercial version is available at <http://www.screencast-o-matic.com/>. Other screen-casting software products and services are available on the Internet. However, you need to find your own way that will work best for you. You are expected to do the following:

1. videotape your computer screen (i.e., screencasting),
2. record your voice,
3. videotape yourself, and
4. edit (i.e., synchronize data taken in steps 1-3).

Good screencasting tools help you do these things simultaneously with ease, as long as your built-in webcam and microphone are working properly. When editing, you can insert subtitles, additional comments, or background music according to your needs or students' needs or level. You must be careful not to violate any copyright. Other do's and don'ts are provided by Bergmann and Sams (2012).

1.3 Some other tips

Shy teachers may not want their videos to be seen by unknown users. When uploading a YouTube video, you have three choices: public, unlisted, and private. Unlisted videos can be seen by the user who knows the direct link (i.e., url) of the video, being unsearchable by other users. Private videos can be seen only by the user designated by the video uploader. But some students don't like private videos, because they rarely watch YouTube videos as a logged-in user. Another way is to compress the video file and encrypt it with a password. After that, you can upload the video on the Internet server. If your school provides the Intranet, outsiders can't have access to the server. But in time, you will get used to this kind of risk. Otherwise, you may have to take care of students who claim to have lost their account IDs or passwords. Simpler ways would be better for you and your students.

1.4 More interactive lecture videos

At the conference site, more interactive, and more humanized video-making strategies will be presented.

2 Tentative thoughts

Although flipped learning began as a grassroots

teacher movement (Bergmann and Sams, 2012; Fulton, 2014), quite ironically, flipped learning comes into play in Japan in a rather top-down fashion. As OECD (2012a) reveals, project-based learning, group work and ICT use in the classroom are not popular among teachers in Japan, compared with those in other countries. If adopted nicely, flipped learning can promote these things. Teachers in Japan need courage to take action by flipping their mindsets.

3 Selected references

- Bergmann, J. and Sams, A. (2012). *Flip Your Classroom: Reach Every Student in Every Class Every Day* Oregon: International Society for Technology in Education.
- Cuban, L. (2001). *Oversold And Underused: Computers in Classrooms, 1980-2000*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Cockrum, T. (2014). *Flipping Your English Class to Reach All Learners: Strategies and Lesson Plans*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fulton, K. P. (2014). *Time for Learning: Top 10 Reasons Why Flipping the Classroom Can Change Education*. California: Corwin
- McQuiggan, S., Kosturko, L., McQuiggan, J., and Sabourin, L. (2015). *Mobile Learning*. New Jersey: Wiley
- Moran, C and Young, C.A. (2014). Active Learning in the Flipped English Language Arts Classroom. In J Keengwe, G. Onchwari, and J. Oigara (Eds.), *Promoting Active Learning through the Flipped Classroom Model*. Pennsylvania: IGI Global. 163-184
- OECD. (2014a). *New Insights from TALIS 2013: Teaching and Learning in Primary and Upper Secondary Education*. OECD Publishing.
- OECD. (2014b). *Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators*. OECD Publishing.

Right Node Raising in Typed-Dependency Representation

Masanori Oya

Mejiro University
m.oya@mejiro.ac.jp

the Typed-Dependency representations (henceforth

Abstract

This study is an attempt to represent Right Node Raising (henceforth RNR) within a framework of typed-dependency representation, and Unification-Grammar-style attribute-value pair representation which is equivalent to typed-dependency representations. RNR is a type of syntactic phenomena in which parallel structures share a phrase that is placed to the right of them, such as "David admires, but Sarah ignores, Generative Grammar." Typical, but not all, instances of parallel structures found in RNR are the conjuncts of a coordinate structure, and it is often the case that these parallel structures and the shared phrase are not constituents. Since the seminal work by Postal (1974), RNR has attracted researchers' attention from different theoretical perspective, and this study is one of such attempts to explore them from a dependency-grammar perspective which do not assume the existence of syntactic constituency. After reviewing representative examples of RNR, we examine their typed-dependency and attribute-value-pair representations, arguing that the well-formedness of typed-dependency representation for a given RNR is ensured by the well-formedness of its attribute-value-pair representation.

Keywords

Right node raising, typed-dependency trees, attribute-value pairs, well-formedness conditions

Introduction

Right Node Raising (RNR) is a construction in which conjuncts share a certain element at the right periphery of a sentence (Abbot 1976, Erteschik-Shir 1987, Hartmann 2000, Hudson 1976, 1988, Postal 1974, among others), such as shown below:

(1)

a. Sue prepared, and Fred ate, lunch before work. (Osborne 2006, p. 39)

b. She knew of but never mentioned my previous work. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, p.1343)

c. Sally might be, and everyone believes Sheila definitely is, pregnant. (Ross 1967)

This paper deals with the following two issues. First, I will briefly review the previous literature on RNR, with special attention to analyses by Ha (2007) and Hartmann (2000). Second, I will attempt to show

TD representations) for these typical examples of RNR. Lastly, I will show their Attribute-Value Pair representations (henceforth AVP representations), arguing that grammatical RNR constructions observe the well-formedness of AVP representations.

1 Overview of RNR

1.1 Properties of RNR

RNR contains several properties which makes a good contrast from similar syntactic phenomena such as VP ellipsis. Ha (2007) points out that non-constituents can undergo RNR, while only constituents can undergo VP ellipsis. In the example below, the shared element *a large amount of money from the bank* does not constitute a single constituent, because the noun phrase *a large amount of money* is the direct object of the verbs, while *from the bank* is a prepositional phrase depending on the verbs.

(2)

John borrowed, and Bill stole, a large amount of money from the bank. (Ha 2007, p. 8)

Hartmann (2000) points out that expressions under word-level can undergo RNR.

(3)

This analysis suffers both under- and overgeneralization. (Hartmann 2000, p. 57)

Hartmann (2000) also points out that the existence of contrastive focus is required for a well-formed RNR. She summarizes that the conjuncts in RNR must exhibit an identical syntactic structure.

2 Typed-Dependency (TD) representations

The example sentences for RNR can be represented in terms of the typed-dependency (henceforth TD) relationships between words in the sentences (Tesnière 1957, de Marneffe and Manning 2012, among others). For example, the typed-dependency for (1a) is shown below:

Figure 1. The TD tree for “Sue prepared, and Fred ate, lunch before work.”

3 Attribute-Value-Pair (AVP) representations

The AVP representation is the result of integrating the lexical information of each word in a sentence through the dependency paths. For example, the AVP representation for (1a) is shown below.

[illegible]

Figure2. The AVP representation for “Sue prepared, and Fred ate, lunch before work.”

The AVPs for other examples will be shown in the presentation, and it will be argued that the AVPs for grammatical RNR sentences seem to observe Hartmann's (2000) conditions which license RNR, while those for ungrammatical RNR sentences do not.

4 Conclusion

This study is an attempt to represent RNR within a framework of TD representation, and Unification-Grammar-style AVP representation which is equivalent to typed-dependency representations, and it will be shown that AVPs observe the conditions for RNR.

5 Acknowledgement

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 26370500.

6 References

- Abbot, B. 1976. Right node raising as a test for constituenthood. *Linguistic Inquiry* 7, 639-642.
- De Marneffe, M.C. & C.D. Manning. 2012.

Stanford typed dependency manual revised for the Stanford Parser v.2.0.4. http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/dependencies_manual.pdf (accessed 18 November 2012)

- Erteschik-Shir, N. 1987. Right node raising. *MIT Working Papers in Linguistics* 9, 105-117.
- Ha, S. 2007. *Syntax of right node raising*. Ms. Boston University.
http://www.ibrarian.net/navon/paper/SYNTAX_OF_RIGHT_NODE_RAISING.pdf?paperid=11108300 (accessed 17th of October, 2015)
- Hartmann, K. 2000. *Right node raising and gapping: Interface conditions on prosodic deletion*. Philadelphia: Benjamins
- Huddleston, R. & G. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge, UK: CUP.
- Hudson, R. 1976. Conjunction reduction, gapping, and right-node raising. *Language* 52, 535-562.
- Hudson, R. 1988. Coordination and grammatical relations. *Journal of Linguistics* 24, 303-342.
- Osborne, T. 2006. Shared material and grammar: A dependency grammar theory of non-gapping coordination. *Zeitschrift für Sprachwissenschaft* 25, 39-93.
- Postal, P. 1974. *On raising*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Ross, J. 1967. Constraints on variables in syntax. Doctoral dissertation, MIT.
- Tesnière, Lucien. 1959. *Éléments de syntaxe structurale*. Paris: Klincksieck.

Relationship Between Learners' Motivation Toward Computer-Mediated Communication Activities and Their Perceived Sense of Autonomy, Competence and Relatedness

Satoshi Yoshida

Global Education Center, Waseda University
syoshida@aoni.waseda.jp

Abstract

This study investigates a relationship between learners' motivation toward computer-mediated communication activities provided for tertiary-level English courses and their perceived sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness in the given activities from the perspective of self-determination theory (SDT; e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002). The main purpose of this study was to examine the applicability of theoretical framework of SDT to discuss the potential motivating strategies to enhance learners' motivation toward the target activities. To do so, I distributed a questionnaire consisting of (1) 24 items developed on the basis of the Language Learning Orientation Scale (e.g., Noels et al., 2000) to assess the learners' motivation and (2) 18 items adapted from the Climate Questionnaire (Black & Deci, 2000) and the Perceive Competence Scales to assess their perceived sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness, among 504 Japanese learners of English who participated in the target activities. The result indicated that there were possibly three types of learners: (1) autonomous learners, (2) slightly demotivated learners and (3) amotivated learners. The results also implied a causal relationship between the motivational antecedents and types of motivation as theorized in SDT.

Keywords

L2 learning motivation, self-determination theory, autonomy, competence, relatedness, CMC activities

Introduction

1 Background of this study

Waseda University has been running a joint program called Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) with the partner universities around Asia since 1999 (Nakano, Yoshida, & Owada, 2008). The aim of the program has been to provide a lot of opportunities to practice using English as a Lingua Franca for Asian students (Nakano et al., 2012). To do this, CCDL has offered ICT-enabled English learning activities called CCDL CMC activities.

1.1 Purpose of this study

The present study is a part of the CCDL program assessment that has been conducted since 2008 (for details, see Yoshida & Nakano, 2013). The purposes of the program assessment were (1) to evaluate the effectiveness of CCDL project in terms of the students' motivation toward CMC activities and (2) to explore the motivating strategies to enhance students' motivation. With reference to a motivation theory called self-determination theory (SDT), therefore, the present study explored students' motivational styles and discussed the potential motivating strategies to enhance learners' motivation toward the CMC activities

2 Method

2.1 Self-determination theory

SDT conceptualized three types of motivation called intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation as in Figure 1.

Behavior	Non self-determined					Self-determined
Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Locus of Causality	impersonal	External	Somewhat External	Somewhat Internal	Internal	Internal

Figure 1. Self-Determination Continuum (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.237)

Furthermore, SDT assumed three kinds of psychological needs that are thought to enhance ones' motivation. These are called psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness.

2.2 Participants

The participants in this study were 504 Japanese learners of English. All the students were university students learning English at a Japanese university and participated in CCDL CMC activities in the spring semester or/and in the fall semester of 2013.

2.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of two parts: (1) 24 items developed on the basis of the Language Learning Orientation Scale (e.g., Noels et al., 2000)

to assess the types of motivation hypothesized in SDT (i.e., motivation questionnaire) and (2) 18 items adapted from the Climate Questionnaire (Black & Deci, 2000) and the Perceive Competence Scales to assess their perceived sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness (i.e., learning climate questionnaire). The participants were supposed to respond to all the 42 items using 5-point Likert scale.

2.4 Analytic procedure

This study employed the following analytic procedures. (1) Computing the descriptive statistics for the 48 items; (2) Running exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on questionnaire items; (3) Running cluster analysis to examine the motivational styles among the students; (4) Computing correlation coefficients between the resulting factors from motivation questionnaire and learning climate questionnaire.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

After screening the descriptive statistics for the 48 items, 24 items in motivation questionnaire were subject to EFA (ML Method, Promax rotation, with reference to the test of goodness of fit). As a result, the following 7-factor model was employed.

- Factor 1: Intrinsic Motivation for Knowledge (IMK)
- Factor 2: External Regulation to Introjection (EMEX to INTRO)
- Factor 3: Intrinsic Motivation for Stimulation (IMS)
- Factor 4: Autonomous Type of Motivation for Accomplishment (AMA)
- Factor 5: Amotivation (AMOT)
- Factor 6: Introjected Regulation (EMINTRO)
- Factor 7: Identified Regulation (EMID)

Secondly, 18 items in learning climate questionnaire were also subject to EFA (Maximum Likelihood method, Promax rotation, Kaiser's Criterion). The result showed that there would be the following 3 latent factors (hereafter, LC Factors).

- LC Factor 1: Students' Satisfaction Level for CCDL CMC (Partners and contents)
- LC Factor 2: Teacher's Competence Support
- LC Factor 3: Teacher's Autonomy Support

3.2 Cluster Analysis

The results of cluster analysis showed that there were three types of learners: (1) autonomous learners, (2) slightly demotivated learners and (3) amotivated learners (Figure 2)

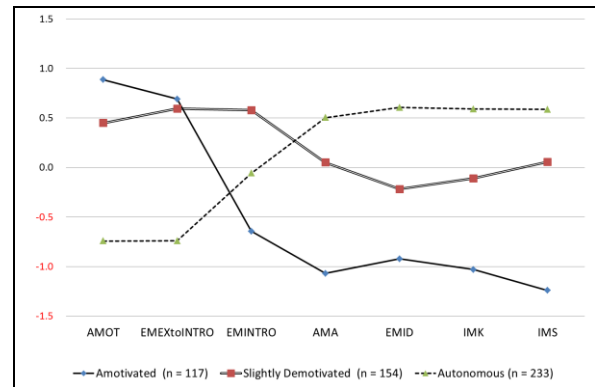


Figure 2. Motivational styles among students

3.3 Relationship between Motivation Factors and LCQ factors

Table 1 shows the results of correlation analysis between 7 motivation factors and 3 LC factors.

Table 1. Correlations among the extracted factors

Motivation	Satisfaction level	Competence Support	Autonomy Support
AMOT	-.334**	-.408**	-.355**
EMEX to INTRO	-.228**	-.222**	-.259**
EMINTRO	0.147	.284**	.370**
AMS	.398**	.541**	.537**
EMID	.465**	.362**	.472**
IMK	.567**	.463**	.571**
IMS	.516**	.476**	.651**

4 Summary

The result of cluster analysis indicated that there were three types of learners: (1) autonomous learners, (2) slightly demotivated learners and (3) amotivated learners. The results also implied a causal relationship between the motivational antecedents and types of motivation as theorized in SDT. In my presentation, I will show the results of structural equation modeling analysis to further discuss the hypothesized causal relationship.

5 References Selected

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.

Self-Assessment of Coherence

Yoko Suganuma Oi

Graduate School of Education, Waseda University
yokosuganuma@suou.waseda.jp

Abstract

The present study aims to investigate the development of coherence in written production of high school students. The assessment of written production has tended to focus on the accuracy of language use in Japan, but it is also inevitable for students to be careful about coherence to make their written production more persuasive and expressive. Moreover, student self-assessment is effective to stimulate students' motivation and self-awareness. The efficacy of student self-assessment has been already recognized in terms of students' self-attainment. Therefore it is meaningful to examine the relationship between student self-assessment and coherence of written production. 82 Japanese high school students and two English teachers participated in the survey. Students were asked to write English compositions in about 150 words on the guided topics. After they wrote it without using dictionaries, they were asked to assess the coherence of their English compositions using assessment sheet as well as the teachers. Students were also asked to write and assess the coherence of their English compositions using the same assessment sheet as teachers' assessment sheet. The results showed that the consistency between student self-assessment and teacher assessment did not develop, but some improvement of coherence was observed.

Keywords

Self-assessment, written production, coherence

Introduction

The researcher has thought that teachers and students should shift their interest from the accuracy of language use to coherence in writing to communicate with readers, not being greatly concerned about the accuracy. The researcher also believes that self-assessment encourages students to revise their written production independently (Oi, S. Y., 2013).

1 Theme and Rheme

According to Todd (1998), a theme is "what the sentence is about" and a rheme is "what is said about the theme" (p. 305). Fries mentions that the importance of theme-rheme analysis concerns how

consecutive sentences are related (1983). Lautamatti (1978) shows three types of progressions of Theme and Rheme: 1) sequential progression, 2) parallel progression, and 3) extended parallel progression.

2 Research Questions

The following two research questions were proposed to look for the efficacy of self-assessment in terms of coherence of written production:

1. To what extent could students assess coherence of written production similarly to that of teachers?
2. To what extent could students develop coherence of written production during two sessions of self-assessment?

3 Method

3.1 Data collection

The data of the present study for the analysis came from the written production of 82 Japanese high school students. Students were asked to write an essay on the guided writing topics two sessions.

3.2 Methods of analysis

Five types of analysis were conducted to examine two research questions. Firstly, Kendall's tau was used to see the inter-rater reliability between the assessments of six teachers. Secondly, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was conducted to look for differences between student self-assessment and teacher assessment of two sessions. As the third method, the most frequently used word was identified as a key concept in essays. Fourthly, the organization of the "theme" was classified taking into consideration in the presence or absence of "theme", based on the structure of Theme and Rheme (Halliday, 2014). Finally, coherence of students' written production was analyzed qualitatively.

4 Results

4.1 Inter-rater reliability between the assessment of six teachers

Inter-rater reliability between the assessment of six teachers was calculated to see the reliability of teacher assessment. It was found that there was a high correlation each other.

4.2 Consistency between student self-assessment and teacher assessment

The results of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test showed that student self-assessment and teacher assessment presented agreement neither in the first session nor second session.

About from 40 to 46 % of both the students and teachers assessed the coherence of the written production of the second session more highly than the first session. On the other hand, about 30 % of the students and teachers assessed the second written production lower than the first session. About 16 to 22 % of students and teachers assessed the second session as the same.

4.3 The Number of the most frequently used word

The number of the most frequently used word was decreased in the second session, the deviation was also decreased.

4.4 Theme and Rheme progression

In the first session, parallel progression appeared most frequently (44.6%). About 20% of written production in the first session did not present any progressions. On the other hand, the combination of three progressions (sequential, parallel, and extended progressions), was most frequently appeared in the second session (54.3%). The appearance of parallel progression showed only 1.2%. Compared to the first session, the frequency of extended progression got increased. So it is found that students tended to use more various kinds of progressions in the second session.

5 Discussion

Students could not assess their written production similarly to that of teachers, but students tended to assess the second session more highly than the first session. Both NET and JET also assessed the written production of the second written production more highly than that of the first session. Therefore students could not assess their written production as well as teachers, but it could be said that students could develop the coherence of written production during two sessions through self-assessment. So it

could be also said that student self-assessment does not have to be consistent with teacher assessment, because students could improve the coherence of their written production. It means that the student standard of assessment is different from that of teachers. Student self-assessment is not reliable, however, it helps to improve the coherence of students' written production.

The frequency of mostly used repetitive words did not show the development of coherence as the measurement. On the other hand, students seemed to learn how to organize theme and rheme progression after the second session, using more various types of progressions and combinations. It means that students tried to apply many more kinds of combinations of theme and rheme to the second session, because they learned how to organize a topic to make their written production more coherently than the first session.

6 Conclusion

Student self-assessment worked to develop the coherence of written production, whereas it did not agree with teacher assessment. So it is found that student self-assessment is not reliable as class assessment, but it helps students to be aware of the shortage and motivates them to try other progression of theme and rheme. Therefore self-assessment is effective to develop coherence, because self-assessment activates students to reflect themselves and let them be more cognitive of the points of improvement. More awareness contributes to more recognition of coherent written production.

7 References

- Fries, P.H. (1983). On the stats of theme in English: arguments from discourse. In: Petofi, J.S., Sozer, E. (Eds.), *Micro and Macro Connexity in Texts*. Helmet Buske Verlag, Hamburg.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (2014). *FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR*. ROUTLEDGE.
- Lautamatti, L. (1978). Observations on the development of the topic in simplified discourse. In: Connor, U., Kaplan, R. B. (Eds.), *Writing Across Languages: Analysis of L2 Text*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, pp.87-113
- Oi, S. Y. (2013). A Pilot Study of Self-Evaluation and Peer Evaluation. *Selected Papers of the 17th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 1-11.
- Todd, W. , Thienpermpool, P. & Keyurvong, S. (2004). Measuring the coherence of writing using topic-based analysis. *Assessing Writing*, 9, 85-104.

Comparing Native and Non-native English through Significance Tests and Effect Sizes

Yuichiro Kobayashi¹

¹Toyo University
kobayashi0721@gmail.com

Abstract

The present study aimed to investigate argumentative essays written by Japanese learners and native speakers of English through significant tests and effect sizes. This study compares the frequencies of metadiscourse markers in the essays using the corpus that strictly controlled writing conditions and writers' proficiency levels. The findings suggest that there is a substantial difference of the use of metadiscourse markers between Japanese learners and native speakers. Japanese learners significantly overuse frame markers, attitude markers, and self-mentions, and underuse transitions, engagement markers, and hedges.

Keywords

Significant test, effect size, metadiscourse markers

Introduction

Since the development of learner corpus research in the late 1990s, contrastive interlanguage analysis has grown rapidly as a leading method in the field. It consists of two major types of comparison: (a) comparison of native language and interlanguage (NL/IL comparison) and (b) comparison of different interlanguages (IL/IL comparison) (Granger, 1996). These two approaches to the aspects of interlanguage are inseparable like the two wheels of a cart. The NL/IL comparisons identify the gap that learners have to cross before they can reach the ultimate achievement of learning a target language, and the IL/IL comparisons clarify the individual characteristics in each learner group.

Metadiscourse is one of the most significant differences in language use between native writers and learner writers. The importance of metadiscourse to written communication has been proved by corpus-based studies on academic writings (e.g., Hyland and Tse, 2004). However, language learners tend to use metadiscourse devices very differently to native speakers (Hyland, 2005) because of cultural conventions, general learner strategies, or register awareness (Ädel, 2008). Therefore, contrastive interlanguage analysis can help learners to understand the language variation and to "negotiate conflicting rhetorical structures to their advantage" (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 68).

1 Research design

1.1 The purpose of the study

The present study aimed to investigate argumentative essays written by Japanese learners and native speakers of English under the framework of contrastive interlanguage analysis. This study compares the use of metadiscourse markers in the essays using the corpus that strictly controlled writing conditions and writers' proficiency levels.

1.2 Corpus data

This study draws on the written component of the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE-Written) which contains 1.3 million words of argumentative essays written by 2,600 Asian learners of English as well as 200 native speakers of English (Ishikawa, 2013). The data analyzed in the present study is a subset from this corpus, including the written compositions of 228 Japanese learners (JPN) and 200 native speakers (NS). The writing conditions and writers' proficiency levels were strictly controlled for the comparison of these two groups. The subset contains essays written in response to a single prompt, namely "*It is important for college students to have a part-time job*" (Ishikawa, 2013, p. 95). The Japanese group in the subset includes only writers assessed as B1 CEFR level.

1.3 Metadiscourse markers

Hyland (2005) has defined metadiscourse as "the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (p. 37). In this study, Hyland's framework was mainly applied for the contrastive interlanguage analysis. He classified nearly 500 metadiscourse resources into ten functional categories (transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, code glosses, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and engagement markers).

1.4 Statistical methods

Chi-square tests and odds ratios were used for comparing the written compositions of Japanese learners and those of native speakers in terms of the frequencies of metadiscourse markers. Chi-square test is the most commonly used statistical test in corpus-based language studies (McEnery, Xiao, and Tono, 2006). It determines the significance of the frequency difference between corpora by comparing the observed frequencies extracted from corpora and the expected frequencies computed from the row and column totals of the frequency table. However, the results of statistical tests are strongly affected by the sample size, and it is problematic for corpus-based studies which compare very high-frequency words. Therefore, effect sizes, which are independent of the sample size, should be checked to complement the flaw of statistical test. The most common and useful measure of effect size for categorical data is the odds ratio (Field, Miles, and Field, 2012). It is the ratio of the odds of a linguistic feature occurring in one corpus to the odds of it occurring in another corpus. In the present study, the results of chi-square tests were validated with the odds ratios.

2 Procedures

This study compared the frequencies of ten functional categories of metadiscourse markers in the written compositions of Japanese learners and native speakers using chi-square test and odds ratio.

3 Results

This study checked the statistical significance of the frequency differences between Japanese learners and native speakers. The results indicate that ten functional categories of metadiscourse markers were divided into three groups by the degree of significance in descending order: (a) frame markers, transitions, attitude markers, self-mentions, engagement markers, and hedges ($p < 0.001$), (b) endophoric markers ($p < 0.01$), (c) code glosses and boosters ($p < 0.05$). However, evidentials did not show the significant difference between two writer groups. Four among nine categories which showed the significant difference, namely (a) frame markers, (b) attitude markers, (c) boosters, and (d) self-mentions, were characteristic of Japanese learners, whereas five remaining categories, namely (a) code glosses, (b) endophoric markers, (c) transitions, (d) engagement markers, and (e) hedges, were characteristic of native speakers. The results of chi-square tests were validated by the effect sizes. As a result, p -values of logged odds ratios are identical to those of chi-square tests, although the degree of significance of endophoric markers

slightly differs.

4 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate argumentative essays written by Japanese learners and native speakers of English. The results suggest that there is a substantial difference of the use of metadiscourse markers between them. Japanese learners significantly overuse frame markers, attitude markers, and self-mentions, and underuse transitions, engagement markers, and hedges. The findings of the present study can indicate some tasks that language learners must resolve in order to organize more persuasive discourse in English.

5 References

- Ädel, A. (2008). *Metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Field, A., Miles, J., & Field, Z. (2012). *Discovering statistics using R*. London: Sage.
- Granger, S. (1996). From CA to CIA and back: An integrated contrastive approach to computerized bilingual and learner corpora. In Aijmer, K., Altenberg, B., & Johansson, M. (Eds.), *Languages in contrast: Papers from a Symposium on Text-based Cross-linguistic Studies, Lund 4-5 march 1994* (pp. 37-51). Lund: Lund University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. New York: Continuum.
- Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2004). Metadiscourse in academic writing: A reappraisal. *Applied Linguistics*, 25, 156-177.
- Ishikawa, S. (2013). The ICNALE and sophisticated contrastive interlanguage analysis of Asian learners of English. *Learner Corpus Studies in Asia and the World*, 1, 91-118.
- McEnery, T., Xiao, R., & Tono, Y. (2006). *Corpus-based language studies: An advanced resource book*. New York: Routledge.

DAY 2 (Sunday, December 6, 2015)

Graduate Session E (Room 314A) Moderator: Masanori Oya (Mejiro University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:00-9:25	E-1	Learner Autonomy Amongst Young EFL Learners in a Rural Area: An Ethnographic Study Pantipa Pichailuck (Chulalongkorn University) Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn University)
9:25-9:50	E-2	The Translation of English Synaesthetic Metaphors into Thai: Some Pedagogical Implications Suparak Techacharoenrungrueang (Chulalongkorn University) Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn University)
9:50-10:15	E-3	The Effects of Alcohol on Speech Analysis of L2 Learner DaSol Lee (Kangwon National University)
10:15-10:40	E-4	An Interlanguage Study of English Discourse Connectors in Argumentative Essays Written by Native and Non-native English Speakers Kamolphan Jangarun (Chulalongkorn University) Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin (Chulalongkorn University)

Graduate Session F (Room 314B) Moderator: Hyung-Ji Chang (Sun Moon University)

Time	Session	Presentation
9:00-9:25	F-1	Increased Cultural Awareness through CCDL Experience Ji Hye Choi (Kangwon National University) Sung Ah Kim (Kangwon National University)
9:25-9:50	F-2	Korean-Cameroon University Students' Opinions of Learning English as a Foreign Language Blaise Atanga (Korea Nazarene University)
9:50-10:15	F-3	On the Principle of Anticipation in Simultaneous Interpretation from the Perspective of Effort Model Xu Tian (Harbin Engineering University)
10:15-10:40	F-4	English Language Testing Techniques and Policies used in Cameroon Elvis Fru (Korea Nazarene University)
11:40-11:05	F-5	Who Were the Actors in the Policy Making Process for English Language Education in Postwar Japan? Shoma Aota (The University of Tokyo)

Learner Autonomy amongst Young EFL Learners in a Rural Area: An Ethnographic Study

Pantipa Pichailuck¹ and Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin²

¹PhD Candidate, Chulalongkorn University, ²Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand
chompootaweeb@gmail.com, Sudaporn.L@chula.ac.th

Abstract

This research believes Learner Autonomy (LA) could help improve the difficult situation in EFL education, particularly in rural areas. The aims of this study are of twofold: first, to explore the socio-cultural context as regards the awareness of LA in a rural area in Thailand, and second, to explore LA amongst the young EFL learners at the school in this low-socioeconomic area. It is an ethnographic study combining the data collection methods of diary writing, non-intrusive and participation observations, interviews, field notes and analysis of documents and students' assignments in the English subject of the sixth graders. The results reveal that the environmental factors including the teachers, administrators, guardians and the local community are not well aware of the LA concept, but would welcome the idea. For the children, they conceive responsibility in learning as completing whatever work the teachers instruct them to do. It is found that most young EFL learners possess readiness and willingness regarding their belief, attitude, optimism and motivation to embrace LA. However, they are markedly unfamiliar with metacognitive abilities, namely goal-setting, planning, and self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and reflexivity. Consequently, the paper proposes that EFL education should help enhance metacognitive abilities in EFL learning as early as primary education.

Keywords

Learner Autonomy, metacognitive abilities, ethnographic study

Introduction

Learner autonomy (LA) is hardly taken as an issue in the research in English as Foreign Language (EFL), especially whether it is a desirable attribute in teaching and learning. As Social Constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978) stresses the socio-cultural dimensions of LA, this research employed the ethnography methodology to explore and explain the difficulty in EFL situation in a school in one of the Thai rural area. EFL education in Thailand requires practice through pragmatics in addition to semantics and syntax. With this vast amount of

practical knowledge, students should learn to take responsibility of their own learning and be more independent. Particularly, the empowerment of the young EFL learners in a rural area could greatly reduce redundancies and wastage of resources already scarce in impoverished environments. The research aims to explore and describe, first, the awareness of LA among the related factors in learning including the teachers, administrators, parents/guardians and the local community, and, second, the patterns of the culture of LA among the fifth graders in this rural school.

1 Research Methodology

The participants comprise approximately 37 young EFL learners who are at the starting time in Grade 5/2 of the academic year 2014. The school is a rural primary school in northeastern Thailand. Three English teachers, the school administrators, the parents or the guardians, including the local community are considered as related factors in LA are taken into the account in this ethnographic study. This study employs purely qualitative descriptive data collection, viz. non-intrusive observation, participant observation, interviews, documents/artifacts analyses, students' diaries and the researcher's field notes. It spans across 4 months of the researcher's involvement in one semester in the academic year of 2014 continues to the first semester of 2015 when the students became the sixth graders.

2 Research Findings

2.1 LA and the related environmental factors

2.2 The school administrators

The evaluation criteria that most school administrators endorse are product-based learning, rather process-based learning, while little learner autonomy as process-based learning being cultivated is still questionable. Moreover, the school facilities did not support self-directed learning.

2.1.2 The English teachers

The school's English teachers felt they had teacher autonomy in deciding what to teach and when as

long as the national effectiveness indicators measured by product-based assessment. With high workload, they lacked insufficient time and energy to give detailed, constructive feedbacks to students' work.

2.1.3 The parents/guardians

Most children in the class shared the same difficult experiences and no distinct comparative difference that could cause inferiority complex amongst them. They entrusted the school and teachers in the development of their children's academic life with very few complaints. Most guardians obtained minimal education and often senior in age, mostly farmers, wagers or sellers. That could mean young EFL learners in this study had no immediate more knowledgeable others (MKOs) to nurture their learning.

2.1.4 The local community

Opportunities for LA were quite rare in the rural area. The community's pressing issue was more economics than education. Although, after much explaining, all district administrators and wise persons I interviewed welcomed LA, they were hardly aware of the concept as a potential gateway to the community's educational improvement. As a consequence, they were reluctant to commit the budget for the school to enhance LA.

2.2 Research Question 2: Young EFL learners

2.2.1 Awareness and Readiness for LA. The young EFL learners were aware of the importance of English and LA in theory, but never had practical experiences of it. They tended to be very optimistic of their abilities without much knowledge of their comparative strengths and weaknesses. Finally, they were not familiar with learning by trial and error or taking risks in learning as making a mistake would mean a loss of face and embarrassment.

2.2.2 Willingness and Motivation for LA. The young EFL learners were motivated by fun and enjoyment. The upcoming ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) was cited as integrative motivation. They feared of punishment by the teachers, but valued that the teachers wanted them to improve. Most tended to shy and self-conscious in acting out in front of their classmates.

2.2.3 Cognitive and Metacognitive Abilities. Their decision-making was mostly with low-stake risks. Distinctively, the young EFL learners were most lacking in self-directedness and self-management, namely goal-setting, planning, self-monitoring, self-assessment and the ability in reflection and critical thinking.

2.2.4 Social Dimensions of LA

Rural Thais were collectivist, as opposed to individualist western cultures. The children avoided

uncertainty and ambiguity. The young EFL learners were dutiful and respectful to the teachers and their relationship was high hierarchical distance.

3 Conclusion and Discussions

This research intends to bring attention of policy makers and educational administrators to focus on process-based learning and authentic assessment, rather than purely product-based learning alone. As the Ministry of Education has just announced that schools should provide more time for students to learn rather than spend most of the time in the classrooms. It is the time that the rural Thai educators should cultivate on the learning autonomy culture of children using the project based and outcome based teaching and learning. Teacher development for LA and its practice could now be properly introduced and implemented. Finally, the young EFL learners who were not used to strategic, cognitive and metacognitive learning, could be prepared for more LA with the project work and tasks engaging the students with reflexivity, analytical and critical thinking in addition to fun and enjoyment of learning that children like. Gradual introduction and implementation of self-directed learning in metacognitive abilities have been proved in this study to be practical and beneficial to children with less socio-economic opportunity within the limitation of this study.

4 Significance of the Study

This ethnographic study makes use of the data told through the eyes of young EFL learners themselves. It includes the direct observation of all the related environmental factors which aims to reveal the hidden issues why northeastern young EFL learners comparatively acquire lower academic achievement compared to children in other parts of the country.

5 References

- Aoki, N. & Smith, R. C. (1996). Learner autonomy in cultural context: The case of Japan. *Abstract for paper presented at the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics*. JyvaskyHi, Finland, August 1996.
- Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind and society, the development of higher mental processes*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

The Translation of English Synaesthetic Metaphors into Thai: Some Pedagogical Implications

Suparak Techacharoenrungueang¹ and Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin²

Department of Linguistics,¹ Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand²
suparaktcr@gmail.com, Sudaporn.L@chula.ac.th

Abstract

Synaesthetic metaphor is the conceptual phenomenon in which a linguistic expression encodes one sensory modality through another, for example, cold smell in English, *rot num* “soft/mild taste” in Thai, *bing leng de quang xian* “ice-cold beam” in Chinese, and *futoi koe* “thick voice” in Japanese (Day, 1995; Callejas, 2001; Yu, 2003; Takada, 2008; Wongthai, 2009). This corpus-based study aims to explore the translation of English synaesthetic metaphors into Thai. The data were collected from the English novels and their Thai translated versions. The Metaphor Identification Procedures (PRAGGLEJAZ Group, 2007) and the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) were implemented as the framework of analysis. The results show that three main translation strategies were used to transfer the meanings and forms of English synaesthetic metaphors into Thai; that is, transferring the same concept but different expression, literal paraphrase, and transferring different concept as well as different expression. The strategies conform to metaphor translation strategies introduced by Hiraga (1991), Mandelblit (1995), Deignan (1998), Schaffner (2004) and Rodriguez (2010) as both universality and variation in language and culture play an important role in how a conceptual metaphor from one conceptual system can be transferred to another conceptual system. This study suggests some pedagogical implications in cross-cultural studies, intercultural communication using written narrative discourse, and translation.

Keywords

Synaesthetic metaphor, Translation, Culture

Introduction

Synaesthetic metaphor refers to “a frequent phenomenon for vocabulary from one perceptual domain to be used to describe phenomena in another domain (Dancygier and Sweetser, 2014). It is not only the linguistic phenomenon but also the conceptual phenomenon. Examples of synaesthetic metaphors can be found in different languages, for example, cold smell in English, *rot num* “soft/mild

taste” in Thai, *bing leng de quang xian* “ice-cold beam” in Chinese, and *futoi koe* “thick voice” in Japanese, *giong chua* “high-pitched sound (literally sour sound).”

1. Research Design

The data were collected from the corpus of 6 English novels with Thai translated version. In this case, English source language texts were selected based on the popularity of the novels and the availability of the Thai translation. The Metaphor Identification Procedures (PRAGGLEJAZ Group, 2007) and the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) were implemented as the selection of the data and the framework of analysis.

2. Findings and Discussions

2.1 Synaesthetic Metaphors in English

500 expressions of English synaesthetic expressions were identified. They represented the co-occurrence patterns of sensory modalities from table 1.

Table 1. The co-occurrence patterns of sensory modalities

Co-occurrence	Frequency	Example
Auditory+tactile	173	His voice was sharp.
Auditory+visual	152	tiny voices
Auditory+Gustatory	20	made my voice sweet
Visual+tactile	92	A cold stare
Visual+gustatory	4	sweet smile
Olfactory+gustatory	24	Sour smell
Olfactory+visual	5	the dim scent
Olfactory+tactile	16	Catch the scent
Gustatory+tactile	1	A sudden stabbing sweetness
Tactile+visual	5	Small heat
Aud+vis+gus	1	High, bitter voice
Aud+tac+vis	5	her voice surprisingly sharp and even
Olf+tac+gus	2	the warm, spicy scent

2.2 The Translation of English Synaesthetic Metaphors into Thai

It was found that six translation strategies were employed in the translation of English synaesthetic metaphors into Thai as in Table 2.

Table 2. Translation strategies in the translation of English synaesthetic metaphors into Thai

According to table 2, transferring the same concept, with different wording showed the greatest number followed by the literal paraphrasing, and the transferring of different concepts as well as the use of different wording. These were the three main strategies found in the translation of English

Translation strategies	Frequency	Examples
Transferring the same concept with the same wording	40	SL: There are strange <i>sour smells</i> . TL: มีกลิ่นเหม็นเปรี้ยวแปลกๆ (<i>smell-stink-sour</i>)
Transferring the same concept, but different wording	253	SL: I fix her with <i>a cold stare</i> . TL: ผมจ้องเธอด้วยสายตาอันเย็นเยือก (<i>eye-that-cold-cold</i>)
Transferring different concepts as well as different wording	86	SL: I <i>rebuked</i> her <i>sharply</i> TL: ถิ่นดูหล่อนเสียงเขียว (<i>sound-green</i>)
Substitution of another conceptual metaphor	16	SL: There was <i>a long silence</i> . TL: เงียบกันไปวัดใจหนึ่งเต็มๆ (<i>silent...heart-once-full-full</i>)
Literary paraphrase	96	SL: Roux grinned, and Joline <i>looked sour</i> . TL: รูซิ้มกว้าง ส่วนโจลินแสดงอาการไม่ชอบใจ (<i>express-dissatisfaction</i>)
Omission	9	SL: She <i>murmurs softly</i> , "Oh, Noah...I've missed you." TL: เธอพึมพำออกมาว่า "โอ โนอาห์ ฉันคิดถึงคุณเหลือเกิน" (<i>murmur</i>)

synaesthetic metaphors into Thai. The strategies conform to metaphor translation strategies introduced by Hiraga (1991), Mandelblit (1995), Deignan (1998), Schaffner (2004) and Rodriguez (2010) as both universality and variation in language and culture play an important role in how a conceptual metaphor from one conceptual system can be transferred to another conceptual system.

3. Conclusions and Implications

The present study explores the strategies used in the translation of English synaesthetic metaphors into Thai. The findings show that English synaesthetic metaphors are constituted according to the co-occurrence patterns of senses. Such patterns are "conceptual metaphors" found in the source language. The translation strategies found include 1) the transferring of the same concept with the same wording in Thai; 2) the transferring of the same concept with different wording in Thai; 3) the transferring of different concepts as well as different wording between English and Thai; 4) the substitution of another conceptual metaphor; 5) the literal paraphrase of the metaphor; and 6) the

omission. We suggest that implication from this study is relevant to cross-cultural studies and intercultural communication as Schaffner (2004) suggested that "Metaphors provide an entailment of "cultural differences in conceptual structures" which can be observed from the translated expressions." Additionally, for translation, it can be introduced as the way to comprehend the source language text. Some may find a difference between a concept and its realized expression in the source and the target text cultures. It does not mean that it is the translation error, but it is "a shift of perspective" (Deignan et al, 1997).

4. References

- Bretones Callejas, Carmen. (2001). Synaesthetic metaphors in English. ICSI Technical Report, 8 September 2001, Available at <http://www.icsi.berkeley.edu/techreports> (accessed 24 November 2014).
- Deignan, Alice, Gabrys, Danuta & Solska, Agnieszka (1997). "Teaching English metaphors using cross-linguistic awareness-raising activities", in: ELT Journal 51, 352-360.
- Hiraga, M. (1991). Metaphor and Comparative Cultures. In P.G.J. Fendos (Ed.). Crosscultural Communication: East and West, Volume 3 (pp. 149-166). Taiwan: Tai Cheng Publishing.
- Lakoff, George and Johnson, Mark. (1980b). Metaphors we live by. London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Mandelbilt, N. (1995). The Cognitive View of Metaphor and its Implications for Translation Theory. In M. Thelen & B. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (Eds.). Translation and Meaning (pp. 95-483). Maastricht, Netherlands: Universitaire Pars Maastricht.
- Pragglejaz Group. (2007). MIP: A Method for Identifying Metaphorically Used Words in Discourse. Metaphor and Symbol. Vol 22(1), 1-39.
- Rodriguez Marquez, M. M. (2010). Patterns of Translation of Metaphor in Annual Reports in American English and Mexican Spanish. PhD Thesis, University of Surrey.
- Schäffner, C. (2004). Metaphor and Translation. Some Implications of a Cognitive Approach. Journal of Pragmatics. Vol 36(7), 1253-1269.
- Ullmann, Stephen. (1962). Semantics: An introduction to science of meaning. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Williams, Joseph M. (1976). Synaesthetic adjectives: a possible law of semantic change. Language, Vol. 52 No. 2, 461-478.
- Wongthai, Nuntana. (2009). Synaesthetic metaphors in Thai: a cognitive linguistic study. PhD Thesis, Thammasart University.

The Effects of Alcohol on speech analysis of L2 Learner

DaSol Lee

Kangwon National University
2dasolee@gmail.com

Abstract

How alcohol affects L2 learner? Does it give positive effects or not? Researchers have seen that intoxication with alcohol influences certain speech features. However, most of these studies did not focus on alcohol effects on L2 learners. In this report, it will focus on alcohol influences on English learners of Korean. Audio recordings were made of male talkers producing lists of words and sentences under a sober condition and an intoxicated condition. Participants will be given tense and lax vowel words and sentences focusing on pitch rate.

Alcohol, as a result, certainly decreased intensity of learner's anxiety. Pitch level ascended after drinking.

Keywords

Somber, intoxication, L2 learners, alcohol, anxiety

Introduction

What are the most difficulties for L2 learners? One of problems is anxiety. As language system is different from language, L2 learners are daunted when they speak target language. They get scared of making mistakes. Acoustic system fits to mother tongue in childhood that interfere learners to speak fluently. It is not easy to correct second language pronunciation after mother tongue system is fixed.

This paper focuses how alcohol affects L2 learner's speech and what phenomenon appears. Whether alcohol gives positive aspects or negative aspects will be emphasized.

1 Backgrounds

Alcoholic intoxication (AI) is investigated for many years. Well known feature is that alcohol influences cognitive and motor processes of human. Alcohol affects speech production. People in intoxication states tend to make more speech errors. Alcohol influenced visual acuity, depth perception, and auditory system. Reaction time takes longer, the alcohol distracts concentration rates, and it blocks achievement of complex tasks (Chin and Pisoni 1997). These studies have generally concentrated on speech errors after consuming alcohol (Lester and Skousen 1974). Likewise, participants tend to make many mistakes after drinking. It is because of

distracting effects of alcohol.

Preceded data are limited to alcohol cognition and negative features of speech production.

In this study, it focuses on research on correlation of speech production of L2 learner and alcohol.

Research questions are followed upon;

- 1) Consuming alcohol helps learners get more confidence?
- 2) How alcohol affects to intonation?

2 Methods

A. Participants

Four male research participants were involved. All participants were college educated and had no hearing or speaking difficulty. They were in 22 age range. English was considered as a foreign language. Their proficiency level was about 755 points in TOIEC test.

B. Speech material

Speech materials were minimal pairs of words with tense and lax vowels that Koreans feel difficult to distinguish. Sentences were investigated to measure how pitch changes.

No.	vowels	words
1	i	heed
2	ɪ	hid
3	ε	head
4	æ	had
5	u	who'd
6	ʊ	hood

Table 1. Targeted vowels

No.	sentence
s1	If the birthday party wasn't for Mary, then who was it for?
s2	Jane saw a picture of the boy she was fond of.
s3	He was invited to a costume party as a guest, but what did he dress as?

Table 2. Sentences

C. Procedure

The experimental procedure used on the data acquisition consisted of four stages: 1) participants were given to do “Anxiety scale survey” 2) sober condition recordings 3) having alcohol 4) recorded in intoxication condition.

To measure how the participants were in sober and intoxication, breathalyzer was used. Intoxication condition was considered after 0.15% BAC.

Recordings were made by a microphone using the computer program AUDACITY, analysis were done by the computer program PRAAT.

3 Results

The results are as follows. Anxiety level of learners was somewhat high. From 24 questions, average anxiety score was 2.9 (total 5 points) which means learners have some points of anxiety. Participants mentioned that they feel scared of having recording time. Alcohol had effects on learners' anxiety level to decrease. Learners' attitude to the material was more comfortable than in sober. There was no distinctive change in pronunciation. However, pitch rate change to increase. Alcohol is well known for sedatives. This feature worked to L2 learners to be relaxed when speaking. Rising rates of pitch explains that learners got more confident.

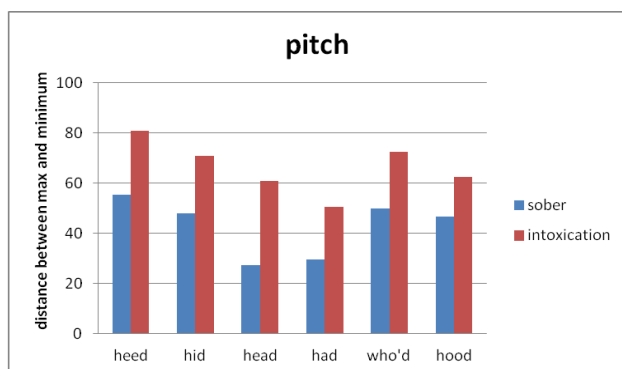


Figure 1. Differences between maximum and minimum

In Figure 1, the result for the pitch was distinctively changed after drinking. Distance between sober and intoxication was about 15 to 33.

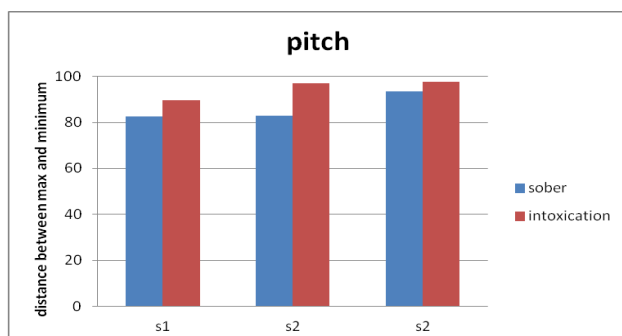


Figure 2. Differences between maximum and minimum

Pitch rate of sentences 1, 2 and 3 had differences as well. Rates had been raised. After having alcohol, it made big gap between maximum and minimum pitch which could be said learners tend to make more intonation.

4 Discussion

Goal of this study is to analyze effects of alcohol in L2 learner. The results came out that alcohol is clearly have positive influence on learner's confidence. There were no change in VOT and phonetic values. However, changing of pitch rate presents gap between sober and intoxication condition. Simultaneously, they tend to make higher and lower pitch than in sober condition. Learners made clear intonation contour.

Therefore, the reason why people think they have better pronunciation after drinking is because of the differences in pitch.

5 Conclusion

To conclude, let us consider the effects of alcohol in terms of reducing intensity of learners' anxiety and helping to have high and low of sound. Our results show that alcohol can be temporary effective to learner's confidence.

There are many limitations on this paper. The number of participants was limited to draw more precise results.

Further study is needed on how it can be apply to correct the learners' pronunciation errors.

6 References

- Yang, B. (1996). A comparative study of American English and Korean vowels produced by male and female speakers. *Journal of Phonetics*, 24, 245–261.
- Pisoni, D. B., & Martin, C. S. (1989). Effects of Alcohol on the Acoustic-Phonetic Properties of Speech: Perceptual and Acoustic Analyses. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, 13(4), 577–587.
- Schiel, F., Heinrich, C., Barfusser, S., & Gilg, T. (2008, May). ALC: Alcohol Language Corpus. In LREC.
- Chin, S. B., & Pisoni, D. B. (1997). *Alcohol and speech*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Lester, L., & Skousen, R. (1974). The phonology of drunkenness. In A. Bruck, R. Fox, & M. W. LaGaly (Eds.), *Papers from the parasession on natural phonology* (pp. 233–239). Chicago: Linguistic Society.

An Interlanguage Study of English Discourse Connectors in Argumentative Essays Written by Native and Non-native English Speakers

Kamolphan Jangarun¹ and Sudaporn Luksaneeyanawin²

¹Ph.D. candidate, ²Senior Expert, Graduate Program in English as an International Language
Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand
nukhing@gmail.com, sudaporn.l@chula.ac.th

Abstract

This study aimed to investigate how native speakers of English (NSs) and non-native speakers of English (NNSs) used English discourse connectors (DCs) in argumentative essays. The NNS group was composed of the high-English exposure (NNSHs) and the low-English exposure (NNSLs). These 3 sample groups were stratified random sampling. The essays are written on the same theme. The data of the NS group are from the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), the NNS data are selected from 250 Thai university students based on their English exposure scores. There are 5 classes of DCs understudied (Halliday and Hasan, 1977; Biber et al., 1999; and Cowan, 2008), i.e., Additive, Adversative, Causal, Temporal, and Continuatives. It was found that all the 3 sample groups used all of the 5 classes of DCs in their writing. The Additive class was most frequently used by all groups. However, in the Temporal class, the NSs rarely used DCs of the summation sub-class, such as, “to conclude”, “to sum up”, and “in summary”. It is interesting to discover that the NNSLs used the low frequency DCs, such as, “nonetheless”, “nevertheless”, and “meanwhile” which were not found used in the essays of the NSs in this study.

Keywords

Discourse Connectors (DCs), Argumentative Essays, English Language Exposure, English as a Foreign Language, Interlanguage

Introduction

Of all the language skills, writing has been proven to be the most difficult skill for ESL and EFL students, and even for native speakers of English (Norrish, 1983). Dik (1997) suggested that conjunctions or discourse connectors (DCs) are one of the main factors which show the degree of coherence of a discourse. This observation is supported by Liu and Braine (2005) as they have found a correlation between cohesive devices and successful writings. It was found that the use of DCs is one of the most significant problems in ESL and EFL students' essay (Goldman & Murray, 1992;

Granger and Tyson 1996; Narita et al., 2003; Prommas and Sinwongsuwat, 2011). This research will be focused on the comparison of the DCs usage in argumentative essays among English native speakers (NSs), non-native speakers of English with high-English exposure (NNSHs) and non-native speakers of English with low-English exposure (NNSLs) in order to find out the similarities and the differences of use in these three sample groups.

1 Research Design

The population in this study was composed of three groups: the undergraduate native speakers of English, and the two groups of Thai undergraduate students. The data of the NSs were selected from LOCNESS which is compiled by the Centre for English Corpus Linguistics of the Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium. We found out that the corpus from the University of Michigan coding ICLE-US-MITCH were the argumentative essays written by NSs. There are 43 essays altogether, the ten argumentative essays that write about computers were selected for this study. In order to select the two NNS sample groups for this research, the English Language Exposure Questionnaires (Centre for Research in Speech and Language Processing-CRSLP, 2002, 2011) were distributed to 250 Thai students from different universities in and around Bangkok. They were also asked to write an argumentative essay on the topic “Computer and its Impact on People's Lives” in which they were to discuss both the advantages and disadvantages of computers. The essays of the ten students who got the highest English exposure scores, and the ten students who got the lowest score were selected for interlanguage study.

2 Findings and Discussions

2.1 DCs usage in the 3 sample groups

As shown in Table 1, there are 3 main differences of the use of DCs in the 3 sample groups. It is found that Additives are used in a very high percentage by all the three groups. The differences in the percentage of DC usage between NSs and NNSs are

clearly seen, firstly, in the use of Additive and Temporal. The use of Additive by NSs is highest (54.46%) compared to the NNSs (H: 43.20%, and L: 45.80). Secondly, it is found that the use of Temporal in NSs was distinctively low compared to NNSs. The percentage showed that NNSs produced a lot more Temporal than NSs, i.e., almost 4 times more (NNSH: 16.80%, NNSL: 11.72%, and NS: 4.46). Lastly, Continuatives is found very little, and only in the NNSHs. Causal is used almost at the same amount in both NSs and NNSs.

Table 1. Percentage of DCs usage in the three sample groups (N=10)

	NSs	NNSHs	NNSLs
Additive	54.46	43.2	45.8
Adversative	23.21	19.2	24.57
Causal	17.83	18.54	17.86
Temporal	4.46	16.8	11.72
Continuatives	0	1.6	0

3 Conclusion and discussion

It can be concluded that both the NNSs groups used a wide variety of DC lexis compared to the NSs. Many of the lexis are not found used by NSs, for example, the Additive “moreover”, “furthermore”, “besides”, and “meanwhile” are found used by NNSs while NSs only use simple DC lexis such as “and”, “also”, and “or”. In the Adversative, NNSLs also used the low frequency lexis like “nevertheless”, and “nonetheless”. These two lexis are rarely found in everyday conversation. The varieties of DC lexis in NNSs are also found in the use of Temporal, i.e., “to sum up”, “to conclude”, and “in summary”. Both NNS groups have a similar pattern in the use of the “Ordering” sub-class of the Temporal, the words “first”, “firstly”, “second”, “secondly” are found widely used among them. We can imply from what we found that it could be the effect of the Transfer of Training, as NNSs learn language through formal learning and “Ordering” is a very good mnemonic device that teachers commonly used in teaching, while NSs learn English from communicative context where this class is hardly used. Teaching materials especially commercial textbooks are also one of the factors that has an effect on the NNS use of fancy lexis in inappropriate context. The error use of “although” with “but” by NNSLs can be considered as L1 Transfer from Thai conjunction structure. This negative transfer is found in their developmental Interlanguage stage. The error “*in the other hand” for “on the other hand” of the NNSL is also another transfer from Thai. We can conclude that both the NNSH and the NNSL groups share the similarity of DC usage, and their DC usage is quite different from the NSs DCs usage.

4 References

- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Essex: Pearson Education, Limited.
- Center of Excellence for Research in Speech and Language Processing-CRSLP. 2002. Language Exposure Questionnaire. Chulalongkorn University. Revised 2011.
- Centre for English Corpus Linguistics (CECL), Universite Catholique de Louvain, Belgium.
- Cowan, R. (2008). *The teacher's grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dik, S.C. (1997). *The theory of functional grammar, part 1: the structure of the clause*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Goldman, R.S., & Murray, D. J. (1992). Knowledge of connectors as cohesion devices in text: a comparative study of native-English and English-as-a second-language speakers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84 (4), 504-519.
- Granger, S., & Tyson, S. (1996). Connector usage in the English essay writing of native and non-native EFL speakers of English. *World Englishes*, 15 (1), 17-27.
- Halliday, M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Liu, M., & Braine, G. (2005). Cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by Chinese undergraduates. *System*, 33, 623-636.
- Narita, M., Sato, C., & Sugiura, M. (2003a). The use of linking adverbials in the English essay writing of Japanese EFL Learners. In *Proceedings of ASIALEX 2003*, 440-444.
- Norrish, J. (1983). *Language learners and their errors*. London: The Macmillan Press Ltd.
- Prommas, P & Sinwongsuwat, K. (2011). A comparative study of discourse connectors used in argumentative compositions produced by Thai EFL learners and English-native speakers. *Proceedings-English Studies in Various Contexts*. Thailand, 3, 1-17.

Increased Cultural Awareness through CCDL Experience

Ji Hye Choi and Sun Ah Kim

Department of English Language and Literature, Kangwon National University
jehea411@naver.com, sunahkim39@gmail.com

Abstract

The Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) program allows students to interact and converse in English with students from foreign countries. The level of cultural awareness prior to engaging in this program appeared to be significantly low in comparison to the increased knowledge after completing the program.

Keywords

Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL), cultural awareness, limited knowledge

Introduction

Cultural awareness is a crucial aspect of international communication. It not only encompasses awareness of other cultures but also knowledge and acceptance of them. Prior to completing the Cross Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL) program, a majority of the students had limited knowledge of one another's cultures. However, by communicating and interacting with one another on given topics related to personal interests, lifestyles, and/or traditions, students were able to increase their cultural awareness. It was evident that many Japanese students were familiar with certain aspects of Korean culture, such as our entertainment industry, whereas Korean students had general awareness of the historical background of Korea and Japan as well as Japanese food and other specialties the country is generally given credit for. After completing the program, the students showed signs of increased cultural awareness, resulting in extensive conversations.

1 Cultural awareness prior to CCDL

Despite the fact that South Korea and Japan are extremely close geographically and actually share quite a bit of history together, university students who partook in the CCDL program were strikingly unfamiliar with one another's cultures. It was found that a number of students were completely oblivious to the bilateral relationship between the two countries, while some had very limited knowledge of the lifestyles and values of their

CCDL partners. Most Japanese students seemed insensitive to the historical background between the

two countries and rather showed more interest in the current boosting entertainment business of Korea, and were aware of a few well-known K-pop groups or celebrities from Korean dramas. On the other hand, many Korean students were more knowledgeable of the history between the two countries and common Japanese specialties such as animation and sushi. This lack of cultural awareness inevitably causes difficulty when trying to engage in a conversation with individuals of different backgrounds and languages.

2 Cross Cultural Distance Learning program

The primary goal of the CCDL program is to provide students with an opportunity to chat and engage in conversations with people in the English language, not necessarily to increase cultural awareness. However, as the program proceeded, it was evident that interacting and cooperating with others with inadequate background information cannot easily be done. Hence, to assist students who lack cultural awareness, given topics were carefully chosen to help initiate a conversation. Without a specific topic, the content of the conversations are likely to be repeated in every session and the CCDL program would simply be a time for students to talk to foreign friends without gaining any cultural or educational knowledge. The CCDL program provided topics such as "university life in Japan/Korea," or "places I would like to visit," which led to conversations about what Japanese or Korean students do during vacations, popular lunch menus at school, whether eating alone in the school cafeteria is common, or why people from either Japan or Korea view a certain place as an ideal attraction to visit.

Although several students who participated in the program were advanced English speakers, many majored in fields with no relation to the English language and were not comfortable with English conversation, more so typing in the language. Hence, many students struggled to express their thoughts and keep the conversation going. With the help of the given topics, students were able to connect with one another and

acknowledge the differences or similarities between their ways of life and thinking. Their cultural awareness built up gradually which led to deeper conversations by applying the accumulated knowledge about each other's cultures.

3 Increased cultural awareness through CCDL

Students in Korea and Japan do not get a chance to communicate in English very often as English is still considered a foreign language in both countries. Through the CCDL program, students were encouraged to take part in an activity that not only helped them develop their English skills, but cultural awareness as well. Students of Kangwon National University and Waseda University learned about one another's cultures with the assistance of given topics to help lead the conversation. They were able to find out the differences and similarities in the lifestyles of university students in both Korea and Japan and view those ideas from the perspective of those who do not come from the same background. The students not only became aware of certain cultural aspects and different outlooks of people from other countries, but also learned to acknowledge and accept the differences through the Cross Cultural Learning program.

Korean Cameroon university students' opinions of learning

English as a foreign Language

Blaise Adeh Atanga

Korea Nazarene University
adehfru@yahoo.com

Abstract

There are efforts in the Korean system of education to improve on their English language abilities in order to make them better placed in the world market. English is used as one of official languages in Cameroon and plays a great role to study in abroad and helps to find jobs in the world market.

This presentation aims to exploit university students in Korea's perception on how English language in Korea can be improved. At this age, most students already know the importance of English language but are unable to actually use the language when required.

Here the student's opinions are sampled and a general conclusion is made and proposals for further research are listed.

Keywords

Foreign language

Introduction

According to www.merriam-webster.com, learning is an activity or process of gaining knowledge or skill by studying, practicing, being taught, or experiencing something.

In today's world of knowledge-based revolution, where knowledge is essential for creating value, the English language has become the most essential tool for conducting global communication.

English language is accepted as the common language for commerce and knowledge. Three quarters of the world's top 100 universities listed by Newsweek magazine recently for helping to create knowledge are located in countries where English is the first language of communication (Jeon, 2006).

Korean students study English language as a foreign language with fewer opportunities to practice or actually express themselves in this new language since their official language is Korean Language. While on the other hand, English language is one of the official languages spoken in Cameroon (the other being French Language). It will therefore be of great academic importance if we sample the views of students from both countries on how the English learning process

should be conducted.

1 Research Method

The study recruited university students (N=30, to get a good sample size), 15 Koreans and 15 Cameroonians. The interviews were in the form of an English free talk. This was to eliminate the mistake fear factor in Korean students.

The questions asked centered around the idea of how they see and value English and how teaching can be improved.

2 Results and Analysis

90% of Korean students consider English language as a subject which they need to study and get a good mark in order to get into a good university while Cameroonian 100% students consider the English language as a basic necessity as they are required to use it daily life.

From the Korean student's perspective, there is always a good communication between students and teacher in the classroom setting. They listen, read and answer questions asked. But once they out of the classroom, the flow of the communication stops. While for Cameroonian students, normal daily life communication is in English. Korean students confess that they will love to use English more but due to their environment, they use English most at times when they come across a foreigner.

When asked on how they can improve on their English learning strategies, Korean students talked of the need to overcome the fear factor of making wrong sentences while Cameroonian students were quick to point out the fact of setting a solid foundation during their elementary education.

Majority of the Korean students found it very difficult to express their selves so we might as well think that much information was not gotten.

3 Conclusion

ESL students should make the new language part their lives and not only take English serious during college entrance examination or job interviews but they should use it on a daily basis. There should

also be more emphasis in using English language as the main language in teaching other subjects.

4 References

Patricia H. Hamm, (2005). The Sheridan Center
Handbook – Teaching and
Persuasive
Communication2.

Jeon Hyo-Chan (2006). The Economics of English.

[http://www.merriam-
webster.com/dictionary/dictionary](http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/dictionary)(retrieved
5/9/2015)

<http://www.englishteachingkorea.com>

On the Principle of Anticipation in Simultaneous Interpretation

from the Perspective of Effort Model

Xu Tian¹

¹Harbin Engineering University

1058981786@qq.com

Abstract

This paper attempts to confirm the essential role that anticipation plays in SI. Teaching students how to apply language in SI. SI boasts high delivery rate, technicality of the topic, large and intensive amount of information. Nevertheless, the application of various SI strategies is greatly conducive to the consummation of SI task. Anticipation, which this paper is designed to focus on, is just one of the crucial strategies in SI and students should study it. The author explain that the Effort Model and the anticipation. The perspective of Effort Model on SI and anticipated methods, the effort model theory and application of the main content, expressed the importance of prediction. This paper first explains what is simultaneous interpretation, the further introduction of various aspects of the prediction and prediction method, and then based on the Gile's Effort Model as the theoretical basis, explaining what is the Effort Model, and students how to use this theory for application in SI.

Keywords

Simultaneous Interpreting, The Effort Model, Anticipatory Strategies

Introduction

In the simultaneous interpretation, the human brain is a limited resource. When dealing with multiple tasks at the same time, it requires a balanced allocation of attention. If attention to saturation, or pay attention to unbalanced, may lead to cognitive overload, and impact the of task execution. In view of this phenomenon, Daniel. Gil put forward the theory of Effort Model. According to this model, the total amount of attention must be less than the brain can provide interpreter. In the each process of interpreting requires attention also must be less than the brain can provide attention." That is to say, the brain processing capacity in interpreting ability must more than interpretation which required.

According to the theory of Gil, this paper intends to study the prediction methods of simultaneous interpretation. Anticipation in the

simultaneous interpretation is an essential strategy,

forecasting to know about the speaker and speech, background information, changing from passive to active. The significance of this research lies in the reasonable distribution of the interpreter's energy to ensure the efficiency and quality of translation.

This paper mainly describes the aspects of anticipation, the importance of anticipation and the main contents of the Effort Model According to this theory, we can have better anticipation and the anticipation techniques etc.

1 The Effort Model

The effort model, which is initiated by Daniel Gile, is a great contribution to the interpreting studies. Daniel Gile constructs his effort model on the basis of the idea of processing capacity requirements and processing capacity limitations. It is this information processing model that helps explain the fundamental difficulty in SI and find possible ways to alleviate the interpreters' workload.

2 Anticipatory Strategies Simultaneous in Interpreting

Simultaneous interpretation is different from other forms of interpretation. It is a concentration of listening and analysis, short-term memory and the target language expression, which integrates the interpreting process. From the target language to the another language conversion, the interpreter should multitask in order to complete all aspects of information processing work, listening, analysis, memory and expression must be coordinate to guarantee the quality of simultaneous interpreters.²

In this process, the translator will inevitably encounter all kinds of problems because of the mental overload. Therefore, the interpreter must

² This paper is written for researching SI in Haerbin Engineering University

take the appropriate strategies to reduce mental burden and improve the ability of information processing. Simultaneous interpretation has a lot of techniques, and prediction is one of the very important skill.

3 Effect of Effort Model on the Anticipatory Strategies of SI

The Effort model proposed for the SI process is very strong explanation strength. The energy distribution is reasonable, in the process of simultaneous interpretation is not to exceed the energy that can provide generally, away from the overload. The interpreter to alleviate short-term memory effort in the prediction process, reducing the energy loss, for listening and verbal output distribution more energy. Generally speaking, the distribution of energy of Effort Model theory can help the interpreters have more reasonable explain when interpreting, providing the better prediction, a theoretical framework for prediction, to apply the best for the theoretical model.

4 Conclusion

Simultaneous interpretation is complicated by the variety of jobs - listening and analysis, short memory, language generation overlapping cross language transformation dynamic. To reduce the Effort of these operations on the brain, the interpreter will need to translate the below forecasts, to minimize your brain burden. The prediction strategy will make the information analysis, reorganization and translation easily, but also having more time and energy to mental processing and Information so as to improve the whole performance of the translator.

The Effort Model theory is also very good for prediction strategy of SI. It has laid a theoretical foundation, putting forward a reasonable distribution model from the point of energy distribution. This model has also brought the significance and deeping for simultaneous interpretation. The interpreter does not overload the effort to better serve the people.

5 References

- Chernov, G. V. (1992) : Message Redundancy And message Anticipation in Simultaneous Interpreting in Lamber. S. Moser-Mercer (ed.) Bridging the Gap Empirical Research in Simultaneous interpreting.
- Gile, D (1995) : Basic Concepts and Models fog Interpreter and Translator training Amsterdam Philadelphia, John Benjamins.
- Lederer, M. (1984) : Interpreter Pour Traduire Paris : Didier Erudition.
- Seleskovitch, D. Les anticipations comprehension [A]. D. Seleskovitch&M. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.(2004)
- Van Besien F. (1999): Anticipation in Simultaneous interpreting, Meta, 44(2)
- Cai Xiaohong,(2002), editor in chief of interpretation research, a new method, new ideas,new trend [C]. Hongkong: the publishing house.
- Fu Bing. Prediction strategy of simultaneous interpretation in Chinese and English [A].
- Liu Biqing.(2004), Translation theory [M]. Beijing: Chinese Translation Publishing Company.
- Liu Heping, (2005:39-42).II translation theory and teaching [N]11. Beijing: China Foreign Translation Publishing Company.
- Zhang Wei(1999:126)is [M]. Beijing: China Foreign Translation Publishing Company.

English Language Testing Techniques and Policies Used in Cameroon

Elvis Fru

Korea Nazarene University
ndeelvis2007@yahoo.ca

Abstract

“The overwhelming increase in world Englishes and the demand of the English language in academic fields, businesses, job sites and for general interaction has prompted the increase in the perfection of the English language by learners, business associates and teachers. Such perfections have been achieved by the use of English language testing techniques and policies around the world. Examples of such testing techniques use in English language testing in Cameroon are the multiple choice question (MCQ) used for testing grammar and vocabulary, reading and listening comprehension, essay writing, directed writing, structurals and oral proficiency interview (OPI). Such testing techniques have gone through the various testing processes such as the testing cycle, the rating process, validation process and measurement of the test which are influenced by different policies of the testing organization and the government of Cameroon through the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E) Board and higher institutions in Cameroon. This presentation focuses on various testing techniques employed in Cameroon in particular by the Cameroon General certificate of Education Board and also the TOEFL and IELTS testing centers of Cameroon organized by the American organization and British council respectively. It will also involve a critique of various testing techniques and types in Cameroon. Such a research has been carried out by Grant Henning (1987) in his book “A guide to Language Testing, Development and Evaluation”.

Keywords.

Test or Testing, Assessment, Validity, Authenticity, Reliability, Practicability, Washback, Quantitative and qualitative measurement or rating, Rater, Test provider and Test taker, ESL and EFL.

Introduction.

Language testing is often a formalized or a collection of task (s) designed to determine a

test taker's ability, knowledge or intelligence. It is also defined as the judgement made about a test taker's ability, knowledge, or intelligence, based on his/her test performance. The word testing is often used in conjunction with assessment. Assessment can be defined as judging the ability of learners based on test and using this judgement as a constructive element on learning over time (Alan, 1999). Assessment could also be defined as identifying or evaluating the current condition or progress of someone. Language assessment could be formative or summative. Testing is one of the main tools being used in our day-to-day lives. Language testing is very important in that it plays a very important role in people's lives, acting as gateways to important transitional moments in education, employment and in moving from one country to another. Secondly, as a teacher, administrator, teaching to a test, administering a test or relying on information from a test to make decisions on the placement of students on particular courses, we need the understanding of language testing.

Lastly, if you are a language researcher, you may need to have measures of the language proficiency of your subjects. For this you need either to choose an appropriate existing language test or design your own.

4 Classification of English language Testing Techniques.

Tests differ with respect to how they are designed (test methods) and what they are for (test purpose). With respect to test methods, we can distinguish between the paper and pencil language tests from performance tests. The paper and pencil language tests take the traditional examination paper where a candidate is required to write down the correct answer on the sheet provided. It is often used to test grammar vocabulary and other parts of speech. An important example for this type of tests is the fixed response format type of test

typically the MCQ. Another type of tests based on test method are the performance tests.

Also, based in test purposes, there is the Achievement tests and the proficiency tests. Examples of the proficiency tests are the TOEFL, IELTS, and TOICE tests. An example of an achievement tests will be the routine end of course examination or other tests to check understanding after a course of study.

1 FIVE THINGS TO WATCH OUT IN A TEST.

As an English teacher, this is what to check for in a test before administering it.

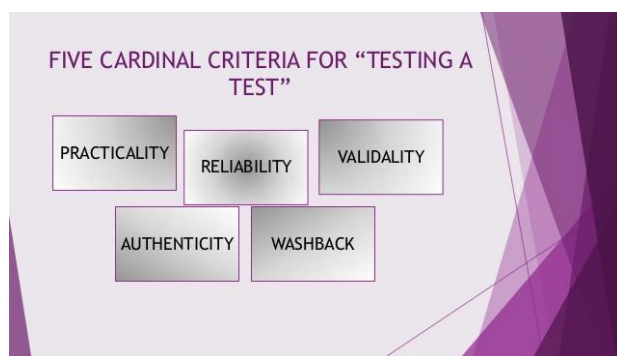


Figure1.1.1:Characteristics of a good tests (Mcnamara, 2000).

2 Rating procedure and score distribution of a normal English language class.

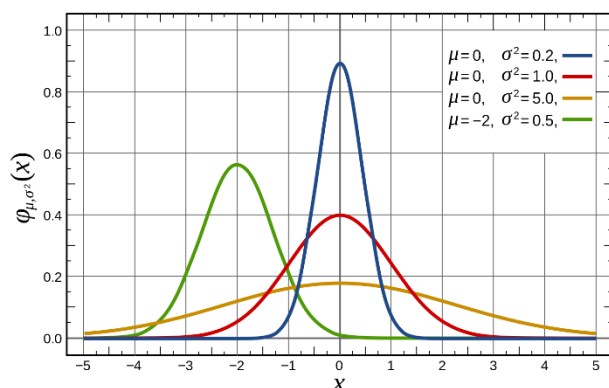


Figure 1.2.1: Normal distribution curves for different classes.

2.0 Cameroon English language testing

organization.

The ministry of secondary and higher education in Cameroon is responsible for the testing of the English language through the Cameroon general certificate of education board. This test is held annually by candidates that have completed 12 years of education in Cameroon. It is an integrative test. It is made up of four section that is the vocabulary and grammar(25%), listening comprehension and directed writing (25%), reading comprehension (20%) and lastly essay writing(30%). The C.G.C.E board is responsible for the validation and rating of the test. The board is made up of renown university English language researchers in Cameroon who work with the government to see the success of the test.

References.

- Alan Davies (1996). "*Mark My Words*". Language testing research center, university of Melbourne.
- Alan Davies(1999). "*Dictionary of language testing*". Cambridge university press.
- Tim Mcnamara (2000). "*Language Testing*". Introduction to language testing.
- www.gceb.org

Who Were the Actors in the Policy Making Process

for English Language Education in Postwar Japan?

Aota, Shoma

Graduate School, The University of Tokyo
blueden@p.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to reveal characteristics of the actors who have impacted the policy making process of English language education (ELE) in postwar Japan. Though previous studies discuss recent Japanese ELE policies, the viewpoint of ‘actors’ is strangely neglected in them. By means of normative approach, some previous studies discuss recent ELE policies with a focus on their content. To examine the structure of ELE policy, we adopted the descriptive approach instead of normative one. This viewpoint and methodology give the present study its great originality.

We inspected the conference minutes of the Japanese diet as a main material, which can be freely accessed and downloaded from ‘the online retrieval system for the conference minutes’ (<http://kokkai.ndl.go.jp/>). The data of the participants whose statements contain the term ‘English language education’ were selected. Additionally, their personal data such as their birthplace were gathered from some other source books for the Japanese diet.

The primary results were as follows: the increase of a ratio of peripheral participants, the decrease of a ratio of political actors. On the basis of these findings, the present author discussed the structures of the ELE policy making process so as to reveal the power system of it.

Keywords

English Language Education Policy, Policy-making process, Actors, Historical Study, Japan

Introduction

Over the past 30 years, ELE has become a major political concern in Japan: some special councils have been created under the government initiative, such as “A council on the future English language education” (*eigo kyouiku no arikata ni kansuru yuushikisha kaigi*). This kind of councils for other school subjects is little seen in Japan

As some studies have already been bitterly critical of the government’s fickle and sloppy approaches, the policy making process of ELE must be put the academic focus in ELE studies. To understand the process, we investigate actors (or participants) who involved themselves in it.

Exclusive focus on English may have positive aspects. However, we must not ignore negative aspect. If we feel an affinity toward English speaking countries so much that we tend to become estranged from other countries such as neighboring Asian countries, education policies focusing too much on ELE should not be agreed to unreservedly.

1 Literature Review

Though the previous studies have mentioned the policies, in revealing the eccentric structure where English language is reckoned as the vital agenda, two main problems seem to lie in them. Firstly, what seems to be lacking is investigating ELE policies themselves. In other words, previous studies discuss within the policy-related areas instead of these policies themselves. For typical example, some studies about ELE textbooks, such as task analysis or content analysis, mention the ELE policies (e.g., Kobayakawa, 2011). Secondly, little attention has been given to the policy making process and much attention has been given to the content of some particular and codified policies. Policy is generally regarded as “a way of doing something,” and the Course of Study or other reports codified by the government or other councils are only a small part of ‘policy’. Seargeant (2008) seems to be a common example of this kind. The indispensable perspective to research ELE policy is the policy making process which facilitates the understanding of its structure with influential actors.

In order to reveal the policy making process for ELE, the author investigated the minutes of the Japanese Diet sessions. For instance, Yamada and Aota (2015) divides the postwar sessions into four periods and investigated its characteristic words, and Aota (2015) maps its structure with reading all the minutes. The present study discusses their actors much further.

2 Method

The material of this study is all the actors who mentioned ELE in postwar Japanese Diet sessions. Information retrieved from the minutes was already investigated by Yamada and Aota (2015), and the current study explores the actors’ personal information such as the birthplace and the schooling, by reference to

Hashimoto (2014) studying higher education.

3 Analysis

Some example of the outcomes of this study are illustrated in this chapter, since the outcome varies considerably. The actors are classified into three groups by their number of the statements: 'Core', 'Medium' 'Periphery'. Their diachronic change appears in Figure 1. Also, Table 1 shows the ratio of each party.

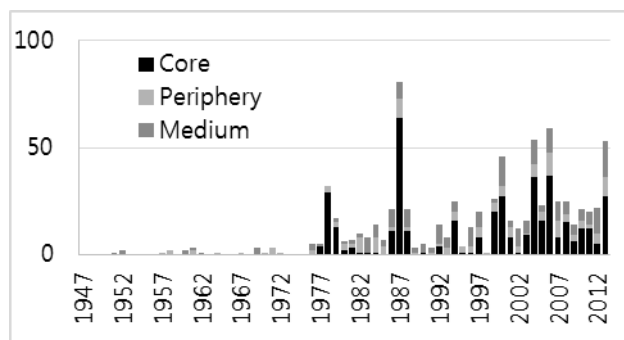


Figure 1 The diachronic change of the actors' type

Table 1 The ratio of each political party (%)

	Core	Med	Peri	Sum
LDP	26.7	27.3	44.2	35.8
DPJ	26.7	20.5	19.5	21.2
New Komeito	13.3	15.9	7.8	11.3
SDPJ	10	9.1	14.3	11.9
DSP	6.7	4.5	3.9	4.6
Salaryman	3.3	0	0	0.7
Your Party	3.3	2.3	1.3	2
NLC	3.3	0	0	0.7
NFP	3.3	4.5	0	2
JCP	3.3	4.5	1.3	2.6
LP	0	2.3	0	0.7
SDP	0	4.5	1.3	2
NPS	0	0	1.3	0.7
Ni-in club	0	0	1.3	0.7
JRP	0	4.5	2.6	2.6
Ryokufuu-kai	0	0	1.3	0.7
total sum (%)	100	100	100	100
actual number	30	44	77	151

Almost all the actors are well-educated: most of them graduated from prestigious universities such as the University of Tokyo. The faculty of law produces the most actors as their graduates. Though the major birthplace is the capital Tokyo, the second most one is not the second biggest city Osaka but Nagoya which the head office of the biggest carmaker Toyota is in.

Many were born in 1940s.

4 Discussion

As these outcomes show, the policy making process for ELE is played by the actors from some particular area. Also, in spite of some previous studies pointing out the influence on the neoliberalism of the ruling party, it was revealed that considerable number of actors from opposition parties have also participated in policy making process for ELE. However, both actors from ruling and opposition parties mostly graduated from prestigious universities and the possibility that these policies may not reflect the voice of the nation must be considered carefully.

5 Conclusion

This study covered the minutes of the Japanese Dietal sessions from the end of the war and analyzed the actors in the policy making process for ELE. Some results such as the majority of actors from biased areas are produced, however, a further study of the actors of smaller councils should demonstrate the policy making process for ELE.

6 References

- Aota, S. (2015). How English Language Education has been discussed in the Japanese Diet?. *HiSELT journal*, 30. pp. 45-70.
- Hashimoto, K. (2014). *Policy- making Process of Higher Education*. Tokyo: Tamagawa-daigaku shuppanbu.
- Kobayakawa, M. (2011a). Analyzing Tasks in Japanese High School Writing Textbooks. *ARELE*, 22, 137-152.
- Seargeant, P. (2008). Ideologies of English in Japan: the perspective of policy and pedagogy, *Language Policy*, 7(2), pp. 121-142. New York: Springer.
- Yamada, Y. & Aota, S. (2015). How Is English Education Discussed in the Japanese Diet? : Four Periods, Five Actors, and Their Characteristic Words. *Kate journal*, 29. pp. 71-84.

DAY 2 (Sunday, December 6, 2015)

Session G (Room 314A) Moderator: Yusuke Kondo (Waseda University)

Time	Session	Presentation
13:30-14:00	G-1	Intercultural Communication and EFL Teaching Wu Jing (Liaocheng University)
14:00-14:30	G-2	The Effects of Utilizing Language Learning Strategies in Teaching the Speech Act of Refusal Bohyon Chung (Kongju Nat'l University) Sujung Min (Kongju Nat'l University) Jongbok Lee (Mokwon University)
14:30-15:00	G-3	Demonstrating Practicality of Automated Scoring System for L2 Speech in English Language Program Yusuke Kondo (Waseda University) Yutaka Ishii (Waseda University)
15:00-15:30	G-4	A Case Study of Flipped English Classes for Basic-Level EFL Learners Eiichiro Tsutsui (Hiroshima International University)

Session H (Room 314B) Moderator: Kazuharu Owada (Tokyo College of Music)

Time	Session	Presentation
13:30-14:00	H-1	Analysis and Evaluation of the Learners' ESL in Terms of Developmental Acquisition Stage Zhu Dianyong (Harbin Engineering University)
14:00-14:30	H-2	Networked English Language Education in the KWCCDLP Kazuharu Owada (Tokyo College of Music) Hikyong Lee (Korea University)
14:30-15:00	H-3	EFL Students' Business English: The Effect of Interaction with International Business Homepages Eunhee Han (Korea Nazarene University)
15:00-15:30	H-4	Bilingualism Among Mixed Race Children in Japan Barry Kavanagh (Tohoku University)

Intercultural Communication and EFL Teaching

Wu Jing (Angel)

Liaocheng University, China
wuqionganqi@163.com

Abstract

The importance of “intercultural communication” (Hall, 1959) in foreign language learning emerged as an alternative to the traditional perception of grammar rules and vocabulary acquisition resulting in higher foreign language proficiency. In fact, although many learners know much about the target language, they are still unable to communicate appropriately and effectively. Therefore, intercultural awareness is required if a learner is to acquire intercultural communication is conceptualized in EFL teaching in the Chinese context.

Keywords

intercultural communication, EFL teaching, ESL teaching, cultural teaching

Introduction

Nowadays, with the rapid development of the global economy and the popularity of global village, people from different countries have more opportunities to know each other, which enables intercultural contact to be a major concern for people all over the world.

Intercultural communication is referred to a form of global communication. It is used to describe the wide range of communication processes and problems which naturally appear within a group or social context made up of individuals from different religious, social, ethnic and educational backgrounds. It is an interdisciplinary field of study which incorporates research from disciplines such as social psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, sociolinguistics and communication. One of the most important fields of research addressed by intercultural scholars is how misunderstanding can be minimized when people communicate with others from different cultures. In all, intercultural communication is an essential part of foreign language teaching, which can neither be ignored in the classroom nor in the society.

First, the importance of intercultural communication and the barriers to intercultural communication are introduced, and the reasons why it should be taught are explained. Besides, I also

explore some strategies of improving intercultural communication and overcoming the barriers. Finally, several teaching contents are listed and ways of cultural teaching are suggested to conclude the paper.

Data was collected through interviews with ten English instructors at Liaocheng University, China. After being taught the differences between Chinese and English cultures and how they are manifested, students gained cultural awareness of the differences between their native language and target foreign language. In other words, intercultural communication competence is embedded during the process of teaching and learning a foreign language.

1 Intercultural Communication

Intercultural communication is a form of communication that aims to share information across different cultures and social groups. It is used to describe the wide range of communication processes and problems that naturally appear within an organization or social context made up of individuals from different religious, social, ethnic, and educational backgrounds. Intercultural communication is sometimes used synonymously with cross-cultural communication. In a broader sense, Intercultural communication encompasses cross-cultural communication, international communication, development communication, and intercultural communication's narrower referent, intercultural communication proper.

2 Problems in Intercultural Communication

The problems in intercultural communication usually come from problems in message transmission. In communication between people of the same culture, the person who receives the message interprets it based on values, beliefs, and expectations for behavior similar to those of

the person who sent the message. When this happens, the way the message is interpreted by the receiver is likely to be fairly similar to what the speaker intended. However, when the receiver of the message is a person from a different culture, the receiver uses information from his or her culture to interpret the message. The message that the receiver

interprets may be very different from what the speaker intended.

Effective communication depends on the informal understandings among the parties involved that are based on the trust developed between them. When trust exists, there is implicit understanding within communication, cultural differences may be overlooked, and problems can be dealt with more easily. The meaning of trust and how it is developed and communicated vary across societies. Similarly, some cultures have a greater propensity to be trusting than others.

3 Management of Intercultural Communication in EFL Teaching

Important points to consider:

- (1) Develop cultural sensitivity
- (2) Anticipate the meaning the receiver will get.
- (3) Careful encoding
- (4) Use words, pictures, and gestures.
- (5) Avoid slang, idioms, regional sayings.
- (6) Selective transmission
- (7) Build relationships, face-to-face if possible.
- (8) Careful decoding of feedback
- (9) Get feedback from multiple parties.
- (10) Improve listening and observation skills.
- (11) Follow-up actions

4 The Differences between ESL and EFL

The distinction between ESL and EFL highlights a mismatch for Asian learners between the instrumental aims of the communicative approach and their own situation. It is important to remember that ESL takes place within an English-speaking environment. As a result, the ESL student will have a far greater need to communicate. At the lower levels, the student has the opportunity to immediately test out or practice new language skills in authentic situations. At the higher levels, a great deal of language acquisition will occur outside the classroom, and the ESL teacher will act more as a facilitator, providing structure, explanations, and a forum for discussions. EFL, on the other hand, is always a cultural island, and the EFL teacher is cast in the somewhat onerous role of sole provider of experience in the target language. Without the reinforcement of an English-speaking environment, motivation becomes more a product of the teacher's initiative on the one hand, and the student's will to succeed—or fear of failure—on the other.

Whereas ESL is integrative, in that it is designed to help individuals function in the community, EFL is a part of the school curriculum, and therefore subject to contextual factors such as

support from the principal and the local community, government policy, etc. It is also dependent on the teacher's language proficiency, teaching resources, the availability of suitable materials, and may or may not test communicative competence, depending on national curriculum goals. By contrast, ESL teaching is primarily designed to develop communicative competence, with little or no curricular demands and pressure of examinations. Reconsidered in this light, the EFL teacher could be doing the student a disservice by focusing on oral skills when, for example, the examination is testing for translation skills.

5 Conclusion

It is inevitable that EFL teachers working in an Asian setting will have cultural biases about the soundness of their educational practices. However, 'mediating' is an important aspect of their work, without which their professional knowledge cannot be easily applied. When teaching cross-culturally, it is not enough to operate purely in a theoretical mode, clinging to a single concept of good teaching—in this case the intercultural communicative approach. Once this is understood, then points of integration between Western and Eastern teaching practices can be jointly explored.

6 References

- Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin, and use*. Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Dirven, R., & Verspoor, M. (Eds.). (2004). *Cognitive exploration of language and linguistics* (Vol. 1). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Evans, V., & Green, M. (2006). *Cognitive linguistics: An introduction*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Fauconnier, G. (1997). *Mappings in thought and language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Wilson, D., & Sperber, D. (1981). On Grice's theory of conversation. *Conversation and discourse*, 155-78.
- 何自然, & 冉永平. (1998). 关联理论—认知语用学基础. 现代外语, (3), 95-109. 何兆雄. (2000). 新编语用学概要. 上海: 上海外语教育出版社.
- 何自然, & 冉永平. (1998). 关联理论—认知语用学基础. 现代外语, (3), 95-109. 何自然. (2006). 认知语用学言语交际的认知研究. 上海外语教育出版社.

The Effects of Utilizing Language Learning Strategies in Teaching the Speech Act of Refusal

Bohyon Chung¹, Sujung Min² and Jongbok Lee³

^{1,2}College of Education, Kongju Nat'l University, ³College of Education, Mokwon University
bohyon0920@daum.net, sujmin@kongju.ac.kr, jblee@mokwon.ac.kr

Abstract

This study examines the effects of strategies-based instruction on the refusal productions measuring the appropriateness using pre-test and post-test design. The aim of the study is to validate the strategies for speech acts acquisition suggested by Cohen (2005). The twenty Korean EFL learners with homogeneous level of English proficiency in undergraduate course participated in this study. The participants were given three instructional treatments which were modeled after taxonomy of strategies for speech act acquisition by Cohen (2005), namely, (1) strategies for the initial learning of speech acts, (2) strategies for using the speech act material and (3) metapragmatic considerations. Pre-test and post-test were administered a week before and after the teaching sessions to illustrate refusals with consideration of the social status between speaker and hearer. With collected refusal responses, two raters evaluated appropriateness of refusals according to a previously developed evaluation rubric (Taguchi, 2006). Based on the data from the refusal appropriateness evaluation score of the participants, a paired sample *t*-test was implemented in order to measure the effects resulted by three teaching sessions. The results demonstrate that there was a positive effect on the refusal appropriateness as the mean scores were positively increased in all three various social statuses.

Keywords

language learning strategies, pragmatic teaching, refusal appropriateness

Introduction

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) and its effective instruction methodologies have drawn much attention from researchers and practitioners (Anderson, 2005; Bardovi-Harling & Vellenga, 2012; Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-weltz, 1990; Cohen, 2005; Chung, Min & Uehara, 2013; Iwata, 2006; Kawate-Mierzejewska, 2009; Kwon, 2004; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001; Taguchi, 2006; Takimoto, 2007, 2009). It was in response to the claim that ILP certainly warrant extensive and critical research to make a link between ILP and second language acquisition (SLA) theories (Rose

& Kasper, 2001). Nevertheless, Cohen (2005) argued that "explicit and implicit strategy application to the learning and use of speech act is, at present, still limited" (p.288). It was led him up to claiming language learner strategies for acquiring speech acts in particular to assist learners to enhance knowledge in ILP. Intended as a validation study on effects of the strategies for speech act acquisition suggested by Cohen, the present study would appear to provide justification for measuring of changes in refusal appropriateness that might be the result of strategies-based instruction. It would be reasonable to assume that the findings eventually bring improvement in ILP performance. Moreover, this study would be expected to contribute to somewhat limited body of ILP instruction in Korean context.

1 Literature review

Initiated in research on constructs of communicative competence, many studies were carried out to investigate the pragmatics both in first and second language acquisition. Particularly in SLA, active attempts were made to find an effective way to teach pragmatics of target language in classroom setting (Bardovi-Harling & Vellenga, 2012; Birjandi & Derakhshan, 2013; Cohen, 2005; Cohen et al., 1998; Takimoto, 2007, 2012, 2013). Considerable number of pragmatic teaching approaches is likely to fall into explicit or implicit methodologies.

Following studies suggested that the explicit method in teaching pragmatics shows clear impacts on gaining the knowledge of pragmatics comparing to implicit method. There is a study that analyzing the effects of intention-oriented instruction on pragmatics focusing on learners' noticing and production of the request speech act (Takimoto, 2013). Based on the two different types of instruction, namely, intentional learning-induced instruction and incidental learning-induced instruction, two groups were given each of instruction and the other group served as control group. Results indicated that both two methods improved level of noticing and request production. Between the two, intentional approach which connects with explicit learning showed more

successful result than the incidental learning which suggest us that explicit teaching method can have more impact.

Bardovi-Harling and Vellenga (2012) also implemented input plus focus metapragmatic noticing instruction which is thought to be associated with explicit method. Some authentic conventional expressions like 'Thank you for having me,' or 'I'll call you back' was chosen as target structures. The study involved 66 students with 11 different language backgrounds. Instructions with different set of expressions for two groups resulted in bringing positive effect. It concluded that conventional expressions can be taught successfully by metapragmatic noticing instruction though still bound by transparency of the expression and the learners' level of linguistic ability.

While explicit instruction has been found to benefit language acquisition as seen above, several studies apply strategies based instruction in learning language skills. Cohen et al. (1998) analyzed the effects of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and Strategy Checklists on speaking performance on the three tasks; a self-description, a story retelling, and a description of a favorite city. Results in overall speaking performance by the experimental group surpass the control group, which were accounted for the use of strategies. Cohen (2005) further offered language learning strategies in support of learners to develop speech act ability. In light with a distinction between language learning and language use strategies from previous research, the strategies for speech act acquisition rest on three steps; initial learning strategy, speech act material using strategy and metapragmatic consideration strategy. He continued to present practical steps to be applied in speech act learning process, which served as a baseline in the present study.

Metapragmatic consideration, as included in the strategies for speech act acquisition by Cohen (2005) in the previous section, has been cooperated with other teaching methods in L2 instruction research. Metapragmatic instruction might be combined with metapragmatic discussion with the active participation of students in various forms of teacher-fronted-format, peer work, small groups, role-plays, semi-structured interviews, introspective feedback, and metapragmatic assessment tasks (Kasper & Rose, 2001). Interventional studies (e.g., Rose & Ng, 2001; Takimoto, 2007, 2012, 2013) have investigated the issue of metapragmatic instruction in different forms and compared it with other forms of instruction, either explicit or implicit instruction. They lend support that by metapragmatic instruction and discussion,

significant improvement can be observed in pragmatic ability among EFL learners. It may, still, be mentioned that metapragmatic consideration embedded in strategies-based instruction concerning pragmatic ability found to be limited. Therefore, the present study rests on an instructional strategies proposed by Cohen and it aims to validate the effects of the strategy-utilizing instruction on the speech act of refusal. Accordingly, the research question in this study can be put forth as follows: Do language learning strategies suggested by Cohen (2005) enhance learners' formulating appropriate refusals?

2 Methods

A. Participants

Forty undergraduate university students at two different universities, 20 from a private university located in Daejeon and 20 more from a national university in Gongju, both in Korea took part in the EXP III. The first 20 participants at a university in Daejeon, were assigned to be a treatment group (TG). They were given three weeks of strategies-based instruction. They opted for a required course in the English education department. There were 17 female participants (85%) and 3 males (15%) in either junior or senior year with an age range between 21 and 35. Meanwhile, the latter 20 students at a university in Gongju served as a control group (CG) and were not exposed to strategies-based instructions. They were taking extracurricular classes for learning TOEIC skills. There were 12 female students (60%) and 8 male students (40%). Their age ranged from 18 to 25.

The English proficiency among participants both in TG and CG was determined by applying the scores of the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) developed by Nation and Beglar (2007). The VST is a widely used multiple-choice test that is designed to measure learners' vocabulary size among the 14,000 most frequent groups of words that have a common feature or pattern (Chon & Kim, 2011). In EXP III, 100 items from the VST test were used to examine the English proficiency levels for two groups; TG and CG (Cronbach's coefficient $\alpha = .777$).

B. Treatment Instructions

In the TG, there were twenty participants in the TG who were exposed to in-class teaching sessions that lasted for three weeks of the spring semester in 2014. The experiment was a contribution to the investigation of a link between ILP and SLA (Rose & Kasper, 2001). The participants were instructed by the researcher. The instruction in each session was designed to utilize strategies for learning and performing L2 speech acts as devised by Cohen

(2005). According to Cohen (2005), the strategies for acquiring speech acts sequenced as the following three strategy types:

- A) Strategies for the initial learning of speech acts which help learners to take practical steps to gain understanding of how specific speech acts work.
- B) Strategies for using the speech act material which assists learners to retrieve the speech act material that has already been learned.
- C) Metapragmatic considerations which help learners monitor for appropriateness of directness, address, time, and so on.

Along with the three strategy types above, sub-strategies were also suggested to help with utilization of each strategy type (Cohen, 2005). The instructional treatments were constructed with one or two sub-strategy by the author. The strategies demonstrated in one instructional treatment varied each week.

C. Assessment

Data were collected using the pre-test/post-test research design. The appropriateness of refusal responses in the pre-test was compared with the appropriateness of those responses after instruction in the post-test by having participants complete refusal responses. In this method, participants were pre-tested in week 10 of the spring semester using a type-A DCT. In weeks 11, 12, and 13, participants took part in teaching sessions, and in week 14 the post-test was done using a type-B DCT. All pre-test and post-test questionnaires were in the form of a written DCT containing 12 items in each questionnaire focusing on refusal-provoking situations.

In terms of the post-test, the type-B DCT was employed. The social status (low, equal, and high) of the interlocutor was considered and reflected in the type-B DCT as it was in the type-A DCT. The 12 scenarios in the type-B DCT were directly taken from the previous study by Beebe et al. (1990). The situations of the 12 items were different from those of the pre-test, which would prevent subjects from attempting to memorize the response and from reducing the testing effect.

D. Data analysis

The pre-test and post-test scores were both given statistical analysis. A paired *t*-test was carried out to see the changes observable after strategies-based instructions. Prior to performing a paired *t*-test, a Kolmogorov-Sminov (K-S) test was done to determine that the two data sets would be in a normal distribution, thereby decreasing the probability of producing invalid paired *t*-test results.

This test was necessary since the number of participants was merely 20. Results for the K-S test for normality indicated that both pre- and post-test scores have a *p*-value greater than 0.05 ($p = .596$, $p = 1.000$, respectively). This result indicated normal distribution of data, which meant that the paired *t*-test was eligible to be computed for the data in EXP III in consideration of the interlocutor's social status. All of this analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21.

2 Results

To properly conclude the examination of refusal appropriateness via TG and CG required the use of *t*-test analysis to see the true effects of strategies-based instruction. The paired *t*-test was used to compare the means of refusal appropriateness ratings in the two assessments by the groups. Since the normality assumption was questionable as the number of the participants in each group was less than 30, a Kolmogorov-Sminov (K-S) test was run to determine that the two data sets in each group would be in normal distribution in preparation for conducting the subsequent *t*-test. The *p*-value from the K-S test results for pre-test and post-test was found to be $p = .596$, $p = 1.000$, respectively in TG, and $p = .943$, $p = .792$ in CG. Thus, it was concluded that all sets of data come from a normal distribution.

First of all, the results of a paired *t*-test analysis examining differences between pre-test and post-test in TG are shown in the Table 1. The overall average scores regardless of the interlocutors' social status increased by 21 percentage points (0.64 point increased). It showed a statistically significant difference in a *t*-value of -6.830 with 19 degrees of freedom. The two-tailed *p*-value was less than 0.001.

The subsequent tables illustrate the effects of language learning strategies on the *t*-test result.

Table 1: Difference in Refusal Appropriateness Scores in Pre-Test and Post-Test by TG

	Mean(SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Improvement
Pretest	3.05 (0.44)	.374***	19	0.64 (21.0%)
Posttest	3.69 (0.68)			

 $p < .001$

Secondly, a further investigation was done to measure the instructional effects on the participants in CG in consideration of different social status. The participants in CG took the post-test without any strategies-based instructional treatment as in TG: instead they were taking a test prep course learning TOEIC skills communicatively from

other Korean teachers. The paired *t*-test results of pre-test and post-test by CG participants are shown in the Table 2.

Table 2: Difference in Refusal Appropriateness Scores in Pre-Test and Post-Test by CG

	Mean(SD)	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Improvement
Pretest	3.18 (0.42)	.876	19	-0.06
Posttest	3.12 (0.43)			(-1.98%)

It was found that there was no statistically significant difference in refusal appropriateness in CG ($t = .876$, $df = 19$, $p = .392$) in which no growth occurred between the averages of pre-test and post-test.

The relation of pre-test and post-test results between the two groups was displayed by making a straight line from the average points of the pre-test result to the post-test rates for each group. Obviously, the Figure 1 below shows three important characteristics of the pre-test and post-tests results; (1) there were no statistically significant differences found between two groups on the pre-test scores; (2) the CG presented statistically insignificant differences between pre-test and post-test scores; and (3) the TG made statistically significant gains in refusal appropriateness from the pre-test to the post-test. Therefore, it can be concluded that positive effects of strategies-based instructions were realized in the refusal appropriateness among Korean EFL learners.

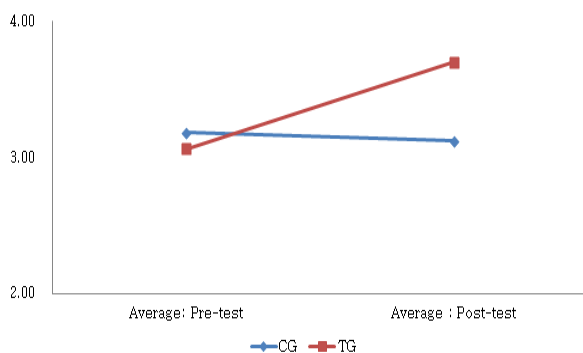


Figure 1: Interaction Plot for the DCT

3 Conclusion

The present study set out to give empirical support to Cohen (2005)'s strategies for speech act acquisition. The investigation was done in response to the need for linking between ILP and SLA (Rose & Kasper, 2001). The strategy types incorporated in the instructions were composed of: (1) strategies for the initial learning of speech acts, (2) strategies for using the speech act material, and (3) metapragmatic considerations. To be more specific, by utilizing the first type of strategy (identifying various refusal expressions), it is believed that

Korean EFL learners were able to be exposed to various refusal types that can be employed within different refusal situations. Second type of strategy instruction would have learners practice what they have learned. Lastly, by considering the metapragmatic information in the third type of strategy, learners themselves were able to engage in evaluating appropriateness of the various types of refusal responses. Then, they would have been able to distinguish what they would ideally say in certain situations. The participants who took part in the strategies-based instruction were known as being homogenized in terms of the important level argued by Nation and Beglar (2007).

The findings confirmed that the strategies for learning speech acts suggested by Cohen significantly improved the appropriateness of the refusal speech act compared to the other control group's performance. The average scores of refusal appropriateness showed definite incremental improvement whether the interlocutor had higher or lower social status.

The biggest improvement of all was made in the situation where the interlocutor had lower social status. The inappropriateness of the refusals to the lower social status interlocutor from the pre-test may be derived from the fact that Korean EFL learners as well as Japanese EFL learners tend to use the limited type of refusal strategies (Chung, Min & Uehara, 2013). Nevertheless, utilizing Cohen (2005)'s model of the strategies-based instruction demonstrated the possibility of reducing the gap in refusal appropriateness seen between higher and lower social status interlocutors. In line with research accounting for strategies-based teaching such as the ones undertaken by a number of studies (Aghaie & Zhang, 2012; Cohen et al., 1998; Li & Liu, 2008; Mirzaei, Domakani & Heidari, 2014), the results in the present study revealed that the performance level of refusal appropriateness increased.

The strategies-based instruction taken from the study by Cohen (2005) is worthy to receiving attentions in three aspects. Firstly, it is one of the rarely attempted experiments particularly aiming at the L2 pragmatic competence enhancement. Secondly, it facilitates the speech act acquisition as a comprehensive model which not only contains input for expanding learners' linguistical knowledge but also contains activities for practicing based on the initial learning. Finally, it goes a step further by incorporating metapragmatic considerations into the instruction. As the metapragmatic consideration is recognized to be one of the innovative instructional methods, its positive effects in learning the pragmatic features have already been asserted in various educational settings (Chen, 1996; Rose &

Ng, 2001; Martínez-Flor & Fukuya, 2005; Takimoto, 2007, 2012, 2013). The metapragmatic consideration in the strategies-based instruction suggested by Cohen (2005) also proved its influence by improving the Korean EFL learners' refusal appropriateness in TL.

4 References

- Anderson, N. J. (2005). L2 strategy research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 757-772). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bardovi-Harling, K., & Vellenga, H. E. (2012). The effect of instruction on conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *System*, 40, 77-89.
- Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R. C. Scarcella, E. S. Andersen & S. D. Krashen (Eds.), *Developing communicative competence in a second language* (pp. 55-73). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Birjandi, P., & Derakhshan, A. (2013). Pragmatic comprehension of apology, request, and refusal: An investigation on the effect of consciousness-raising video-driven prompts. *Applied Research on English Language*, 3(1), 67-86.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Longman.
- Chen, H. J. (1996). Cross-cultural comparison of English and Chinese metapragmatics in refusal. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Indiana University, IN.
- Chon, Y. V., & Kim, Y. H. (2011). Lexical Discovery and Consolidation Strategies of Proficient. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 17(3), 26-56.
- Chung, B., Min, S., & Uehara, S. (2013). A cross-cultural study on pragmatic transfer in the EFL learners' speech act of refusal. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 19(3), 51-70.
- Cohen, A. D., Weaver, S. J., & Li, T-Y. (1998). The impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language. In A. D. Cohen (Ed.), *Strategies in learning and using a second language* (pp. 107-156). New York: Longman.
- Cohen, A. D. (2005). Strategies for learning and performing L2 speech acts. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 2(3), 275-301.
- Iwata, Y. (2006). Japanese and American Refusal Strategies: Discourse Analysis. *Southern Journal of Linguistics*, 27(1-2), 52-67.
- Kawate-Mierzejewska, M. (2009). Refusals in Japanese telephone conversations. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic Competence* (pp. 199-226). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kwon, J. (2004). Expressing refusals in Korean and in American English. *Multilingua-Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication*, 23(4), 339-364.
- Lee, S., & Kang, H. (2001). Comparative study of refusal response of Korean and English. *Humanities*, 8, 65-100.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Beglar, D. (2007). A vocabulary size test. *The Language Teacher*, 31(7), 9-13.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rose, K. R., & Ng, C. K. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 145-170). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9, 41-51.
- Taguchi, N. (2006). Analysis of appropriateness in a speech act of request in L2 English. *Pragmatics*, 16(4), 513-533.
- Takimoto, M. (2007). The effects of input-based tasks on the development of learners' pragmatic proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 1-25.
- Takimoto, M. (2012). Metapragmatic discussion in interlanguage pragmatics. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44, 1240-1253.
- Takimoto, M. (2013). Exploring the effects of intention-oriented input-based instruction in second language pragmatics: A case of English request hedges. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 10(4), 41-69.
- Yoshida, K., Kamiya, M., Kondo, S., & Tokiwa, R. (2000). *Heart to Heart: Overcoming Barriers in Cross-Cultural Communication* (pp. 30-41). Tokyo, Japan: Macmillan.

Demonstrating Practicality of Automated Scoring System for L2 Speech in English Language Program

Yusuke Kondo¹ and Yutaka Ishii²

Global Education Center¹, Center for Higher Education Studies², Waseda University
yusukekondo@waseda.jp, yutakaishii@aoni.waseda.jp

Abstract

The present paper reports on the degree of agreement between human raters and an automated scoring system for L2 speech in order to evaluate the possibility to introduce the automated scoring system to an English language program. Students' utterances were collected through discourse completion tasks, and awarded by human raters. The relationship was investigated between the scores given by the raters and speech characteristics in students' utterances. On the basis of the examination of the relationship, we developed an automated scoring system that predicts the scores of human raters by using the speech characteristics.

Keywords

Second language speech, Automated scoring

Introduction

To assess students' speaking ability of the target language is one of the good methods for the placement test of English language program that focuses on the improvement of the students speaking skills. However, it is almost impossible to conduct such placement test in a large-scale program, because this sort of performance assessment becomes severe burdens on instructors: conducting interview, rating students' performance, and analyzing and delivering the scores. An automated scoring system for L2 speech is proposed as a solution to this problem, which produce stable score immediately.

In this paper, we propose an automated scoring system for L2 speech to assess learners' speech.

1 Background

The English language program that we introduce the automated scoring system to is a program that is based on a functional syllabus which was made by referring to Common European Framework of References (CEFR: Council of Europe, 2001). A course consists of twenty units, and a unit includes several can-do statements and the related expressions. The students of this program learn some target expression and discuss with their classmates using the expression. Below are examples of the target expression in a unit.

Expressing opinions

- **In my opinion**, sushi is the healthiest food...
- **Personally, I feel that** sushi is the healthiest food...

(Nakano, Ayabe, & Balderi, 2011)

If we want to know whether a student has learned these expressions, it is a good way to let the student answer a question below.

You (B) think that the Internet is harmful to children. In the conversation below, express your opinion weakening your argument.

A: How do you think about the influence of the Internet on children?

B: ().

Students who know the expression weakening their arguments will give an answer such as "In my opinion, ..." and "Personally, I think that..." but ones who don't know can't. It is quite easy for language teachers to judge whether the students know the expressions or not.

Because the syllabus of this language program was made by referring to CEFR, the difficulties of the activities, vocabularies, and tasks themselves increase as the levels in the program advance. In order to keep the effective classroom management, it is important to arrange students to take an appropriate course of the level. A placement test is required. However, if we conduct a placement test for this program, we encounter some difficulty. In this program, a unit includes at least six expressions, a course consists of seventeen units, a program offers six levels of the courses, and around 4,000 students take one of the courses in a semester. The number of this kind of question will be 612. Although all the students need to answer to all the questions if an adaptive test is adopted, a student probably is required to answer around 100 questions in order to find his/her appropriate level. It is almost impossible for teachers to score all their responses. To solve this problem, we propose an automated scoring system.

2 The proposed method

The automated scoring system that we propose here is web-based system. Students access the website for the test by using their computer, and give answers to the questions. Their speech is recorded on the client computer and is sent to the server computer. The server converts the speech to the text and obtains some characteristics of the speech, such as number of words and pause duration. Then, the characteristics are matched against the reference data and the response is score as 1 (good) or 0 (poor).

The reference data is the speech scored by human raters. The raters scored around 20,000 responses according to the criteria in Table 1. The criterion was created referring to CEFR.

Table 1: Evaluation criterion

Score	Description
3	Is appropriate for the given situation. Can understand the intention of the utterance, but not appropriate for the given situation.
2	Cannot understand the intention of utterance and not appropriate for the situation.
1	No response
0	

Every single response is scored by three raters, and if the response obtains 3 from all the three raters, we regard the response 1, and 0 in all other case.

In each category, 1 and 0, speech characteristics are extracted and some indices are calculated such as speech rate and number of words.

3 Analysis

We examined the properties of 43 items by using four indices, recognition rate, prediction accuracy, item difficulty, and type/token ratio. The recognition rate shows the degree to which the computer correctly recognizes the utterance that learners produce, and the prediction accuracy, the degree to which the computer correctly predicts scores for utterances. The item difficulty is the passing rate of an item. If this index is 1, all the examinees obtain 1 in an item. The type/token ratio is an index for lexical variation. If this index is 1, all the words are different in an item. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for these four indices.

Table 2. The descriptive statistics of the indices

	recog.	acc.	diff.	TTR
Mean	.77	.68	.47	.20
SD	.12	.15	.24	.09
Range	.45	.69	.88	.32
min.	.53	.25	.05	.04
max.	.98	.94	.93	.36

Figure 1 shows the relationship among these four indices with the correlation coefficients.

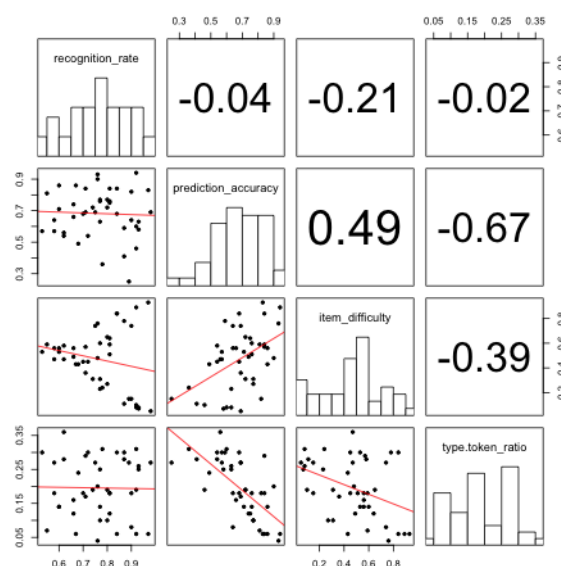


Figure 1. The Relationship Among the Recognition rate, the Prediction Accuracy, the Item Difficulty, and the Type-Token Ratio

4 Discussion

There is no standard on the prediction accuracy, but the mean of the prediction accuracy, .68 is fairly acceptable if we regard this index as the agreement of the predicted scores with the scores given by human raters. The highest correlation coefficient is found between the prediction accuracy and the item difficulty. That means that the more difficult an item is, the more accurate the computer predict scores. Because we need items with wide variety of difficulty, we need to improve the prediction accuracy in easy item. There seems to be two item groups in the scatterplot of the recognition rate and the item difficulty. We need to find out factors that divide the items into two groups.

5 References

- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Nakano, M., Ayabe, M., & Balderi, M. (2011). *Reach out Pre-Intermediate*. Tokyo: Waseda University International.

A Case Study of Flipped English Classes for Basic-Level EFL Learners

Eiichiro Tsutsui¹

¹Hiroshima International University
tsutsui@ic.hirokoku-u.ac.jp

Abstract

This study considers what is best for basic-level EFL learners in Japan in the context of flipped classrooms. The flipped classroom model is perceived as a better way of teaching and learning by Cockrum (2014) and Fulton (2014) among other educational practitioners in the U.S. Inevitably, we need to find some ways of tailoring the flipped learning approach to suit Japanese EFL learners, hopefully having more students with a better command of English in the future.

Keywords

Flipped learning, Blended learning, ICT

Introduction

This study examines whether or not flipped English classes can be applicable to basic-level EFL learners in Japan. According to MEXT's report in 2014, nearly 98 % of third-year high school students in Japan belong to either A1 or A2 level, in reading, listening, speaking skills. So, the issues we have to tackle may be challenging but worthwhile.

This work is based on a case study of my personal attempt to flip all my English courses targeted at first-year non-English majors at a private university. They are regarded as basic-level, average learners in Japan. All the results were yielded in the four-month period from the beginning of April to the beginning of August in 2015. The results in 2015 were compared with those in the same period of the previous year, when students had not experienced flipped classrooms. In both years, the same textbooks, the teaching method and test points were adopted. However, in 2015, I tried to eliminate lecture time and made the most of a face-to-face time during weekly classes. In doing so, I had students in 2015 view the videos prior to class. Students' proficiency level in this study lies somewhere between upper A1 and lower A2, either in 2014 or 2015. Therefore, this study basically uses a before-after analysis, in a cross-sectional manner, to compare and contrast non-flipped teaching and flipped teaching. This study mainly focuses on standardized test score changes, achievement test score changes and students' perceptions toward flipped learning and teaching.

1 Standardized test score changes

Table 1 presents changes in standardized test scores obtained in 2014 and 2015. Pre-test and post-test were conducted before and after the course. The two tests were slightly different in format and content but nonetheless equated because the majority of both test items were taken by a different sample of approximately 300 students, and the two tests were comparable as a result of a Rasch analysis.

Table 1. Comparison of standardized test scores

		Pre-Test	Post-Test
(Y14) 154 students taught by Teacher A (non-flipped)	M SD	172.8 33.4	172.4 31.4
(Y15) 108 students taught by Teacher A in flipped class.	M SD	167.7 36.0	172.6 34.1

The effectiveness of flipping cannot be evaluated on its own, because other variables are involved. However, it is noteworthy that Teacher A initially failed to help his students' scores increase in 2014, but flipping may have helped change that. In other words, score changes seen in flipped classes are greater ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 18.67$, $t(260) = -2.08$, $p < .05$ $r = .13$) than those in non-flipped classes ($M = -0.34$, $SD = 20.99$). Although the result of its t -test is statistically significant, its effect size is too small; therefore, nothing conclusive can be said about the question ("flipping can help increase standardized test performance"), as opposed to the achievement test.

2 Achievement test scores

Flipped teaching helped increase achievement test indices in this study. Figure 1 presents mid-term test results, and figure 2 the final test results in Y14 and Y15. Both histograms depict Y14-Y15 changes in the number of students across all the grade levels. Their initial proficiency test scores are alike ($M = 199.0$, $N = 32$, $SD = 21.0$ in Y14 v. $M = 201.0$, $N = 22$, $SD = 22.9$ in Y15), and the course name, and the textbook used in the course are the same. Both Y14 and Y15 tests, conducted online, include the same question items as to vocabulary, grammar

rules, reading comprehension and translation tasks found in all the textbook materials.

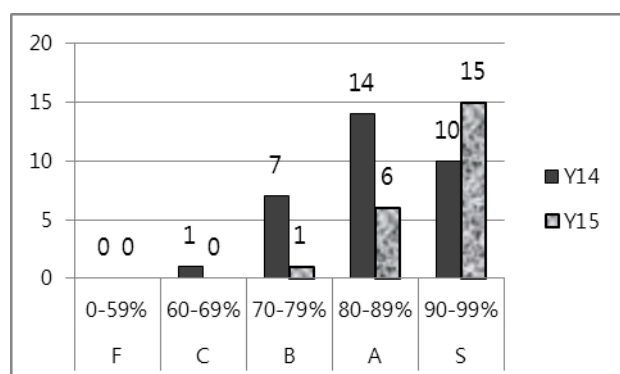


Figure 1. Mid-term test results

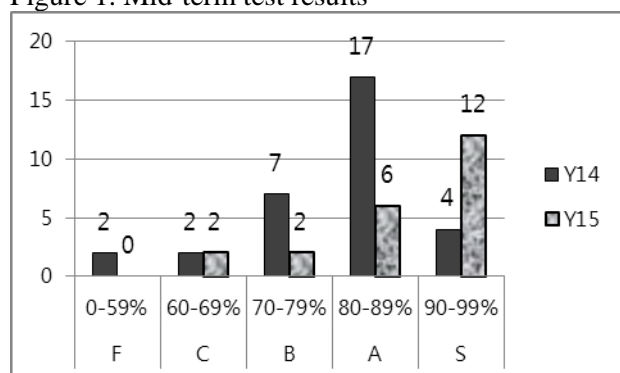


Figure 2. Term-end test results

A Mann-Whitney test indicated that students in a flipped classroom received significantly greater achievement scores than those in a regular classroom, both in the mid-term ($U = 161.50$, $p < .01$, $r = .46$) and in the final ($U = 200.00$, $p < .01$, $r = .36$). One concern is the deteriorated effect size in the final, which may remind us of the question raised by Fulton (2014) regarding whether flipped learning can ensure long-lasting sustainability.

3 Students' perception toward flipping

To see the difference of students' perception toward flipped English classes, I compared students in Y14 with those in Y15. Both classes are the same groups of students as in the previous section. The questions were written in their mother tongue, prepared by the university's faculty development committee to raise the awareness of course improvement among faculty members. Without a teacher's presence, each student anonymously responded to the survey questions. Table 2 displays the summary of the questions, means in Y14 and Y15, and the increase or decrease in the score means.

Table 2. Before-after means and their changes

No	Questionnaire item summary	Changes	Before Ave.	After Ave.
5	Student's(S's) increased interest	0.48	4.7	5.1
12	Teacher's (T's) adequate supports	0.47	5.0	5.5
1	S's active engagement	0.44	5.1	5.5
4	T's enthusiasm	0.36	5.1	5.5
3	T's well-preparedness	0.33	5.1	5.5
2	S's goal achievement	0.28	4.7	5.0
14	S's overall satisfaction	0.27	5.4	5.7
6	T's explanation skills	0.27	5.1	5.4
13	T's classroom management	0.25	5.3	5.5
9	T's visual aides	0.22	5.2	5.4
11	Teacher-student interaction	0.07	5.1	5.1
8	T's specialized knowledge	0.05	4.9	5.0
10	T's effort to have Ss speak in class	-0.08	5.5	5.5
7	T's teaching materials	-0.26	5.4	5.2

Note: 32 students in Y14 and 22 in Y15 responded to survey questions on a Likert-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Overall, students' perceptions toward their own learning and my teaching turned out to be positive, and showed some improvement after flipping. There is a downward trend in question 7 ("The teacher effectively used teaching materials, i.e., textbooks, handouts, and reference books"). Some students may have wrongly thought I had not made use of the textbook in flipped classes.

4 Tentative findings

Flipped teaching and learning can be promising for Japanese EFL learners, although no conclusive evidence for a long-term achievement is yet available at this point.

5 Selected References

Fulton K. P. (2014). *Time for Learning: Top 10 Reasons Why Flipping the Classroom Can Change Education*. California: Corwin

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (B) Number 26770206.

Analysis and Evaluation of the Learners' ESL in Terms of Developmental Acquisition Stage

Zhu Dianyong¹

¹Harbin Engineering University
2843800036@qq.com

Abstract

This essay aims at utilizing the acquisition criterion developed by researchers to analyze the data collected from the two learners of English in Australia. Drawn from the Processability theory and the theory of Second Language Acquisition, the findings in both quantitative and qualitative forms will be presented to draw a conclusion that the two students have reached at which developmental stage their L2 learning is.

Keywords

Evaluation, acquisition, language learning

Introduction

With the development of second language acquisition, some new and crucial issues have additionally been brought up, such as acquisition criterion which function vitally and necessarily in relation to determining whether the second language learning is successful, or whether the second language learning is sequential or not. In order to theoretically justify the findings and assessment of the students' current stages of ESL, a discussion will be explored in terms of morphology and syntax concerning application of the evaluating criterion, my considerations and reflections which derive from the understanding of Processability Theory and acquisition criterion, and some questions concerning the results of the collected data and data analysis.

1 Data Analysis

The data, which is being adopted to be analyzed is about two teenager secondary students of Asian background (N and H) who are doing a "spot the differences" task. When analyzing the transcript of the speech data, I intend to undertake it from the five different perspectives of linguistic forms/structures (plural -s, 3rd per sg -s, past tense -ed, yes/no questions and wh-questions). The first step adopted by me is to identify the contexts for each form/structure by careful reading of the speech data from the five perspectives, and then, to count the number of forms/structures and the number of contexts in which they appear. After collecting the initial analyzing data, the next step will calculate

the "raw" score, which refers to the number of cases vs. the number of the contexts. Then calculate the percentage. This is the quantitative result.

2 Discussion

In the data analysis mentioned above, the two students' ESL learning stages have been identified. In terms of morphological stage, the plural forms and 3rd singular forms show no sign in the usage of N's language, which serves well to account for the stage in which N is. However, in relation to ed-form of the past tense, N used the same ed-form twice, not considering the specific context. From this data, it may be assumed that N used this linguistic form formulaically, not productively. Therefore, N has no awareness to use the ed-form, although one of the two sentences was correct. Moreover, among all the other data, there is only one data connected with the ed-form, thus it cannot lend itself to prove that N has reached a comparative high stage. On the other hand, H encountered the same errors about the plural and 3rd singular forms, which are not emerged where they are necessary, whereas, H was skilled in using ed-form in the obligatory context. In my opinion, H should belong to stage 2.³

3 Analyzing results

Table 1:ESL Morphology

³ The paper is written in Haerbin Engineering University
for researching the situation of ESL

		Number of cases	Number of contexts	Raw score	Percentage	Instances	Suppliance
Plural -s	N	0	2	0/2	0	Two bird Six bird	-suppliance -suppliance
	H	0	2	0/2	0	Seven bird Eight bird	-suppliance -suppliance
3 rd per sg -s	N	0	1	0/1	0	A lady sit	-suppliance
	H	0	2	0/2	0	This man have The lady give	-suppliance -suppliance
Past Tense -ed	N	2	1	2/1	200%	You got I got	Over-suppliance +suppliance
	H	2	2	2/2	100%	I got eight She got six	+suppliance +suppliance

Note: This table is for researching the situation of ESL

From Table 1, in terms of the first linguistic form---plural -s, the two students N and H experienced the same two plural contexts, but surprisingly, they committed the same grammatical mistakes. For example, both of them said “two bird” or “seven bird”, which clearly indicate that they do not understanding how to use the plural form. Therefore, they have the same raw score:0/2 and the percentage score:0%. This finding shows that the two students remain the elementary stage of learning English, and they know the words but they cannot use the words precisely in the specific context. And these two informants’ suppliance of plural morpheme-s in the NP are -suppliance.

4 Reference

- Brown, R.(1973). A first language. Penguin Edition
.Harmondsworth:Penguin Books, 1976.
- De Villiers, J.G. and De Villiers, P.A.(1973).
Across sectional study of the
development of grammatical
Morphemes in child speech.
Journal of Psycholinguistic
Research 3,267-78.
- Ellis, R.(1989).Are classroom and naturalistic
Acquisition the same?A study
of the classroom acquisition of
German word order rules.Studies in
Second Language Acquisition 11,
303-328.
- Jansen, L. (2002). Some perspectives on acquisition
criteria. In B. Di Biase (ed.), Developing
a second language: acquisition,processing
and pedagogy of Arabic, Chinese, English,
Italian, Japanese, Swedish (pp.29-43).
Melbourne: language Australia

Pienemann, M. (1998). Language Processing and
Second language development
Processability Theory. Amsterdam:
Benjamins.

Zhang, Y. (2003) .Hanyu xide biao zhun lue tan:
Zhun qu elu biao zhun he chu xian lu
biao zhun. Shijie Hanyu Jiao xue , 65(3),
52-60 [A note on the accuracy criterion
and the emergence criterion.Chinese
Teaching in the World.]

Networked English Language Education in the KWCCDLP

Kazuharu Owada¹ and Hikyoung Lee²

¹Tokyo College of Music, ²Korea University
Qwq03702@nifty.com, hleeku@korea.ac.kr

Abstract

It has been over 15 years since Waseda University initiated Networked English Language Education (NELE). This paper gives a brief overview of NELE in the Korea-Waseda Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Program (KWCCDLP) and how it has morphed into its present form. A description of a joint course in which participants engage in group oral chat and video conferencing is given. In addition, recent survey data from this course is analyzed to see how participants interact in intercultural communication. Survey results show that participants think that some communication skills are enhanced and that oral chat and video conferencing are effective means for interaction. NELE, in general, appears to be a sustainable and forward-looking model for English education in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts.

Keywords

Intercultural communication, non-native speaker interaction, networked English language education

Introduction

The Korea University-Waseda University Cross-cultural distance learning program (KWCCDLP) can be traced back to 1999. This also marks the beginning of Networked English Language Education as proposed by Michiko Nakano. Nakano envisioned a form of education in which technology and the Internet could be harnessed to provide a “network” of English learners. In this network, learners could engage in real-time, synchronous, authentic interaction that could transcend space limitations. At the time, NELE was innovative and even considered bold as computer-assisted language learning was limited due to obvious reasons such as logistics and cost.

This presentation provides a history of the KWCCDLP and an overview of NELE in the KWCCDLP.

1 Overview of KWCCDLP

As Park succinctly states,

The KWCCDLP is a unique project...The program fosters the development of mutual understanding and friendship among students from different cultures and motivates them to use and learn English as a communication tool by lowering their affective filter.

(Park, 2002)

At present, Korea University runs five credit courses, and two non-credit courses per year in the KWCCLP. Waseda University ran 17 two-credit half-year CCDL courses in 2014. The format of the CCDL courses have evolved over the years. While the basic format of combining chat with video conferences remains, other aspects have changed. In 1999, chat was limited to written chat whereas from 2008, the courses began to incorporate oral chat. Also a multi-national course which included a third university, in the KWCCDLP case Tamkang University, Taiwan was initiated. In order to assess the effectiveness and impact of the CCDL courses, an end-of-course survey has been conducted from the fall semester of 2014.

2 Survey results

The following are some notable responses to some selected items from the joint survey that was conducted in 2014 in the CCDL: Media course. On the KU side, 21 of 22 students responded and for WU, 9 of 11 students did so. The CCDL courses are comprised of LiveOn discussion (oral group chat) and video conference sessions. A textbook written by Waseda University is used.

Table 1. Skills (multiple answers allowed)

Skill	KU (N = 21)	WU (N = 19)
Speaking	16	8
Listening	10	4
Writing	2	0
Reading	0	0
Facilitation	9	2
Discussion	13	6
Presentation	3	4
Intercultural translation	9	3
Clarifying	4	2
Cultural understanding	6	6
Total	72	35

Table 1 shows that participants' active skills are enhanced in addition to facilitation skills. As there is no clear reading component in the course, none answered that this skill was enhanced.

(1) LiveOn discussion

WU: “I couldn't explain the Japanese situation or rules so clearly because of my poor English skill. That was the only regret.”

English skill. That was the only regret.

KU: “it was the first time for me to have class like ours and I enjoyed it”

(2) Video conference session

WU: “I think I had opportunities to know what other countries students consider of particular topics. In many cases, there were interesting.”

KU: “class discussion and listening/watching as a whole class together proved to be more beneficial/effective”

As seen from the comments in (1) and (2), participants seem to appreciate the combination of oral chat and video conferences. As for the benefits of the course as seen in Table 2, participants’ said that ‘understanding partner universities’ was the largest benefit with ‘using English’ following.

Table 2. Main Benefits of CCDL Course (multiple answers allowed)

Item	KU (N = 21)	WU (N = 19)
Understanding partner	17	9
Using English	13	4
Understanding myself	3	4
Daily communication	4	2
Understanding others	5	4
Using technology	4	0
Expression opinions	7	3
Making friends	5	4
Other*	1	0
Total	59	30

* understanding other English varieties

As the selected results from the end-of-course survey show, overall, participants have positive views towards CCDL and perceive NELE to be an effective means of English learning.

3 NELE

Waseda University has been implementing a program called Networked English Language Education (NELE) for more than a decade (see, for example, Nakano et al. 2006). In the NELE program students study various subjects as well as English via technology. The NELE at Waseda includes English Tutorial, Cross-Cultural Distance Learning (CCDL), and Cyber Lectures. Among these three, CCDL is designed to promote intercultural communication among Asian students through the means of English.

The four objectives of CCDL are (1) to deepen students’ cross-cultural understandings among Asian countries through the means of English, (2) to foster understandings for different cultures based on the sound comparisons of cultures, (3) to acquire the willingness to participate in discussions, and (4) to acquire such skills as discussion skills, facilitation skills and presentation skills.

In other words, CCDL plays a very important role in enhancing NELE in the Asian context. Furthermore, CCDL makes the most of the networked technology to the great extent possible via videochatting and videoconferencing, providing our Asian students with opportunities to engage not only in ELF (English as a lingua franca) interactions but also in cross-cultural understanding.

4 Conclusion

The KWCCDLP stems from the Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (PAAL) which was established in 1996 and is celebrating its 10th anniversary at this conference. The collaboration between Waseda University and Korea University has been the driving force of several educational initiatives of which the KWCCDLP is one. This presentation has attempted to provide an overview of the KWCCDLP and NELE. Through the KWCCDLP, NELE has been proven to be an effective teaching method for non-native speakers of English in using English as a lingua franca.

5 References

- Nakano, M., Bonham, M., Owada, K., Ueda, N., Oya, M., Negishi, J., & Kondo, Y. (2006). Networked English language education at Waseda university: Toward creating Asian-Pacific intelligence (II)—CCDL and cyber seminars. *Proceedings of the 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 173-184.
- Park, K-J. (2002). On the KWCCDLP and its significance in English education. Keynote speech delivered at the *International Conference on Information Technology and Universities in Asia*, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand.
- Park, K-J. (2003). Overview of CCDL between Korea University and Waseda University. In Park, K-J., Nakano, M., & H. Lee, *Cross-cultural distance language learning and acquisition*. Seoul: Hankook Publishing Co.
- Waseda University. (2014). *2014 Fall CCDL survey (KU, WU-Media)*. Waseda University Academic Solutions.

EFL Students' Business English: The Effect of Interaction with International Business Homepages

Eunhee Han

Korea Nazarene University
ehhan@kornu.ac.kr

Abstract

Business English can be taught in several ways under different academic environments. Teaching business English through the international business homepage is one of them. This presentation is to examine EFL students' interaction with international business homepages and its effect of learning English. The participants in this study were twenty five undergraduate students in Korea. The students' major is a business related major. This study is based on students' assignment research on international business homepages. The research includes a report about a certain business' vision, and (core) value. Students are asked to present their findings that include problems, issues, and challenges they encounter linguistically based on their understanding of the international business homepage. The report papers oral presentations were collected from informal structured interviews that were conducted. The study has analyzed and identified the effect of learning business English through using international business homepages. This study concludes with suggestions for further study.

Keywords

ESP, Business English

Introduction

From the early 1990s, English for Business started to be emphasized as one of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs. It focuses on business communication skills, business related vocabulary development, and world-wide cross-cultural awareness as English becomes a major language in the business world. In ESP for business, learners are taught to meet the needs of business by learning business writing and presentation skills related to business cases. In this presentation, the presenter will focus on how students interact with international business homepages.

1 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) refers to primary teaching and learning spoken and written communication at workplaces which requires special training. As Robinson (1991) defined "ESP is a major activity around the world today. It is an

enterprise involving education, training and practice, and drawing upon three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy, and the student participants' specialized areas of interest" (p. 1). Orr (2002) stated that ESP possesses three specific relations in English language education-specific subject, specific tasks for specific purposes, and ESP discourse. In another words, ESP requires specific needs in learning for both native and nonnative speakers. The origins of ESP can be read in a Hutchinson and Waters (1987) article. They mentioned the Second World War and the early 1970's Oil Crisis. Thus, English took a part of the language teaching profession in the needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 7).

2 ESP Program for Business English

Business English can be defined "as a subfield that focuses on the development of communicative competence for business settings, also known as target situations or situated contexts in business (Boyed, 2002, p. 41). That is, business English focuses on the specific ability within the context that leads to effective and successful business management (Richards, 1989). It requires professional expertise which can be expressed in English competencies (Bhatia, 2000). More, business English meets the needs of learners who are able to function in English professionally in the workplace and the culture of business (St. John, 1996). A program for business English can be designed focusing on the business learners' specific needs which is then compared with a program in general English and its programs meet the basic criteria for ESP.

3 Participants and Methodology

The participants in this study were twenty five second year undergraduate students in Korea. The students' took a Global Society and Business course during the spring semester of 2015. Business English lessons were part of this course. For this study, students were asked to research on international business homepages and report about each business' vision, and (core) value. Students were asked to present their findings including problems, issues, and challenges they encounter

linguistically based on their understanding of the international business homepage. The study followed a case study research and then was analyzed qualitatively.

4 Findings

There are two main findings from this study. First, the participants realized that many business homepages, especially the vision and value sections, were using certain phrases and words. For example, the majority of students looked at Samsung as one of the leading international businesses. On the Samsung homepage at <http://www.samsung.com>, it says, regarding vision that "Samsung is dedicated to developing innovative technologies and efficient processes that create new markets, enrich people's lives and continue to make Samsung a digital leader." Their values are "people, excellence, change, integrity, and co-prosperity". Here, the students found that there are certain words and expressions that are likely to be used by many companies. Second, it was difficult for students to surf around to find a category to show the company's vision and value since most homepages show its business' products or main business. For example, when visiting a certain business homepage, it shows its company's products or the main part of their business. Most of time, the 'About Us' category is located at the bottom of the homepage. It was not easily ~~noticed~~ discovered by the students if they do not know what they were looking for.

5 Conclusion

The findings of this study showed that ESP is needed for business English courses. The certain English phrases and words used on the homepages indicates that business English needs to taught and be designed specifically. Also, like the 'About Us' category, business English courses need to access businesses purpose activities. This study was a small case study and too limited to draw any generalization or conclusion. However, it shows that ESP is required for a specific context such as business English. Further research should be followed.

6 References

- Bhatia, V. K. (2000, March). *Integrating Discursive Competence and Professional Practice: A New Challenge for ESP*. Paper presented at the 34th Annual TESOL Convention, Vancouver, BC, Canada.
- Boyd, F. (2002). An ESP program for students of business. In T. Orr (Ed.), *English for specific purposes*. pp. 41-56. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Orr, T. (2002). The nature of English for specific purposes. In T. Orr (Ed.), *English for specific purposes*. pp 1-3. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.
- Richards, K. (1989). Pride and prejudice: The relationship between ESP and training. *English for Specific Purposes*, 8, 202-222.
- Robinson, P. C. (1991). *ESP today: A practitioner's guide*. Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd.
- St. John, M. (1996). Business is booming: Business English in the 1990s. *English for Specific Purposes*, 15, 3-18.

Bilingualism among mixed race children in Japan

Barry Kavanagh

Tohoku University
kavanagh.barry.e7@tohoku.ac.jp

Abstract

This paper addresses the difficulties in raising a bilingual mixed race child born to a native English speaking and Japanese parent in Japan. In a monolingual country such as Japan where English is not widely spoken and in a country that has some of the lowest TOFEL scores in the world this paper examines some of the difficulties parents have in raising their child to be bilingual in a one-language environment.

Keywords

Bilingualism, Japan, mixed race children

Introduction

The term *haafu* is now the predominant term, albeit offensive to some (Kavanagh, 2013), to describe someone (usually born in Japan) who is the offspring of a Japanese and foreign parent. It stems from the English word half. They are usually raised and educated in Japan, and are fluent in Japanese. With the exception of appearance, they are essentially Japanese. It is considered by many in Japan that the so called ‘*haafu*’ or mixed race child is fluent in both Japanese and their minority language, especially if that minority language is English, a language used on a global scale. However, discussions with most parents trying to bring up their children bilingually in Japan will tell you that this is not always the case and there are many cases of passive bilinguals who can understand but not produce the second language proficiently (Kavanagh, 2013). This paper addresses some of the issues and influences in the raising of a bilingual child in Japan through questionnaire and interview data that was conducted with the parents and the mixed race children themselves.

1 Data and Methods

A total of 10 families comprising of 17 children aged 4-12 participated in this study, the purpose of which was to examine the significant factors that determine the ‘successful’ raising of bilingual mixed race children. Questionnaires were initially given to the parents of these children with regards to the techniques they employ to encourage and promote English proficiency. In addition

environment factors outside the home were also considered to play an influential role. Follow up visits included interviews with the children and observation of child and parent interaction with the minority language

Table 1. Family structure and Bilingual approach

Mother Japanese Father English Son (11), Daughter (5). Bilingual approach *OPOL	Mother Japanese Father American 4 sons (15, 11, 9, 7). Bilingual approach *OPOL **MLAH
Mother American Father Japanese Son (11). Bilingual approach *OPOL **MLAH	Mother Japanese Father Irish Son (8), Daughter (6). Bilingual approach *OPOL **MLAH
Mother Australian Father Japanese Daughter (11), son (7). Bilingual approach *OPOL **MLAH	Mother Japanese Father American Daughter (7). Bilingual approach *OPOL
Mother Japanese Father English Daughter (9). Bilingual approach *OPOL	Mother American Father Japanese Daughter (10). Bilingual approach ***MLP
Mother Japanese Father Irish Son (4). Bilingual approach *OPOL**MLAH	Mother Japanese Father American Daughter (10), Son (9). Bilingual approach *OPOL

Note: Children’s age appears in brackets.

*One Parent-One Language (OPOL) **Minority Language at Home (MLAH) ***Mixed Language Policy (MLP)

2 Results

The mixed race children spoke of the expectations placed upon them to be proficient in English and how they perceive their own ethnic identity as well as how Japanese society perceives them. Parental concerns focused on the monolingual Japanese environment that surrounds their home and the lack of chances for their children to have other mixed race or foreign friends which would allow them to be exposed to a broader international environment.

The techniques parents employ to foster a bilingual educational setting was also examined. As Japan is a monolingual country chances to use the language outside of the home were limited especially with the families who resided in rural Japan where foreigners are something of a rarity.

The parents employed the OPOL (one parent, one language) approach whereby the foreign parent only spoke to their child in English and in most of the families' cases this was the only English interaction that the child received, especially with families residing in rural area. According to Arnberg (1987) however, by using just the OPOL approach the child is likely to be a passive bilingual at best and the results here reflected that assumption.

However the use of combining the OPOL and MLAH (Minority language at Home) approach whereby both parents spoke English within the home seemed to produce a dominant bilingual when presented with the data here.

3 Conclusion

Results suggest that environmental factors have a strong bearing on the raising of a bilingual child in Japan and where they live may determine the level and the kind of bilingual they will eventually be in adulthood. The language of the home is also influential in what kind of bilingual ability the child will have. Foreign parents who adhered to speaking English with their child along with the Japanese parent also adopting English within the home tended to have children with better English language ability as reflected in their *Eiken* scores. The *Eiken* test (A test in practical English proficiency) is an external examination taken in Japan.

4 References

- Arnberg, L. (1987) *Raising Children Bilingually: The Pre-school Years*.
Multilingual Matters
- Kavanagh, B (2013) The Raising of bilingual *haafu* children in contemporary Japan. *electronic journal of contemporary Japanese studies* volume 13 issue 4.

DAY 2 (Sunday, December 6, 2015)

Poster Session II (Room 315) Moderator: Yuji Nakamura (Keio University)

Time	Session	Presentation
13:30-16:00	Q-1	Evaluation of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning in the Korean ELT Context Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul University)
	Q-2	Native English Speaking Instructors' Belief of Effective College English Conversation Courses Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji University)
	Q-3	Korean College Students' L2 Learning Experience in a Short-term Study Abroad Context: A Grounded Theory Approach Eun-Mi Yang (Kkottongnae University)
	Q-4	The Effects of Genre-Based Instruction on Korean EFL Learners' English Writing Performance Hyesook Park (Kunsan National University)
	Q-5	Effects of Combined Use of Questioning and Indirect Feedback on L2 Writing Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women's University)
	Q-6	The Sociocultural Needs of Korean Engineering Students in the Global Academic Community Inyoung Shin (Namseoul University) Bokmyung Chang (Namseoul University)
	Q-7	Gains of Learning Business English for Non-Business Majors in Korea Hyung-ji Chang (Sun Moon University)
	Q-8	An Application of Programming Learning Software to Grammar Error Detection Tasks Michiko Nakano (Waseda University) Michitaka Aramoto (Nisshin Adsol Co. Ltd.) H. Kei (Waseda University) S. Yoshida (Waseda University)
	Q-9	Visualization of Reading Processes Based on Learner Logs (1) Michiko Nakano (Waseda University) Michitaka Aramoto (Nisshin Adsol Co. Ltd.) S. Yoshida (Waseda University)
	Q-10	Visualization of Reading Processes Based on Learner Logs (2) Michiko Nakano (Waseda University) Michitaka Aramoto (Nisshin Adsol Co. Ltd.) Yusuke Kondo (Waseda University) Kazuhiro Sata (Waseda University) Kota Suko (Waseda University) M. Hirasawa (Waseda University)

Evaluation of Cross-Cultural Distance Learning in the Korean ELT Context

Bokmyung Chang

Namseoul University
cbm0709@hanmail.net

Abstract

This study aims to review the development of NWCCDL Project during the last 10 years (from 2005 to 2014), and evaluate the effects of NWCCDL Project on the students' satisfaction of the project and their affective domain. The research data was analyzed from the results of the questionnaires which were conducted at the end of every semester. This research paper consists of three parts. The first is to review the development of NWCCDL Project from fall semester 2005 to fall semester 2014. The second part is to prove that the participants are satisfied with this project. The students' satisfaction was analyzed on the results of the questionnaires focusing on several items. The third part is to prove that this project is very effective in cultivating the motivation and interest of EFL learners in the Korean university-level education context.

Keywords

CCDL(Cross-Cultural Distance Learning)/
Information and Communication Technology
(ICT)/computer-mediated communication (CMC)/
/Non-native speakers /English Language Teaching/
Online chatting/BBS /Affective Domain/Motivation

Introduction

This research aims to achieve the following purposes. The first is to review the development of NWCCDL (Namseoul-Waseda Cross-Cultural Distance Learning; henceforth, NWCCDL) Project from the fall semester, 2005 to fall semester, 2014. This project is Cross-Cultural Distance Learning Project which has been practiced between Namseoul University in Korea and Waseda University in Japan since 2005.

1 Data Collection and Analysis

The data has been collected from the fall semester of 2005 to the fall semester of 2014. For the quantitative method, a research survey through a questionnaire was conducted at the end of each semester.

2 Course Description

2.1 LiveOn chatting activities

During these activities, all of the participants in this program are supposed to meet for one hour once a week at appointed time and date, and they had to

record all the interactions through text chat and oral chat, and submit them as a report for the course.

2.2 BBS activities

All of the participants in this program can access the web site for this program and post their opinions about the online chatting session at any time. The most important function of the BBS is to open the field to the students in order to express their opinions and interact with each other so that they can cultivate communicative competence in English and understand the cultural differences between the two cultures.

3 Findings and Discussion

Figure 1. The number of the participants in this program

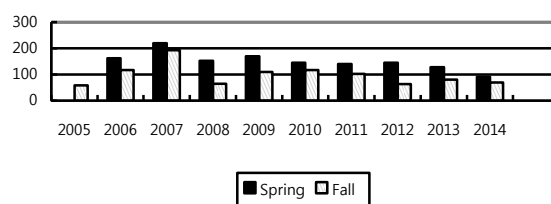


Figure 2. The gender of the participants in this program



Figure 3. The academic year of the participants in this program



Figure 4. The participating frequency in the chatting session

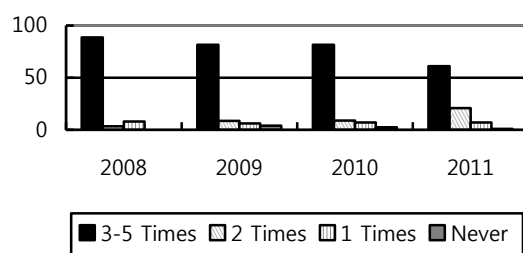


Figure 5. The preference of chatting types

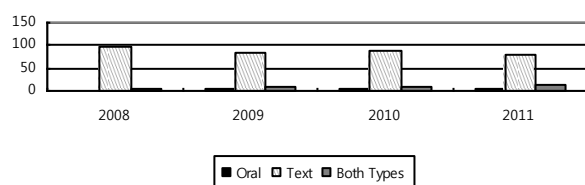


Figure 6.

The program helped me to improve my ability to communicate using English

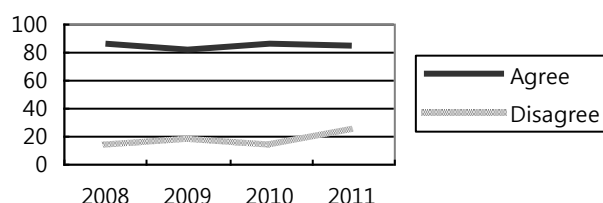


Figure 7. I would like to recommend this program to other students

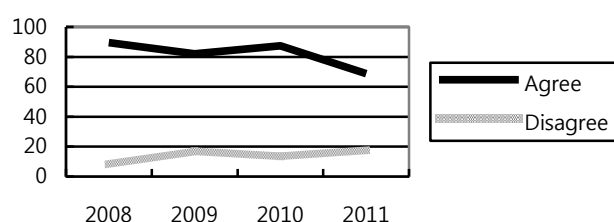
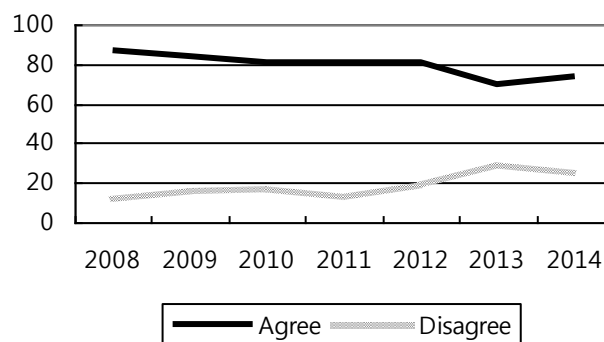


Figure 8. I would like to participate in this program again



4 Conclusion

1) This research aims to survey the developmental process of NWCCDL Project during 10 years focusing on the number of participants, the gender of the participants, the academic year of the participant, the participating frequency in the chatting session, the preference of chatting types, etc.

2) This research has proven that a majority of the participants in this project are satisfied with this program focusing on the following items

3) This research proves that this project is very effective in cultivating the motivation and interest of EFL learners in Japanese and Korean universities.

5 References

- Chen, Y. H. (2005). Computer-mediated communication: The use of CMC to develop EFL learners' communicative competence. *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(1), 167-182.
- Huh, K. (2007). Critical issue: Creativity and CALL. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL Environment: Research, practice, and critical issues* (2nd ed., pp.210-223). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Huh, K. (2011). CMC in English classrooms: Beyond language learning. *Studies in English language & literature*, 37(2), 319-346.
- Huh, K. (2012). CMC in English language learning: gains and losses. *English language & literature teaching*, 18 (3), 93-120.
- Kano, Y. (2004). Going beyond the classroom with videoconferencing and Internet discussion forum: Effective use of peer editing from Japanese college students. *Current report on Japanese-language education around the globe*, 7, 239-256.
- Murphy, P. (2010). Web-based collaborative reading exercises for learners in remote locations: the effects of computer-mediated feedback and interaction via computer-mediated communication. *ReCall*, 22(2), 112-134.
- Nakano, M, et. al. (2006). Networked English Language Education at Waseda University: Toward creating Asian-Pacific Intelligence (2)-CCDL and Cyber Seminars. In *Proceedings of the 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 173-184.

Native English Speaking Instructors' Belief of Effective College English conversation Courses

Myeong-Hee Seong

Eulji University
seong@eulji.ac.kr

Abstract

The study investigated native speaker instructors' beliefs of effective college English conversation courses in the Korean university setting. It examined what makes an engaging and successful English conversation class, and explored what some implications of these findings for native English-speaking instructors in the Korean EFL classroom are. For the purpose of this study, data was collected through the lecturing journals and semi-structured interviews of nine native English speakers for one semester. They were analyzed according to their educational and other experiential backgrounds. For the results, a qualitative case study methodology was used to find them. The results revealed that they believed that students' active participation and facilitator as the instructor's role were the key to successful English learning following the Communicative Language Teaching approach; however, CLT was interpreted in different ways by different instructors. Based on these findings, some implications and suggestions for the EFL classroom are provided.

Keywords

Teaching methods, native English instructor perceptions

Introduction

There are a great number of native speakers of English who teach EFL in Korea nowadays. Accordingly, it is becoming more common for Korean EFL students to be exposed to native English speaking instructor (NESI)'s instruction in university classes. Korean instructors of English have their own background when it comes to teaching English, which includes a focus on grammar, pattern and vocabulary memorization and recitation. NESIs usually have their own idiosyncratic methods and focuses in teaching English. Since NESIs are from foreign nations and thus have different cultural experiences, the beliefs and the underlying framework of their teaching styles are affected. That said, some are trained or have backgrounds in TESOL, while some learn from experience, thus there are those NESIs who

have the practical experience, those who have the academic background, and those who have both. Some teach English for only a few years, while some make a career of it. Likewise, some receive a Masters in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) before or after coming to Korea, while some take TESOL courses or even just engage in continuing education type classes.

An increasing amount of research regarding students' perception of NESI's classes has been performed recently (Dirks & Kim, 2014; Klemesen & Seong, 2012; Park, 2014; Yang, 2011). However, little research on how NESIs perceive their English class has been performed. Considering the fact that the majority of communication-focused English classes at universities are taught by NESI, it is important to investigate what the NESI believe about teaching English, and how they change or modify their beliefs and practices for the context in which they teach (Kim, 2011). Thus, the present study recognizes the need for an in-depth investigation to explore NESI beliefs on teaching with the reference of their backgrounds and suggests implications for college English conversation courses through a qualitative approach.

More specifically, the current study attempted to investigate the NESIs' beliefs on learning and teaching with reference to their educational and other experiential backgrounds and the role of instructor in terms of teaching methods and the research questions were posed as follows:

1. How does the previous teaching and learning experience of instructors affect their present teaching? How do they adapt their perception of teaching to each individual class in terms of teaching method?
2. According to the instructor's perception, what makes an engaging and successful class? What are some implications of these finding for NESIs in Korean EFL classroom?

1 Method

A. Participants

Table 1. Demography of Participants

	Nationality	Sex	Major	TE	Camp
A	New Zealand	F	English	14	No
B	Ireland	M	Sociology	9	Yes
C	America	F	ESL	5	Yes
D	America	M	Medical	6	Yes
E	America	M	MBA	4	No
F	America	M	Writing	2	Yes
G	Canada	F	French	8	Yes
H	England	M	Writing	7	Yes
I	America	M	Writing	5	Yes

TE: Teaching Experience

Camp: English Camp Experience

B. Data Sources

The data had been collected by a journal of lecturing and interviews were conducted to support the journal. The nine participants were asked to fill out the journal every week right after the class during the fall semester of 2014. The journal consisted of four parts. The first part was a self report form. The first section was about the teaching philosophy, the second part was about the course objectives, and the third detailed learner analysis. The fourth part was a week by week diary, which included the content of what was taught, the teaching method, analysis of the students' participation and reaction, whether or not the class's goals were achieved, and impressions and self evaluation of the lecture. These last five sections in the weekly diary repeat for each week, and are open-ended in order to investigate the participant's beliefs and experiences. The classes written about in the self-assessment journal of lecturing were the Conversation I classes, which freshman of all majors must take as a graduation requirement.

C. Data Analysis

In order to initiate data analysis, the researcher repeatedly read through the collected data. While reading, reflective memos, comments, and questions were written in the transcriptions' margins. The memos and comments were turned into an outline into which data was compiled. The outline began as an attempt to plot the emerging regularities.

2 Result and Discussion

The findings of this study show that the participants believed communicative language teaching to be the most effective method. Instructors reported that (1) communication is the ultimate goal in language learning and (2) even through language learning

involves a lot of memorization and recall of vocabulary and grammatical rules, language learning is seen as a skill that is improved through the process of making, identifying and correcting mistakes, not as a process of being so afraid because they are focusing on being perfect that they don't try at all.

Table 2. Focuses between AL and CLT

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Meaning	2	1	1	4	1	3	1	4	4
Memorization	2	1	1	3	1	3	1	4	1
Drilling	2	4	4	4	1	1	1	4	4
Motivation	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	4	4
Creativity	2	1	1	3	1	3	1	4	4

1: the instructor used only CLT methods

2: the instructor used only AL methods

3: the instructor used mostly AL but also CLT methods

4: the instructor used mostly CLT but also AL methods

Table 3. Relationship between Role and Teaching Methods

Role/Teaching Method	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Director/ Warm up	*		*		*		*	*	*
Counselor/ Interaction	*	*	*		*		*	*	*
Model/ Practice	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Facilitator/ Speaking	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Parent/ Retention		*	*		*		*	*	*
Judge/Mastery			*		*				*
Facilitator/Applica- -tion	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Artist/Creativity			*		*	*	*		*

3 References

- Almarza, G. G. (1996). Student foreign language instructors' knowledge growth. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Instructor learning in language teaching*. (pp. 50-78). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. (2006). *Language instructor supervision: A case-based approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Becker, H. S. (1968). Social observation and social case studies. *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, 11, 232-238.

A Blended Learning Model for the Intercultural Communication among EFL Learners in Asia

Bokmyung Chang

Namseoul University
cbm0709@hanmail.net

Abstract

This study aims to develop the blended learning model for the intercultural communication. It is rather easy to find the lesson model for practicing English language proficiency through online activities owing to the rapid development of Information and Communication Technology. But it is not enough to practice English language through either online activities in a CALL classroom or the traditional lesson in the general classroom. So it is desirable to devise the blended learning to combine online activities and a traditional lesson model in order to cultivate English language competence of EFL learners. In the 2nd semester, 2014, the intercultural communication project was solely online activities. In the 1st semester, 2015, the intercultural communication project was modified into the blended learning model by combining the online activities and the traditional lesson model. The results of satisfaction of the participants show that the participants in the blended learning model were very much satisfied with the intercultural communication project, which proves that the blended learning model is more effective to cultivate the participants' motivation.

Keywords

Information and Communication Technology (ICT)/ computer-mediated communication(CMC)/ intercultural communication / blended learning / EFL Learners/ Online chatting/BBS posting / /motivation

Introduction

This research paper consists of two parts. The first is to introduce the intercultural communication project; synchronous online activities (LiveOn chatting program), and asynchronous online activities (BBS posting program). The second is to prove the effectiveness of blending the presentation in the general classroom with online activities in the CALL classroom on the participants' motivation for

the intercultural communication project. The students' satisfaction was analyzed on the results of the questionnaires focusing on the several items; 'I would like to participate in this program again', 'Were the LiveOn chat sessions meaningful for you?', and 'Were the use of Course N@vi for posting comments on BBS meaningful for you?'. The analytic results from the students' responses through the questionnaire provide significant implications for the effectiveness of the blended learning in cultivating the motivation and interest of EFL learners in the Asian context.

1 The components of the Intercultural communication project

Figure 1. Online Activity Model of the Intercultural Communication Project (A semester)

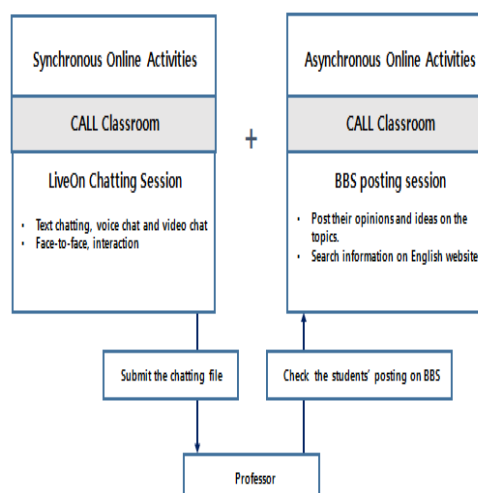


Figure 2. Blended Learning Model for the Intercultural Communication Project (B semester)

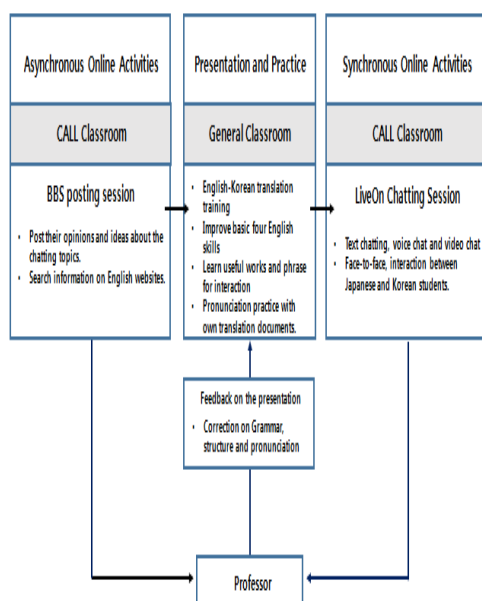


Figure 3. I would like to participate in this program again.

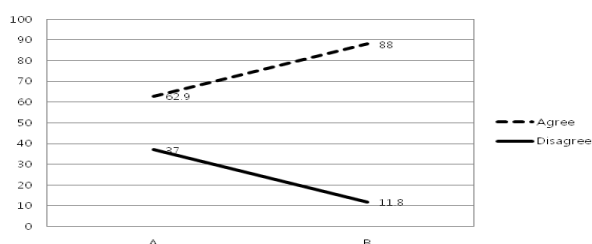


Table 1. The components of the Intercultural communication project

Participants	University students in Korea and Japan
Synchronous Online Activities	Video / voice / text chat-style distant synchronous interaction with LiveOn session
Asynchronous Online Activities	Students can post their opinions about the online chatting session at any time. Students can ask any questions about this intercultural communication project through BBS session named CourseN@vi.
Communication Environment	computers in the computer room using the wired broadband network on campus

2 Conclusions

To compare the results of the participants' satisfaction for the intercultural communication project, the same questionnaire form was used at the end of each semester. Through the analytic results of the questionnaire items; 'I would like to participate in this program again', 'Were the LiveOn chat sessions meaningful for you?', and 'Were the use of Course N@vi for posting comments on BBS meaningful for you?', the percentage of strong agreement or agreement on the above three questions increased much from A semester to the B semester. This fact strongly implies that most of the participants of this project are satisfied with the project with the blended learning model, rather than with just the online activities. Also, these research results prove that most of the students agreed that the using of ICT in ELT context is very important in cultivating the motivation and interest of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners in Japanese and Korean universities.

3 References

- Chen, Y. H. (2005). Computer-mediated communication: The use of CMC to develop EFL learners' communicative competence. *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(1), 167-182.
- Greenfield, R. (2003). Collaborative e-mail exchange for teaching secondary ESL: A case study in Hong Kong. *Language Learning & Technology*, 7(1), 46-70.
- Kano, Y. (2004). Going beyond the classroom with videoconferencing and Internet discussion forum: Effective use of peer editing from Japanese college students. *Current report on Japanese - language education around the globe*, 7, 239-256.
- Lee, L. (2005). Using web-based instruction to promote active learning: Learners' perspectives. *CALICO Journal*, 23, 139-156.
- Olaniran, B. A. (2006). Applying synchronous computer-mediated communication into course design: Some considerations and practical guides. *Campus Wide Information Systems*, 23(3), 210-220.
- Pasfield-Neofitous, S. (2011). Online domains of language use: Second language learners' experiences of virtual community and foreignness. *Language Learning & Technology*, 15(2), 92-108. Retrieved from the World Wide Web: <http://ilt.msu.edu/issues/june2011/pasfieldneofitou.pdf>
- Sugie, S. et al. (2014). Practice and Evaluation of Blended Learning with Cross-Cultural Distance Learning in a Foreign Language Class: Using Mix Methods Data Analysis. *Pan-pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 18(2), 1-19.

The Effects of Genre-Based Instruction on Korean EFL Learners' English Writing Performance

Park Hyesook

¹Kunsan National University
sapark@kunsan.ac.kr

Abstract

The current study explored how Korean EFL learners' English writing performance improved through genre-based instruction. Fourteen students' pre/post/delayed-writing samples were collected before and after genre-based writing instruction. The data from the writings were analyzed in terms of text structure, argument quality, text length, and linguistic features including connectives, modalities, passives and voice. The results of the study indicated that the participants made a change in their text structure and argument quality, and that they showed a growth of text length in terms of words, clauses and sentences. In particular, the higher group made a more significant increase in text length than that of the lower group. As for the linguistic features, qualitative changes in the use of connectives and modal auxiliaries were noticeable in their post and delayed writings along with the quantitative changes. In addition, it was shown that post and delayed writings were written in more objective tone by using impersonal voice and passives than their pre-writings. From these findings, some suggestions were given in the end of the study.

Keywords

genre-based writing instruction, argumentative writing, English writing, Korean EFL learners

Introduction

The current study conducted genre-based instruction to Korean students and examined their arguing writings in English both immediately and in a long term (Hyland, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; Park, 2007). The current study addresses the following research questions:

1. How does genre-based writing instruction affect Korean EFL learners' immediate and delayed texts in terms of genre-generic features of arguing writing?
2. How does genre-based writing instruction affect Korean EFL learners' immediate and delayed texts in terms of linguistic features of arguing writing?

2 Method

2.1 Participants

The participants of the current study were the fourteen high school students. The participants were divided into two groups according to their school English scores which were based on a nation-wide mock test: Higher group, and lower group. The means of the English scores of the higher group was 90.7 while that of the lower group were 74.7.

2.2 Procedures

The participants were instructed how to write an arguing essay in English through 5 writing sessions, each of which lasted more than an hour and a half, based on Feez's (2002) teaching-learning cycle. According to the cycle, the teacher has an explicitly intervention role in the beginning stage. The teacher has to help the students understand the typical rhetorical patterns and grammar of the target genre for producing communicatively effective writing of the genre. Gradually, through the teacher's provision of necessary explanation of text structure and language features pertinent to the genre and guided practice, the students come to gain control of the genre and finally they autonomously produce their own text equipped with text structure and grammatical features of the target genre.

2.3 Data Collection and Analysis

Fourteen participants were asked to write an essay on special topics before and after the genre-based instruction in the classroom. Two weeks later after the genre-based writing sessions, they were again asked to write their views about the same topic of pre-writing, "wearing a school uniform." As a result, 42 essays were collected for the analyses of the study.

Two raters, the researcher and an English native teacher experienced in teaching English writing more than ten years, measured the 3-move text structure and Toulmin's core feature of argument (adapted from Kang, 2013), and the inter-rater reliability was statistically analyzed through Pearson Correlation. The coefficients were 0.86 ($p=.000$) for pre-writing

0.82 ($p=.000$) for post-writing, and 0.78 ($p=.000$) for delayed-writing.

3 Results

A. Generic Feature in Argument

Table 1. Text Structure

Group	Pre-W	Post-W	Delayed-W
HG (n=7)	4.0	4.2	4.2
LG (n=7)	3.1	3.4	3.4
Total (n=14)	3.5	3.8	3.9

Table 2. Argument Quality

Group	Pre-W	Post-W	Delayed-W
HG (n=7)	6.3	8.0	7.3
LG (n=7)	5.1	5.7	6.1
Total(n=14)	5.7	6.8	6.7

Note: HG means the higher group. LG means the lower group.

B. Linguistic Features

Table 3. Use of Connectives

Group	Pre-W	Post-W	Delayed-W
HG	4.6	5.9	5.9
LG	4.7	4.9	7.0
Total	4.6	5.4	6.4

Table 4. Use of Modalities

Group	Pre-W	Post-W	Delayed-W
HG	3.9	4.9	4.4
LG	3.1	2.9	3.1
Total	3.5	3.6	3.8

Table 5. Use of Passives

Group	Pre-W	Post-W	Delayed W
HG	0.9	1.9	2.3
LG	0.0	0.6	1.3
Total	0.4	1.2	1.8

4 Conclusion

The current study explored Korean EFL high school students' development of argumentative writing through genre-based writing instruction. For the purpose of the study, 14 participants' pre/post/delayed writings were collected and analyzed in terms of text structure, argument quality, and linguistic features. The overall findings indicated that genre-based writing instruction positively affected the participants' development of argumentative writing abilities including text structure, argument quality and linguistic features. Moreover, it was shown that the instruction consistently contributed to the participants' writing

performance in the long term. To put it specifically, the participants made steady progress in constructing the text structure and quality in argument, even in the delayed-writing. Along with such improvement, a growth in length of text was found through the genre-based writing sessions: The total number of words, clauses, and sentences increased, which explicitly meant the participants' development in argumentative writing.

It has to be mentioned that the current study was limited to only 14 high school students, and it did not intend to investigate the effects of genre-based instruction by comparing with a control group. Thus, with such a limited number and research methodology, the findings may be quite specific and there may be a limitation to generalization of them. Thus, it is hoped that more empirical studies with a larger number of different participants in Korean EFL learners' English writing can be conducted to lead to the development of teaching and learning English writing.

5 References

- Feez, S. (2002). Heritage and innovation in second language education. In A. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom* (pp. 43-72). Mahwah, NJ: LEA.
- Hyland, K. (2003a). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29.
- Hyland, K. (2003b). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Kang, Hey Seung (2013). Genre feature and language competence in written arguments of Korean EFL learners. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 29(3), 101-131.
- Park, Chongkum. (2007). Effects of genre-based writing instruction on Korean high school students' writing development in English. A master's thesis at the Graduate School of Seoul National University.

Effects of Combined Use of Questioning and Indirect Feedback on L2 Writing

Kyunhee Choi

Hanyang Women's University
khchoi@hywoman.ac.kr

Abstract

This paper aims to analyze the effects of combined use of questioning by students and indirect feedback given by a teacher on writing activities. Twenty-three female college students in the experimental group were taught to question problematic words, structures, content, and organization of their drafts. The teacher in the study responded only to the questions asked by the students and gave some indirect feedback by underlining the errors that had not been noticed by the students. They wrote three drafts which were later evaluated by three native English instructors. There were two rounds of interaction between students and teacher: one after the first draft and the other after the second draft. The average scores rated by the three native instructors were used to measure the effectiveness of combining the two methods of questioning and indirect feedback. The results of the paired sample T-test analyses indicate meaningful improvement in their third drafts, compared to the first ones. Among the four categories, the students improved significantly in accuracy. The results of the questionnaire survey and reflective recalls reveal that the students found the combined use of the two methods helpful and effective. The analyses of some students' drafts support these positive findings.

Keywords

questioning, direct feedback, indirect feedback

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to find out whether the combination of the two methods - questioning by students and indirect feedback by teacher - is effective for the improvement of students' final written products. The interaction used the methods of questioning by the students and giving indirect feedback by the teacher in terms of the four categories: content, organization, word choice, and accuracy. The method of questioning incorporates direct feedback by the teacher. Different from various other direct feedback, this method sets a precondition that the teacher gives direct feedback only to the questions that the students asks.

- 1) Do the students in the experiment show improvement in terms of content, organization, word choice, and accuracy as they go through the first, second and third drafts?
- 2) What is the perception of the students toward questioning and indirect feedback?

1 Literature review

A. Questioning

Using questions is part of socioaffective strategies which derive from Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (K. Choi 2003). The key concept of the sociocultural theory is mediation of language in all human activities including learning (Vygotsky 1978). The researchers with the perspective of the sociocultural theory suggest such learning strategies as repetitions, confirmation checks, and clarification requests play pivotal roles when learners monitor their learning activities (Antón & DiCamilla 1998).

B. Direct feedback

Brown (2012) defines direct feedback as corrective feedback in which "the teacher makes correction supplying the correct form for students" (p.862). Direct feedback, part of corrective feedback, has been a controversial issue, raising questions and doubts over its effectiveness (Leeman 2003).

C. Indirect feedback

Bitchener (2008) argues that indirect feedback is more effective since it causes deeper cognitive engagement, leading students to engage in problem solving activities.

D. Criteria for writing evaluation

Various measures including essay length, type/token ratio, lexical features, grammar, and clause-level complexity have been used to evaluate students' writing (Grant & Ginther, 2000). Adopting from Taguchi et al. (2013), the current study adopts the four categories of content, organization, word choice, and accuracy.

2 Research methods

A. Participants

The 23 female students participated in this pre-experimental study project. Three native instructors of English also participated in the experiment as the raters of the students' drafts.

B. Procedure

The students in the experiment took the course "Business English for Tourism (2)" instructed by the researcher during the fall semester in 2013. The 23 students voluntarily participated in the extra sessions for the experiment.

3 Results and discussion

A. Question 1

Do the students in the experiment show improvement in terms of content, organization, word choice, and accuracy as they go through the first, second and third drafts?

The students show meaningful improvement in the category of accuracy as well as the total score when the first and third drafts are compared. The students' writing abilities increase as they go through the three drafts. The combined use of questioning and indirect feedback is effective for some students especially in the category of accuracy.

3.1 Question 2

What is the perception of the students toward questioning and indirect feedback?

3.2 Questioning

The students in the experiment show positive attitudes towards using questions. Even though the students prefer to use questions and think they are helpful, they still consider that they are poor at asking questions related to English. It is essential to teach and train students how to form and raise questions, giving them more opportunities to use them.

3.3 Indirect feedback

Most of the students who participated in the experiment mentioned many benefits they gained from the method of indirect feedback used in this experimental class.

4 Conclusion

The results of the students' three drafts indicate that the combined use of questioning and indirect feedback helps the students improve their communicative writing skills. The significant improvement shows only in the category of

accuracy. This method of combining the two methods both of which focus on students' initiative and notice seems to be effective particularly in the category of grammar. They also quite easily understand their erroneous words and structures including wrong use of tense, adding and deleting wrong definite and indefinite articles, misusing singular and plural forms when underlined by their teacher. A combination of the two methods with writing activities of the three drafts and two rounds of interaction between the teacher and the students may all have contributed to the improvement in accuracy.

5 References

- Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54(3), 314-342.
- Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 17(2), 102-118.
- Brown, D. (2012). The written corrective feedback debate: Next steps for classroom teachers and practitioners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 861-867.
- Choi, Kyunghee (2003). *A study on effective strategies for reading English: A focus on socioaffective strategies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Korea University. Seoul, Korea.
- Grant, L., & Ginther, A. (2000). Using computer-tagged linguistic features to describe L2 writing differences. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(2), 123-145.
- Leeman, J. (2003). Recasts and second language development: Beyond negative evidence. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25(1), 37-63.
- Taguchi, N., Crawford, W., & Wetzel, D. Z. (2013). What linguistic features are indicative of writing quality? A case of argumentative essays in a college composition program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(2), 420-430.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

The Sociocultural Needs of Korean Engineering Students in the Global Academic Community

Inyoung Shin and Bokmyung Chang

Namseoul University
iyyoo@hotmail.com, yyy@hanmail.net

Abstract

This study⁴ aimed to analyze the perceived needs of L2 postgraduate engineering students in relation to sociocultural behaviours in an English as Foreign Language (EFL) context. Semi-structured interviews were administered in order to examine the perceptions of Korean postgraduate engineering students themselves and subject lecturers in Korea. The research indicated that participants tended to be concerned about their own academic culture in the following four aspects: (1) reluctance to present ideas and arguments; (2) hierarchical relationships between lecturers and students; (3) different study and research approaches; and (4) failure to recognize cultural problems. Considering the sociocultural demands in a global academic community leads to the conclusion that Korean students should be expected to have critical awareness and flexibility in their academic lives. Implications of the findings for effective English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes for Korean engineering students are discussed.

Keywords

Korean Engineering Postgraduates, Sociocultural Needs, Critical Awareness, EAP, Global Academic Community

Introduction

In the current era of globalization, L2 learners may have special aspirations and dilemmas for managing sociocultural problems in their local academic contexts as they seek to be members of the global academic community. Given that few researches (Yu, 2008) have considered L2 learners' sociocultural demands related to their behaviours and ways of studying in EFL contexts, this study attempts to analyze the needs of Korean postgraduate engineering students in relation to sociocultural behaviours in their academic context, Korea.

In Korea, stronger demands for high-quality English education emerged from the 1990s, mainly due to the growing socio-political movement of globalization, and Korea's open policy towards the

world. However, the quality of engineering education in Korea seems to be threatened by the discrepancy in sociocultural expectations between the local context and the global community. Their sociocultural conflicts are likely to exist when Korean students research with foreign academics (Lee, 2009; Park, 2012).

1 Sociocultural theories in EAP

Some of the major theories of culture in EAP include the study of the target culture (Ballard & Clanchy, 1984 as cited in Ballard, 1996), incorporating the students' culture (Connor, 1996; Zamel, 1997), intercultural competence (Kramsch, 1998), and critical views of culture (Kubota, 2004).

2 Method

In dealing with questions related to sociocultural behaviours, a qualitative research approach, semi-structured interviews, was used. Seven and six sets of interview data were collected from the engineering students (KSs) and lecturers (KLs) respectively at College K in Seoul, Korea. With the exception of a doctoral student, the student participants (KSs) had mainly remained in Korea. The majority of KLs had studied in Anglophone countries for their degrees, and most of the lecturer interviewees had taught only in Korea. The comments of interviewees were tape-recorded, transcribed and then translated into English for further analysis. I coded the data according to the major themes of Korean students' sociocultural dilemmas that emerged repeatedly in the data.

3 Results and Discussion

Participants illustrated the sociocultural difficulties concerning students' reluctance to present their own arguments, their lack of questioning, discussing and debating, the hierarchical relationship between lecturers and students, and the lack of creativity in study approaches.

Given that students have been encouraged to have frequent academic and social contact with foreign engineers, students in the local context were affected by the dominant academic culture in the global community. Now, as the academic culture in Korea was generally seen by Korean students to be in contrast to the expectations of the global

⁴ The original paper was published at *PAAL* (2015), 19(1), 23-41.

community, a number of students experienced cultural confusion, crisis of identity and unreasonable power distribution (Huang, 2010), and seemed to criticize the local academic culture. However, any community is composed of diverse individuals; culture varies internally as well as across nations, and cultural diversity has the potential to make the engineering community richer. Therefore Korean students' academic culture can be constructed affirmatively for their own benefit as well as for the development of a global community.

In addition, given the weaker foundations of engineering knowledge due to the western-based knowledge system in Korea, students should be motivated to develop Korean inventions and establish them as world standard. Moreover, although hierarchical relationships and respectful attitudes to teachers are established forms of interaction among Korean people, these relationships should not restrict students' creative and independent thinking. In fact, a number of participants were ignorant about issues of culture. Rather than simply taking for granted that the disciplinary culture of engineering is universal, engineering academics should take sociocultural issues seriously; doing so would be a productive learning strategy for their study.

4 Conclusion

Given that globalization posits a great amount of sociocultural tension between local and global expectations, flexibility and critical cultural awareness are useful strategies for Korean students to negotiate the sociocultural dilemmas in the global community and the local community. Rather than showing criticism of their own culture and educational system or passively carrying out academic tasks in accordance with the dominant culture of the community, students should learn how to negotiate the tensions and conflicts among members with diverse expectations, to find their own ways of participating, and sometimes to resist creatively and critically in the multicultural global community. In EAP programmes, students need to have an opportunity to discuss cultural diversity between other nationality members and to critically re-evaluate the taken-for-granted conceptions that have been internalized locally by Korean students (Kubota, 2004). This can provide opportunities for students to reflect upon and share their own experiences of the negotiation of cultural discords and of 'good' reflective resistance in academic settings. In this regard, innovative and qualitative EAP programmes rooted in long-term goals, encompassing aspects of sociocultural behaviours for Korean engineering students, are urgently called for.

5 References

- Ballard, B. (1996). Through language to learning: Preparing overseas students for study in western universities. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 148-168). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Huang, J. C. (2010). Publishing and learning writing for publication in English: Perspectives of NNEST PhD students in science. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 33-44.
- Kramsch, C. (1998). The privilege of the intercultural speaker. In M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.), *Language learning in intercultural perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kubota, R. (2004). Critical multiculturalism and second language education. In B. Norton & K. Toohey (Eds.), *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 30-52). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, G. (2009). Speaking up: Six Korean students' oral participation in class discussions in US graduate seminars. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 142-156.
- Park, H. (2012). Insight into learners' identity in the Korean English as a lingua franca context. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 11, 229-246.
- Yu, M. (2008). Teaching and learning sociolinguistic skills in university EFL classes in Taiwan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 31-53.
- Zamel, V. (1997). Toward a model of transculturation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(2), 341-352.

Gains of Learning Business English for Non-Business Majors in Korea

Hyung-ji Chang

Sun Moon University
Maria5576@hanmail.net

Abstract

The present study is aimed at investigating business English course for non-business majors in Korea by confirming the gains of business competence along with English competence. The study collected the data of business and English competence from the Business English course participants (N=24) and compared the significant changes among variables: business and English competence. In the results, the significant increase of English competence and the correlation between English and business competence were reported, but not the gains of business competence were measured. Accordingly, the study proposes that business English course for non-business majors is suitable for learners to increase learning English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) rather than English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP).

Keywords

Business English, English competence, EGBP, EBP

Introduction

Along with the globalization, people's interaction and communication in other languages are significantly increased and the success in intercultural or international communication is respected as the crucial key in the global business. The success of Intercultural Business Communication (IBC) attracts the attention from business related community, students and faculty and motivates to develop the Business English (BE) learning programs (Joe, 2013). According to Wang (2009), teaching objective of BE is to train business professionals with linguistic knowledge and skills, business knowledge and intercultural communicative competence. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) insisted that English for Business Purposes (EBP) is divided into English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP) in accordance with the context where language is used. Mostly BE courses are designed for students of Business Studies as a medium for business communication, but there are excessive demand to learn BE by business-related community, students and faculty. Regarding the current needs, in the study, the College of Foreign Language Education of S University, located at the

medium-sized urban area in Korea, proposed the BE credit courses for non-business majors and it is requested to confirm the effects of BE courses in terms of Business and English competence. The present study forms the research questions as follows.

- 1) Do college students in non-business majors significantly develop the business and English competence after taking BE course?
- 2) What is the relationship between business competence and English competence?

1 Research Method

The study recruited participants (N=24) in the course of Business English Reading and they are consist of various majors; Japanese (n=6), Public Administration (n=2), International Relations (n=8), Spanish (n=2), Chinese (n=4) and IT Business Administration (n=2). Business English Reading in this study formed the basis of a 15-week course and the class met for 3 hours per week. The textbook, *English for Business: Reading*, was chosen from the Collins series of *English for Business* and the curriculum is developed in accordance with the BE contents set introduced by Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training(KRIVET)(1998). To measure the change of business competence and English competence, the 5-Likert scale for business competence designed by Kim and Choi (2004) (refer to Appendix A) and the achievement test; the midterm and final exams was conducted.

2 Results and Discussions

2.1 Business and English Competence

The comparison of mean scores between the pre-and post tests showed that the gains of business competence was not reported roughly and in the results of the paired comparison, it reports no significant difference between the pre-and post tests ($t=.122, p<.01$). The following Table 2 illustrates the results of paired comparison of business competence.

Table 1. Paired Comparison of BC

		Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pair 1	pre1 - post1	.167	.868	.941	23	.357
Pair 2	pre2 - post2	.167	.637	1.282	23	.213

Pair 3	pre3 - post3	.167	.963	.848	23	.405
Pair 4	pre4 - post4	.208	1.062	.961	23	.347
Pair 5	pre5 - post5	-.083	1.060	-.385	23	.704
Pair 6	pre6 - post6	.000	.885	.000	23	1.000
Pair 7	pre7 - post7	.167	1.049	.778	23	.445
Pair 8	pre8 - post8	.167	1.049	.778	23	.445
Pair 9	pre9 - post9	.250	1.113	1.100	23	.283
Pair 10	pre10 - post10	.333	.816	2.000	23	.057
Total		.154	.629	.122	23	.232

In addition, the paired comparison of pre-and post English achievement tests reported the significant increase in the study (Pre-Mean=34, Post-Mean=40, $t=26.44$, $p>.01$).

2.2 Relation of Business and English Competence

For the research question 2, the correlation analysis between business and English competence was conducted and reported that the business and English competence is highly correlated each other. In particular, items of 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 10, *I can understand how a person behaves in the business situation, I can read and comprehend the business emails, I can write the business emails, I can interact with my supervisor, I can make an (overseas) video call, and I can make a negotiation* are significantly related to English competence of participants. As shown in Appendix A and the course instruction, these items are related to instructional modules of BE and it confirms the high correlation of business and English competence.

3 Conclusion

In this study, the BE course for students of non-business studies was reviewed to propose the effectiveness of BE in accordance with English and business competence. At first, the increase of business competence was not significantly reported, implying that the goal of business English course for non-business majors should set a goal as learning English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) rather than English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). Secondly, the study reported that development of English competence from business English reading is highly related to the development

business competence, implying that practicing business English reading facilitates learners to develop business competence in a long term.

4 References and appendices

4.1 References

- Dudley-Evans, T., & St. John, M. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Joe, Jae-Oke (2013). A study of business teaching - learning method using movies and videos. *STEM Journal*, 14(2), 63-893.
- Kim, Eun-Sang., & Cho, Yeon-Hee (2004). A study on the development of business English tests based on an analysis of the predictive validity of the TOEIC and a Delphi study of working skills in English to be assessed. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 4(2), 229-255.
- Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (KRIVET) (1998). *A study on the practical English Certification: A design for practical assessment tool model*, Seoul: Korea Research Institutes for Vocational Education & Training.
- Wang, W. (2009). Teaching business English in China: Views on the case-based teaching in intercultural business communication, *Asian ESP Journal*, 7(1), 97-119

4.2 Appendices

Appendix A. The scale of Business Competence.

1. I can understand how a person behaves in the business situation
2. I can read and comprehend the business emails
3. I can write the business emails
4. I can make a business phone call
5. I can make a business presentation
6. I can interact with my supervisor
7. I can interact with a business client
8. I can convince the business client
9. I can make an (overseas) video call
10. I can make a negotiation

An Application of Programming Learning Software to Grammar Error Detection Tasks

Michiko Nakano,¹ Michitaka Aramoto,² H. Kei,³ and S. Yoshida³

¹Waseda University, ²Nisshin Adsol Co.Ltd., ³Global Education Center, Waseda University
nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

Aramoto (2015) implemented Programming Learning Software (C+ and Java Script) for Computer Science students. Using the same framework, Nakano (2015) proposed that it can be used for grammar detection exercises. We chose, subject-verb agreement errors, tense errors and article errors. Learners are supposed to detect errors and correct them till the entire paragraph is error-free. The software informs learners of how many errors still exist in the paragraph each time they submit their corrections. In October, when the autumn term starts, we collected data to show that a series of eight tasks can be used effectively in class.

Keywords

Online error detection tasks, learner log

Introduction

In Asian Englishes, it has been known that the following negative features are common not only speaking, but also in writing: see Park et al. (2007), Nakano (2007) and Low Ee Ling(2013).

1 Subject-verb agreement

2 Tense

3 Definite articles and non-definite articles

4 preposition

5 Collective nouns used as count nouns.

In this experiment, we focus the first three negative features. We investigated in 2005 to see whether or not in speaking these features are frequent. 30 University students spoke 15 minutes: 2 minute-warm-up, role-play and story telling by showing pictures, followed by 2 minute cooling down speaking. We obtained 1511 negative features. Fig. 1 shows our result. Fig 1 is the result found in Speaking, but in Critical Reading and Writing, we found many negative features in Writing similar to Speaking; students write as if they are speaking. Baustista(2000:36) collected 250 files ranging from 2000 words to 2300 words. Most of them are public documents. She obtained 503 negative features. Table 1 shows two data in contrast.

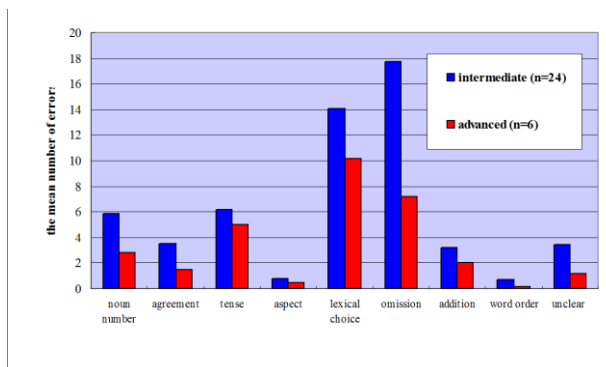


Fig. 1 grammar errors in Spoken English

Table 1 Japanese and Filipino Englishes in contrast

	Filipino	%	Japanese	%
S-V agreement	136	27	93	6.2
Articles	110	22	370	25
Preposition s	77	15	202	13
Tense	77	15	201	13
Collective nouns	43	9	157	10
pronouns	23	5	89	5.9
Others	34	7	339	22

Seidlhofer(2004) mentions in her English as a lingua franca (ELF) lexico-grammar that all these negative features are so common that we should accept them in practice. We however believe that error detection and correction competence is important for Asian learners of English, since those negative features would be targeted in International Journals as rejection points.

1 A Pilot experiment

We prepared 8 discourses each of which has negative features. The participants are asked to detect errors and make corrections as many times as they wish. Each time, the participants submit their correction, they are informed of the remaining number of errors. They repeated the same procedure till the whole document is exhausted and error-free. In the first pilot experiment, 10 university instructors in Computer Science participated. All of them found the tasks are meaningful. In particular, 8 discourses are intellectually stimulating and all of them wished to repeat the same experimental tasks in near future.

Yoshida collected data from the students in his classes on the volunteer basis and their participants were rewarded and given book tokens. Kei collected data during his classroom hour and 9 students completed the whole tasks on the 29th of October..

2 Sample Materials Used

2.1 Subject-Verb Agreement Error Detection Task

Two tasks were presented online. The following paragraph is one example where the errors are corrected for the sake of readability:

‘The 21st century has seen the emergence of unmanned aerial vehicles, the so-called ‘drones’. These drones are controlled by ‘pilots’ thousands of miles away, who monitor intelligence gathered by satellites in real-time and locate targets from up to 20,000 feet in the air. This suggests the robot wars envisaged by science fiction writers may not be far away. The Obama presidency has seen drone strikes rise to one every four days, up from the Bush years of one every forty. For countries with the option, drone strikes are a preferred method of combat. Because technology offers new opportunities for destructive force it increases the chances that these opportunities will be used.’

2.2 Tense Error Detection Tasks

There were three tasks. The following paragraph is one example where the errors are corrected for the sake of readability:

War has been a continual feature of human civilization. In the past, wars were often lengthy and affected whole communities. However, with the scientific advances of the 20th, and now 21st, century, it was hoped that technology could make war into a more efficient, precise and ‘cleaner’ activity, which would affect soldiers but not civilians. The only contact members of the public would have were as viewers on television. This is a useful belief for governments in order to convince citizens to support wars, but unfortunately it is not reality. Technological changes have not made war less destructive and have not prevented civilians from being affected.

2.3 Article Error detection Tasks

There were three tasks. The following paragraph is one example where the errors are corrected for the sake of readability:

Younger drivers are involved in more traffic accidents. For example, drivers aged 17 to 21 make up only 10% of the driving population, and on average, drive less than older drivers. However, they are responsible for 20% of accidents. Therefore, these young drivers should pay higher insurance costs to cover the injuries and damage to other drivers which they cause.

2.4 2015 Experiment

In October 8th in Yoshida’s class, the experimental procedure was explained by the first author. We asked the students to complete the 8 tasks in their free time. In October 29th Kei explained to his students what to do. Our findings are reported as a poster presentation.

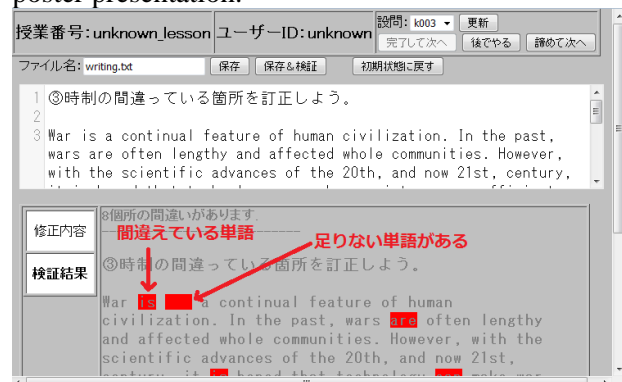


Figure 1: A screen shot of the online error detection task

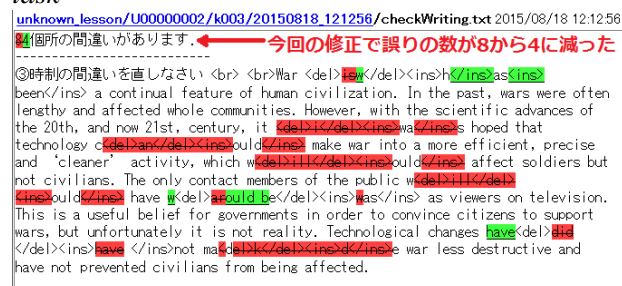


Figure 2: A screen shot of Hints to a participant

3 References

- Bautista, MA Lourdes S. *Defining standard Philippine English: Its status and grammatical features*. De La Salle University Press. (2000).
- Jenkins, Jennifer. *World Englishes: A resource book for students*, Routledge. (2003).
- Ling, Low Ee. *Common features in Asian Englishes*. 2013 RELC-PAAL International Seminar on World Englishes. (2013).
- Nakano, M. (Ed.). *On-demand internet course book: World Englishes and miscommunication*. Waseda University International: Tokyo. (2007)
- Park, K., Nakano, M. et.al. *Asia Englishes and Miscommunication*. Korea University Press. (2007).
- Seidlehofer, B. (2004). Research perspectives inteaching English as a Lingua Franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24. 209-39.

Visualization of Reading Processes Based on Learner Logs (1)

Michiko Nakano,¹ Michitaka Aramoto,² and S. Yoshida³

¹Waseda University, ²Nisshin Adsol Co.Ltd., ³Global Education Center, Waseda University
nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

The present poster reports visualization of reading processes based on learner logs. This illustrates the method of Learning Analytics in which computer science skills, statistics and education expertise are required. Aramoto in 2014 and 2015 programmed the software which records all the actions a learner takes during his/her reading. We used an article in Japan Times (Tourism in Japan and the world) and each paragraph was regarded as one page on the web. The 9 paragraphs consists of 2 sentences on average. The reading material was distributed via Moodle.

Keywords

Learning Analytics, Learner Log, Reading Process

Introduction

Reading Processes is difficult to be observed directly except for the eye-tracking method(). Learning Analytics approach can open up fresher method looking into processes of reading. Massive L2 reading researches have established the variables to be considered: English Proficiency Levels, previous experiences of studying abroad, the extent of interest, knowledge and willingness (readiness) each participant intuit before he/she starts to read, various global strategies, cognitive strategies and supplementary strategies: see Alderson (1984). The present experiment tried to include as many variables as we can ask the participants.

Before the experiment, the students answer a set of questionnaire: proficiency level, experience of studying abroad, the knowledge level of the content, the interest level for the content, the willingness level of reading and what can be inferred from the title of the text.

The text, *Tourism in Japan and the World*, an article in *Japan Times*, was annotated for the 12 difficult words. The text was equipped with audio tapes adjustable for the reading speed. In order to check the degree of reading comprehension, they are given multiple choice questions and they are also required to answer descriptive questions.

After the experiment, the strategies questionnaire was distributed to find out which strategies they habitually use in reading. The questionnaire was based on Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002).

1 A Pilot Experiment

In our first experiment, 38 students volunteered and they were paid. They completed the task in their free time. They could answer multiple choice questions as many times as they wished. They were told whether their answer was correct or not each time.

Overall Comprehension

1. What is the writer's overall view of tourism?

- ☐ It is positive.
- ☐ It is neutral.
- ☐ It is negative.

別デザイン案
この中でもページがめくれる
英英辞典は参照できない

Answer Check



1/6

Fig. 1. Multiple-Choice Question

3. 電子教材の構成



- ※ 1,000単語程度の文章を読む
- 1パラグラフごとにページを分割: 9ページ
- 難しい単語は、英々辞書を内蔵
- 読み上げ機能 (速度を0.5~2.0倍速に変更可能)



アドソル株式会社

Conf ident ial

21

Fig. 2. One paragraph was shown on one screen

The post questionnaire consists of 30 reading strategies; they are asked to answer which strategies are often used in reading along the 5-point scale. Aramoto programmed software called 'Detailed Reading Log Analyzer' in which reading processes are visualized along the time scale, as shown in Fig. 3

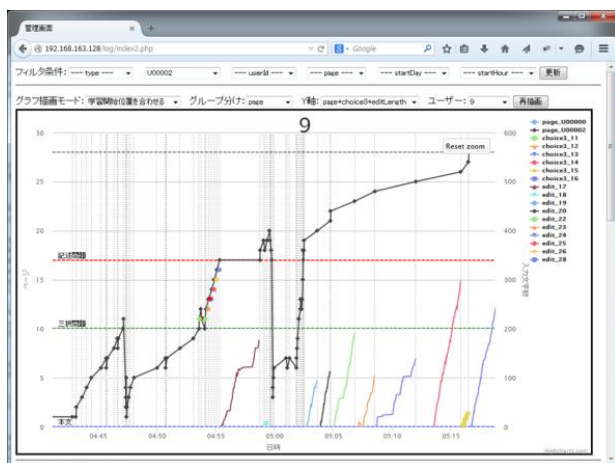


Fig. 4 A screen shot of learner log

Fig. 5 shows how often the participants consulted the built-in lexical annotations.

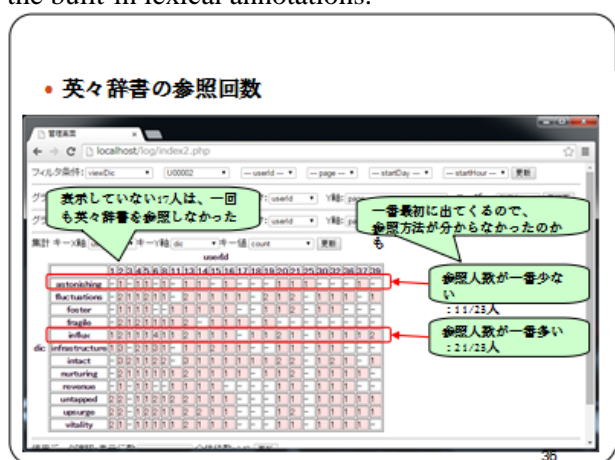


Fig. 5. The frequency counts of lexical annotations checked by the participants

2 Results and Discussion

Out of 48 volunteers, 36 participants completed the whole task. They were paid 2000 yen as their reward. We report the results of the pre-questionnaire, comprehension scores and post-questionnaire first. Then, the participants are divided into three groups, depending on the descriptive comprehension scores. We found that English proficiency level, the extent of interests, the extent of knowledge and the use of strategies were influential factors. The logistic regression analysis to predict three groups were performed.

2.1 English Proficiency Levels

The participants reported either TOEIC, TOEFL, WeTEC, or STEP scores. These scores were converted into TOEIC scores, based on the official correspondence tables. The mean TOEIC scores was 740. SD was 143.0. Some students experienced short study abroad. There were three Chinese students.

2.2 Pre-Questionnaire

1. The extent of readiness to read the article was quantified by the following questions.

- ✧ I would like to read the article, since I am concerned with the future of my country.
- ✧ I think it our duty as an intelligent university student to read an editorial in English.
- ✧ I would like to discuss any issue with my foreign friends, reading about the article about Japan.
- ✧ I would like talk about our contemporary issue in English.
- ✧ I would like to be able to discuss any issue in English.

These items could not differentiate the extent of readiness each participant intuit at the onset of experiment.

2. The extent of interests in the article was quantified in the following manner. The participants were asked to choose one option out of 4. The maximum point was 4.

- ✧ I am interested in tourism in Japan. (3 points)
- ✧ I am vaguely interested in tourism in Japan. (2 points).
- ✧ Since this is an assigned reading, I had to read this. (1 point).
- ✧ I strongly believe that we should have more tourists from abroad. (4 points)

The mean score was 2.3 with SD(1.354).

3. The extent of knowledge each participant possess was quantified in the following way. The maximum score was 6 points.

- ✧ I know the merits and demerits in Japanese tourism. What are they? (When he descriptive answer was correct, 2 points is given.)
- ✧ Japanese tourism has problems. What are they? (When he descriptive answer was correct, 2 points is given.)
- ✧ The sight-seeing spots in Japan are not known. (T/F 1 point).
- ✧ The number of foreign tourists is increasing. (T/F 1 point).
- ✧ The number of foreign tourists is decreasing. (T/F This is to double check the knowledge of the third item).

- ✧ I know where major tourists are from. (If their descriptive answer was correct, 2 points is given).

The average score was 2.83 with SD (1.572).

4. What do you infer from the title of the article?

The maximum score was 2 points.

The mean score was 2. SD was 0.38.

Times New Roman There were 6 multiple questions about the content comprehension. The participants could answer as many times as they wished. Each time the correct response was notified. The average number of response trials was 5. The average first response score was 4.94. SD was 0.73. The response showed the ceiling effect. For this reason, we decided that multiple question scores is not a influential variable to discriminate good readers from poor readers.

We also had 10 descriptive response questions. The maximum score for each item was 4 points. The mean scores was 24.8. SD was 7.44. We would predict that these scores can differentiate good readers from poor readers.

2.4 Post-Questionnaire

Base on Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002), we asked the participants which strategies they habitually use in reading. There were three kinds of strategies: global strategies, cognitive strategies and supportive strategies. They rated the habitual use of each strategy along the 4-point scale.

2.4.1 Global strategies

We had 13 questionnaire items:

1. I had a purpose in mind when I started reading the article.
2. I think about what I know to help me to understand when I read.
3. I previewed the text what it is about before reading it.
4. I thought about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.
5. I skimmed the text first by noting its characteristics.
6. I decided what to read closely and what to ignore.
7. I used tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.
8. I used context cues to help me understand what I am reading.
9. I used typological aids like boldface type and italics to identify key information.
10. I critically analyzed and evaluated the information presented in the text.
11. I checked my understanding when I come across new information.

12. I guessed what the context of the text is during reading.

13. I checked to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.

The individual ratings were totaled and the average total rating was 44.72 with SD(14.90).

2.4.2 Cognitive Strategies

There were 8 strategies:

14. I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I read.

15. I tried to get back on track when I lost concentration.

16. I adjusted my reading speed according to what I am reading.

17. I paid closer attention to what I am reading, when the text becomes difficult.

18. I stopped from time to time and thought about what I am reading.

19. I used picture or visualized information to help me remember.

20. I reread to increase understanding when the text became difficult.

21. I guessed the meaning of unknown words or phrases.

The individual ratings were totaled and the average total rating was 37.36 with SD(14.53).

2.4.3 Supportive Strategies

There are 9 strategies:

22. I took notes.

23. I read aloud.

24. I underlined and circled the information.

25. I used reference materials or dictionary.

26. I paraphrased or restated ideas in my own words.

27. I went back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.

28. I asked myself questions.

29. I translated a part of the text into Japanese to increase understanding.

30. I used Japanese to think of information read.

The individual ratings were totaled and the average total rating was 11.61 with SD(4.89). Based on the results, we can predict that the participants relied on global and cognitive strategies more than supportive strategies.

2.5 Logistic Regression Analysis

We regarded descriptive responses as our dependent variable. The independent variables were English Proficiency, Interest, Knowledge, and three kinds of strategies. The participants are divided into three groups, depending on the descriptive scores: Good, Middle and Poor readers.

First we look at Pearson Correlation coefficients:

Descriptive Scores vs English Proficiency

0.5979
Descriptive Scores vs Interest
0.324
Descriptive Scores vs Knowledge
0.163
Descriptive Scores vs Global strategies
0.639
Descriptive Scores vs Cognitive strategies
0.679
Descriptive Scores vs Supportive strategies
0.075

The multinomial logistic regression analysis determined that English Proficiency, Global strategies and Cognitive strategies can account for 93.8 % of the descriptive score data.

Fig 5 and Fig 6 illustrate poor reader and good reader respectively.

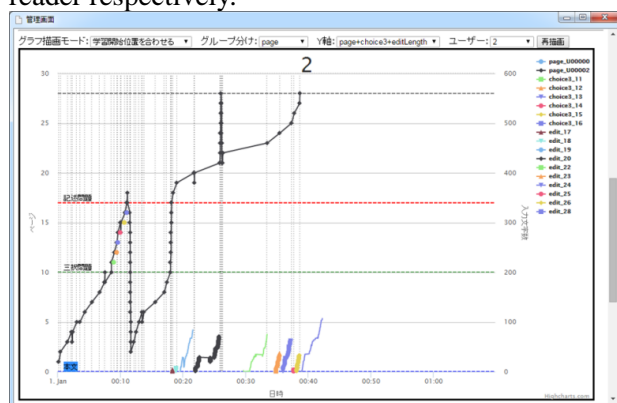


Fig. 5 An example of poor reader

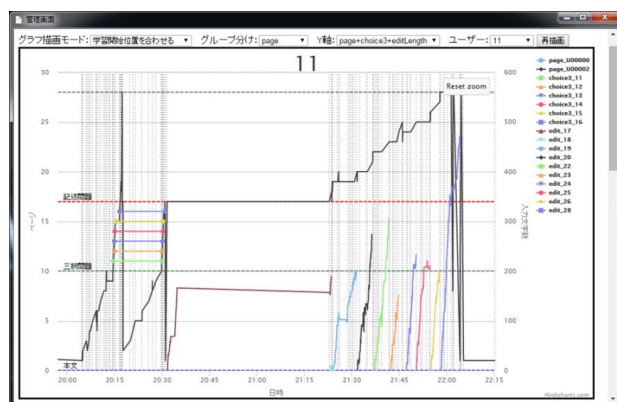


Fig 7. An example of good reader

3 Discussion

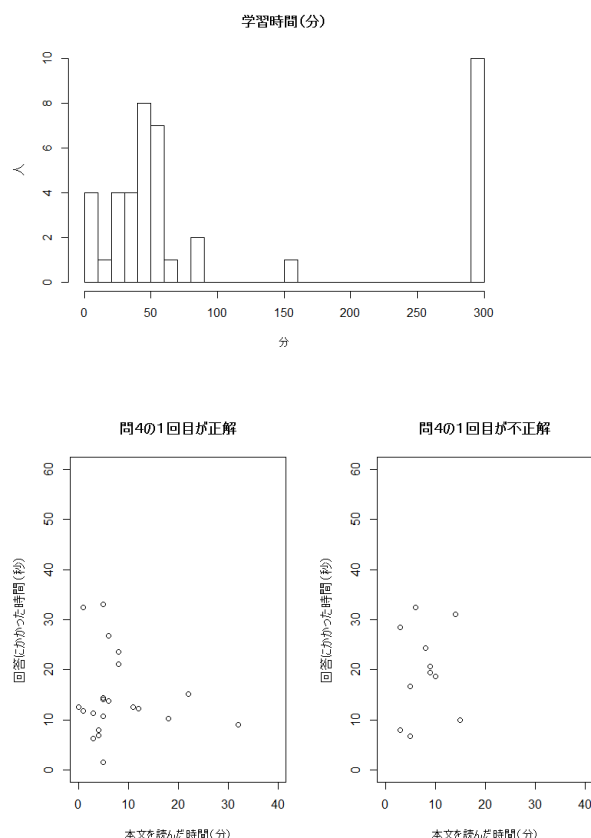
Aramoto's software included various functions such as time spent for each action, how often and how long the participants listened to the audio tapes, whether they changed the speed, and the frequency of consulting the 12 annotations. This experimental analysis could not utilize all these information, since the volunteer students were allowed to access in their spare time, resulting in the situation where the time and frequency features listed above were not reliably estimated. In the next experiment, we should run the session during

the class hours so that time spent and frequency of use in terms of software functions implemented are under control.

4 References

- Alderson, J. C. (1984). Reading in a foreign language: A reading problem or a language problem? In J. A. Alderson and A. H. Urquhart (Eds). *Reading in a foreign language* (pp.1-24). London and New York: Longman.
- Mokhtari, K. (1998 - 2000). *Metacognitive-awareness-of-reading-strategies inventory (MARS)*. Unpublished instrument, Oklahoma State University.
- Mokhtari, K. & Reichard, C. A. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. 94, 249-259.
- Mokhtari, K., & Sheorey, R. (2002). Measuring ESL students' awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Developmental Education*. 25(3), 2-10.

Appendix



Visualization of Reading Processes Based on Learner Logs (2)

Michiko Nakano¹, Michitaka Aramoto², Yusuke Kondo³, Kazuhiro Sato², Kota Suko⁴, and M. Hirasawa¹

¹Waseda University, ²Nissin Adosol Co., Ltd., ³Global Education Center, Waseda University,

⁴Faculty of Social Studies, Waseda University
nakanom@waseda.jp

Abstract

In our second experiment, the students completed their task during their 90-minute class hour. They answered multiple choice comprehension questions only once. They were not told whether their response was correct or not. We added dictionary component. They could consult online dictionary along with the built-in annotations. At the end of the task, their vocabulary knowledge was examined. This time, in the post questionnaire, they were asked whether they used a specific strategy or not. We showed their reading log and they marked in which point in time they had used a specific strategy. In this poster presentation we compare these two experiments.

Keywords

Learning Analytics, Learner Log, Reading Processes

Introduction

In our second experiment, we used the same pre-questionnaire as in Experiment (1). During reading, the participants were allowed to change the speed of the audio tapes. They could not only consult the built-in dictionary annotations, but also the online English-English dictionary. The use of online E-E dictionary is added as a new software function in this experiment. They answered the same 6 multiple-choice comprehension questions and wrote 10 descriptive questions. This time, we added a vocabulary test of the 12 annotated difficult words. After reading, out of the 30 strategies, they marked specific strategies which they actually used during the reading sessions. After the experiment, the participants were given printed sheet of their reading log and they were asked which strategies they used at which point in time. This task was assumed to be useful to avoid the experimenter's subjective interpretation of a specific strategy use.

1 Pre-Questionnaire Result

Two classes, A and B, participated in the experiment. In Class A, there were 11 students and all of them completed the task. In Class B, there were ten students but 7 students completed the task. We decided that 11 students in Class A and 7 students in Class

B could be regarded as the participants in this experiment.

As for English Proficiency levels, in Class A, 10 students reported their score, but one student who had lived abroad 15 years reported his score as STEP 2nd grade. This suggests that he took a STEP test before he had gone abroad, since in some schools the STEP test is obligatory. Another student who had studied abroad 3 years wrote that he did not have any proficiency test score. On the other hand, one student whose score is STEP 1st grade, TOEIC 965, TOEFLib 112 and UN Special A had not studied abroad. In Class B, 5 out of 10 students did not have any Proficiency Test scores. For these reasons, we regarded English Proficiency Level as an unreliable variable in this experiment.

Table 1 summarizes the scores in Pre-Questionnaire.

Table 1 Pre-Questionnaire Summary

	lesson experi ence	Self- study	Readiness	Interest	Knowledge	Title	Total
we2	1	1	1	3	4	2	12
we3	1	0	1	1	4	2	9
we20	1	1	1	3	6	2	14
we1	0	0	1	3	4	2	10
we4	0	1	1	3	2	2	9
we19	0	1	1	3	6	2	13
we5	0	1	1	3	4	2	11
we6	1	1	1	2	6	2	13
we7	0	0	1	3	4	0	8
we17	1	1	1	3	6	2	14
we18	1	0	1	3	6	2	13
su3	0	0	1	2	2	2	7
su2	0	1	1	3	3	2	10
su6	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
su5	1	0	1	1	3	2	8
su8	0	0	1	3	3	2	9
su10	1	0	1	2	3	2	9
su9	0	1	1	2	1	2	7
					Mean		9.94
					SD		2.9

The details of pre-questionnaires are presented in Visualization of Reading Processes Based on Learner Logs (1) in this volume. 'Lesson experience' in Table 1 stands for whether or not they took some lessons on reading newspaper articles at school. 'Self-study' stands for whether or not they have read newspaper articles before. 'Readiness' stands for the extent of readiness to read a newspaper article. 'Interests' stands for the extent of their interests in tourism in Japan and the world. 'Knowledge' represents how much each participant knows about Tourism in Japan. 'Title' represents what can be inferred from looking at the title of the article, 'Tourism in Japan and the World.' The scoring methods are exactly the same

as in Experiment (1). Mean of pre scores was 9.94 with SD (2.9). The total scores in Class A participants are higher than Class B participants.

2 Multiple-choice questions, Descriptive Questions and Vocabulary Test scores

Table 2 represents comprehension scores (the total of multiple question scores and descriptive scores), vocabulary added scores (the total of multiple questions, descriptive scores and vocabulary test scores) and strategy use scores.

Table 2 Comprehension scores, vocabulary added scores and strategy use

	Comp Score	Voc Added	Global	Cogniti	Support -tive
we2	73	80	5	7	2
we3	38	43	2	4	1
we20	48	58	10	2	0
we1	32	37	2	1	1
we4	43	50	3	7	1
we19	58	68	7	8	3
we5	41	50	7	5	1
we6	57	68	11	5	3
we7	46	57	8	8	0
we17	53	62	9	7	4
we18	51	59	5	7	2
su3	35	42	8	5	1
su2	52	56	7	7	6
su6	40	46	5	6	1
su5	36	47	4	8	3
su8	26	36	7	7	3
su10	30	36	6	3	2
su9	40	52	1	6	0
Mean	44.39	52.61			
SD	11.64	12.13			

Tables 3 and 4 shows time spent for responding vocabulary test

Table 4 Class B

	所要時間	評点 /12.00	6点満点	記述
su4	5分 8 秒	3	4	4
su9	3分	8	8	32
su3	2分 17 秒	7	6	29
su5	1分 58 秒	11	6	30
su8	2分 25 秒	10	5	21
su6	2分 6 秒	6	6	34
su10	3分 25 秒	6	5	25
su2	2分 45 秒	10	6	40

Table 4 Class A

	単語テスト	評点 /12.00	内容確認	記述
名	所要時間	6点満点		
we20	2分 34 秒	10	5	43
we3	2分 13 秒	6	4	32
we7	2分 35 秒	11	3	35
we6	1分 48 秒	11	5	46
we1	2分 21 秒	5	3	27
we5	2分 34 秒	9	5	32
we17	1分 27 秒	9	5	44
we2	3分 8 秒	7	4	66
we19	2分 10 秒	10	5	48
we4	1分 52 秒	7	6	36
we18	1分 23 秒	8	5	43

Tables 3 and 4 illustrates that the longer they spent time in answering the vocabulary test, the less scores they gain for the descriptive scores.

Table 5 Correlation coefficients

	A + B	A	B	Upper	Lower
pre vs comp scores	0.57	0.538	-0.035	0.512	-0.634
pre vs voc added scores	0.586	0.563	-0.048	0.516	-0.638
global vs comp scores	0.313	0.417	-0.135	0.243	-0.37
global vs voc added score	0.361	0.545	-0.407	0.285	-0.182
cognitive vs comp scores	0.312	0.581	0.306	0.224	0.112
cognitive vs voc added sc	0.417	0.575	0.484	0.171	0.546
supportive vs comp score:	0.286	0.522	0.414	0.429	-0.553
supportive vs voc added sc	0.217	0.508	0.278	0.29	-0.112
knowledge vs comp score:	0.519	0.365	-0.491	0.358	-0.044
knowledge vs voc added s	0.562	0.427	-0.315	0.456	-0.118
interests vs comp scores	0.321	0.197	-0.019	0.136	-0.874
interests vs voc added sc:	0.332	0.232	-0.041	0	-0.882

Class A is more positively correlated with all the variables, while Class B is either negatively correlated or weaker positive correlations than in Class B.

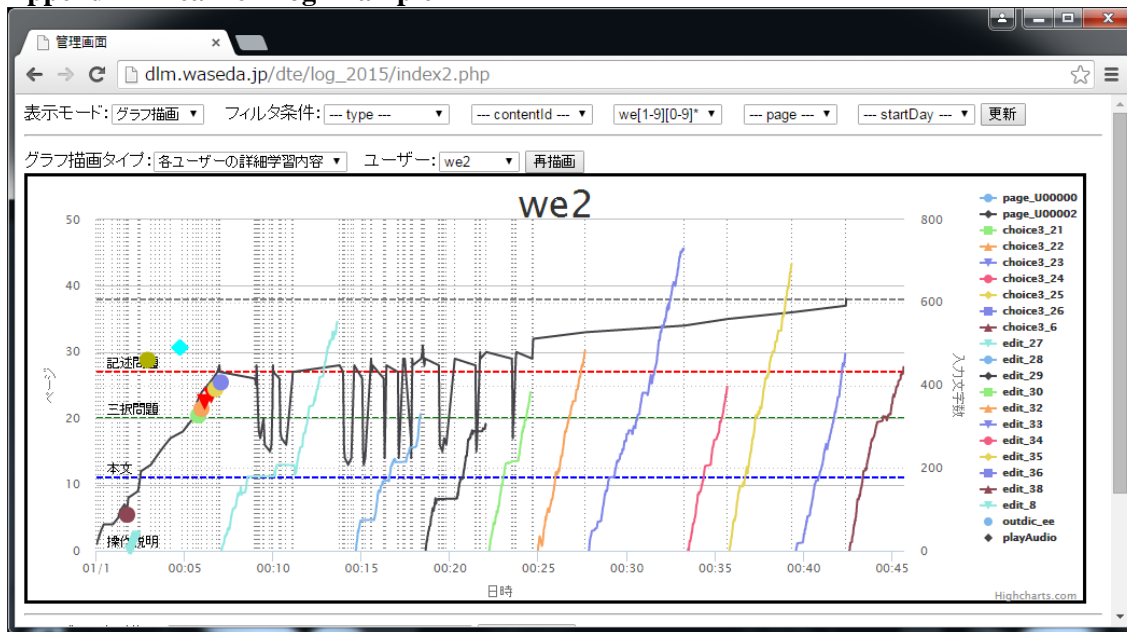
The participants can be divided into two (the upper and lower groups), on the basis of mean comprehension scores (44). Pre scores, supportive scores and knowledge yielded higher correlation coefficients in the upper group, suggesting that the participants in the upper group have sufficient English proficiency to reflect their interests, and knowledge.

Each participant marked his/her specific strategy use in the printed sheet where their log was printed, as shown in Appendix. Log data and their retrospective report on the use of strategy suggest that the participants use a bundle of strategies at the same time. This result was not clear to us, unless we have their immediate responses about their reading processes.

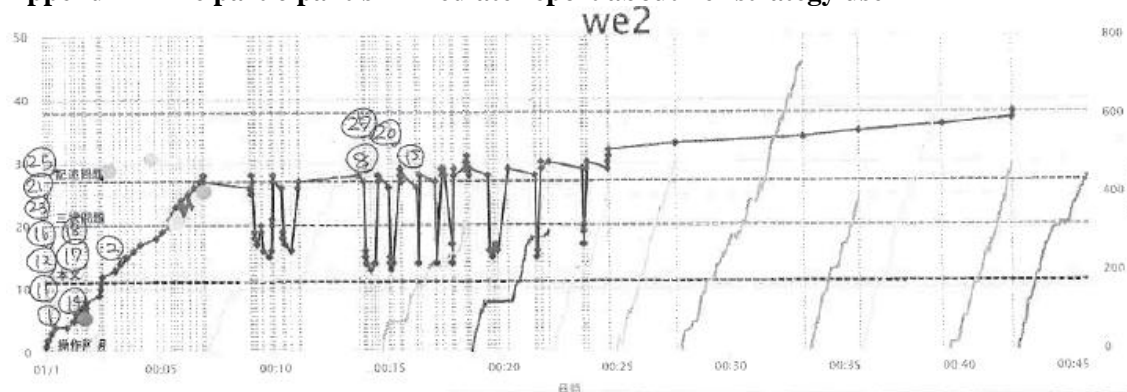
3 Discussion

Although the number of participants is 18, the experimenters received massive data to be analyzed. The first author gave them feedback on how to read. Some of them told her that this task was useful for them, since they have not recovered from their habits of reading strategies they had learned for the university entrance exams.

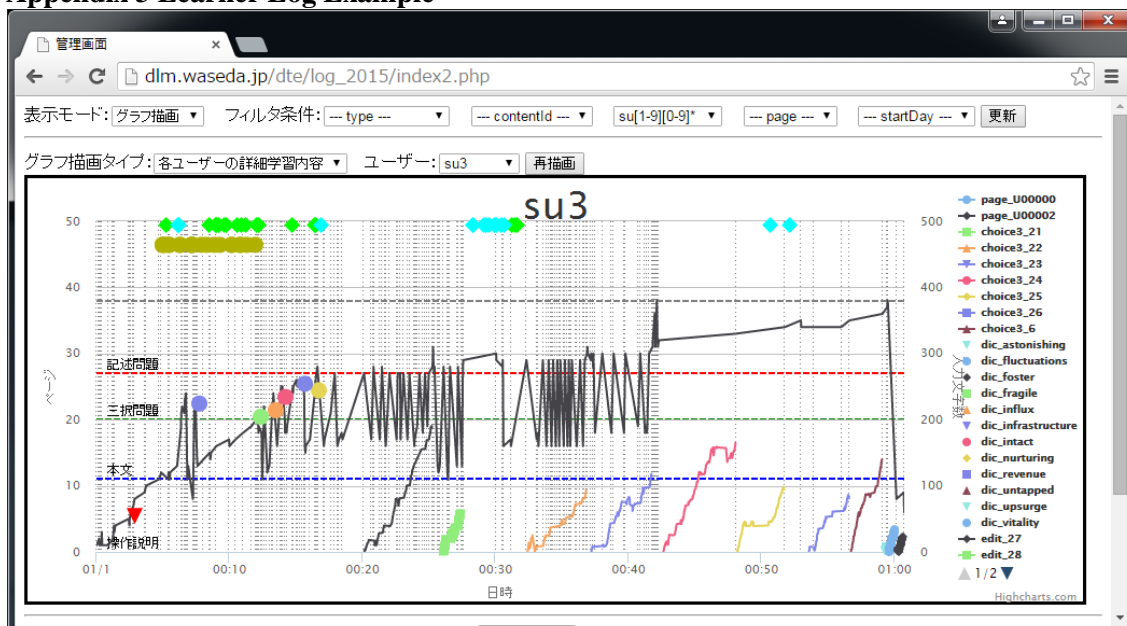
Appendix 1 Learner Log Example



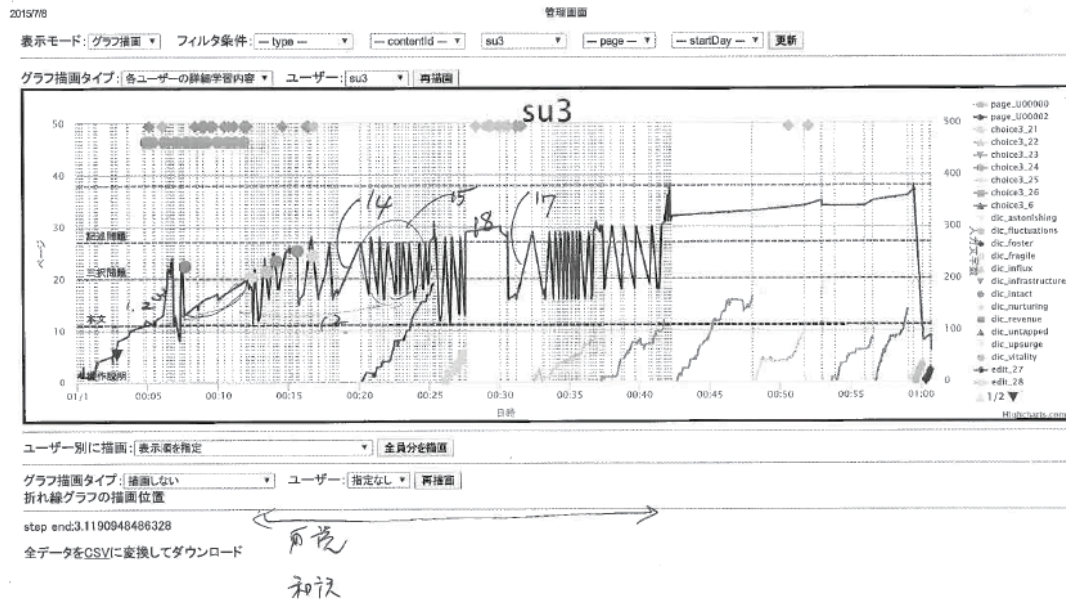
Appendix 2 The participant's immediate report about her strategy use



Appendix 3 Learner Log Example



Appendix 4 The participant's immediate report on his strategy use



“To have another language is to possess a second soul.”

- Charlemagne -

Congratulations
to PAAL on
the 20th anniversary
of its establishment,
and many more years
of enriching the lives of
Asian global citizens!

Korea University Campus Map

