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Role of Progressive Aspect in the Definitions of Stative and Dynamic Verb

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Abstract
This experimental study aims to find out reasons behind scanty knowledge of stative and its dynamic counterpart among the EFL learners. Firstly, it is focused on to what extent the definitions of stative and dynamic posted in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, which the college students studying at secondary and tertiary level in Pakistan put to good use, are debunked by the clauses, incorporated therein, inclusive of 'progressive tense'; and resultant impact on learners' understanding of these two types of main verb. Secondly, it stipulates how the exclusion of impetuous clauses and expansion in the requisite details of pertinent terms can produce proliferated results. Finally, results were reached through the data collected via a language proficiency test and two handouts: the one wielded as control parameter and the other designed as experimental intervention. The study culminated in that certain modifications in the definitions of ibid. verbs seem prerequisite to successful learning.

Keywords: definition, statives, progressive tense, incomprehensibility, EFL learners

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Introduction

In Pakistan, English is learnt as a second or foreign language. The problem with the ESL/EFL learners is that they are poor in recognizing the stative verb and dynamic verb within or without context; the evidence is corroborated by the study conducted by Imran et al. (2016, p. 121). Graver is the fact that the teachers also face the same problem. Evidence that the teachers working in schools and colleges have lack of knowledge about stative and dynamic and consequently find it difficult to explain the difference between subject and agent comes from the work, reported in 2017, of Imran and Mamuna which emphasizes that stative and dynamic, as theta role assigners, make the description of the subject and agent possible through projection. It means that there exists lack of understanding of stative and dynamic among the teachers as well as learners in Pakistan. Hence, the present study aims to look for the factors which contribute to the lack of understanding of these two types of main verb among the learners.

For the most often, in EFL classrooms, language learning depends on learning of grammar which shapes different constructions; and the dictionaries which help comprehend definitions and the meanings of words. But the matter comes to a head when definitions appear ambiguous and as such, thwart the way to learn the rules of grammar and prove the crux of the matter.

It stands to reason that two types of verb i.e. dynamic and stative find their way into almost each and every sentence construction in English. Traditional grammars clearly divide them on the ground that the former can appear in progressive form while the latter cannot. Taking this division into account, the researchers have driven a coach and horses through the definition and true nature of stative verb inasmuch as one group of researchers accepts progressive stative whereas the other rejects it. This is one reason. Secondly, modern English grammar books are either silent or overlap each other on the conundrum of the use of statives in progressive aspect and thus, share the weight of lack of understanding among the learners. However, the matter in hand is that the way Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD), which is frequently used by the college students, exhibits *Stative* and *Dynamic* seems to have the gravity of setting these definitions ambiguous rather debunked, resulting in lack of understanding among the ESL/EFL learners.

Therefore, in pursue to explore reasons behind scanty ratio of understanding of main verb among the EFL learners, this experimental study hypothesizes that the division of state verb and dynamic verb, in OALD, on the basis of 'progressive marker *-ing*' may have adverse effect on the proper understanding of main verb among the learners and that, the removal of impetuous clauses 'inclusive of the progressive tense' from the definitions of the both and the inclusion of detailed description of such terms as have been incorporated therein with insufficient explanation may produce proliferated results.

Literature Review

English main verbs are divided into stative verbs and dynamic verbs. There are as many different definitions of these two types of verb as are the grammars and the researchers. Smith (1991) is of the view that dynamic verbs involve change, activity

and role of agent whereas the states denote the occurrence of an event with no end point. Huddleston & Pullum (2002) and Leech (2004) have divided the statives into four different classes i.e. perception, cognition, being and stance. Imran et al. (2016) defined the stative verbs as representing events which befall spontaneously. It is important that the variety in the definitions of both kinds of main verb is not a guide rather a cause of ambiguity.

The Progressive and the Stative verbs

A general distinction is made between stative verb and dynamic verb on the ground that the former cannot be used in progressive aspect *(*the eyes are winking)* while the latter can appear in progressive form *(she is playing the football)*. This division has launched the researchers on the chain of being contrary to one another and the resultant controversy has added to ambiguity in the true nature and function of stative verb and dynamic verb.

Progressive Statives among the Researchers

Kakietek's (1997) findings on the corpus of British and American novels, detective stories, scientific texts and popular dailies and weeklies and those in Smiecinska's (2002) survey conducted among the native speakers in USA, showed that statives can be used in progressive form in appropriate contexts. Romer (2005) goes in line with his predecessors and reports that progressive statives are more common in spoken form than in written form of English as in '*I was just wondering how you'd be paid'*. Later on, Debopam Das (2010) challenged the traditional grammars with his argument that non progressive verbs i.e. statives are not at all forbidden to occur in progressive aspect.

Nevertheless, the conclusion drawn by Imran et al. (2017) went contrary to those reported above and revealed that EFL learners in Pakistan accepted the progressive statives in particular linguistic contexts in their academic writing due to the aloofness from the grammatical rules (p. 72) but those competent in grammar rejected plainly the so called use of progressive aspect with states in any context. Similarly, Mohammad Falhasiri et al. (2012) conducted a study among EFL learners studying at Iran Language Institute and concluded that the participants did not accept stative verbs in *ing* form. Payne (2011) also regarded such constructions as have stative verbs in progressive form a logical contradiction. Before him, Leech (2004) put forward a division of stative verbs according to the functions they perform in different linguistic contexts but nowhere did he concede their use in progressive aspect.

Progressive Statives in English Grammar Books

Grammar books propound rules for changing the form of words and joining them into sentences. But it has become a matter of record that modern English Grammars do not offer hard and fast rules regarding the use of stative verb in the progressive aspect and that, multidimensional exceptions attached to progressive statives contribute to snatch their easy comprehension.

Chapter 8 of 'Oxford Guide to English Grammar' (OGEG) by John Eastwood reads that dynamic verbs can be used in progressive form but statives are not normally

continuous. The word *normally* is all confusing otherwise; the rule had been straight forward. Add to this, matters come to a head when it allows statives in progressive form under certain conditions and happen to exhibit *love, cost, enjoy, like and expect*, in examples cited therein, used in progressive form which some dictionaries do not permit at all. Such conditions disrupt the clear boundary between stative and dynamic and thwart easy recognition.

Chapter 9 of 'Longman English Grammar Practice' by L.G. Alexander emphasizes that a state has no beginning and no end and therefore is not normally used in progressive aspect. Unlike OGEG, it includes *love* in the category of stative verbs and plainly rejects their use in progressive aspect.

In Pakistan, college students studying from intermediate to master's level put 'High School English Grammar & Composition' by Wren & Martin to good use and the teachers use this book for self-study and for supplementary grammar activities in the class rooms. It is important to note that this book reads little on dynamic verb and almost nothing on stative verb in its chapter on verb. However, in chapter 25, dealing with present continuous tense, it propounds a list of thirty eight verbs, without labeling them *'Statives'*, of which use in progressive aspect on the account of their meaning it emphatically denies. It is particularly interesting that the list includes *love,* but at the same time the cited examples in different chapters of this book bear *love + ing* frequently.

Stative and Dynamic in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

In Pakistan, the students at college level make the most of Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD) as Ivana Ivančič (2017) reports that A.S Hornsby (1940) has compiled it especially for EFL learners. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 8th edition reads the definitions of stative and dynamic in the following words one after the other;

> (of verbs) describing a state rather than an action. Stative verbs (for example *be, seem, understand, like, own*) are not usually used in the progressive tenses.
>
> (of verbs) describing an action rather than a state. Dynamic verbs (for example *eat, grow, knock, die*) can be used in the progressive tenses.

It is evident from both the definitions that the conundrum of progressive aspect establishes the division between stative verb and dynamic verb which may have adverse effects on the identification of both the verbs among the EFL learners.

To check the role of clauses inclusive of progressive aspect in the definitions of stative and dynamic posted in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD), and so, to get at the technique the EFL learners adopt to recognize ibid. verbs and resultant effect on their identification among the EFL learners, an experimental study was carried out among the young learners in Pakistan. Following is the detailed report of the study.

Research Methodology

In this experimental study, a language proficiency test (LPT) and two handouts were wielded, to investigate the reliability of the definitions of dynamic verb and stative verb posted in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD), 8th edition, among the EFL (English as a foreign language) learners of intermediate and master's level studying at state run colleges of district Vehari, the province of Punjab, Pakistan.

Participants

In total, eighty seven 17-22-year-old EFL learners (Urdu-speaking individuals who learn English as a second language) studying at Govt. Colleges for women and Govt. Postgraduate Colleges situated in district Vehari, the province of Punjab, Pakistan participated in the study. They were divided into 61 males and 26 females. They were 77 science students of intermediate level and 10 students from M.A. (English Language and Literature) class. The students of intermediate had passed their Part-I exam with distinction (achieved more than 70% marks) and had spent seven months, September to March, of their study in intermediate part-II (near the end of academic session). The participants were able to put OALD to good use however; their understanding of stative verb and dynamic verb was, presumably, not up to the mark.

Research Tools

In order to find out whether the definitions of stative and dynamic produced better results inclusively or exclusively (= the concept of progressive tense), a language proficiency test (LPT) and two handouts were used to collect the required data from the EFL learners who participated from scratch.

Language Proficiency Test

The test comprised 15 sentence items with dichotomous options scattered in two rows. Each sentence contained a bold typeface to represent either stative verb or dynamic verb; and an underlined word or phrase to represent either subject or agent. Five words (*burn, run, roll, pump and go*) were carefully chosen keeping in view their flexibility to fall in both the types of verb i.e. stative and dynamic. Each one of the five words formed alternately a cluster of three sentences. In each cluster, sentences were arranged in such a deliberately contrived ordered manner that each sentence containing dynamic verb was guarded by two sentences containing stative verb in progressive form.

The implication was that all dynamic verbs were used in simple form and statives were used in progressive form deliberately, picked out from the examples cited in OALD, in order to test the participants' contemplation of progressive aspect in choosing the dynamic verbs and vice versa. Two terms *subject* and *agent* were added, as constants, on account of their relationship with *stative* and *dynamic* respectively, the evidence of this relationship is corroborated by the study conducted by Imran and Mamuna (2017: 258).

Two options i.e., a) stative verb b) dynamic verb in the 1st row and two options i.e., a) subject b) agent in the 2nd row appeared against each sentence item and the

participants were asked: *(1)* to focus on the bold typeface in order to choose the correct option from the 1st row; *(2)* and to focus on the underlined words and phrases to choose the correct option from the 2nd row.

Handouts

The data was collected in two phases. In the first phase, the language proficiency test along with a handout designed as control parameter was distributed among the participants in the presence of their teacher. The participants were asked to peruse the handout before approaching the LPT. A fortnight after the first phase, same LPT along with another handout, designed as experimental intervention, was distributed a second time among the same sample with ibid. instructions and facilities. However, to facilitate their understanding, they were allowed to consult a dictionary or with their teacher for possible meanings of the words used in the handouts.

Control Parameter

To avoid inconvenience of the distribution of any number of dictionaries among the participants, a handout was designed in which definitions of four items (dynamic, stative, subject and agent) culled from OALD, 8th edition were listed according to their lemma category (See Appendix B). It is important to note that OALD sees the difference between stative and dynamic in terms of progressive aspect. The participants were asked to consult the handout on a hand-held when approaching the LPT and the motive was to test the effect of definitions on their performance.

Experimental Intervention

The researchers compiled a list of four items e.g., dynamic, stative, subject and agent in a second handout in which the definitions of two terms *subject* and *agent* were listed exactly the same as were in the control parameter i.e. copied directly from OALD, 8th edition and pasted without bringing any change in them however, the definitions of *dynamic* and *stative*, posted in OALD, 8th edition, were listed with the following modifications.

1. The following sentences (a & b) were excluded from the definitions of dynamic verb and stative verb on the ground that both of these pertain to the controversial conundrum of the use of stative/dynamic verb in progressive form, and that the EFL learners may be prevented from concentrating solely on progressive aspect in recognizing dynamic verb.

    a. *Dynamic verbs (for example eat, grow, knock, die) can be used in the progressive tenses.*

    b. *Stative verbs (for example be, seem, understand, like, own) are not usually used in the progressive tenses.*

2. OALD in 'stative' and 'dynamic' has left two terms *state* and *action* unexplained contained therein. Accordingly, the details about *Stative* and *Dynamic (a & b)* were expanded as in *(c & d)* respectively and therein seems to lie the key to their recognition.

a. *Describing an action rather than a state. (stative)*

b. *Describing a state rather than an action. (dynamic)*

c. *A stative verb represents the events that befall spontaneously. The subject does not transit its action through the verb onto the object rather; it is the subject which receives the action of the verb.*

d. *A Dynamic verb represents the event which occurs when a subject transits its action (behavior) through the verb onto the object (for example read, grow, beat, pluck etc.).*

Results

The responses to the language proficiency test, comprising on 15 sentences distributed among (N=77) participants, were analyzed via descriptive statistics. The analysis focused on the percentage of incorrect answers of option (a) and (b) in the 1st row appearing against five sentences (2, 5, 8, 11 & 14) and the rest of the numbers of the sentences to get at the participants' approach of reliance on the progressive tense in recognizing the bold typefaces as stative verb and dynamic verb respectively. In addition, the analysis also focused on the percentage of correct answers of the options (b) and (a) appearing against the former number of sentences and the latter number of sentences to determine the EFL learners' ability to understand dynamic and stative verb in the 1st row; and agent and subject in the 2nd row respectively. However, the results of incorrect answers of the options appearing in the 2nd row were not entertained for the involvement of the constant. Nevertheless, the ratio of the outcome of experimental intervention to control parameter served to find out whether the former is more or less efficient in producing proliferated results. The quantitative results of the language proficiency test are displayed in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1. Average ratings of correct/incorrect answers through control parameter

Category	Correct	%	Incorrect	%
Stative verb	134	17%	636	83%
Dynamic verb	100	26%	285	74%
Subject	354	46%	416	54%
Agent	123	32%	262	68%
Total	711	30%	1599	70%

Table 1 illustrates the impact of the way the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines stative verb, dynamic verb, subject and agent on their identification among the participants. It follows from the data that after perusing the definitions of ibid. items posted in the OALD, the EFL learners failed to identify them inasmuch as almost in all the four categories the average percentage of incorrect answers outstripped that of correct answers with over double margin. Add to this, the average percentage of incorrect answers of the first two categories reveal that they relied primarily on the clauses, which betrayed them to failure, inclusive of the concept of progressive aspect in recognizing the statives and dynamic verbs. Overall, the EFL learners' identification of stative, dynamic, subject and agent was not up to scratch.

Table 2. Average ratings of correct/incorrect answers through experimental intervention

Category	Correct	%	Incorrect	%
Stative verb	460	60%	310	40%
Dynamic verb	275	71%	110	29%
Subject	391	51%	379	49%
Agent	144	37%	241	63%
Total	1270	55%	1040	45%

Table 2 shows the effect of the modified definitions of first two categories on the performance of the participants. The empirical data reveals that the modifications brought to the existing definitions have capacity to ameliorate the understanding of the stative and dynamic verb among the EFL learners inasmuch as the percentage of incorrect answers experienced a significant decrease as a direct result of the removal of the clauses, pertaining to the concept of progressive aspect, from the definitions of both the verbs and expansion in the details of the relevant terms. However, it is evident from the ratio of the outcome of experimental intervention to that of control parameter that the former is more efficient than the latter. Overall, the EFL learners' understanding of the stative and dynamic verb (variable) increased significantly while that of subject and agent (constant) remained almost steady.

Discussion

Overall, the empirical evidence supports the hypothesis that the definitions of stative verb and dynamic verb posted in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD) are debunked by the clauses, incorporated therein, inclusive of progressive tense which arguably accounts for lack of understanding of these verbs among the EFL learners and that the definitions, exclusive of the concept of progressive aspect, of both these types of main verb can produce proliferated results. The data also reveals that both the definitions exclusive of progressive aspect are over three times more efficient than those inclusive of continuous tense. The temptation is to note that the EFL learners had scanty knowledge about the stative verb, dynamic verb, subject and agent.

First off, the statistical analysis shows that after a candid perusal of the definitions posted in OALD, the participants failed to identify the statives and dynamic verbs, the evidence is corroborated by the average ratings of correct answers of the former and the latter being paltry 17% and 26% respectively in table 1. The implication is that the definitions of both the verbs are obscured by the inadequately supplemented information in them that is, each of two definitions comprises on a phrase and a sentence one after the other: the former dealing with the nature of the term e.g. *state* or *action* and that with insufficient details, and the latter pertaining to its use in progressive aspect which ensues a conundrum.

Firstly, the first phrase in each of the two definitions is incomprehensible for their being too brief to get across. The matter of fact is that the phrase *'describing a state rather than an action'* incorporated in the definition of *stative* and that *'describing an action rather than a state'* in *dynamic* see the difference between both the types of verb in terms of comparison (= between state and action) which ultimately promises a deliberate shift to the definitions of *state* and *action*. It is interesting that OALD is completely silent on these two appellations (*state* and *action*) as regards their use in

grammar inasmuch as it does not elaborate when a verb demonstrates a state and when an action.

Secondly, the second improvised sentence *'dynamic verbs can be used in the progressive tenses'* in the definition of *dynamic* though promulgates a clear cut concept yet proves error-prone in that the EFL learners place over reliance on *'progressive tense'* and thereby happen to confuse even the stative + *ing* with dynamic verb, thus making the progressive marker *'ing'* an identifier of all dynamics, resulting in evoking ambiguity about the true nature of *dynamics* as well as *statives*. The evidence is corresponded by the finds in table 1 which illustrates the piled percentage of the incorrect answers of stative and dynamic as 83% and 74% respectively.

Thirdly, working with the sentence '*stative verbs are not usually used in the progressive tenses'* in the definition of *stative* in OALD makes the EFL learners more prone to error, that is, the use of the word *'usually'* incorporated therein evokes ambiguity since the learner is left uncertain of when and where a stative can be used in progressive aspect, which arguably accounts for lack of understanding of not only stative verb but also of dynamic verb in their being connected with progressive aspect. Larsen Freeman et al. (2002) came out with same results in their find that for ESL/EFL learners, one of the most difficult areas to master is English verb tense-aspect system because the students tend to overextend the present progressive and use it where the simple present was to be preferred (e.g., **I am knowing that*).

Hence, hampered by insufficient details in the phrase (first half of definition), the participants of this study had no choice but to rely completely on the sentence (second half of definition) in the definition of *stative* in OALD which made the participants confuse all verbs, including statives, +*ing* (verbs plus *ing*) with dynamic verbs which ultimately left a potential repercussion on the identification of its dynamic counterpart, hence the EFL learners confused all verbs, including dynamic, –*ing* (verbs minus *ing*) with stative verbs. Nevertheless, their failure was marked by their over inculcation on the progressive tense in identifying the statives and dynamics.

Perhaps more important is the fact that, since the participants attached utmost significance to the presence of continuous tense in identifying the dynamic verbs and resultantly happened to consider all verbs –*ing* as statives, there was an implication behind the EFL learners' over consideration of the progressive aspect in identifying both the verbs that the definitions posted in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary had adverse effect on the understanding of both these types of main verb among the EFL learners. These findings go in line with the conclusion drawn by Ebrahimpourtaher (2015: 991) who conducted a study in Iran and reported that the most problematic aspect of learning English for the intermediate EFL learners is learning grammar.

Finally, on one hand, the definition of stative verb ends with the words that *these are not usually used in the progressive tenses* but on the other, OALD exhibits a number of such sentences (used as examples in support of different definitions) as contain unusual progressive statives. It is important that contradiction in the use of statives in progressive form continues beyond the artifice of both the definitions in OALD.

However, we can expect quite different rather better results if the same experiment is tried among the native speakers. This limitation of present study seems to coincide the results drawn by Smiecinska (2002) that the native speakers have a strong tendency of using the statives in progressive aspect, therefore, it seems unlikely of their being driven away by the continuous tense broached in the definitions.

Conclusion

It must be said, in view of the data, that Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary sees the difference between dynamic and stative verb in that the former can be used in progressive form whereas the latter variably hesitates. However, the use of statives in progressive tense is a matter of controversy among the researchers, modern grammars and dictionaries. The EFL learners make frequent use of ibid dictionary and, by making *'ing'* an identifier of all dynamics, they tend to confuse all verbs plus *ing* with dynamics and others minus *ing* with statives. Hence, progressive tense cannot be a reliable parameter, for its being a conundrum, of dividing statives from dynamic verbs.

Therefore, the clauses which stand responsible for the division of *statives* from the *dynamics* on the basis of progressive aspect prove impetuous and are a cause of failure in comprehending and learning the true nature of main verb. The removal of such clauses from both the definitions can produce proliferated results.

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Strategic Model of English Language Learning Activities to Enhance Tour Guide Skills of Thai Youth: A Case Study in Cultural Tourism Community at ThaKha, Amphawa, Samuthsongkram, Thailand

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Abstract
This study is conducted to propose an appropriate strategic model of English language learning activities to enhance tour guide skills of Thai youth in cultural tourism community. Population and Samples used in this study are 88 children who are studying at Lower Secondary School Level in Thakha, Amphawa, Samuthsongkram, Thailand. The research instruments used consist of learning conditions and readiness for being tour guides assessment, language learning styles survey, and strategic model of English language learning activities to enhance tour guide skills designed after analyzing learning conditions and readiness as well as language learning styles of children. The strategic model of English language learning activities is implemented to 34 children who are studying in Grade 8 by simple sampling method from Grade 7-9 Secondary School in Thakha community. This study indicates that the children in Thakha community are not ready for being volunteer tour guides. Most of them are V-K-A learners who prefer learning language from practicing a particular skill, questioning, and team working. Thus, Grade-8 lower secondary school students are able to learn most from pictures, charts, maps, storytelling, and acting. The implementation of strategic model of English language learning activities shows that the activity approaches are appropriate and directly demonstrate children's learning styles together with could enhance tour guide skills of children in target local cultural tourism in Thailand.

Keywords: Learning Environment, English Learning Approach, Tour Guides Skills

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Introduction

Thakha Sub district, Amphawa District, Samuthsongkram Province is one of the famous cultural tourist attractions in Thailand due to its abundant natural resources such as fertile soil which is suitable for important agricultural crops including sugar palm trees and coconut trees. They are the important ingredients for the community's unique products, for example, coconut palm sugar, palm juice and other products. Moreover, the abundance of forest along both sides of the canals, which is the habitat of fireflies are unique to the area. There are several rivers and canals that provide water routes which are the cultural cost for tourism activities, such as visiting temples and traditional Thai houses, experiencing the kinship lifestyle and simplicity at homestay.

The unique natural environment and local livelihood of Thakha community, as well as the features of tourism services, including the hospitality of the people in the community and young people who are encouraged to conserve the culture and traditions attract many Thai and foreign tourists to visit the community. As a consequence, a group has been formed to provide services to tourists and those interested in exploring the culture along the canals by boat (Anchalee Atipat, 2010). The service providers are valuable in driving and developing tourism in Thakha community. Thus, it is essential for the service providers to provide accurate information about tourist attractions, services and products to Thai and foreign tourists by using appropriate language both in Thai and English contexts.

The economic development of the tourism industry is an important mechanism in tackling the current economic downturn, as tourism is a crucial sector that brings in major income. The sector is a source of foreign currency which contributes to long-term stability in the balance of Thailand’s payments. Revenues from the tourism industry are widely distributed to the population. It also creates many jobs related to tourism. The policy of every Thai government focuses on developing standards for tourism services, especially on human resource development in tourism such as hotel staffs, tour operators, tour guides, restaurant staff, tour staff and taxi drivers, etc., by developing communication skills in English and providing information for tourism and services.

There have been many research conducted to develop Thakha community as one of the main Ecotourism sites in Samuthsongkram province (Ratanapianthamma, Wilailak et al., 2007; Rattanaraksa, Parichat et al., (2006); and Wongcha-um, Suwanarit, et al., 2010). However, there are a few investigations focusing on improving language skills for tourism service providers at Thakha community. It is found that Atipath, Anchalee (2010) conducts a research to examine self-directed learning of tourism service providers in using English for communication. The study represents many constraints in learning language due to tourism service providers’ age and a lack of English basic skills. Nevertheless, the study does not cover the enhancement of English communication skills for the youth who are conveyed to conserve the local traditions and cultures which is a unique feature of the community. For being volunteer tour guides, it is necessary to provide essential skills for local youth, especially information about tourist attractions, livelihood, and local products with proper Thai and English communication skills. Consequently, it could influence the development of the community’s economic that could generate the families’ extra

income. Therefore, this study focuses on examining an appropriate strategic model of English language learning activities to enhance tour guide skills of Thai youth in Thakha, Amphawa, Samuthsongkram in order to promote cultural tourism community in Thailand.

Literature review

The related literature will be reviewed as follows:

Spatial context of Thakha Community

Thakha, Amphawa in Samuthsongkram Province, Thailand is an agrarian community with many rivers and canals. Most people reside along the canals and travel mainly by boat. Thakha Sub district was previously known as Thakha weekend market. Nowadays, it is currently known as Thakha floating market (a 100-year Market), which is located at Thakha Sub district Moo 5. People in Thakha have traded by boat for very long time. In the past, most people were farmers who grew onion, garlic and lettuce. However, in the rainy season, the area was often flooded. The farmers then changed their cultivation to a farming system of coconut. People live in harmony with nature and have created a strong community as most of them are relatives who live peacefully and sufficiently. This is the valuable cultural asset of the community.

In terms of occupations, most people are farmers and some of them are traders and laborers. The district's population is 5,479, consisting of 2,708 men and 2,771 women from 1,431 households. In the education sector, there are 2 primary schools (Wat Maneesan School and Wat Tepprasitkanawas School) and 1 secondary school (Tepsuvarnachanvitthaya School). Besides, there are Klong Maquid Nursery, a community learning center, 4 newspaper points, and 11 village voice towers. For religion and belief, Maneesan Temple, Tepprasit Temple, and Khun Mae Tua Nia Shrine are the religious and spiritual centers of the communities. In the health care sector, there are 2 local hospitals. Considering security, there is one police precinct to cover the security of the community and safety of land transportation. The area has many water resources, including rivers, canals and lakes. These water resources make the area suitable for agriculture.

Importantly, the local governors have a broad vision to develop the community in terms of infrastructure. This makes Thakha has a good infrastructure and a good environment. Moreover, Eco-tourism has been strongly promoted in the community.

Thakha Travelling Routes

Apart from land transportation, water transportation by boat is part of the culture of the livelihood of people in Thakha. Consequently, it creates a travelling route that attracts many tourists to visit and enjoy the scenery along the canals. It is another charm of the community.

Wongcha-um *et al.* (2010) notes that the ideals for cultural tourism in Thakha of Thai tourists, considering tourist attractions, would be the initial visit at Thakha floating market or a 100-year market which was known as the river of life. The market had diverse products and was located at Moo 2, Thakha, Ampawa, Samutsongkram. The

former location was at Tamnob Thakha (Thakha barrage). In the past, farmers would bring products from their farms, such as onion, garlic, fresh chili, dried chili, fresh vegetables, coconut sugar, fresh sugar, crafts from coconut and other seasonal fruits to exchange at the market. It has become a popular market nowadays.

Another important tourist attraction is the sugar processing plant at Kru Siri's Plam Stove House. Tourists can study how to produce coconut sugar. They could also buy fresh sugar for cooking or as a souvenir for their friends and family. Moreover, the tourists could also take a boat trip to sightsee the traditional Thai houses along the canal and visit an elegant traditional Thai house of Mr. Taweep Chua-Thai. At night, the tourists could take a boat trip to see the fireflies that live on Lamphu trees, which is one of admiration for the charm of nature.

Apart from natural tourism, there was also a historical tourism by following the travelling routes of the King Rama 5 at Kamnan Chan's house. Furthermore, there was a religious tourism, including paying respect to the sacred places of Maneesan Temple, Teppraśit Kanawas Temple, Tua Nia Shrine, and Ban Laem Meditation Center.

Thakha is the supreme place for tourism. It has a wide range of tourist attractions, including nature, culture, history, and religion. Since it is not far from Bangkok, it is an ideal place for a weekend trip.

Language Learning

A very popular hypothesis on language learning was Stephen Krachen's Model Monitor (as cited in Schütz**,** 2017) with 5 assumptions as follows.

1. **The acquisition-learning hypothesis**: 2 systems of the knowledge and expression system of the second language consist of Acquiring System, which was believed that the ability to learn a mother language was unconscious and Learning System, where learning took place in the classroom with teaching methods, language learning occurred systematically.
2. **Natural order hypothesis**: language learning occurred in a chronological order, which meant that we could predict the learning sequences of a person. Learning took place step by step from one step to the next.
3. **The monitor hypothesis**: a correlation between perception and learning. When we were proficient in a second language communication, we could communicate easily, which was caused by perception. Learning acted as a monitor and as an editor to monitor and control what was being said or spoken if it was right.
4. **The input hypothesis**: learning came from input, and came out in the form of messages and language forms. In addition, good learning should take the form of i+1 which means that the level of information or language entered should be more difficult than the level of knowledge that leaners already had at 1 level.
5. **Affective filter hypothesis**: obstacles for learning of a learner caused a stress, lack of motivation, and classroom atmosphere etc.

Factors Affecting English Learning

According to Bloom (1976), the factors that affected on language learning consist of *Cognitive entry behaviors* which intended all abilities of a learner with the basic

knowledge. Another factor concerned *Affective entry characteristics* which were the circumstances or motivations for the learners to learn a new thing, including their interest and attitude towards learning. And lastly, *Quality of instruction* including participation, instruction and knowledge on how to correct the errors can influence language learning.

Jacobotts (1971) proposed 3 factors that made the teaching process successfully. *First*, *Teaching factors* contained the quality of teachers in terms of knowledge and opportunity to answer questions or provide additional information both inside and outside of classrooms. *Second, Student factors* consisted of perception ability of the learners to learn from teachers. And *Social and cultural factors* affecting foreign language learning achievement involved adherence to self-language, composition of self-language and cultural circumstance in the society.

Gardner and Lambert (1972, 1973) and Gardner (1973) claimed that factors influencing on English learning derived from: *Attitude*, for example, attitude towards subject matters would develop from home environment which includes supporting from family, economic advantages, encouragement from fellow students, and teachers as well as teaching methods. It is believed that *Language Aptitude* is innate. Thus, language training has no influence on language aptitude. In addition, *Parents' support* would encourage their children to learn. It is considered as one of the social tools that affected on the learning of foreign languages. *Economic status*, the children with high socio-economic status have a positive attitude toward learning English as a second language. On the other hand, children with low socio-economic status are often the children with poor performance in studying and learning a foreign language. *Intellectual level* impacts communication skills of learners when learning a second or foreign language. *Learning habit*, learners who have good learning habits may produce a positive effect on learning English or foreign language. *Gender*, according to a study conducted in Louisiana, Maine and Connecticut in the United States with students who learned French as a second language, girls were different from boys in terms of attitudes and development of second language skills. Girls were more likely to develop better than boys. *Background knowledge* is one of the variables that influence current learning achievement. *Quality of teaching:* good teaching may foster learners' positive attitudes to learning. And finally, *Opportunity of learning* meant the opportunity to learn or the opportunity to apply what have been learned.

Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies refer to initiatives that learners take consciously at the initial stage of learning processes to make their learning more effective. These strategies have a clear purpose to help students develop their knowledge and understanding of language learning. Rubin (1987) defined language learning strategies as strategies that led to the development of language learning systems, where learners were directly affected by learning. For O' Mallry and Chamot (1990), the language learning strategies were the special thoughts and behaviors that students used to help them understand, learn, and receive new information. However, Richard *et al.* (1992) argued that language learning strategies were behaviors and ideas that students applied during their learning to gain a better understanding of learning and memory. However, Richard and his team added that language learning strategies did not only help learners to learn more effectively, but also were the methods that

improved the understanding and learning of new knowledge, as well as the learner's self-learning.

O' Malley *et al.* (1985) have classified language learning strategies into 3 types as follows,
1. *Metacognitive strategies* are learning processes and planning for learning used by learners to help them understand and learn more effectively. It also referred to the methods learners used to evaluate and monitor learning errors with their language learning style.
2. *Cognitive strategies* involve process of thinking that learners intend to foster comprehension, acquisition, or retention in language tasks by themselves.
3. *Social-affective strategies* consisted of using social interactions to support learners' comprehension, learning or retention of information. Learners can use this strategy to facilitate an in-depth understanding of their teachers and peers and to participate in a society where they lived.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 138), the strategies directly involved learning is cognitive strategies which is divided into sub-strategies as follows: 1) *Repetition,* 2) *Resourcing*, such as the use of dictionaries, 3) *Information assorting*, 4) *Note taking*, 5) *Deduction / Induction*, 6) *Substitution*, 7) *Elaboration*, 8) *Summarization*, 9) *Translation* from the mother tongue to acquire understanding and communication, 10) *Transfer* the rules of using a mother tongue language when learning the target language, and 11) *Inferencing* which means inserting the target language by using the mother tongue of the learner.

Oxford (1990) stated that the goal of using language learning strategies is to make language learning easier, faster, more enjoyable more effective and more transferable to new information, so that learners can control their own learning. Language learning strategies are divided into two classes: *direct language learning strategies* refer to strategies directly related to tasks or language required, which relies on the processing of learners' knowledge. On the other hand, *indirect language learning strategies* permit learners to learn a language without getting involved in the target language.

Learning Styles

It is believe that humans can perceive information via 3 channels, including eyes or visual preceptors, ears or auditory preceptors and body or kinesthetic preceptors. Considering 3 states when people perceiving the information; consciousness, subconscious, and unconscious together with 2 components of both perceptual pathways and states of consciousness, Thammabusaya, Matthana (2013) suggested that learning styles can be divided into 6 styles as follows,
1. V-A-K is the best style for learners when they read and tell stories to the others. They are hard-working but do not like doing sport.
2. V-K-A is the best style for learners if they take action according to examples and keep asking. They usually like working as a group.
3. A-K-V is the best style for learners if they teach the others. They like to clarify ideas when telling a story, but they often have a problem with reading and writing.
4. A-V-K is the best style for learners who are capable of communicating with others. They can speak clearly and reasonably. They love the truth, like studying

history and all subjects with logic. They will make an effort to speak so that they will understand the lessons learned. They do not like sport.

5. K-V-A is the best style for learners when they work in a quiet place. They can work with a good physical strength without the instruction from a teacher. If they listen to teachers too much, they could be confused.

6. K-A-V is the best style for learners when they move their body. They do not like to stand still. Sometimes, they are called as fidgety kids. They often have a problem with reading and writing.

Language Leaning Activities

In order to facilitate learners to achieve or acquire knowledge, instructors can use effective techniques and different teaching methods based on course syllabus and learners to arrange learning activities. Ideas for four skills of language learning activities: *Listening activity*, *Speaking activity, Writing activity, and Writing activity* can be conducted as suggested by Olphen, Marcela van, Mark Hofer and Judi Harris (2011).

Essential Communication Skills for Being a Tour Guide

Kimsuwan, Anek (2003), Bunyawatana, Panit (1999), Putsongkran, Nipawan (2007) claimed that the essential and important skills for the efficient tourism professions as well as the ability to create a good understanding and the impression for tourists are speaking and listening skills together with the different cultures which could be applied to suit social contexts and service situations. Similarly the study on tourists' satisfaction toward tour leaders in Taiwan (Chang, 2004 cited in Putsongkran, Nipawan., 2007) also found out that the satisfaction of tourists depended on the ability to communicate, quality of service and information provided by tour leaders. Furthermore, Atipath, Anchalee (2010) provided recommendation on training youth tour leaders by focusing on the essential communication, including greetings, inviting, making short conversations, describing places and facilities, giving directions, introducing and describing tourist attractions, describing Thai culture and tradition, giving appreciation, and leave-taking. In addition, Tohtong, Chomyong (2012) also suggested that the ASEAN cultural context, especially cross-cultural communication should be included in the curriculum concerning tourism in Thailand.

Research questions and hypotheses

In order to reach the objective of the study, 2 phases of the study are conducted. Phase 1 of the study aims to survey youth's learning conditions and readiness for being volunteer tour guides and their learning styles. The second phase of the study intends to design and implement an appropriate strategic model of English language learning activities correlated to tour guide skills with the group of students who are most ready to be a volunteer tour guide. Therefore, the research questions and hypotheses are stated as follows:

1. H_1: The youth are ready to be volunteer tour guides.
2. H_2: The youth's learning styles are varies depending on education levels.
3. H_3: Tour guide skills of the youth are strongly promoted when a strategic model of English language learning activities designed is implemented.

Methods

As mentioned, the first phase of the study aims to determine youth's learning conditions and readiness for being volunteer tour guides and their learning style. The Population and samples in this stage are 88 students who are studying in Grade 7-9 at the Secondary School in Thakha community.

The research instruments include:
1. Conditions and Readiness for being Volunteer Tour Guides Assessment is designed and constructed to examine correlation between the youth's conditions and readiness for being volunteer tour guides.
(The youth's conditions and readiness include genders, age, education level, parents' career, parents' income, need of students to help parents gain extra income, experience of being a volunteer tour guide, desire to be a volunteer tour guide competence level of English language skills, opportunity to learn English language outside school, and attitudes on English learning constructed based on the factors affecting English learning pointed out by Gardner and Lambert, 1972.)
2. Learning Style Survey (Brain Boxx, 2016) proposes to discover the youth's learning styles so as to design an appropriate learning activity that directly promote their learning styles.
Data analysis involves content analysis and comparison of correlation between variables using Pearson Chi-square Test: comparison of correlation between the youth's conditions and readiness for being volunteer tour guides and comparison of the correlation between the youth's learning styles and their education level.

The second phase of the study focuses on the implementation of an appropriate strategic model of English language learning activities correlated to tour guide skills with 34 (Grade 8) students random sampling from the participants in phase 1 concerning those who are ready to be volunteer tour guides. The instruments involve a strategic model of English language learning activities designed from the selected samples' learning styles; Participants' Behavior Observation Form, used to record students' behavior during the implementation; and Child-oriented Report (Language Learning Self-Assessment), students report what they have learned after the implementation. Content analysis is employed to analyze data.

Results

Phase 1 Results:

The first phase of the study examines the hypotheses which related to the youth's conditions and readiness for being a volunteer tour guide together with their learning styles. The results of this stage are as follows:

Finding 1: General status of the youth in Thakha, Amphawa, Samuthsongkram

Table 1-1 presents percentage of the youth's general status

General status	Number (88 students)	Percentage
1. Gender		
Female	41	46.6
Male	47	53.4
2. Age		
12 years	18	20.5
13 years	27	30.7
14 years	27	30.7
15 years	15	17.0
16 years	1	1.1
3. Education level		
Grade 7 (first year of lower secondary school)	35	39.8
Grade 8 (second year of lower secondary school) Grade 9 (third year of lower secondary school)	34 19	38.6 21.6
4. Parents' Career		
Civil servant	5	5.7
Labor	46	52.3
Trader	14	15.9
Farmer	19	21.6
Others	4	4.5
5. Parents' income per month	51	58.0
N/A	5	5.7
Below 5,000 baht	24	27.3
5,001 – 10,000 baht	5	5.7
10,001 – 15,000 baht	2	2.3
15,001 – 20,000 baht	1	1.1
Over 20,000 baht		
6. Need of students to help parents gain extra income		
Very necessary	11	12.5
Occasionally necessary	67	76.1
Not necessary	7	8.0
Missing	3	3.4
7. Experience of being a volunteer tour guide	5	5.7
Yes	82	93.3
No	1	1.1
No indication		
8. Desire to be a volunteer tour guide	33	37.5
Yes	55	62.5
No		

According to table 1-1, it is shown that there are a higher number of male than female of 88 students from lower secondary school in Thakha community. The majority of them are age between 13-14 years old. Their parents' career is mostly laborers and earned between 5,000 and 10,000 baht a month. Most youth need to help their parents to earn extra income for some occasions and they never have any experience in being a tour guide. In addition, most of them do not want to be a volunteer tour guide. The reasons they give are that they do not have experience and think they are not good at English. As a result, the H_1 hypothesis is rejected.

Finding 2: Data analysis of correlation between condition and readiness of being volunteer tour guides with the youth's general status

Table 2-1-2-5 show correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with gender, age, education level, parents' career, and parents' income, respectively

Table 2-1 Correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with gender

Necessity to help family to earn extra income	Female		Male		Total		
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
Highly necessary	4	10.3	7	15.2	11	12.9	Pearson Chi-square P = .321
Occasional necessary	30	76.9	37	80.4	67	78.8	
Not necessary	5	12.8	2	4.3	7	8.2	
Total	39	100	46	100	85	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-2 Correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with age

Necessity to help family to earn extra income	12 years old		13 years old		14 years old		15 years old		16 years old		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highly necessary	2	11.8	3	11.5	5	19.2	1	6.7	0	0.0	11	12.9	Pearson chi-square P = .040*
Occasional necessary	14	82.4	23	88.5	18	69.2	12	80.0	0	0.0	67	78.8	

Not necessary	1	5.9	0	0.0	3	11.5	2	13.3	1	100	7	8.2	
Total	17	100	26	100	26	100	15	100	1	100	85	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-3 Correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with level of education

Necessity to help family to earn extra income	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .238
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highly necessary	6	18.2	5	15.2	0	0.0	11	12.9	
Occasional necessary	26	78.8	24	72.7	17	89.5	67	78.8	
Not necessary	1	3.0	4	12.1	2	10.5	7	8.2	
Total	33	100	33	100	19	100	85	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-4 Correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with parents' career

Necessity to help family to earn extra income	Civil servant		Labor		Trader		Farmer		Others		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .592
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highly necessary	0	0.0	7	15.6	2	15.4	2	11.1	0	0.0	11	12.9	
Occasional necessary	5	100	35	77.8	11	84.6	13	72.2	3	75.0	67	78.8	
Not necessary	0	0.0	3	6.7	0	0.0	3	16.7	1	25.0	7	8.2	
Total	5	100	45	100	13	100	18	100	4	100	85	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-5 Correlation between the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income with parents' income

Necessity to help family to earn extra income	NA		Below 5000 baht		5001 - 10000 baht		10001 - 15000 baht		15001 - 20000 baht		Over 20000 baht		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highly necessary	4	8.2	1	20	4	17.4	1	20	1	50	0	0	11	12.9	Pearson chi-square P = .765
Occasional necessary	39	79.6	4	80	18	78.3	4	80	1	50	1	100	67	78.8	
Not necessary	6	12.2	0	0	1	4.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	8.2	
Total	49	100	5	100	23	100	5	100	2	100	1	100	85	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Based on table 2-1-2-5, it is found that the youth's necessity to help their family to earn extra income do not significantly correlate with their gender (p value = 0.321), level of education (p value = 0.238), careers of their parents (p value = 0.592), and the level of income of their parents (p value = 0.765). However, in terms of ages, it is indicated that the necessity to help family to earn extra income of the youth significantly correlated with all ages (significant at the .004 level) except in the age of 16 years old.

Table 2-6-2-10 demonstrate correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with gender, age, education level, parents' career, and parents' income, respectively

Table 2-6 Correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with gender

Experience of being a tour guide	Female		Mlae		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ever	2	4.9	3	6.4	5	5.7	Pearson chi-square P = .609
Never	39	95.1	43	91.5	82	93.2	
Not indicate	0	0	1	2.1	1	1.1	
Total	41	100	47	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-7 Correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with age

Experience of being a tour guide	12 years old		13 years old		14 years old		15 years old		16 years old		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .646
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ever	0	0	3	11.1	2	7.4	0	0	0	0	5	5.7	
Never	18	100	24	88.9	24	88.9	15	100	1	100	82	93.2	
Not indicate	0	0	0	0	1	3.7	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	
Total	18	100	27	100	27	100	15	100	1	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-8 Correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with level of education

Experience of being a tour guide	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .486
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ever	2	5.7	3	8.8	0	0	5	5.7	
Never	33	94.3	30	88.2	19	100	82	93.2	
Not indicate	0	0	1	2.9	0	0	1	1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-9 Correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with career of their parents

Experience of being a tour guide	Civil servant		Laborer		Trader		Farmer		Others		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .924
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ever	0	0	4	8.7	0	0	1	5.3	0	0	5	5.7	
Never	5	100	41	89.1	14	100	18	94.7	4	100	82	93.2	
Not indicate	0	0	1	2.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	
Total	5	100	46	100	14	100	19	100	4	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-10 Correlation between the youth's experience of being a tour guide with the level income of their parents

Experience of being a tour guide	NA		Below 5000 baht		5001 - 10000 baht		10001 - 15000 baht		15001 - 20000 baht		Over 20000 baht		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .953
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Ever	2	3.9	0	0	3	12.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5.7	
Never	48	94.1	5	100	21	87.5	5	100	2	100	1	100	82	93.2	
Not indicate	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1.1	
Total	51	100	5	100	24	100	5	100	2	100	1	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

According to table 2-6-2-10, it is represented that the youth's experience of being a tour guide do not significantly correlate with the gender (p value = 0.609), the age (p value = 0.646), the education level (p value = 0.486), careers of their parents (p value = 0.924), and the level income of their parents (p value = 0.953). Most of the students do not have experience of being a local volunteer tour guide.

Table 2-11-2-15 present correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with gender, age, education level, parents' career, and parents' income, respectively

Table 2-11 Correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with gender

Desire of being a tour guide	Female		Male		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .001*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Yes	23	56.1	10	21.3	33	37.5	
No	18	43.9	37	78.7	55	62.5	
Total	41	100	47	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-12 Correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with age

Desire of being a tour guide	12 years old		12 years old		12 years old		12 years old		12 years old		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .300
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Yes	4	22.2	10	37.0	13	48.1	5	33.3	1	100	33	37.5	
No	14	77.8	17	63.0	14	51.9	10	66.7	0	0	55	62.5	
Total	18	100	27	100	27	100	15	100	1	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-13 Correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with level of education

Desire of being a tour guide	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .284
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Yes	10	28.6	16	47.1	7	36.89	33	37.5	
No	25	71.4	18	52.9	12	62.5	55	62.5	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-14 Correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with careers of their parents

Desire of being a tour guide	Civil servant		Laborer		Trader		Farmer		Others		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .300
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Yes	0	0	21	45.7	5	35.7	6	31.6	1	25.0	33	37.5	
No	5	100	25	54.3	9	64.3	13	68.4	3	75.0	55	62.5	
Total	5	100	46	100	14	100	19	100	4	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Table 2-15 Correlation between the youth's desire of being a tour guide with income levels of their parents

Desire of being a tour guide	NA		Below 5000 baht		5001 - 10000 baht		10001 - 15000 baht		15001 - 20000 baht		Over 20000 baht		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .327
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Yes	17	33.3	1	20.0	10	41.7	4	80.0	1	50.0	0	0	33	37.5	
No	34	66.7	4	80.0	14	58.3	1	20.0	1	50.0	1	100	55	62.5	
Total	51	100	5	100	24	100	5	100	2	100	1	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

As shown in table 2-11, the youth's desire of being a tour guide is significantly correlated with gender (significant at the 0.001 level). Precisely, female want to be a volunteer tour guide higher than male. On the other hand, the data from table 2-12-2-13 show that the youth's desire of being a tour guide do not significantly correlate with age (p value = 0.30) and level of education (p value = 0.284). Thus, most children do not want to be a volunteer tour guide but when comparing with each level of education, the percentage of the students in Grade 8 with the desire of being a tour guide is higher than the other levels. According to table 2-14, it is found that the desire of being a tour guide of the youth do not significantly correlate with careers of their parents (p value = 0.300). However, the youth who come from laborer family are likely to have a higher desire of being a volunteer tour guide than other groups.

Lastly, the data in table 2-15 also indicates that the desire of being a tour guide of the youth do not significantly correlate with their parents' level of income (p value = 0.327).

Finding 3: Data analysis of the youth's competence level of English language skills

Table 3-1 shows an average of the youth's competence level of English language skills

English Language Skills	Mean	S.D.	Competence Level
Listening skill	2.78	.976	Good
Speaking skill	3.02	1.093	Moderate
Reading skill	3.23	.991	Moderate
Writing skill	3.11	.976	Moderate

As table 3-1 shown, most youth indicate that they have a moderate level of competence in their English language skills.

Finding 4: Data analysis of the youth's opportunity to learn English

Table 4-1 shows an average of the youth's level of opportunity to learn English

Opportunity to Learn English	Mean	S.D.	Opportunity Level
Supporting from parents to learn English outside the classroom	3.25	.974	Moderate
Opportunity to use English to communicate with foreigners	3.32	1.140	Moderate
Opportunity to attend English camp at or outside school	3.08	1.031	Moderate

According to table 4-1, it is found that most youth have a moderate level of opportunity in learning English outside school.

Finding 5: Data analysis of the youth's attitude on English learning

Table 5-1 represents overall average of the youth's level of attitudes on English learning

Attitudes on English Learning	Mean	S.D.	Level of Attitudes
Feelings and Emotions			
English is a favorite subject.	3.31	.987	Low
Reluctant to learn English.	3.31	.811	Low
Enjoy learning English class.	3.10	.872	Low
The atmosphere of learning English is boring.	3.13	.974	Low
Want to be good at English.	2.20	.938	High
Opinions			
English is a difficult subject.	2.57	.932	High
Activity with English enhances creativity.	2.71	.791	High
Learning English builds self-confidence.	2.94	.927	High

Attitudes on English Learning	Mean	S.D.	Level of Attitudes
Content of English lesson is repetitious.	3.10	1.006	Low
Learning English is useful for future career.	2.28	1.562	High
Behavior			
Want to do activity in English.	3.39	1.055	Low
Be confident to use English.	3.64	.998	Low
Want to attend English camp for being volunteer tour guide if the school organizes one.	3.51	1.072	Low
Intend to make addition study on English outside the classroom.	3.25	.925	Low
Not pay attention to learning English.	3.55	1.005	Low

According to table 5-1, most youth have moderate attitudes toward English learning. It is found that, in terms of feelings and emotions, the youth are moderately reluctant of learning English. Some enjoy learning English, but the atmosphere of teaching English in the classroom is sometimes boring. However, the youth still would like to be good at English. In terms of opinion of learning English, most youth have an opinion that English is a very difficult subject, but the activities in English could enhance creativity and self-confidence as well as contribute to the future career. In terms of content, the youth comment that there is not much duplication. In terms of behavior toward learning English, most youth note that if the school organizes English camp for training for being volunteer tour guide, there might not be many participants. Most youth are interested in learning English. However, there are not many youth that would like to study in addition to the class and the courage to do an activity in English is also low.

In order to examine which education levels have positive attitude towards English learning, comparison of correlation between the youth's attitudes of learning English with different education levels are employed.

Table 5-2 presents correlation between the youth's feelings and emotions toward English learning in different education levels

1. English is a favorite subject	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	1	2.9	0	0	2	10.5	3	3.4	Pearson chi-square P = .020*
High	3	8.6	6	17.6	1	5.3	10	11.4	
Moderate	23	65.7	17	50.0	6	31.6	46	52.3	
Low	7	7	5	14.7	3	15.8	15	17.0	
Lowest	1	2.9	6	17.6	7	36.8	14	15.9	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

2. Reluctant to learn English	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Pearson chi-
High	4	11.8	5	14.7	0	0	9	10.3	

Moderate	20	58.8	20	58.8	12	63.2	52	59.8	square
Low	9	26.5	5	14.7	2	10.5	16	18.4	P
Lowest	1	2.9	4	11.8	5	26.3	10	11.5	= .102
Total	34	100	34	100	19	100	87	100	

3. Enjoy the English class	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	1	2.9	1	2.9	1	5.3	3	3.4	Pearson chi-square P = .055
High	7	20.0	8	23.5	0	0	15	17.0	
Moderate	21	60.0	17	50.0	7	36.8	45	51.1	
Low	6	17.1	6	17.6	8	42.1	20	22.7	
Lowest	0	0	2	5.9	3	15.8	5	5.7	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

4. The atmosphere of learning English is boring	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	1	2.9	1	2.9	3	15.8	5	5.7	Pearson chi-square P = .044*
High	7	20.6	6	17.6	3	15.8	16	18.4	
Moderate	19	55.9	13	38.2	2	10.5	34	39.1	
Low	6	17.6	12	35.3	9	47.4	27	31.0	
Lowest	1	2.9	2	2	2	10.5	5	5.7	
Total	34	100	34	100	19	100	87	100	

5. Want to be good at English	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	11	31.4	6	18.2	6	31.6	23	26.4	Pearson chi-square P = .409
High	12	34.3	14	42.4	4	21.1	30	34.5	
Moderate	10	28.6	12	36.4	8	42.1	30	34.5	
Low	2	5.7	0	0	0	0	2	2.3	
Lowest	0	0	1	3.0	1	5.3	2	2.3	
Total	35	100	33	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

As table 5-2 indicates, the youth's feelings and emotions in terms of "English is a favorite subject" and "The atmosphere of learning English is boring" are significantly correlated with education levels (significant at the 0.044 and 0.02 level, respectively). It is noted that English is moderately favorite subject for the Grade 7 and Grade 8 students while the Grade 9 students prefer to study English at the lowest level. Most students from Grade 7 and Grade 8 feel that the atmosphere of English learning is fairly and slightly boring whereas 47 percent of Grade 9 students report it is a little boring. However, there are not significantly correlated in the aspects regarding "Reluctant to learn English" (p value = 0.102); "Enjoy the English class" (p value =

0.55); and "Want to be good at English" (p value = 0.490) with education levels. Most youth are reluctant to learn English at moderate level. Most of them moderately enjoyed English class and want to be good at English at moderate to high level.

Table 5-3 presents correlation between the youth's opinion on learning English in different education levels

1. English is a difficult subject	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .510
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	3	8.6	5	14.7	3	15.8	11	12.5	
High	12	34.3	11	32.4	8	42.1	31	35.2	
Moderate	16	45.7	12	35.3	4	21.1	32	36.4	
Low	4	4	6	17.6	3	15.8	13	14.8	
Lowest	0	0	0	0	1	5/3	1	1.1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

2. Activity with English enhances creativity	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .268
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	4	11.8	1	2.9	1	5.3	6	6.9	
High	10	29.4	11	32.4	3	15.8	24	27.6	
Moderate	17	50.0	20	58.8	10	52.6	47	54.0	
Low	3	8.8	2	5.9	4	21.1	9	10.3	
Lowest	0	0	0	0	1	5.3	1	1.1	
Total	34	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

3. Learning English builds self-confidence	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .434
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	4	11.4	1	2.9	2	10.5	7	8.0	
High	5	14.3	10	29.4	1	5.3	16	18.2	
Moderate	19	54.3	15	44.1	9	47.4	43	48.9	
Low	6	17.1	7	20.6	6	31.6	19	21.6	
Lowest	1	2.9	1	2.9	1	5.3	3	3.4	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

4. Content of English lessons is repetitious	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .272
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	0	0	1	2.9	3	15.8	4	4.5	
High	9	25.7	7	20.6	4	21.1	20	22.7	
Moderate	15	42.9	15	44.1	5	26.3	35	39.8	
Low	9	25.7	8	23.5	4	21.1	21	23.9	
Lowest	2	5.7	3	8.8	3	15.8	8	9.1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

5. Learning English is useful for future career	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .344
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	12	36.4	15	44.1	3	15.8	30	34.9	
High	13	39.4	7	20.6	7	36.8	27	31.4	
Moderate	5	15.2	7	20.6	4	21.1	16	18.6	
Low	3	9.1	2	5.9	3	15.8	8	9.3	
Lowest	0	0	2	5.9	2	10.5	4	4.7	
Not indicate	0	0	1	2.9	0	0	1	1.2	
Total	33	100	34	100	19	100	86	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

As illustrated in table 5-3, it is found that there are not significantly correlated between the youth's opinion on learning English concerning "English is difficult subject" (p value = 0.510); "Activity with English enhances creativity" (p value = 0.268); "Learning English builds self-confidence" (p value = 0.434); "Content of English lessons is repetitious" (p value = 0.272); and "Learning English is useful for future career" (p value = 0.434) with education levels. Most of the Grade 7 and Grade 8 students state that English is moderately difficult subject while the Grade 9 students express that English is a very difficult subject. They also voice an opinion that activities with English could enhance creativity at moderate level. The majority opinion on learning English could build their self-confidence is at moderate level. Additionally, the majority opinion from the Grade 7 and Grade 8 students on the repetitious content of English lessons are at moderate level whereas the Grade 9 students express varies levels. Most of the students agree that learning English is highly useful for their future careers.

Table 5-4 presents correlation between the youth's behavior toward English learning in different education levels

1. Want to be a volunteer for an activity in English	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .004*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	2	5.7	1	2.9	2	10.5	5	5.7	
High	6	17.1	2	5.9	0	0	8	9.1	
Moderate	19	54.3	17	50.0	2	10.5	38	43.2	
Low	4	11.4	10	29.4	8	42.1	22	25.0	
Lowest	4	11.4	4	11.8	7	36.8	15	17.0	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

2. Be confident to use English	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .004*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	0	0	1	3.0	1	5.6	2	2.4	
High	6	17.6	1	3.0	1	5.6	8	9.4	
Moderate	14	41.2	13	39.4	0	0	27	31.8	
Low	10	29.4	13	39.4	7	7	30	35.3	
Lowest	4	11.8	5	15.2	9	9	18	21.2	
Total	34	100	33	100	19	100	88	100	

3. Be interested in attending an English camp for being a volunteer tour guide if the school organizes one	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .016*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	1	2.9	0	0	2	10.5	3	3.4	
High	6	17.1	3	8.8	1	5.3	10	11.4	
Moderate	15	42.9	14	41.2	5	26.3	34	38.6	
Low	6	17.1	13	38.2	2	10.5	21	23.9	
Lowest	7	20.0	4	11.8	9	47.4	20	22.7	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

4. Intend to make addition study on English outside the classroom	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .086
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	1	2.9	0	0	1	5.3	2	2.3	
High	7	20.0	7	20.6	1	5.3	15	17.0	
Moderate	17	48.6	16	47.1	5	26.3	38	43.2	
Low	9	25.7	9	26.5	7	36.8	25	28.4	
Lowest	1	2.9	2	5.9	5	26.3	8	9.1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

5. Not pay attention to learning English	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .135
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Highest	0	0	1	2.9	1	5.3	2	2.3	
High	6	17.1	2	5.9	2	10.5	10	11.4	
Moderate	13	37.1	16	47.1	2	10.5	31	35.2	
Low	8	22.9	10	29.4	10	52.6	28	31.8	

Lowest	8	22.9	5	14.7	4	21.1	17	19.3	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Based on table 5-4, it is reported that there are significantly correlated between the youth's behavior toward English learning regarding "Want to be a volunteer for an activity in English" (significant at the 0.004 level); "Be confident to use English" (significant at the 0.004 level); and "Be interested in attending an English camp for being a volunteer tour guide if the school organizes one." (significant at the 0.016 level) with education levels. The results show that most youth from Grade 7 and Grade 8 have more moderate level of preference to be a volunteer for an activity in English; they are more moderately confident at using English and moderately interested in attending the English camp for being volunteer tour guides when school organizes than the Grade 9 students. On the other hands, there are not significantly correlated between the youth's behavior toward English learning considering "Intend to make addition study on English outside the classroom" (p value = 0.086); and "Not pay attention to learning English" (p value = 0.135) with education levels. It is indicated that most youth from Grade 7 and Grade 8 more moderately intend to make the extension study of English outside the classroom whereas the Grade 9 students intend to make those study at low level. Most of the Grade 7 and Grade 8 students are moderately not pay attention to learning English. Nevertheless, the Grade 9 students are not pay attention to learning English less than the other groups.

Finding 6: Data analysis of the youth's learning styles in different education levels

Table 6-1 shows correlation between the youth's learning styles with different education levels

Learning style Image 1: Board Express type of favorite lessons	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .008*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	1	2.9	0	0	2	10.5	3	3.4	
Visual Learner	2	5.7	10	29.4	7	36.8	19	21.6	
Kinesthetic Learner	32	91.4	24	70.6	10	52.6	66	75.0	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 2: Clip Express activity often do in classroom	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .001*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	6	17.1	3	8.8	2	10.5	11	12.5	
Visual Learner	7	20.0	18	52.9	15	78.9	40	45.5	
Kinesthetic Learner	22	62.9	13	38.2	2	10.5	37	42.0	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 3: A child throws a ball Express ways to learn new skills	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .000*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	27	77.1	5	14.7	6	31.6	38	43.2	
Visual Learner	8	22.9	29	85.3	9	47.4	46	52.3	
Kinesthetic Learner	0	0	0	0	4	21.1	4	4.5	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 4: TV Express interests in TV ads	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .000*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	8	22.9	2	5.9	4	21.1	14	15.9	
Visual Learner	21	60.0	0	0	3	15.8	24	27.3	
Kinesthetic Learner	6	17.1	32	94.1	12	63.2	50	56.8	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 5: Reading a book Express ways of perceiving a story	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .114
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	14	40.0	6	17.6	8	42.1	28	31.8	
Visual Learner	21	60.0	25	73.5	10	52.6	56	63.6	
Kinesthetic Learner	0	0	3	8.8	1	5.3	4	4.5	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 6: Brain Express aptitude/ability	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .012*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	3	8.6	8	23.5	0	0	11	12.5	
Visual Learner	14	40.0	19	55.9	8	42.1	41	46.6	
Kinesthetic Learner	18	51.4	7	20.6	11	57.9	36	40.9	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

Learning style Image 7: Teacher Express teaching style preferences	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .012*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	10	28.6	10	29.4	3	15.8	23	26.1	
Visual Learner	14	40.0	11	32.4	1	5.3	26	29.5	
Kinesthetic Learner	11	31.4	13	38.2	15	78.9	39	44.3	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 8: A child plays a slingshot Express difficulty behavior in classroom	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .015*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	7	20.0	5	14.7	8	42.1	20	22.7	
Visual Learner	12	34.3	22	64.7	6	31.6	40	45.5	
Kinesthetic Learner	16	45.7	7	20.6	5	26.3	28	31.8	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 9: A car Express behavior during journey	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .119
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	15	42.9	23	67.6	11	57.9	49	55.7	
Visual Learner	14	40.0	8	23.5	3	15.8	25	28.4	
Kinesthetic Learner	6	17.1	3	8.8	5	26.3	14	15.9	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 10: Presentation Express behavior when talking or discussing	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .000*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	12	34.3	5	14.7	10	52.6	27	30.7	
Visual Learner	12	34.3	27	79.4	7	36.8	46	52.3	
Kinesthetic Learner	11	31.4	2	5.9	2	10.5	15	17.0	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 11: A microphone Express areas desired to be famous	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .739
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	4	11.4	6	17.6	4	21.1	14	15.9	
Visual Learner	13	37.1	9	26.5	7	36.8	29	33.0	
Kinesthetic Learner	18	51.4	19	55.9	8	42.1	45	51.1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 12: A tricky child Express personal preference	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = 000*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	4	11.4	17	50.0	9	47.4	30	34.1	
Visual Learner	5	14.3	7	20.6	7	36.8	19	21.6	
Kinesthetic Learner	26	74.3	10	29.4	3	15.8	39	44.3	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 13: A window Express stimuli influenced learning inside and outside classroom	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .573
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	3	8.6	3	8.8	0	0	6	6.8	
Visual Learner	2	5.7	1	2.9	2	10.5	6	5.7	
Kinesthetic Learner	30	85.7	30	88.2	17	89.5	77	87.5	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 14: An artist Express an expertise	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .019*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	2	5.7	11	32.4	5	26.3	18	20.5	
Visual Learner	24	68.6	15	44.1	6	31.6	45	51.1	
Kinesthetic Learner	9	25.7	8	23.5	8	42.1	25	28.4	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 15: An earphone Express future career preferences	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .001*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	19	54.3	6	17.6	7	36.8	32	36.4	
Visual Learner	15	42.9	13	38.2	5	26.3	33	37.5	
Kinesthetic Learner	1	2.9	15	44.1	7	36.8	23	26.1	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 16: Rugby Express leisure activity	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .274
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	24	68.6	17	50.0	12	63.2	53	60.2	
Visual Learner	5	14.3	10	29.4	6	31.6	21	23.9	
Kinesthetic Learner	6	17.1	7	20.6	1	5.3	14	15.9	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 17: Rubik's cube Express puzzle preferences	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .000*
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	17	48.6	3	8.8	1	5.3	21	23.9	
Visual Learner	8	22.9	19	55.9	12	63.2	39	44.3	
Kinesthetic Learner	10	28.6	12	35.3	6	31.6	28	31.8	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

Learning style Image 18: LEGO model Express following instructions of inventing	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total		Pearson chi-square P = .426
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Auditory Learner	1	2.9	3	8.8	1	5.3	5	5.7	
Visual Learner	20	57.1	23	67.6	14	73.7	57	64.8	
Kinesthetic Learner	14	40.0	8	23.5	4	21.1	26	29.5	
Total	35	100	34	100	19	100	88	100	

* Significantly different at 0.05 level

As the data analysis demonstrates, the youth's learning styles are varies depending on education levels. Regarding 18 learning styles discovered above, the Grade 7 students tend to have K-V-A or K-A-V learning styles. Most of the Grade 8 students tend to

have V-K-A learning styles. Most of the Grade 9 students tend to have K-A-V learning styles.

Phase 2 Results:

The second phase of the study investigates the hypothesis concerning tour guide skills of the youth strongly promoted when a strategic model of English language learning activities designed is implemented. The results of this stage are as follows:

Finding 1: Data analysis of the appropriate strategic model of English learning activities for the youth

The data analysis of the youth's condition and readiness for being volunteer tour guides represents that the Grade 7 and Grade 8 students are more ready to be a volunteer tour guide than the Grade 9 students. Therefore, 34 students from Grade 8 are randomly selected by simple sampling. Then, the appropriate English learning activities to enhance the skills of being volunteer tour guides are designed based on their V-K-A learning styles. Explicitly, those students could learn best when they follow examples and ask questions. Normally, they prefer working in group.

When implementing, the selected students are divided into 5 groups. The strategic model implemented consists of 4 stages. First of all, in the stage of inspiration, the students will match the flash cards of the tourism resources' name with the pictures provided. Then, they will match the flash cards of the adjectives to describe those resources. Next – the activity stage, the students will describe the activities to do according to those resources in the first stage with verbs and time expressions given. This is the way to enable students to use appropriate verbs and time expressions to describe local tourism activity program based on their background knowledge. After that in the gathering data stage, the students will rearrange suitable local tourism activities from the model given. Finally – the presentation stage, the students will make an itinerary based on the information from the earlier stages and describe it to the tourists. This is the way to promote students' presentation skills as well as essential skills for being tour guides.

After finished the activities, the students give their feedback on their learning in Students' Learning Self-Assessment and show their satisfaction on the activities approach with feeling figures. Based on the activities, it is found that most students think the activities are enjoyable and they have learned new vocabularies through the activities. Importantly, the activities also make them more confident in becoming a volunteer tour guide. The students have changed their attitude toward English language as a difficult language into a practical language for being volunteer tour guides. Moreover, the students most satisfy the learning activities. It is implied that the strategic model implemented is suitable to their learning styles and could enhance skills of being volunteer tour guides appropriately.

Finding 2: Data analysis of the achievement of English learning activities

In order to discover the achievement of the learning activity approach, during the implementation, the participants' behavior in terms of attitudes and skills performed toward English learning activities is also recorded. The data indicates that most

students actively interest and participate in the learning activities. This makes the implementation succeed as shown in table 7-1 and 7-2.

Symbols ● refers to Highly successful
+ refers to Moderately successful
- refers to Lowly successful

Table7-1 Achievement in terms of attitude toward learning activities of each learner group

Group / Attitude	1	2	3	4	5
Show interests in other cultures	+	●	●	●	●
Show interest and enjoy doing the activities	-	●	●	●	●
Pay attention to the classroom activities	-	●	●	●	●
Have an initiative	-	●	●	●	●
Help friends with willingness	-	●	●	●	●
Honor and be friendly with friends in the classroom	-	●	●	●	●
Learning and communication skills	-	●	●	+	+
Guess the answer with willingness	-	●	●	●	●
Have more effort when facing a new problem	-	+	+	+	+
Use a communication strategy and gestures in one's communication	-	●	●	●	●
Ask for help from teachers and/or friends when having a problem	-	●	●	●	●

According to table 7-1, it is found that most students show a good attitude and fully cooperate with the learning activities fostering the skills for being tour guides except the Group 1 students that is extremely low attitude than other groups.

Table7-2 Achievement in terms of English skills performed during learning activities of each learner group

Group / Skills	1	2	3	4	5
Listening					
Understand the dialogues, although there are some unknown vocabularies and English structure	+	●	●	●	●
Understand the importance of short dialogues	+	●	●	●	●
Speaking					
Speak with acceptable accent and intonation	+	●	●	●	●
Speaking voluntarily in the class	-	●	●	●	●
Initiate conversation with teachers or friends	-	+	+	+	+
Speak correctly and acceptably	-	+	+	+	+
Participate in group activity	-	●	●	●	●
Reading					
Use appropriate time for reading	●	●	●	●	●
Understand the reading message	+	+	+	+	+
Guess the meaning of the vocabularies from the context	●	●	●	●	●
Writing					
Use appropriate time for routes/traveling activities arrangement	-	+	●	●	●

Group / Skills	1	2	3	4	5
Order routes/traveling activities appropriately	-	+	+	+	●

As shown in table 7-2 most students show the desired behavior to listening, speaking, reading and writing skills when learning activities implemented. Nevertheless, they trend to lose concentration on writing skills learning activities. The result also shows that the Group 1 students are not actively involved in the learning activities.

Conclusions and Discussions

The comparison with conditions and readiness for being a volunteer tour guide of the youth in Thakha, Amphawa, Samuthsongkram, Thailand indicate that there are not significantly correlated between readiness for being a volunteer tour guide with educational status, careers of their parents, and monthly income of their parents. However, the condition in terms of gender is significantly correlated with the need for being volunteer tour guides. In particular, female need to be a volunteer tour guide than male. The age also related to the necessity to help their parents to earn income. Regarding attitudes toward English learning, the girls tend to have positive attitudes about improving English language skills than the boys. Additionally, economic status also influences on the attitude of learning English as a second language. Those discoveries reveal consistency in the factors affecting English learning pointed out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Those factors include attitude toward subjects' content, support from family, economic advantages, support from friends and teachers as well as teaching methods. Furthermore, economic status is also one of the key factors affecting English learning. Namely, children with high socio-economic status would have a positive attitude toward English learning as a second language than children with low socio-economic status. The children with low socio-economic status are likely to have a low achievement in learning foreign languages which directly correlate with results of this study that most youth are from labor family and they tend to have a moderate level of competence in their English language skills. In that case support from their parents in learning foreign language is an essential social tool that affected learning foreign languages. Concerning the opportunity for learning foreign language outside the classroom of the youth in Thakha community, the youth have a moderate support from their families. This caused the positive attitude to learn foreign language of those children at a certain level. Conversely, most youth still do not want to be volunteer tour guides, although they are aware that learning English could contribute to their future careers and would like to be better in English learning. This is because the youth still lack of the improvement in essential skills for being a local volunteer tour guide, especially on how to give information about local tourist attractions, products, services and livelihoods using appropriate Thai and English.

The discovery of the youth's learning styles, as noted by Thammabusaya, Manthara (2013), argues that the first group and the last group of lower secondary school students have the K-V-A learning styles. Namely, they are good learners when working in a quiet place and working with a good physical strength. They tend to have problem with reading and writing skills. In contrast, the second group of the students has the V-K-A learning styles. They tend to be visual learners and kinesthetic rather than auditory learners. Specifically, they are good learners when

learning from pictures, charts, diagrams, or story-based contents and expressing ideas. They also prefer following an example and keep asking questions and like working in group. Therefore, the design of an appropriate learning English activity for groups of individual differences learners with vary learning styles should be different in order to foster a positive attitude and learning achievement as well as motivation to use foreign language for their future career.

The strategic model of English learning activities to enhance tour guides skills of the children in Thakha community is designed to directly demonstrate the Grade 8 students learning styles, focusing on using images with new vocabularies related to local tourism resources could engage the students with the activities. Additionally, the practical teaching approach consists of inspiration, doing activity, gathering data, giving presentations, and evaluation could encourage learners to learn the lessons naturally and express positive attitudes together with promote sharing experience between learners and teachers through group work activities. The group work activities make the learners help each other and learn together effectively. Moreover, activities approach including learning vocabulary and useful expressions to describe local tourism resources via flash cards, making travelling activities into simple itinerary, arranging travel route based on travelling activities and time together with practicing presentation skills when describing itinerary could promote learners' cognitive strategies in categorizing data, logic, connecting and summarizing the contents learned in foreign language effectively (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The strategic model of English learning activities implemented express the youth's positive attitudes toward learning English. They also have more confidence in being volunteer tour guides. This finding is in accordance with the concepts concern factors affecting English learning (Bloom, 1976; Jakobovits, 1971; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1973) in terms of teaching quality directly influence on learners' attitudes to learn new things that combine with their interests and their familiarity with background knowledge.

Implications and Limitations

To sum up, tour guide skills of the youth are strongly promoted when a strategic model of English language learning activities designed is implemented. It is implied that the lower secondary school students in Thakha community have potential to improve skills essential for being volunteer tour guides through an appropriate strategic model of English learning activities that directly promote individuals' learning styles. They would encourage awareness and protect the value of local tourism resources through those activities. Moreover, as a volunteer tour guide, if possible, they may have extra income for their families and consequently benefit the economy of the country. In case of community policy to promote its cultural tourism by improving the local youth's English communication skills through volunteer tour guides, this strategic model may fulfill that policy. However, the limitations of this study are that the strategic model is only implemented to the lower secondary school students in Thakha community and there is not a follow-up to what extent the students will extend to value those skills practiced via a local volunteer tour guide. Therefore, local English language teachers should design appropriate English learning activities in case of improving skills essential to other careers apart from being volunteer tour guides based on individuals' learning styles for other groups of students considering this research process as a model. Explicitly, when designing language learning

modules, factors affecting learners' language learning and their preferred learning styles should be considered. Whenever possible, a long-term follow-up to the achievement of those modules designed should be planned to value pedagogical implications. Moreover, it could be broadened out to community academic services, which one of the faculty mission in Thailand, in terms of course syllabus development.

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Modern Foreign Language Learning: The Impact of Parental Orientations on Student Motivation

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Abstract
This study investigates the possible relationships between parental orientations towards language learning and their child's motivation to learn a foreign language at school. Data were collected from 495 students and 107 parents in four secondary schools in the wider West Midlands conurbation of England. A mixed-methods research design encompassing both quantitative and qualitative data collection was adopted with the aim of gaining a multi-dimensional view. Questionnaires were given to both parents and students, measuring six motivational constructs: general motivation; sense of achievement in modern foreign language (MFL) learning, internal/external attribution of performance in MFL learning, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The mean values for parents and students for each construct were correlated to see if there was a relationship between them. The findings indicate that, for four of the five constructs, there are moderate to strong positive relationships that were statistically significant. Furthermore, the data suggest that parents are less motivated when it comes to MFL learning than their children. This study is part of a wider doctoral research project, the next stage of which involves the collection of qualitative data through semi-structured interviews in order to explore the nature of the relationships found in the quantitative analysis.

Keywords: Parental involvement, secondary education, modern foreign language learning, motivation

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Introduction

The issue of the decline in foreign language learning in the United Kingdom has received considerable critical attention. Recent developments in foreign language learning have heightened the need for further practitioner research in order to better understand the situation and what could be done to improve it. This research was conceived from interactions with parents over twelve years of teaching modern foreign languages in secondary schools.

During discussions at parents' evenings and open days, some parents openly voice their opinion on learning a language and the fact that their experience of language learning at school was generally negative. They have also expressed their inability to support their child with homework or examination revision due to their lack of knowledge and understanding of a foreign language. To date, there has been little agreement between policymakers and other stakeholders on the importance of modern foreign languages in the school curriculum and this has resulted in the status of MFL being in a state of flux over the past 15 years. Furthermore, whilst some research has been carried out on foreign language learning motivation, there have been few empirical investigations into the impact of parents' orientations towards language learning.

This paper will examine the role that parents play in shaping their child's experience of foreign language learning in secondary school. It will focus on three key areas: motivation in second and foreign language learning, parental involvement and cultural capital in education. Data will be presented from a sequential mixed-methods study of parent and student orientations towards language learning which will be followed by a discussion of the findings with reference to the relevant literature. Finally, I will conclude by offering recommendations to practitioners on how to approach future discussions with parents and other stakeholders on the importance and benefits to their child(ren) of learning a foreign language.

Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

Much research has taken place, beginning in the 1970s, on motivation in second and foreign language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) arrived at a theory for approaching language learning from a psychological viewpoint. The socio-psychological methodology aimed to ground research into motivation in a scientific framework through positivist methods and the use of standardised assessment instruments. This ground-breaking theory remained the main theoretical framework for motivation researchers for several years. Other theorists were critical of this (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), stating that other approaches to researching motivation had not been considered.

As research continued into the motivation of school children to learn a modern foreign language, it quickly became apparent that the same findings were being reported; English school children were not motivated to learn a foreign language and the uptake of language study to GCSE level (at age 14-16) and beyond was rapidly declining (Stables & Wikeley, 1999; Wright, 1999; Williams et al., 2002; Coleman et al., 2007; Lanvers et al., 2016). It was also noted that there was discernible gender

difference insofar that girls are much more motivated than boys to learn a modern foreign language (Jones, 2009).

At the start of the 1990s and into the new millennium, Dörnyei (2001; 2003) conducted extensive research into motivation and foreign language education adopting the 'process-oriented approach'. His preliminary work builds on the socio-psychological approach developed by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and he has conducted numerous studies in foreign language learner motivation as sole researcher (Dörnyei, 1990; 2001; 2003; 2008) and in collaboration with others such as Csizer (1998; 2002) and more recently Ushioda (2011).

There is a significant theoretical gap between Gardner and Lambert's seminal work and that of Dörnyei and his associates. A resurgence in motivation studies appeared in the late 1990s due to scholars recognising possible insufficiencies in the socio-psychological approach pioneered by Gardner and Lambert (1972). They were of the opinion that this approach did not offer enough understanding into classroom practices and the perceptions of others such as teachers. Researchers called for a more classroom-based, practical approach to researching motivation in second language classrooms which is where Dörnyei's process-oriented approach (Dörnyei, 2000) made a significant impact.

The scholars who recognised the shortfalls of Gardner and Lambert's (1972) theory realised that motivation was much more complex and that a greater number of factors needed to be taken into consideration; motivation can change not only according to the task at hand but also due to the time of day or whether the student has eaten correctly throughout the day. Students' motivation can also change *within* the lesson with shifting levels of commitment being shown throughout this time.

Since the introduction of the National Curriculum in the early 1980s, it became apparent that the motivation of young native speakers of English to learn a foreign language was a real concern. Throughout the latter part of the 1990s and into the 2000s, various 'National Strategies' were introduced by the government to try to boost the declining number of students taking a language qualification and to persuade people of the importance of learning a foreign language. This involved changing the status of foreign language learning, making it compulsory for students studying GCSEs in Key Stage 4, aged 14-16 (Languages for all, Languages for life, 2007). This decision was taken after the Dearing Languages Review (2006). In 2010, the National Curriculum was reformed again but with languages being made optional; however, they would form the basis of the award of the new 'English Baccalaureate' which became a key indicator in league tables of the effectiveness of a school (The Importance of Teaching, Department for Education, 2010).

It is interesting to note that there were several motivation studies which were conducted during this period of transition and the introduction of language strategies (Williams et al., 2002; Coleman et al., 2007; Coleman, 2009; Jones, 2009; Coleman, 2011). All of the studies confirmed that modern foreign language learning was continuing to decrease beyond Key Stage 3, and Coleman et al. (2007) were able to pinpoint that the decrease happened between the ages of 11 and 13, Years 7 to 9 in the UK education system.

Parental Involvement in Education

Parental involvement has been defined in several ways in the literature; however, for the purpose of this study, the definition chosen was that of Jeynes (2007, p. 83) who defines it as "parental participation in the educational processes and experiences of their children". Frameworks for studying parental involvement have included sub-sections such as 'parenting', 'communicating', 'volunteering' and 'learning at home' (Epstein, 1995, p. 85). As research in the field continued and due to the lack of consensus on the definition of parental involvement, Johnson and Hull (2014, p. 407) proposed three core areas: home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and parents' educational aspirations.

The level of parental involvement is dependent on a number of factors including parents' perceived abilities to support their children with homework. A further factor affecting the level of parental involvement is that of the perception of parents towards invitations from schools to participate in school-related activities such as parent-teacher associations. Research suggests that parents who display a positive attitude to learning and have high expectations of schools to provide a safe learning environment for their children, have children who tend to obtain favourable outcomes compared to those whose parents display negative views towards school (Bubić & Tošić, 2016).

Home-based parental involvement could have a positive impact in many aspects such as improved teacher/parent relationships, better school attendance and better attitudes in general to learning and education. Cabus and Ariës (2017) suggest that homework supervision and listening to children read are considered 'active' forms of parental involvement which could be considered a sign that parents are investing time and effort into their child's education by creating a home environment that is conducive to learning and promotes good learning habits.

Several lines of evidence suggest that effective parental involvement (PI) could be impeded by certain barriers which Hornby and Lafaele (2011) categorise as 'individual parent and family factors', 'child factors', 'parent-teacher factors' and 'societal factors' (Figure 1).

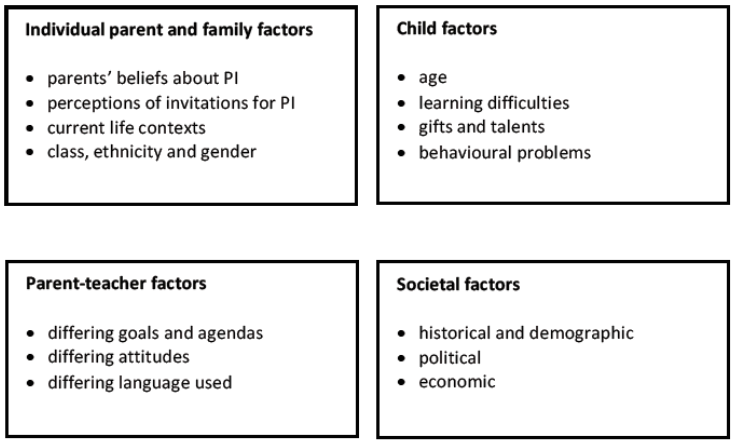


Figure 1. Factors affecting effective parental involvement in education. (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011)

Jeynes (2007) and, later, Hornby and Lafaele (2011) support the view that parents' ability to participate in their child's learning and education could be impeded by factors such as being a single parent, family dissolution (divorce/separation) and coming from a low socio-economic status (Jones, 2009; Gayton, 2010). The impact of socio-economic status on education outcomes has been widely researched and there is a growing body of evidence to suggest that pressures such as being a single-parent family and working could be potential barriers to effective parental involvement due to the necessity to work and to earn enough to provide the family with financial stability. Tam (2009) identifies parents in low socio-economic and disadvantaged communities as those with less motivation to become involved in their child's learning and education.

The evidence reviewed here seems to suggest a pertinent role for parents to become involved in their child's learning, be it home-based or school-based involvement. The extent to which parents become involved is dependent upon a number of factors which could support or impede effective parental involvement in education.

Cultural Capital in Education

The construct of 'cultural capital' was first articulated by Bourdieu (1986) and was popularised in his seminal work on the 'Capitals'. The first discussions and investigations of cultural capital emerged during the 1980s (DiMaggio, 1982; DiMaggio & Mohr, 1985; Lareau, 1989), the majority of which adopted quantitative methodologies in order to identify a causal relationship between cultural capital and educational outcomes. It is difficult to define the term 'cultural capital' since Bourdieu's definition (1986) was particularly vague. Due to this lack of standard definition, the notion of cultural capital has been operationalised in many different ways; none of which are considered to be the exact definition.

The aim of the quantitative studies was to operationalise cultural capital in a way that could be easily quantified such as the number of times someone attended a 'high-cultural' event (theatre, music recital), engaging in reading literature and attendance at art classes (Aschaffenburg & Maas, 1997; Sullivan, 2001). As the field expanded, more research began to adopt qualitative methodologies in order to examine in greater detail the extent to which parental cultural capital is transmitted to their children (McDonough, 1997; Reay, 1998).

Bourdieu (1977) claimed that parents with a high level of education would instinctively have a high level of cultural capital which could later on be transferred to their children. This would put children from higher social strata at an advantage in the education system as they would be seen as already equipped with the essential mindset and principles in order to fulfil their academic and intellectual development. Children from families with a high socio-economic status are exposed to knowledge and understanding of social and cultural norms and this is instilled through the language and actions of their parents (Jæger, 2011).

It could be argued, therefore, that children from low income families who are not exposed to the same level of cultural activities as their counterparts are placed at an immediate disadvantage, particularly in the UK education system which favours those from higher social strata. There is a clear inequality in the classroom where schools

and teachers assume that students have a certain level of cultural capital in order to negotiate the challenges of education and learning. Students from high income families who are already exposed to social and cultural norms will be at an advantage compared to those who come from low income families who do not possess the same knowledge and values.

Methodology

The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How can the orientations of Year 8 students in selected urban regional secondary schools towards modern foreign languages be characterised?
2. How can these children's parents' orientations be characterised?
3. What is the nature of any relationship between parent-child orientations?

In order to explore parent and child orientations towards language learning, a sequential mixed-methods approach was adopted within an exploratory methodology. This study was based on the recommendations of Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) who called for more mixed-methods research in the field of foreign language learning and motivation. For this reason, a sequential mixed-methods approach was adopted, firstly to address this call by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) and secondly to provide a multi-layered analysis of the data and offer greater levels of clarity.

Four schools within the wider West Midlands conurbation participated; one independent school in Birmingham and three state secondary schools in Birmingham and Telford. Existing contacts in these schools facilitated the request to participants. In each case permission from the school's headteacher and chair of the board of trustees was sought before a full ethics submission was completed. School visits were arranged to establish clear lines of communication and to get a clearer picture of the context for each school. Access was negotiated with headteachers and an enhanced DBS clearance, which is a requirement for working with children and vulnerable adults, was shown.

A questionnaire was constructed in order to gather quantitative data on parent and student motivational orientations towards foreign language learning. The questionnaire consisted of 36 statements on a 5-point Likert scale which measured six motivational constructs:

1. General motivation
2. Sense of achievement in modern foreign language learning
3. Internal attribution of success/failure in modern foreign language learning
4. External attribution of success/failure in modern foreign language learning
5. Intrinsic Motivation
6. Extrinsic Motivation

The second phase of the research consisted of semi-structured interviews which were conducted with parents *and* students together in order to add richer descriptions to the findings from the questionnaire. The rationale for interviewing both parents and students together was to try and observe any possible power dynamic between the two participants which could otherwise be overlooked by other means.

The questionnaires were analysed using a two-stage quantitative analysis; correlation and linear regression. Correlation analysis was used to establish if there was a relationship between the parent and student questionnaire data. The mean values for each of the motivation constructs were subjected to correlation analysis to establish the strength of any possible relationship. In order to further exploit the quantitative data, linear regression was conducted to explore the extent to which the parental independent variables such as age, gender and level of education can account for variance in the mean scores for the student dependent variables (motivational constructs).

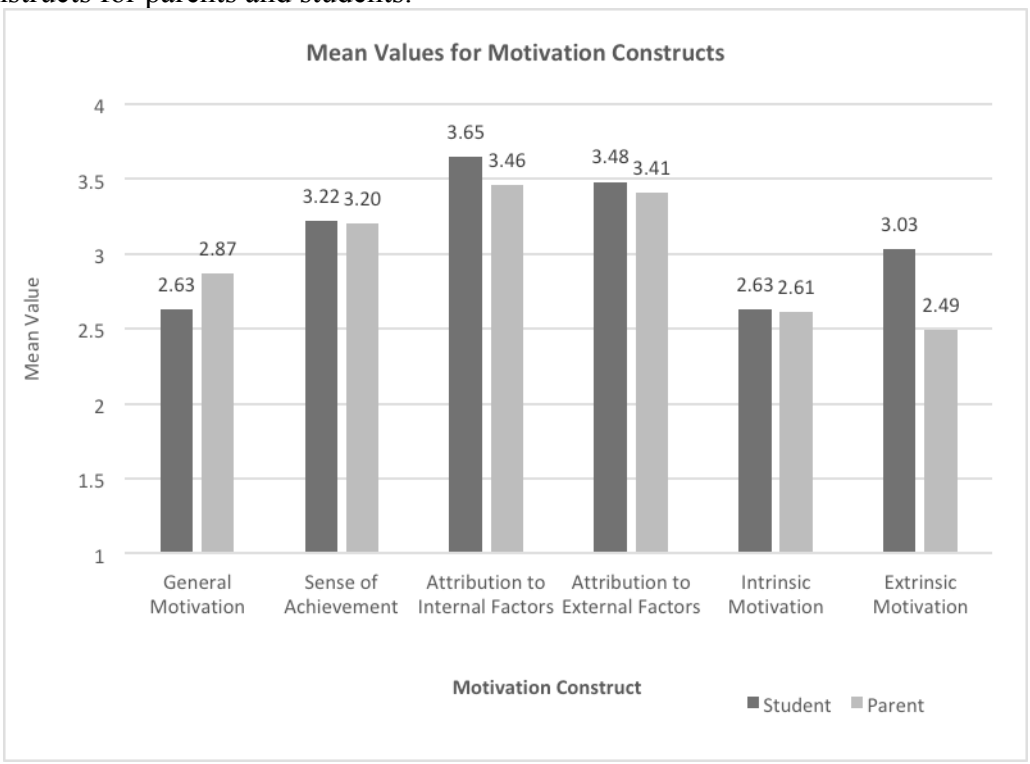
For the second phase of data collection and analysis, semi-structured interviews were thematically analysed to see if there were any recurring experiences and ideas from both parents and students. These were coded using the qualitative computer package NVIVO which allowed for easier management of coding and selecting quotes from participant transcripts.

Initial Findings from Quantitative Analysis

This paper will present the initial quantitative analysis of the investigation, namely the outcomes of the correlation analysis and linear regression. This will be followed by a short discussion of the findings, drawing on key points from the literature.

The final purposive sample consisted of Year 8 students (n=495) and their parents (n=107). There is a clear difference in the number of parent participants which could be accounted for by an overall lack of engagement with the participant schools. This was mentioned by the schools when they were approached to participate in this study.

Graph 1 provides an overview of the mean scores for each of the six motivation constructs for parents and students.



Graph 1. Mean values for motivational constructs (parents and students).

Closer inspection of this graph shows that, apart from 'General Motivation', students appear marginally more motivated when it comes to learning a foreign language compared to their parents. That said, when looking at the overall mean motivation scores, the whole sample does not appear to be hugely motivated to learn a foreign language with mean scores being no higher than 3.65.

Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis was conducted using Pearson's *R* which is a measure of the strength of a relationship between two sets of data, in this case the student and parent mean scores. It is important to highlight that only 107 pairs of questionnaires were included as the remainder consisted only of students whose parents chose not to participate in the questionnaire.

Extrinsic Motivation yielded the strongest positive correlation ($r=0.890$, $p<0.01$) closely followed by General Motivation ($r=0.824$, $p<0.01$) and Intrinsic Motivation ($r=0.730$, $p<0.01$). These findings indicate that there are strong positive relationships between the mean scores for these motivation constructs for parents and students. The results are statistically significant which means that there is a 1 in 100 chance of wrongly rejecting the null hypothesis of no relationship. It is important to note that correlation is not an indication of causality; it is simply a measure of the strength of the relationship and does not account for the causes of this relationship, which could be multi-faceted.

Several of the remaining motivation constructs also yielded statistically significant results; however, the strength of the relationships was weak to moderate. The internal attribution of success/failure in MFL had a moderate positive relationship ($r=0.533$, $p<0.01$) with the external attribution of success/failure in MFL yielding no statistically significant result. Sense of achievement in MFL yielded a weak to moderate positive relationship ($r=0.444$, $p<0.01$) which was also statistically significant.

In summary, these results show that the correlation of parent and student mean scores for five out of the six motivation constructs yields a generally strong positive relationship that is statistically significant. This can help us to begin to understand the extent to which parents impart their thoughts and experiences of language learning to their children.

Linear Regression

In order to exploit the quantitative data collected from the questionnaires and to add a further layer of analysis, linear regression was conducted to explore how parental independent variables, such as age, level of education and ethnicity, account for the percentage variance in each of the student dependent variables, i.e. the six motivation constructs.

The findings from this analysis show that parental level of education had a statistically significant effect on three motivation constructs: student sense of achievement in MFL ($r^2=0.141$, $p<0.01$), intrinsic motivation ($r^2=0.107$, $p<0.05$) and extrinsic motivation ($r^2=0.108$, $p<0.05$). This means that parental level of education

can account for 14.1% of the variance in mean scores for student sense of achievement in MFL, 10.7% of the variance in intrinsic motivation and 10.8% of the variance in extrinsic motivation. Due to the multi-faceted nature of the social sciences, it is rare for a high r^2 value to occur since there would always be more than one independent variable which could account for 100% of the variance in a dependent variable.

A further parental independent variable to yield interesting results was parental level of language learning, which had a statistically significant effect on student intrinsic motivation (r^2=0.111, $p<0.01$) and student extrinsic motivation (r^2=0.158, $p<0.01$). This indicates that parental level of language learning can explain 11.1% of the variance in mean scores for student intrinsic motivation and 15.8% of the variance in scores for extrinsic motivation.

The final parental independent variable which yielded a result was parental ethnicity. This independent variable yielded the highest result of all of the independent variables analysed. Parental ethnicity had a statistically significant effect on student extrinsic motivation (r^2=0.296, $p<0.01$). This means that 29.6% of the variance in mean scores for student extrinsic motivation can be explained by parental ethnicity.

Together with the correlation analysis, these results provide an important insight into the extent to which parents could influence their child's language learning process in a number of different ways.

Discussion

The quantitative data presented provides an interesting insight into the extent to which parental orientations towards language learning impact on their child's modern foreign language learning at school. There is a growing body of evidence to suggest that parents play a pivotal role in *shaping* their child's language learning experience and transmitting its perceived importance.

The data suggest that relationships between parent and student orientations towards language learning are strong: highly motivated parents have highly motivated children and vice versa. Demotivated parents are those who may not engage with their child's language learning or had negative experiences of language learning at school, or their demotivation may be due to other barriers which Desforges and Abouchaar (2003) suggest could include domestic violence, substance abuse and alcoholism, and inappropriate beliefs and values placed on education by some parents.

For teachers who teach in schools in areas of high social deprivation, their job is made more challenging as they have to convince both students *and* parents of the value and importance of learning a language in light of the current political climate and the impact of Brexit as suggested by Lanvers, Doughty and Thompson (2018).

Parental level of education, which is often taken to be an indication of socio-economic status, accounted for 10-14% of the total variance in mean scores for Student Sense of Achievement in MFL, Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation. Referring to Ausubel (1968) and Gayton (2010), parents from lower socio-economic strata tend to give less time and resources to their child's education in

comparison with those who are in a more comfortable position. This outcome aligns closely with this statement insofar as parental level of education has a statistically significant effect on the three dependent variables highlighted.

Parental level of language learning also had a statistically significant effect on student intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, accounting for between 11-16% of the variance in mean scores. Costa and Faria (2017) state that parental involvement in education decreases as a child progresses through school as many parents lack the knowledge and confidence to support their children with more academically challenging work. Languages appear near the bottom of the list of subjects in which parents feel equipped to support their children. However, parents who take their children abroad often or are qualified in languages aim to instil a love for language learning and encourage their children to take their language learning to a higher level.

Finally, the parental independent variable which showed the greatest percentage of variance in student scores was Parental Ethnicity which accounted for 29.6% of variance in student extrinsic motivation. Hill et al. (2018) discuss strategies that some families from diverse ethnic backgrounds use to encourage their children to do well in education. Some ethnic minority families use stories about sacrificing their education to bring up a family. Hill's study also mentions families even exposing their children to manual labour in order to highlight the importance and value of education. This strategy of involvement has an almost reverse-psychological effect with children wishing to achieve well in order to give something back to their parents for their sacrifice.

Conclusion

The decline in modern foreign language learning has come about due to a perfect storm of changes to educational policy, the impact of Brexit and the perceived importance of MFL in schools. Much work needs to be done to rebuild the status of MFL in secondary schools by raising the profile through themed events, offering school excursions to countries where the target language is spoken and possibly making the subject compulsory on the school curriculum. For students who do not feel able to fulfil the requirements of the GCSE, alternative routes to gaining a language qualification do exist and these should be made available to students who may benefit from a more differentiated approach to language learning.

More importantly, schools should begin to look at improving communication with parents on the importance of language learning in terms of future employment opportunities for their children and the call for more employees to have competence in other languages. With the possibility of Brexit ever-present, as a country we will be looking to make trade deals with countries outside of Europe, therefore the need for foreign language skills will be more prevalent than ever before.

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Speech Production and Language Learning of Special and Normal Children in Two Nursery and Primary Schools in Osun State, Nigeria

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Abstract
Human development begins through the vast pool of transmitted experiences by care-givers and parents, hence, pass down sociocultural values to the younger generation. This study explores psychological and practical aspects of language learning by children with speech impairments and normal children in order to do a comparative analysis in Osun State, Southwest Nigeria. This study hypothesized that learners perform better when assisted by adults, teachers and more informed peers in the teaching and learning of language generally and specifically the English Language. Learner/teacher autonomy and motivation for language learning were considered since independence and interdependence cannot exist without each other. The sources of data for this study were voice and video recordings of speech impaired students and normal students from two Nursery and Primary schools in Osun State, Southwest Nigeria. Two schools (1 handicapped school and 1 normal children school) from the state and 10 participants from each school were randomly selected. Literary texts and pictorial books were used to examine the participants using both the qualitative and quantitative descriptive approaches. A Tape recorder was used to record the voices and some were recorded using video recorder. This study reveals significant roles played by social interaction (interdependence) and level of integration of emotions into the classroom on both sets of learners. The power of collaboration and comprehension ability level of the two sets of children were also revealed.

Keywords: Interdependence, Special Children, Interaction, Language learning, Performance

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Introduction

Lev Vygotsky was a Seminal Russian Psychologist known for his sociocultural theory. It is one of the foundations of constructivism. Sociocultural theory emphasizes the central role of social relationships and culturally constructed artifacts in organizing thinking. Importance of Vygotsky Sociocultural theory to education is in its concept of a Zone of Proximal Development (a level of development attained when children engage in social behaviour). ZPD also relates to the differences between what a learner can do without help and what he/she can do with help. Teachers can use social interaction as a guide to child's development. 'Play' which also removes boredom in learning is found in the sociocultural theory. It builds relationships and relationships build language. (tykeTALK). Play develop vocabulary, listening skills and social skills. It originates as actual relationships between individual. (p. 57). Vygotsky believes that it was by using private speech that a child's biological instincts were made into culturally acceptable ways of acting. By aging, children private speech change and increase. But through relationships with older people that are capable, they get information and use it in their private speech. So, it is glaring that Vygotsky is of the opinion that children use the support given to them by others to assist their ways of thinking and acting.

Vygotsky's theory relates the roles of social interaction. According to a group of researchers headed by Neuroscientist Patricia Kuhl,(2012) 9 months old American infants that listened for less than five hours to Mandarin in Chinese spoken by native Mandarin speakers were able to distinguish phonetic elements of that language. In addition to this, another study was conducted using well recorded audio tapes and videos played for some other American infants. It was discovered that the infants could not distinguish phonetic units of the language. This was published in the Proceedings of National Academy of Sciences (PNAS) that the first demonstration of phonetic learning from natural exposure to language when it is produced by human enhances language learning through social interaction than exposure to tape recorders and videos. Kuhl, in another study says, "There is an extraordinarily high association between how clearly a mother speaks and how well her baby distinguishes speech sounds, and this is ability critical to language learning. Social interaction helps learners to organize their thoughts, reflect on their understanding and find gaps in their reasoning. (Okita, 2012).

The level of integration of emotions into the classroom reveals the product of learning. Learning by emotions provides the learners with the opportunity to explore strategies for coping with challenging complex social emotional situations by experiencing the associated emotional dynamics. It is facilitated by use of role play and synthetic characters. It should be noted that apart from the fact that the social and emotional learning have considerable importance for non-academic outcomes such as safety, coexistence, mutual understanding, it also plays a vital role in improving academic performance because it leads to cognitive development. (Hall & Hall, 2012)
On social influence and the emergence of cultural norms, Mas et al (2012) are of the opinion that interaction partners grow more similar in opinions, values and behaviours. This might be as a result of some factors such as imitation, direct persuasion by each other, arguments, exposure to common external influences such as social groups with compulsory norms to be adhered to.

Holec (1981) defines learner's autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. Benson (1997) describes learner's autonomy in three versions. They are technical version, psychological version and political version. He further explains that technical version of autonomy allows successful acquisition and implementation of a set of skills and techniques outside the classroom context, the psychological version is the capacity consisting of both attitudes and abilities and the political version places emphasis on control over learning process and content. Smith (20003), recorded two methodologies as 'weak' and 'strong' for learners' autonomy to be achieved as given by Lizzie Pinard in work titled "30 things to enhance your teaching-learner autonomy and metacognition" in *International House Journal of Education and Development.* Pinard was of the opinion that the 'weak' transmission of behaviours and strategies with the language learner while the 'strong' is described as becoming appropriate methodology and this focuses on teachers and learners working together to identify and develop learners individual and collective capacities for independent learning.

In addition to the scholars mentioned above, other scholars such as Penila (2010), Appel and Lantolf (1994), Yazdanpanah & Khanmohammad (2014) have at one time or the other researched into social interaction, children relationships with adults, cognitive development, collaboration, effects of culture on language learning, internalization of speech, effects of caregivers on language learning just to mention but a few. All the scholars have dealt with language learning using various educational theories.

Related Theories

Social learning theory posists that people learn from one another via observation, imitation and modeling. It encompasses attention, memory and motivation. Social constructivism was created as a response to behaviourism (an educational approach based on what can be directly seen. It focuses on stimulus and response. Constructivsm relates to behaviourism in that a child learns better when with the teacher or with better peers or with adults which summarizes to a kind of conditioning also, behaviourist believed that behavior can be explained by conditioning: operant (gives an individual change in his or her behavior due to consequences attached to the particular behaviour) and classical conditioning. They do not believe in inherited behaviours. They believe that babies are born with a blank slate or empty mind. Some of the behaviourists are B.F Skinner, Ivan Pavlov, Edwine Thorndike to mention but a few. Today, behaviorism ideas are used in cognitive-behaviourial therapy which helps people deal with anxieties, phobias and various types of addiction.

Statement of the Problem

Sociocultural theorists of language learning operate from the assumption that there is an intimate relationship between culture and mind and that all learning is first social then individual (Schmitt 2002, p. 122). Culture socially acquired knowledge. This is passed down to individual through our first language at childhood. It is acquired without conscious awareness. These theorists emphasize the interpretation of the social, cultural and biological elements. Researchers like Lantolf (2000), Swain (2000) and Ohta (2000) have worked on second language acquisition using Vygotsky 1987 for their analysis in other to negotiate meaning during interaction. This study is out to answer the following questions: i. what are the psychological and practical

factors of language learning by children with speech impairments and the normal children, ii. how are learners'/teachers autonomy and motivation for learning enhanced by independence and interdependence, iii. What are the roles played by social interactions among the pupils in the selected schools, iv. What is the level of integration of emotions into the classroom; v. how does the power of collaboration reveal the comprehension ability of the two sets of learners; vi. What is the relationship between culture and mind?

Methodology

This section gave details on how the data was collected and how the analysis was carried out.

Sample Size

Two infant classes from two of the Nursery and Primary schools participated in the study. 10 pupils in Nursery 2 were examined in the normal school while 10 pupils were also examined in the special school. The name of the special school is St. Mary Rehabilitation Centre, Ipetumodu, On State and the normal school is Joseph Ayo Babalola University Staff School, Ikeji-Arakeji, Osun State. To control for teacher effects, the researcher chose two teachers, one teacher to five pupils in each of the schools.

Method of Data Collection

The data for the study were collected from a prescribed book for Nursery two titled *I can Read 2,* Third Edition, (2013) by M.O Eluwa, M.J. Chimah, R.O Chijioke. The book was published by Lean Africa. Pages 1- 6 of the book were photocopied for each of the participants.

Research Instrument

The research instruments were a tape recorder and a video recorder to record the performance of the participants. Questionnaires were administered to the teachers to respond to.

Reliability and Validity of Research Instrument

The research instruments are reliable and valid because it allows the researcher to listen to and watch many times to be able to grasp correct information during the analysis.

Method of Data Analysis

Three tests were conducted on the participants. The first data tested the participants reading ability with (assisted) and without (unassisted) teachers, and their writing ability. The second data tested the participants' ability to match pictures with letters while the third data tested their painting/colouring ability. After the conduction of the tests, the researcher collected the papers from the participants for scoring. The papers were gone through and scored accordingly. The scores were then put on a table in order to really catch the glimpse of the analysis correctly. The tables were then represented on figures in order to get a clearer view of the analysis for discussion.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Table 1: Bio-data of the participants

SCHOOL A (SPECIAL SCHOOL)											SCHOOL B (NORMAL SCHOOL)									
PUPIL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
SEX	F	F	F	F	F	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	M	F	M	F	F	F	M	F
AGE	17	14	16	15	20	11	13	11	19	12	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	4

In the special school, six females and four males randomly selected. Their age range was between 11 and 20 while in the Normal school, four females and six males were randomly selected and their age range was between 4 and 5. It was discovered here that there was a wide difference between the age range of the special children and that of the normal children. The lowest age of the normal children was 4 years, while the lowest in the special school was 11 years. On the other hand, the highest age of the normal children was 5 years, while it was 20 years in the special school. The cause for this is obviously because of the psychological problems that the pupils in school A have. These have led to their lateness in enrolment in school, mental retardation and poor performance by some of them in the tests administered on them.

Questionnaires were giving to the teachers in both schools to elicit some information on socialcultural effects on their students

Below are the results:

Table 2: The Results of Teacher's Responses to the Questionnaires in the two schools

QUESTIONS	SCHOOL A (SPECIAL SCHOOL)		SCHOOL B (NORMAL SCHOOL)	
S/N	YES	NO	YES	NO
1. Does social interaction plays significant role in speech impaired and normal children?	9	1	9	1
2. Do their relationships with adults, teachers, and peers add to their knowledge?	9	1	10	0
3. Do these relationships with above mentioned groups allow cognitive development of normal children speech production and speech impaired children.	8	2	10	0
4. Does collaboration has any power in facilitating meaning constructions in both sets of students generally.	7	3	9	1
5. Does problem shared with teachers and adults waste time?	2	8	0	10
6. Can culture be displayed through speech and	8	2	9	1

writing to mediate the social environments?				
7. Does internalization of speech and writing increase the level of thinking in both sets of children?	8	2	6	3
8. Does internalization of speech help students to play active role in learning?	8	2	8	1
9. Is it true that the caregivers and parents start human developments and transmitted experiences of individuals?	7	3	9	1
10 Can sociocultural theory improve linguistic comprehension?	8	2	8	2
11. Can this theory reveal the level of comprehension of ability of the two sets of children?	9	1	9	1
TOTAL	83	26	87	21

Looking through these responses from the teachers of the pupils from the two selected schools, it was discovered that it corroborates most of the findings of past researchers on the subject matters discussed in the questionnaire. In school A (special school), 83% of the teachers' responses are positive while in School B (normal school), 87% of the teachers' responses are positive and in line with other scholars' findings.

Table 3: Test Scores

PUPILS	**TEST 1 SCORES**		**TEST 2 SCORES**		**TEST 3 SCORES**	
	SCHOOL A	**SCHOOL B**	**SCHOOL A**	**SCHOOL B**	**SCHOOL A**	**SCHOOL B**
	ASSISTED BY TEACHERS					
1	**08**	**08**	**12**	**12**	**05**	**05**
2	**07**	**07**	**12**	**12**	**06**	**06**
3	**05**	**10**	**12**	**12**	**07**	**08**
4	**05**	**07**	**12**	**09**	**06**	**07**
5	**07**	**08**	**12**	**11**	**08**	**08**
	UNASSISTED BY TEACHERS					
1	**07**	**04**	**02**	**10**	**05**	**05**
2	**05**	**07**	**05**	**05**	**05**	**06**
3	**05**	**05**	**11**	**09**	**07**	**08**
4	**06**	**05**	**02**	**10**	**08**	**05**
5	**08**	**04**	**12**	**10**	**08**	**05**

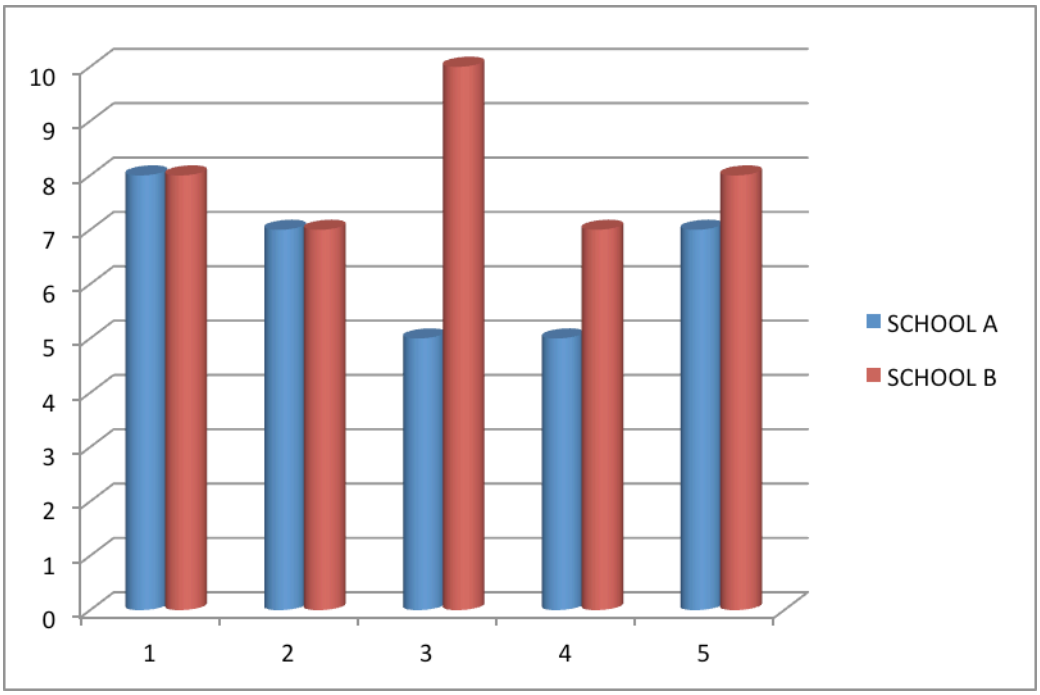

FIGURE 1: TEST 1 SCORES (ASSSISTED BY TEACHERS)

The first test conducted on the pupils was to test their reading and writing ability. They were given the English alphabets from A- Z to be read, after which they were to identify the capital and the small letters of the alphabets and later write them in the spaces provided in the book/paper. The results revealed that the first and the second pupils had rhyming scores in the two schools while the remaining three pupils in school B (normal) performed better than their counterparts in school A (special). Though both sets of pupils were assisted by adults and their teachers, but the result revealed that the psychological state of the health of the pupils in the special school affected their performance.

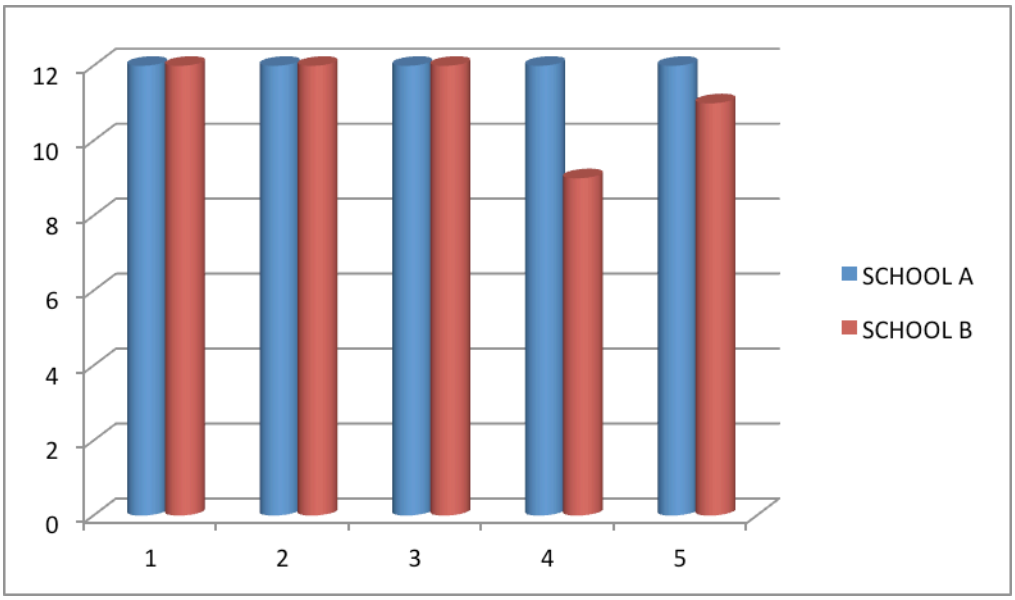

FIGURE 2: TEST 2 SCORES (ASSISTED BY TEACHERS)

The second test conducted was to test their ability to match items with their initial letters in the spellings of the pictures/items. Here, the results were almost the same. They are represented on FIG 2. They were very brilliant results for the pupils in the two schools. This might not only be because of the fact that they were assisted but for the fact that it looks like play. According to Vygotsky, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the results revealed that the potential for cognitive development of the pupils is high in both schools. It also revealed a level of development attained in the pupils' engagement in social behaviour.

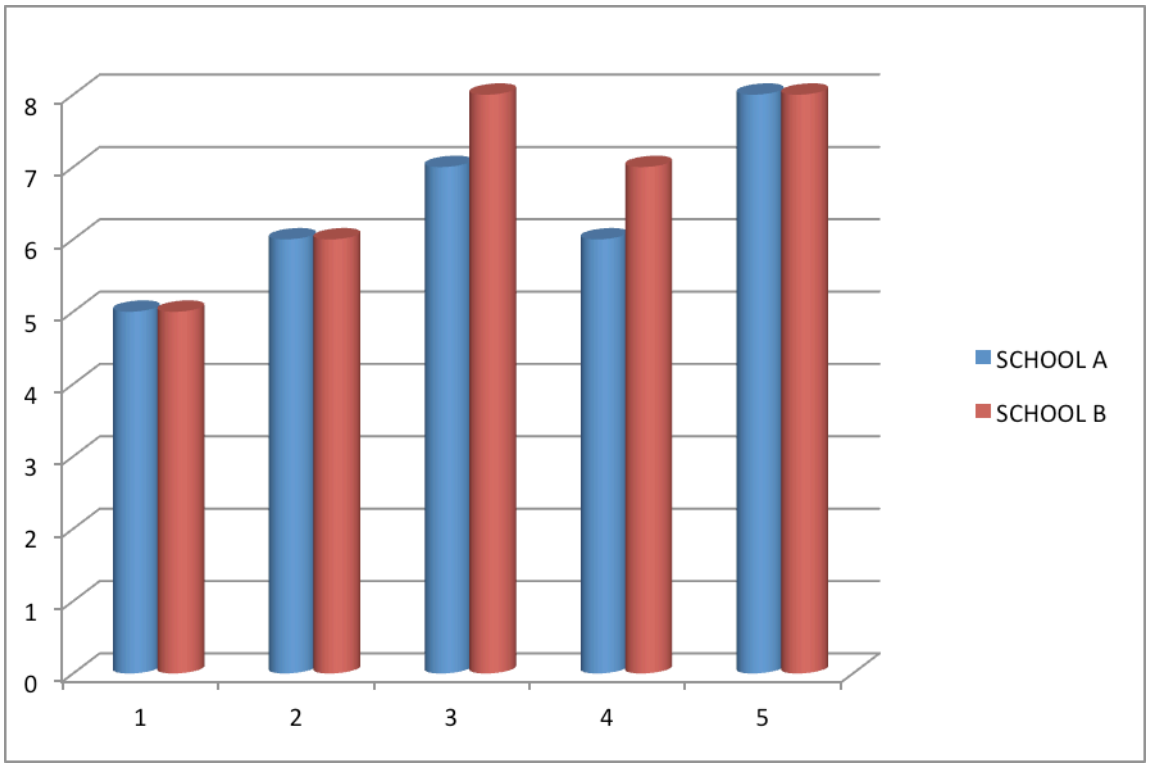

FIGURE 3: TEST 3 SCORES (ASSISTED BY TEACHERS)

The third test conducted was to test the pupils' ability to do a very good art work by painting some pictures in the set book. In fact, the results are almost the same. The differences in the performance are very keen. Three of the pupils in each of the schools have the same score while the remaining two from each of the school have just one mark as difference. The results revealed that language learning operates from the assumption that there is an intimate relationship between culture and mind and that all learning is first social and then individual (Schmitt 2002, p. 122). Sociocultural theorists emphasize the integration of the social, cultural and biological elements.

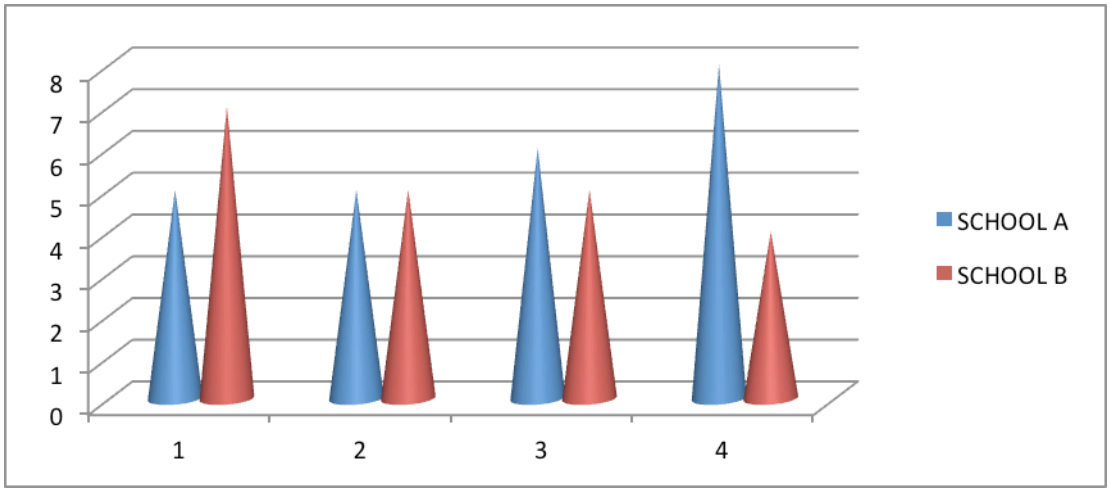

FIGURE 4: TEST 1 SCORES (UNASSISTED BY TEACHERS)

Just like the three tests were conducted on five pupils from each of the schools assisted, the same tests were conducted on another five pupils from each of the schools unassisted. The first test results are represented on FIG 4. The differences in the scores range from 1-4 for these unassisted pupils. The results revealed that the pupils need relationship with adults and teachers so as to get information and then use it in their private speech development. This also revealed the opinion of Vygotsky that children use the support given to them by others to assist their ways of thinking and acting.

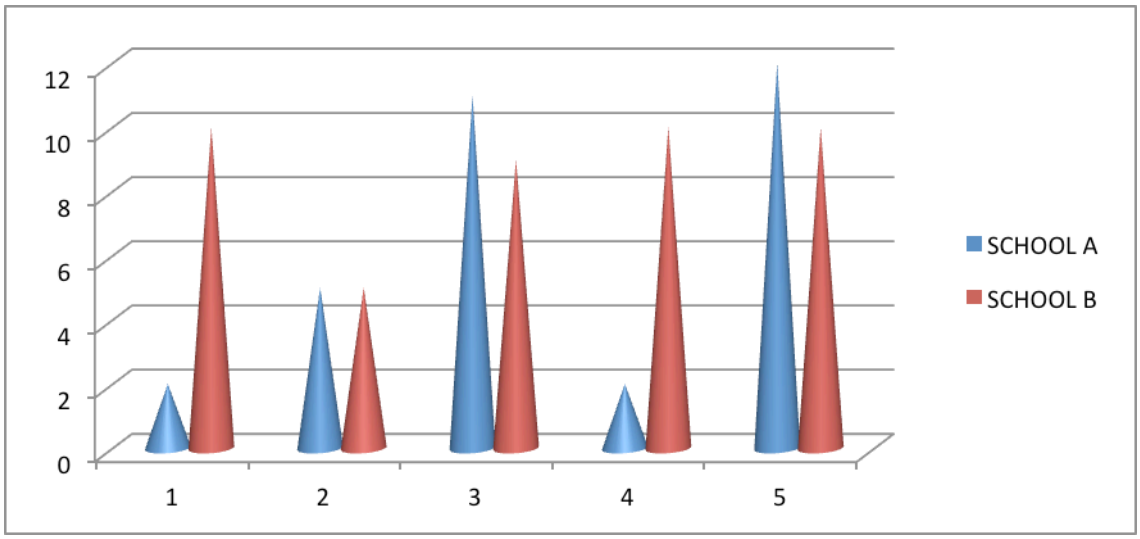

FIGURE 5: TEST 2 SCORES (UNASSISTED BY TEACHERS)

This is the second test for the unassisted pupils. The difference between the pupils from the two schools ranges from 2-8 scores. The results are represented on FIG 5. These results revealed that some level of integration of emotions is low in the classroom and in order to increase the product of learning by acquaintance, by doing, by thinking and by erasing the unnecessary things/ideas, emotions needed to be integrated. Play is another method that Vygotsky suggested to achieve some of level of integration. This enables the pupils to learn new skills through language. This method is mostly used by adults to pass down culture to the younger ones. The pupils in this category need the play way method for their performance to improve.

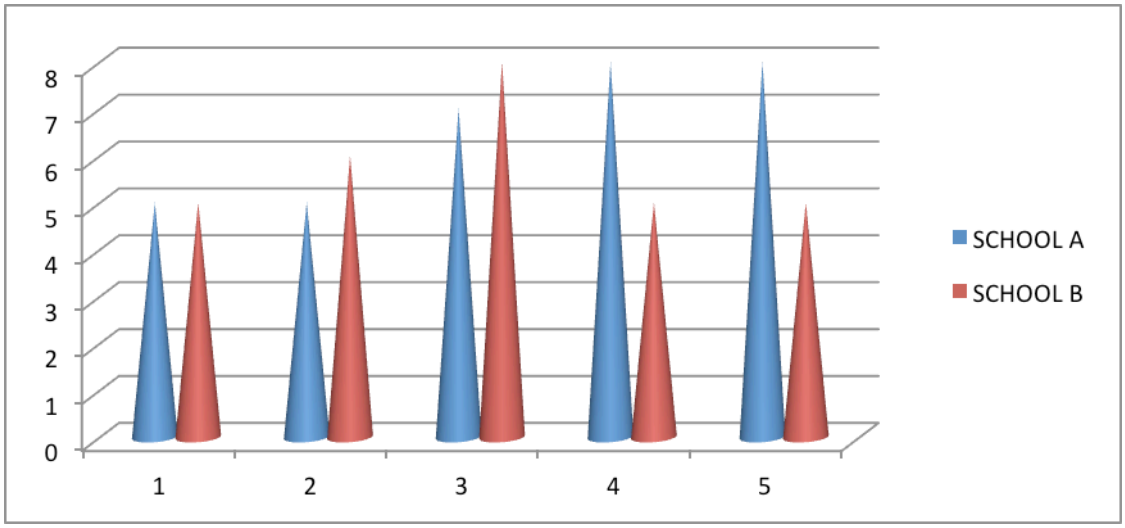

FIGURE 6: TEST 3 SCORES (UNASSISTED BY TEACHERS)

This test is the third one that was conducted on the pupils unassisted. The results revealed a range of 1-3 scores among the pupils between the two schools. The results are represented on FIG 6. This might be as a result of the test checking the skill of art in the individual pupils. The scores were average. Not too high and neither low. Though not assisted but because it is a play way method, the pupils enjoyed doing it. The paintings though not fine but the pupils were filled with enthusiasm in the art of painting. This fact can be supported by Mas & Kitts (2010) who were of the opinion that interaction partners grow more similar in opinions, values and behaviours because the pupils were exposed to common external influences; in this instance: painting of pictures of objects.

Conclusions

Looking through the results of this research, it is discovered that psychological factors like anxiety and emotions affected the performance of the students. In the special school, the moment the pupils saw a new face, they were anxious. This might be because of their state of health (speech impairment). This was revealed in their reading and even written tests. Though, the collection of the data was successful with the aid of their teachers. On the other hand, the pupils in the normal school were psychologically stable and even happy to undergo the exercises. Practically, 50% of the participants in special school were slow in writing and because of their speech impairments, produce the alphabets with difficulties while in the normal school, the participants did very well in both reading and writing of the alphabets even the unassisted participants performed well.

Concerning learners' autonomy, in the second and third tests, it is highly revealed in the two sets of participants that the learners were able to take charge of their learning. The technical version of autonomy according to Benson (1997) was displayed by the participants in both schools because it revealed successful acquisition and implementation of new skills and techniques especially in test two. Motivation was also enhanced by giving all that they needed to do their works. Pencils and crayons were supplied sufficiently. They were also allowed to move round in the class as they do their works. Autonomy and motivation were achieved through independence of the learners and interdependence of the learners on their teachers who were adults.

Social interactions played vital roles among the participants in the selected schools. The participants were allowed to move around in the class to relate with their counterparts and their teachers in both schools. Constructivism and behaviourism are learning theories that also supports that a child learns better while with their teachers or with their better peers or with adults just like Vygotsky sociocultural theory which this study used. New skills are passed down to the younger ones in form of culture. As per the level of integration of emotions into the classrooms, the study revealed that it is not high enough, yet the participants showed a little bit of enthusiasm and that affected their performance in the third test that involves painting in the two schools. The power of collaboration revealed the comprehension ability of the two sets of participants in the two schools especially with the assisted sets. This is supported by raising children.net.au who wrote that: through relationships, children learn how to think, understand, communicate, behave, show emotions and develop social skills. This study also revealed the relationship between culture and mind. It further revealed that language and culture developed and influence each other and that the seat of language is the mind of individuals. In other words, language is processed by the mind before it comes out as speech. Alfred L. Krober (1952), an American Anthropologist also stated "that culture started when speech was available and from the beginning, the enrichment of other either one led the other to develop further". This study recommends that the government should organize seminars and workshops for teachers in the pre-primary and primary school. ii. special education teachers should attend seminars and workshops on language learning and teaching and iii, parents should spend quality time with their children. Parents are advised to set up activities for their children.

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Culturally Appropriate Pedagogy on L2/FL Learning for Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) Influenced Students

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Abstract
English is learnt as a second (L2) or foreign language (FL) among Asian students such as Japanese, Chinese and Vietnamese. They grow up under the implicit influence of Confucius, who postulated, among other things, that societal stability is based on unequal relationships (Scollon, Scollon & Jones, 2011). In educational setting, it manifests itself in adherence to the hierarchical face relationship between the one on top (i.e. teacher) and those at the bottom (i.e. students). As a result, Asian learners are typically quiet in the language classroom, a manifest as a respect to the teacher in Confucian heritage culture (CHC). This is problematic, as contemporary research pointed out that second language acquisition is very much dependent on the interaction among students and teacher when they use the L2 as an authentic communication tool (See Watanabe & Swain, 2007). As such, how do we reconcile the gap? One possible solution will be to adopt 'culturally appropriate pedagogy' (See Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot, 2006). In this presentation, relevant empirical and theoretical works in the field will be consolidated and reported, in the hope to arrive at an L2/FL pedagogy which promotes mutual collaboration and maximizes L2 acquisition on the one hand, and respects students' inherited culture on the other hand.

Keywords: Pedagogy, Confucian heritage culture (CHC), L2 acquisition.

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Introduction

With the effects of globalization and economic prosperity, keen interest is found for English instruction in Asian countries such as China, Japan, Korea and Vietnam. English is taught as the only or most dominant foreign language (FL) in their regular school systems. Failure to achieve a certain standard in English means difficulty or impossibility to be enrolled in tertiary institutions despite having satisfied all other requirements. As such, English is a major subject in the school curriculum; tutorial classes on English for (non)examination purpose amount to a multi-billion worth business.

Despite the keen interest and continuous investment, there is no evidence showing that Asian students' achievement in English has improved much. With the exception of Singapore (where English is the first and official language) and Malaysia (which is a former British colony), only moderate proficiency is found in South Korea and Vietnam, and low proficiency is reported for the majority of Asian countries such as China, Taiwan and Japan (EF, 2018). It is noteworthy pointing out that all those Asian countries mentioned share what is called Confucian heritage culture (CHC), whose population amounts to approximately 1.7 billion[1].

While achievement in L2/FL depends on many factors, such as student motivation, quality of instruction, length and manner of exposure to the target language, cultural factor may also be one which promotes or hinders L2 achievement, especially when national performance is concerned. In works describing what typical CHC English classrooms are like, the following are frequently mentioned:

- Teacher-centred interaction is the norm
- Students are reluctant to join classroom discussion and oral work
- Praise and encouragement are rather unusual

(Summarised from Barron, 2007; Carless, 2011; Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas, 2000)

While it can be inaccurate to generalize the effect of Confucianism in education, especially in the era of globalization where many Western thoughts and practice were incorporated in the way of lives in Asia, the thumbnail depiction nevertheless shed light of the possible root to some cultural phenomena constantly observed and reported in academia. It is also noteworthy pointing out that those classroom behaviours are rather different from what one would have expected observing in typical Western classrooms.

In an attempt to explain those unique classroom practices, this paper will first locate the root which may have influenced the way teaching and learning is conducted in CHC classrooms. With reference to the literature in second language acquisition, the paper then delineates the possible shortcomings of the stereotypical behaviours observed in CHC classrooms in language learning. Some recommendations about English instruction in CHC classrooms will be given at the end based on the theoretical and empirical studies in the field, in the hope to maximize the effectiveness of language learning without jeopardizing students' as well as teachers' Confucian heritage culture.

[1] Source: https://www.worldometers.info/

Possible explanations for the typical behaviours observed in CHC classroom

As aforementioned, what can be commonly observed in CHC classrooms are teacher-centred interaction, students' reluctance in joining oral work and lack of teacher's praise. A few more related observations are worthy of reporting. When there is constant press for more active participation by western teachers in class, CHC students are reported to have suffered from physical and psychological stress (Robertson, Line, Jones and Thomas, 2000). Barron (2007) also reported several observations from his encounter with CHC students as lecturer and program administrator. First, voluntary discussion in the classroom is alien to most CHC students. Second, CHC students display a tendency to rely on only one particular information source in assignments. They also expect to be told exactly what to learn. Barron speculated that this may be due to the conception that knowledge comes from one individual only.

Language barrier is a plausible explanation for the typical behaviours observed in CHC classrooms. When one lacks proficiency in a language, (s)he is naturally reluctant to speak up. This is especially true for CHC students, who are reported to display strong intention to avoid making mistakes so as to avoid losing face (Jin and Cortazzi, 2006). With students' lukewarm participation being the norm, teacher-centeredness is the natural consequence. Another possible reason which is applicable to some Asian countries like China is the huge class size. Because of lack of resource, there can be classes with more than 100 students per class at times. Administering classwork involving dense interaction among students and teacher effectively is difficult.

Confucius (551 B.C. to 479 B.C.) is the name that rings loud when it comes to the great thinkers who have immerse impact on the way of lives in East Asia. Among many beliefs he professed, one that bears high relevance to the possible explanation to the phenomena observed in CHC classrooms is his view towards the nature of a stable society. Confucius postulated that societal stability is based on unequal relationships (Scollon, Scollon & Jones, 2011). A stable society is one where the older generations assuming the position in the top of the hierarchy, taking the lead and providing guidance to the younger generations who are present in the lower end showing respect and executing the instructions accordingly. To reiterate, a stable society is based on unequal, rather than equal, relationship among its senior and junior members.

One can speculate that Confucius' view of a stable society has been manifested in CHC classrooms as:

- the hierarchical face relationship between the one on top (i.e. teacher) and those at the bottom (i.e. students).
- dominant teacher's talk to provide the guidance
- learners' quietness to show respect to the teacher

Worth-noting here are the different implications of learners' quietness between typical western and CHC classrooms. While learners' quietness may signify learners' introvertedness and/or lack of mastery of the content covered in both the western and CHC classrooms, it can also signify learners' respect to the teacher in CHC classrooms too.

The cultural heritage has great influence on the way CHC teachers behave in educational setting as well. Growing under the implicit influence of Confucius culture, it manifests itself in adherence to the hierarchical face relationship between the one on top (i.e. teacher) and those at the bottom (i.e. students). Teacher-centred interaction with the model of authoritative learning is thus the norm. Teachers should possess expert knowledge and be able to answer learners' questions anytime (Jin and Cortazzi, 2006). Scollon, Scollon & Jones (2011) also observed that teachers are assumed of the primary role of transmitting knowledge. Teachers shall maintain strict order in the classroom. Students, on the other hand, should maintain 'deference politeness', a state of being polite but keeping a distance, towards teachers inside and outside school. They would also assume the teacher is most authoritative, corresponding to Barron's observation aforementioned, where knowledge comes from one individual only.

Possible conflicts between CHC influenced behaviour and principles of effective L2/FL learning

Recalling that being quiet can signify respect to the teacher rather than students' introvertedness and/or lack of understanding of the subject, spoken contributions are also generally viewed as demonstrations of ability and achievement rather than tools of learning by CHC students (Yates and Nguyen, 2012). It is noteworthy pointing out, though, that quietness and passiveness may not be necessarily equivalent. Quoting studies in the field of learning approaches, Tran (2013) argued the fact that CHC students consistently score higher on deep learning approaches and lower on surface learning approaches show that while being quiet, they are more reflective than passive. This may also explain why CHC learners excel in academic studies as shown by international tests such as PISA[2]. Nevertheless, being quiet and deferent in class may be at odds with the effective language learning principles as shown by contemporary literature in the field.

One of the greatest influences in contemporary (language) education originated from Lev Vygotsky, whose socio-cultural theory (1980) inspired ample amount of research and remains a major yardstick with which good or bad practice in the classroom is justified. The crux of the theory states that social interaction is of paramount importance in facilitating cognitive and language development. Such development will become faster if there is the presence of interlocutors (called 'More knowledgeable others', or M.K.O.) possessing mastery knowledge in the target content or language actively participating in the interaction. In other words, it is the interlocutors in the external environment such as peers and teachers who play major roles in the educational process and are mutually influential. When this condition is met, students will be able to reach Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is a stage beyond their present capability. Vygotsky's views nowadays extend beyond classroom practice and academic paper. The growing popularity of Learning Commons, interactive learning space found within the traditionally static libraries, is a testimony. Vygotsky is also very different from another of his contemporary Jean Piaget, who attributed human cognitive and language development mainly to internal influences, in which interlocutors do not have much role to play.

[2] Source: http://factsmaps.com/pisa-worldwide-ranking-average-score-of-math-science-reading/)

With Vygotsky's influence, group or collaborative work becomes an indispensable feature for any L2/FL lesson that is deemed to be good. A great deal amount of speaking in the L2/FL lesson is also considered essential because without which, meaningful interaction among the interlocutors cannot take place. Vygotskian school specifies that teachers cannot assume the center of knowledge all the time; knowledge shall be co-constructed among all interlocutors at least partially in the lesson. Uncertainties are bound to be around at some stages in this discovery approach but shall be treated as normal.

Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory forms one of the major bodies of work in contemporary L2 acquisition (Chu, 2019), and is the inspiration of the well-known 'Interaction Hypothesis' (Long, 1996) and 'The Output Hypothesis' (Swain, 2000). Interaction Hypothesis stipulates that meaningful face-to-face interaction with ample oral and aural skills involved results in effective language acquisition. The absence of which, on the other hand, results in the devoid or at least a conspicuous slow-down of the acquisition process. There are supporting empirical research results (See Rojas-Drummond, Mazón, Littleton & Vélez, 2014; Watanabe and Swain, 2007; Mercer and Sams, 2006). It is worthwhile pointing out that teacher-fronted language lesson is considered ineffective in language acquisition according to this Hypothesis.

The value of verbal interaction in language acquisition is further tested based on the Output Hypothesis. Output produced in collaborative dialogue, where 'speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building' (Swain, 2000:102), serve to alert the learners the distance between their present competence and the target level of competence when recorded. Learners' conscious comparison between the two facilitates their language acquisition. In addition, after being taught metacognitive strategies (e.g. planning and evaluating), students were found to perform better in post-test in speaking (Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Swain, 1997). The principles of the Output Hypothesis were replicated in empirical studies with similar results (See Shehadeh, 2003; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, & Fearnow, 1999).

The prevailing emphasis on oral interaction in contemporary L2/FL education on one hand, and the typical practice found in CHC classroom aforementioned on the other, are clearly at odds. The following section will focus on finding ways to reconcile the gap.

In search for a CHC compliant method for L2/FL learning

The ultimate goal is to find ways for teachers to promote meaningful interaction for L2/FL learning in CHC classrooms amid the cultural constraints.
Richards and Rodgers (2014) created a framework for analysing and comparing different contemporary approaches and methods of language teaching, which is reproduced as follows:

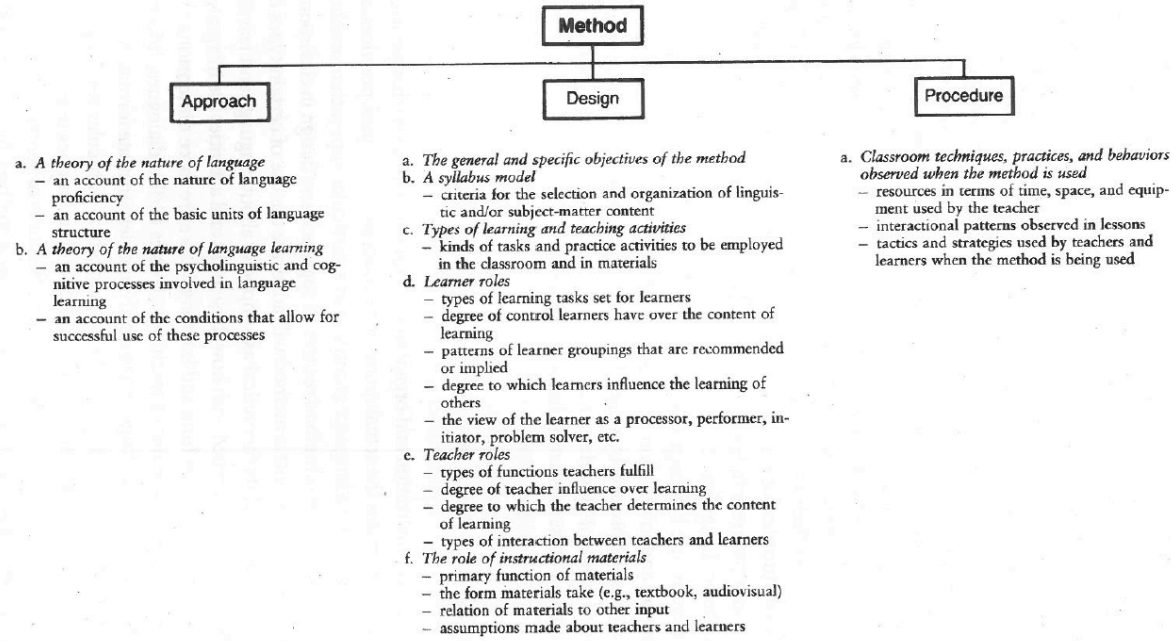

Figure 1: Summary of elements and sub-elements that constitute a method

Among the three major elements and their corresponding sub-elements, three sub-elements under the element 'design' are felt particularly relevant with regard to the search of CHC compliant pedagogy. They are 'Types of learning and teaching activities', 'Learner roles' and 'Teacher roles'. Altogether five recommendations will be given for minimising the cultural impact in L2/FL learning in CHC classroom. Relevant theoretical and empirical evidence will be quoted for support.

I) Types of Learning & Teaching Activities

The first three recommendations fall under the sub-element of 'Types of learning & teaching activities'.

1. **It is preferable for teachers to give structured tasks which have clear objectives and bear lower uncertainty, at least in the initial stage.**
   CHC learners were found to display strong avoidance of ambiguity in matters related to education (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In the surveys administered by Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot (2006), it was also found that open-ended discussions or vague group tasks bearing fuzziness and potential confusion easily causes anxiety among CHC learners. Having said this, it is worth recalling that uncertainties, at least at some points, are part and parcel of the contemporary Vygotskian discovery approach of language learning. Delaying the more open-ended tasks until learners have passed their initial stages, therefore, is recommended.

2. **It is preferable for teachers to provide some reading and/or writing materials, the text-based 'visuals', when executing oral activities.**
   The writing system of many CHC countries is ideographic (e.g. Chinese and Vietnamese) rather than phonetic (e.g. English). CHC learners habitually base things on reading and writing (Carless, 2007 & 2011). Lack of visuals can cause anxiety among them easily (Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot, 2006). This does not mean that oral tasks which involve plentiful amount of interaction cannot be assigned.

Rather, a teacher can strategically provide some input which is text-based, so that a corresponding oral task may stand a better chance to be successfully completed by CHC learners.

3. **It is preferable for teachers to strike a balance between group and individual works.**
   Interviews remain a popular tool in eliciting CHC students' view about the way they prefer in learning. In two separate studies, in-depth interviews were administered to two different groups of students. The first study involves CHC learners in an Australian university (Wong, 2004). CHC learners there were revealed to prefer to work individually rather than in groups. Being able to have full control of the final product was specified as the main reason. The second study involves Korean students studying in US high schools. Similar results were found, where students (especially the ones with fewer years of residency there) were reported to display negative preferences for cooperative learning and positive preference for individual works (Park, 2002). Teachers may wish to take note of this preference among CHC learners, as there are studies showing that ethnic minorities' academic achievement can improve when the mode of work matches with their preferences influenced by culture (Kagan, 1986).

II) Learner and Teacher roles

The last two recommendations fall under the sub-elements of 'Learner roles' and 'Teacher roles'.

4. **Hierarchy, with a group leader nominated by members directly or indirectly, shall be present in groups.**
   After interviewing 181 students in Vietnam, Nguyen et al (2009) reported that the presence of a group leader within the group is the most desirable mode of working in groups. Their observations in class also confirmed that such mode resulted in more effective discussion among all interlocutors. This is contrary to ordinary arrangement in oral or discussion tasks where members usually share equal workload and status. The possible reason may be that hierarchy is commonplace in CHC societies. As the proverb in Vietnam and Chinese goes, 'a group without a leader is like a snake without a head'. As for how the group leader gets selected, Nguyen et al (ibid) reported that the one perceived to be more competent would usually be signalled by other group members using body language and eye contact. Teacher may facilitate the selection should there be difficulty in some groups.

5. **It is preferable that the teacher makes explicit the nature of the oral tasks and regulate them along the way.**
   As discussed, the conception that knowledge comes from one individual is rather common among CHC students (Barron, 2008). Teacher can take a pro-active role in informing students the requirement of the oral tasks, which are often student- rather than teacher-driven. Efforts are needed in persuading students that speaking, apart from an act of showing off, can actually be a tool for learning. Teacher can monitor along the way and serve as the facilitator to ensure contributions are on-task and accessible. With this, students will be more at ease while engaging in their own learning in groups (See Robertson et al, 2000 ; Yates & Nguyen, 2012).

Conclusion

Teachers teaching in CHC classroom are constantly facing the dilemma between teaching under the influence of cultural practice which favours salience on the one hand, and the need to actively involve students in interactive oral activities to help them reap positive educational benefits on another. With a greater understanding of how the cultural practice came about, teachers may be able to devise more informed teaching strategies suitable to their learners' needs. The ultimate goal is that despite the cultural constraints, CHC students in FL/L2 classrooms would be more voluble with the recommendations in place, so that they can truly reap the benefits of interaction in mental development and language learning.

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The Influence of Curriculum and Student–teacher Relationships on Academic Writing

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Abstract
This paper analyses a method of instructing first-year students in academic writing, based on the belief that students gain a sense of self-efficacy through positive reinforcement of their attempts to write; that writing improves when writing concepts are introduced gradually; and that students perform better when they repeatedly see evidence of good writing. The study seeks to examine the following hypotheses: (1) step by step instruction of academic writing is effective; (2) the psychological aspect of students should be fully considered; and (3) the combination of three types of assessment – self-, peer and teacher assessment – works well, particularly if the process is gradual. Three types of assessment rubric were issued in the same format during one academic term. The results suggest that the combination and procedure worked well. As a result of these investigations, several suggestions for future research could be made.

Keywords: Academic writing, Assessment design, Rubrics

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Introduction

The introduction of college first-years to academic writing does not always go easily. Nowadays, students find academic writing more difficult than communicating via mobile tools or social media networks. University teachers note a decline in students' comfort with proficiency in academic writing.

I have tried out several methods of instruction but runs into problems almost every year. Still, I have found that the teacher's individual correction of essays is helpful. However, it is also true that this leaves teachers more burdened and students likely to be daunted. This may indicate that students cannot learn everything they need by such corrections. The problem, in my experience, is that their contribution is less rewarding than they expect. Before my students submitted a piece of work, I used to ask them to check the self-assessment rubric which was already available in their textbook. This seemed not very successful; in my view, the timing and the format could have been improved. In response to this, I tried to reform what I was doing and to apply it in different ways combined with several types of assessment. This paper reports my latest attempt

Assessment in the Literature

As regards assessment, various methods have been introduced and conducted in the past few decades. He study by Ono and Matsushita (2016) raises issues of assessment in universities and concludes as follows:

> It is very important in the active learning to foster students as assessment subjects and to design assessment itself as learning, or 'assessment as learning'. [translated by the author]

I agree with this view, since it helps to make learners self-regulated (Zimmerman 2002).

Reinholz (2016) stresses the value of peer assessment in support of self-assessment and proposes a new model of peer assessment for learning. His model, which has six components, focuses on the connection between peer assessment and self-assessment. Peer assessment has two functions, that of evaluating students' outcomes and another, which he focuses on: its support for student learning.

Ndoye (2017) explores students' perceptions of the mechanisms and processes through which peer assessment and self-assessment can contribute to their learning. He shows the effects of the mechanism, particularly the successful interaction of the mechanism with visualized depictions. In his findings, he emphasises students' sense of responsibility for their own learning. In the minds of his students, feedback is one of the main mechanisms helping them to benefit from both self-assessment and peer assessment.

A two-year university study by Wanner and Palmer (2018) states that self- and peer assessment require careful design and implementation for them to be effective in formative assessment processes.

Kearney, Perkins and Kennedy-Clark (2016) examines the validity of self- and peer marking using an AASL (authentic assessment for sustainable learning) model in

which lecturer assessment, self-assessment and peer assessment are combined to produce summative grades for the students. The result reveals that students from an early stage can judge their own work as well as that of their peers with reasonable accuracy.

Hypotheses and Research Method

This study seeks to examine the following hypotheses:
(1) Step by step instruction of academic writing is effective.
(2) The psychological aspect of students should be fully considered.
(3) A combination of three types of assessment – self-, peer and teacher assessment – works well, particularly when the process is gradual.

The rubrics were chosen and applied to fit the various assessment tools. The same format was used in all the types of assessment. The format and the procedures of the rubrics were carefully designed.

First, all the descriptions in the rubrics were expressed in a positive tone. As can be seen in the table below, even the lowest level (Level 1) has avoided negative phrasing; rather, it asks to what extent students completed their task.

Second, each column describes a concrete achievement. Students were able to find their next assignment just by reading the right column.

Table 1: Descriptions of the rubrics

Perspectives	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Citation and quotations	The introduction of citations or quotations was attempted.	Between L1 and L3	Citations or quotations were set out according to the rules	Between L3 and L5	Citations and quotations were set out according to the rules and seemed natural and even effective in their context.
Outline and heading of chapters	The headings seemed to be related to the contents of the essay.	Between L1 and L3	The headings suggested the contents of the essay.	Between L3 and L5	The outline was clearly and logically organized and easy to understand.

Third, each assessment was conducted in the order shown in Figure 1.

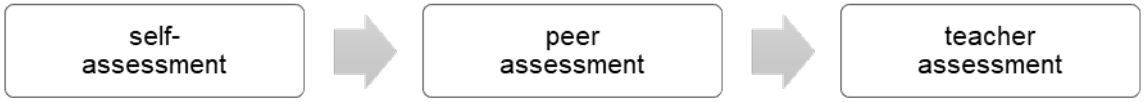

Figure 1: the order of the assessment in this study

Fourth, the instructions for writing were given step by step. As the step proceeded, the rubric was 'piled up'; for example, title, keywords, outline and references were taught in the first step and then the first three chapters were added (see Figure 2).

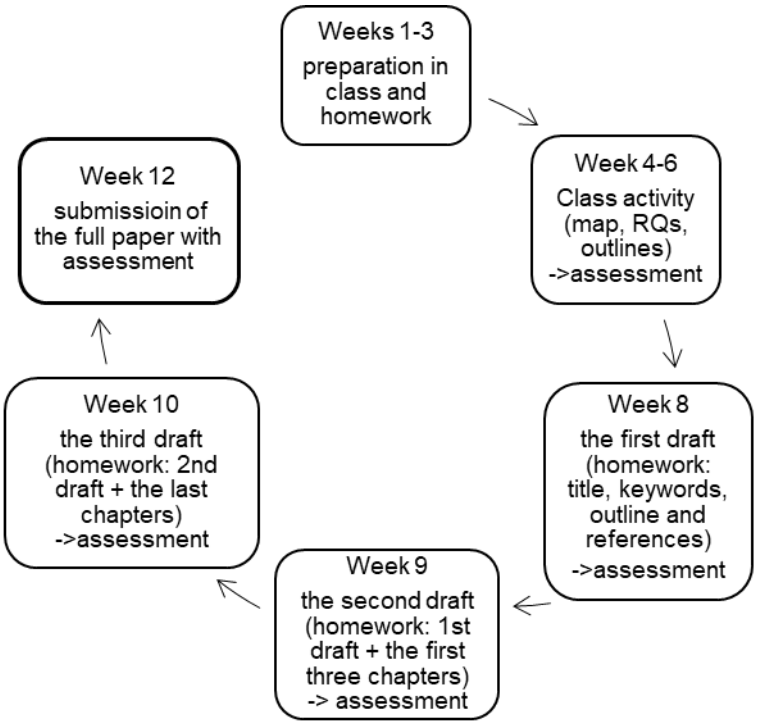

Figure 2: The process of writing essays in the class of 2019

26 first-year students aged 18-19 participated in the study. They were all females. Each assessment in the rubrics was written by hand in the spaces for comments allowed in the format, before being returned to the writer. Here are some examples:

[Self-assessment]

"Future research is written in detail." "Titles of each chapter seem clear."

"The references should be checked again." "Citations should be corrected."

[Peer assessment]

"Your opinion can be seen clearly." "The whole structure is good."

"Conclusion could be expanded a bit." "I want to hear your voice a bit more."

[Teacher assessment]

"The style and form of the essay are good." "Your perspective is great."

"Some colloquial words can be corrected." "You should always be aware of paragraphs."

Results

To indicate the results of this experiment, I show some of the results of the questionnaire survey conducted after all the students had submitted all their essays. Four out of the ten questions and answers are shown below:

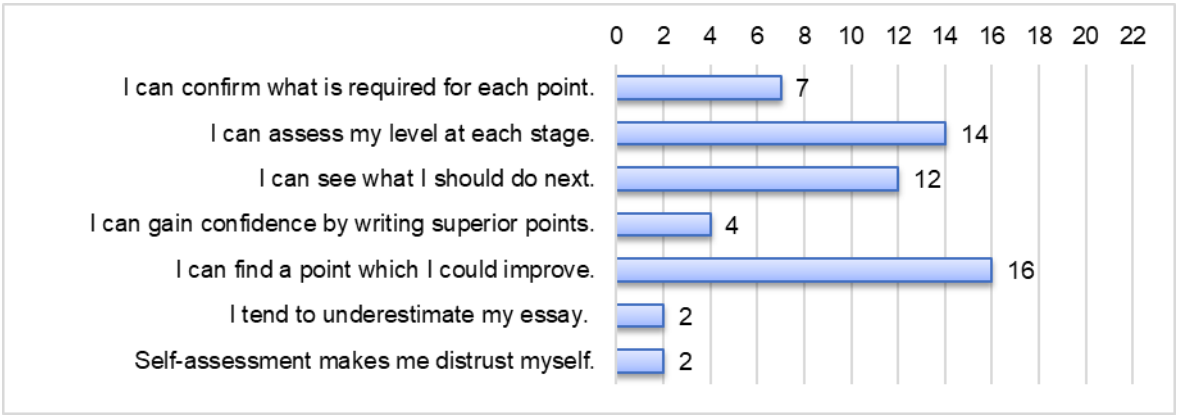

Figure 3: Responses of the students to the question about self-assessment (multiple answers were allowed)

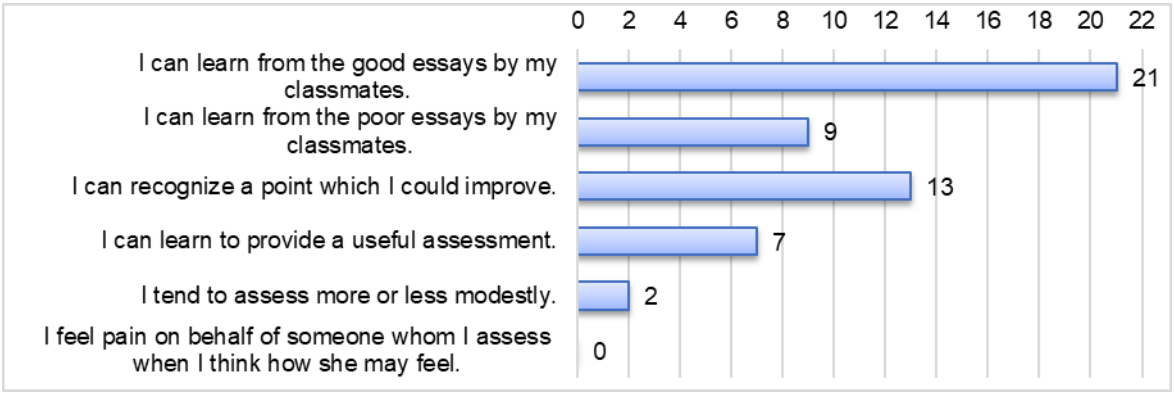

Figure 4: Responses of students to the statements about peer assessment as evaluators (multiple answers were allowed)

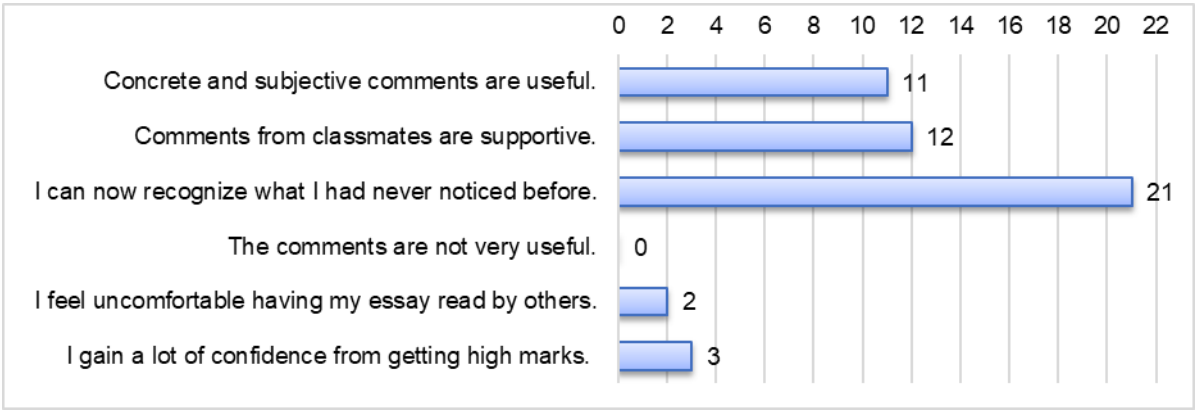

Figure 5: Responses of students to the statements about peer assessment as evaluatees)
(multiple answers were allowed)

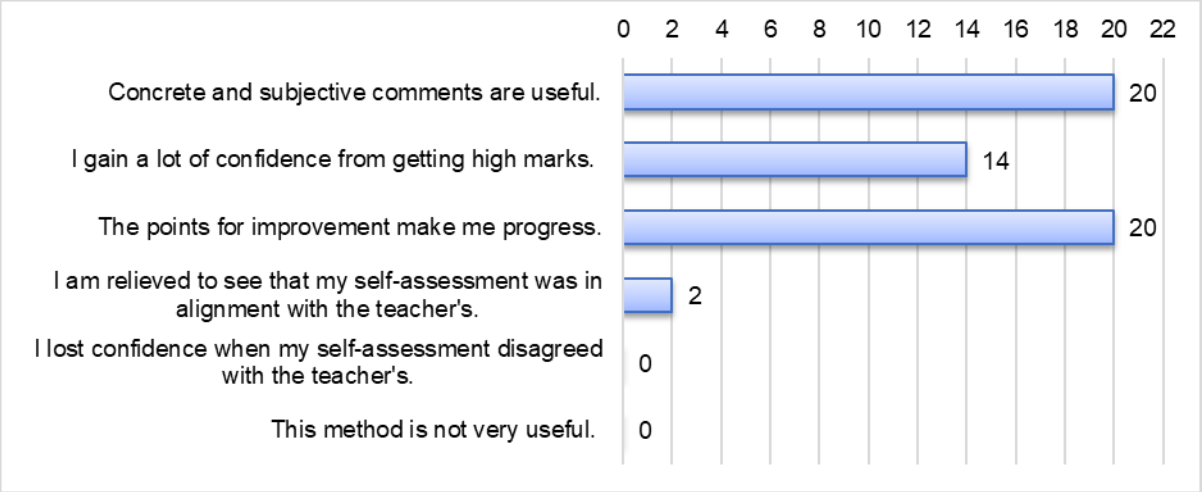

Figure 6: Responses of students to the question about Teacher-assessment (multiple answers were allowed)

According to Figure 3, 16 out of 21 students responded that they were able to find a point for improvement, and 12 students answered that they could now see what they should do next. This was exactly what I wanted students to feel from using the rubrics. As can be seen in Table 1 above, if the student is marked at Level 2, she can infer that she should improve her references

As regards peer assessment, I divided the responses into two types, those from the evaluator's standpoint and those from the evaluatee's standpoint. All the students asserted that they could learn from their classmates' good essays. But it was more important that they should recognize the points in which they could improve their own work: "Reading the other person's essay was stimulating. It encouraged me to revise my own essay." "It encouraged me to write better essays." There are, however, negative reactions to peer assessment: "I was reluctant to comment on my classmates' essays." "Peer assessment should be optional. It is certainly useful, but I don't like to upset a classmate if I'm not close to her." These comments should be respected and treated carefully. Only one third of the students indicated that they could learn to provide a useful assessment.

As evaluatees all of them responded that they were now able to recognize what they had never noticed before. This and the next two responses may indicate that students to some extent developed their evaluation skills. However, as mentioned above, two thirds of them did not admit that they could learn to evaluate, and therefore this finding should be left as a point for further research. Minority opinions should not be neglected, either. Two students felt uncomfortable to have their essay read by the others.

Finally, teacher assessment was on the whole favourably received. Teacher assessment this time came after the students' self-assessment and peer assessment. The results may suggest that the order of assessment was appropriate. I tried carefully not to repeat what had been said in either of the former assessments. As a result, the teacher's comments were brief and students may have found them too selective.

Discussion

In this study, I have investigated how in the teaching and examining of academic writing different kinds of assessment can be combined. Here I would like to review my findings along with my research hypotheses.

In response to the first hypothesis, the instructions in academic writing itself that I gave were not very different from my instructions every year. Nevertheless, giving them step by step and combining them with self and peer assessment seemed successful. Students had a chance to catch up if they missed something.

The second hypothesis, about students' psychology during the process of writing, was addressed by carefully designing the rubrics and the order in which the three types of assessment was taken. The rubric, which used only positive descriptions, allowed students to proceed with their writing without stress. The order of the assessments, first asking students to assess their own work; next, asking them to submit it for peer assessment, and finally to teacher assessment, seemed to be a key to success, since this was able to make students aware of strengths and weaknesses first by themselves. Such awareness tends to train them as autonomous learners. In my opinion, this is a very important point. In fact, the students completed their essays approximately 10 days sooner than usual.

The third hypothesis, concerning effective assessment tools that would encourage students to write good academic papers, can receive two kinds of response: one taking the subject to be the assessment of essays and the other considering this particular method of assessment. As noted above, the combination of self-, peer and teacher assessment worked effectively and so did the rubrics. In this study, I made sure that the rubrics were all in the same format. This helped students to compare scores between different assessments and may have made it easier for them to memorize the matrix of grading.

This kind of procedure does take longer and some students may have found it troublesome. A few students were reluctant to engage in peer assessment. This reluctance suggests that one of ok the most important points here was the student-teacher relationship or the trust between them.

Conclusion

This study was designed to determine the effect of combining three types of assessment with rubrics for instruction in academic writing in a first-year class. Some results support the hypotheses raised above, but this study does have some limitations.

First, the method of peer assessment should be improved. In this study, the students exchanged their papers directly, but it would be better to do this anonymously, using ICTs, such as LMS (Honda 2017). We cannot neglect the voice of minorities. From another perspective, it is also worth following the process in which two peers collaboratively mark another student's anonymous work (Kearney, Perkins and Kennedy-Clark 2016).

Second, it should be examined whether students should learn how to assess their and other's task. In fact, Kearney, Perkins and Kennedy-Clark (2016) claims that students without prior experience in peer- or self-evaluation are able to accurately judge their own work and make reasonably accurate judgements of the work of their peers.

Ndoye (2017) also reports his participants' indication that peer/self-assessment allowed them to take responsibility by helping them to develop their evaluative skills. As regards my students, only one third answered that they could learn to provide a useful assessment. The age of the participants, however, may have influenced their answers. While Ndoye's participants were students on a graduate course, mine were first-year college students. Further investigation would perhaps clarify this issue, which may be related to the psychology of the evaluatee.

Finally, the study could not analyse the gaps, if any, between the three types of assessment. Further studies regarding the modulation of rubrics are thus required.

Continued efforts are needed to make the method more appropriate and it should take both students' learning and their psychological condition into account. Establishing a relationship of mutual trust between teachers and students is still the key to success.

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Research and Practice on the Blended Teaching Mode of College English Based on the MOOC + SPOC Platform

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Abstract
Based on comparison and contrast between the blended teaching mode and the traditional one, this project takes the college English course at Harbin Institute of Technology as an example to design and practice the blended teaching mode based on the MOOC + SPOC platform. This mode aims to develop cross-cultural communicative competence of college students in an all-round way. On the basis of the teaching resource database set up by ourselves, blended teaching is led by an open and collaborative faculty and also driven by various communicative activities. With diversified assessment as a guarantee, an "Internet+" oriented college English learning community centered on students is established. This mode consists of online education and face-to-face instruction with miscellaneous activities such as discussions, presentations, role-play and reports, which reflects the Internet ethos of openness, participation, collaboration and sharing, as well as the concept of research-based learning and team work. The results show that blended teaching not only makes full use of the advantages of MOOCs but also gives full play to the strengths of face-to-face approaches, thus optimizing the overall educational experience.

Keywords: blended teaching mode, MOOC, SPOC

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Introduction

In the "Internet+" era, the development of conventional college English classrooms is hindered. Conventional face-to-face and one-way instruction in class can no longer meet the needs of college students who have grown up in a digital world. For them, such an English class lacks vitality, which results in declining student interest in learning English. Thus, only through the effective integration of information technology and the Internet with English classrooms, and constant innovation in teaching modes, can the students' commitment be assured. In 2016 the Ministry of Education for the People's Republic of China issued *The College English Teaching Guide*, which proposes to combine information technology with curriculum design at a grass-roots level, thereby giving full play to the advantages of information technology in teaching. This in turn encourages teachers to implement the blended teaching mode based on micro class, Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), Small Private Online Course (SPOC) and flipped class models, so as to develop their students' abilities in active learning, independent learning and personalized learning. In recent years, more and more college English teachers are interested in flipped classroom. The blended teaching mode based on the internet platform will be the main mold for teaching organization in the future.

Rationale of the Blended Teaching Mode

Flipped classroom (AKA flipped teaching or flipped learning) is a pedagogical model in which content instructions normally conducted within the classroom are performed by the learners as homework, and classroom time is used for practice and application (Alvarez, 2011; Leis, Tohei, & Cooke, 2015; Mc Carthy, 2016). Flipped classroom is very different from the conventional mode where the teacher is typically the central focus of the class and the primary disseminator of information and knowledge during the lesson**.** To be specific, students are introduced to the course content prior to class by means of videos, podcasts, PPTs etc. for direct instruction so as to conserve class-time for collaborative work. The flipped classroom is an inversion of the conventional teaching approach, which requires students to learn by themselves beforehand and discuss with their teacher and classmates in class (Fischer, 2013). The teacher responds to questions while students refer directly to him or her for guidance and feedback. The distinctive feature of flipped classroom is that the input of knowledge is finished before class while the internalization of knowledge is achieved in class. Students construct knowledge positively, instead of acquiring knowledge passively. They are the focus of the class, while the teacher is the organizer, instructor, and supervisor as well. This kind of teaching model saves classroom time, enhances the interaction between teachers and students, and helps cultivate students' self-learning and cooperative communication potential.

The theoretical basis for our flipped classroom is constructivist theory (Piaget, 1973) which views learning as the result of mental construction. In constructivist thinking, learners are given the opportunity to try out ideas and hypotheses and to invent their own solutions. They assimilate new information to pre-existing notions and modify their understanding in the light of new data. In the process, their ideas gain in complexity and power, and with appropriate support they develop critical insight into how they think and what they know about the world as their understanding increases in depth and detail.

Within the framework of cognitive constructivism, the role of the learner in knowledge construction is highlighted, and meaningful learning is emphasized. Each student is different, and thereby brings to the learning process different cognitive abilities and previous experiences alike. As such, students must be taught individually, learning these things they see as relevant to their own needs. Each student should be taught at his or her own rate, and allowed to be involved in decisions about what to learn and how to approach it. As each individual will never have exactly the same environment or experiences, people will never form exactly the same understanding of reality (Jonassen, 1991).

The constructivist views of learning and cognitive development provide an important theme in understanding the design of multimedia language-learning environments with learners viewed as active constructors of their knowledge (Boyle 1997). Based on these assumptions, educators need to provide learning environments that capitalize on inconsistencies between the learners' current understandings and the new experiences they encounter. Learning environments should be designed to challenge their understandings, while learners should be encouraged to compare conflicting ideas and discuss conflicting views based on their existing knowledge as they try to accommodate new knowledge that is internally inconsistent. Activities require learners to compare and contrast similarities and differences (Perkins, 1991) and they have to be arranged to meet the individual needs of students.

Unlike Piaget, Vygostsky places the origins of learning firmly in a social context. His argument is that cognitive development is socially located, and individual learning follows social learning. Knowledge is seen as embedded in a social context and often referred to as "situated cognition". From a social constructivist perspective, people through interacting with the world construct text and refine cognitive representations to make sense of them. Social construction emphasizes the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks, and provides a view of learning as arising from interactions with others. Since learning never takes place in isolation, the importance of the learning environment or the context within which the learning takes place should be recognized. Teachers, learners, tasks and contexts are regarded as four key factors that influence the learning process, and none of these factors exists in isolation (Williams & Burden, 2000).

As knowledge is highly likely to be constructed through social interaction, technological affordance such as the Internet and MOOCs could be appropriately used to form communities of inquiry, thereby providing learning environments which encourage critical dialogue and enhance understanding (Vygotsky, 1978). In view of this, educational technology could become a platform from which to accomplish the goals of social constructivism. In other words, social constructivist learning may be implemented through blended teaching and learning based on the MOOC + SPOC platform.

Construction and Practice of the Blended Teaching Mode of College English Based on MOOC + SPOC Platform

Our project takes the college English course at Harbin Institute of Technology (HIT) China as an example to illustrate the blended teaching mode based on the MOOC + SPOC platform. We started this reform in 2018 with around 600 college students.

This blended teaching mode was designed to develop cross-cultural communicative competence in an innovative way, and consisted of online learning and face-to-face instruction in class with miscellaneous activities such as presentations, role-play, forum discussions and reports which involved the social constructivist learning described above.

We provided the MOOC "*Speaking and Writing as a New Scient*ist" for all students in our study. The course was designed and implemented to develop productive skills of postgraduates and undergraduates in English communication. Oriented towards intercultural communication, the course empowers university students, doctoral students, master students and undergraduates to have their voice heard in the form of spoken or written communication for knowledge advancement and technical innovation. The emphasis is on the "transfer" from spoken English to written English, and vice versa. Through spoken English, university students will learn to communicate their ideas in relation to new developments in science and technology, whilst through written English they will learn to articulate their ideas concisely and appropriately, thus learning to construct academic discourse and strongly express their contribution to knowledge advancement and technical innovation. The course was developed in the light of the actual needs of university students specializing in science and technology. It provides a variety of exercises to cultivate their capability fully in academic discourse construction, starting from giving presentations at an international conference and ultimately culminating in writing abstracts and research papers for international journals. The students were offered abundant opportunities to experience intercultural communication in different styles, including frozen, formal, casual, consultative and intimate. Through personal experiences, university students were expected to develop practical skills in the real life context of English communication, enhancing their intercultural communicative competence and their employment competitiveness in the global market.

1. Blended Teaching: Combination of MOOC + SPOCs + flipped classroom

Blended learning is defined as the "thoughtful integration of face-to-face, classroom-based experiences and online learning" (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004, p. 96). In view of this, we asked students to watch online lectures after class. In the flipped classroom, the teacher's interactions with students were more personalized and less didactic, and students were encouraged to involve themselves actively in knowledge acquisition and construction as they participated in and evaluate their learning. The guiding ideology of the mode is presented in Table 1 which shows that flipped classroom intentionally shifts instruction to a learner-centered model in which class time explores topics in greater depth and creates meaningful learning opportunities.

Table 1：Guiding ideology of the mode

Online teaching	**Face-to-face teaching**
Input-oriented	Output-oriented
Exercise-oriented	Communication-oriented
Address general issues	Address major and difficult issues
Create personalized learning chances	Create cooperation and communication opportunities

2. Period arrangements

There are twenty-four periods for this course per semester, three hours per week, and eight weeks in total. All students were required to attend the flipped classroom, where they were divided into several study groups each consisting of four to five students.

3. Class organization

The class consists of two parts: oral presentations on academic research, and scientific paper writing. These are organized in two different ways, described in detail below.

(I) Oral presentations with reference to research work

i) Students watched MOOC after class to learn discourse structure and language expressions for English academic reports.

ii) Students were required to understand what they had learned online and presented this information in the form of an English report in class. Teachers randomly invited students to give a presentation, encouraging and supervising them to learn online lectures after class.

iii) After a student finished his or her presentation, other students would ask questions. In this way, all students practiced addressing an audience spontaneously, a major part in international conferences, which not only developed their question-answering skills but also helped them master corresponding communication skills.

iv) Both students and teachers gave detailed comments on the students' presentations in terms of content, structure, form and expression. They also provided valuable suggestions for improvement.

v) The teacher guided students to further understand and discuss the difficult problems in their English academic presentations, such as how to deal with audience questions appropriately and effectively.

vi) Students were then required to provide various possible solutions to these problems, and put them into practice. Through this method, students can improve their ability to express their ideas.

(II) Scientific paper writing

Note: Abstract-writing is taken as an example to expound on the teaching design of scientific paper writing. Teaching design of writing in other units is similar.

i) Students were required to study abstract-writing by watching MOOC after class, in order to grasp stylistic features, different writing types, basic structural framework and discourse construction of abstracts.

ii) Students were required to understand what they had learned online and presented this information in the form of an English report in class. Teachers randomly invited

students to give a presentation, encouraging and supervising them to learn online lectures after class.

iii) Students were required to write an abstract in English before class and to share it with their group members in the class discussion session. Group members then identified the problems in their writing by peer evaluation and received suggestions for amendment. After that, students revised their manuscripts. All groups took part in this activity simultaneously, during which teachers and teaching assistants evenly distributed their time between the different discussions in order to provide necessary guidance.

iv) Teachers shared an abstract from a leading academic journal with the students, thereby helping improve their abilities in the cognitive construction of English academic discourse. By real corpus analysis, students were able to explore how to write the basic content of English abstracts in words, sentences and ultimately full discourse. Students were thereby able to compose English abstracts concisely, accurately and informatively, deploying their language skills for research purposes and to articulate methodology, results and conclusions.

v) Finally, students revised their abstracts after class and submitted their completed versions. During face to face instruction, students raised the questions they met when they studied online after class and discussions ensured as to how to solve their problems. This allowed students to explore the learning content in greater depth.

4. Assessment

The assessment of student performance was conducted as follows：

Final score (100%)
MOOC (50%)
Performance in class (30%, see below)
Final examination in terms of academic report (20%, see below)

Performance in class (30%)
Presentation (15%)
(Each student gave three presentations per semester, each scoring a maximum of five points, so the total achievable score is 15.)
Class seminars (15%)

Final exam in terms of academic report (20%)
Peer assessment (10%)
Teacher assessment (10 points)

Reflections on this Blended Teaching Mode

Learning is a social activity, and blended learning is conducted with reference to teachers, peers, and even casual acquaintances. Social constructivism recognizes the social aspect of learning and deploys interaction with others and the application of knowledge as integral aspects of learning. In order to improve students' active engagement in class, interactions between teachers and students and between students

themselves should be reinforced, thereby allowing students to examine their understandings through other individuals. Students are more likely to casually converse, debate or even quarrel with each other than they are with their teacher. We employed a bullet-screen at certain times and invited students to express their opinions by cellphones. Then, opinions from many students flew across the screen anonymously, in different color texts. These opinions consisted of insights, misunderstandings and funny words, which sometimes made the whole room burst into laughter. Our students greatly enjoyed this seemingly chaotic learning atmosphere, which helped improve active thinking in class and ultimately raised the standard of overall teaching quality.

Teachers select tasks which reflect their beliefs about teaching and learning, while learners interpret tasks in ways that are meaningful and personal to them as individuals. The task is therefore an interface between teacher and learners. At the same time, the context in which learning takes place will play an important part in shaping what happens within it. Therefore, it is important for teachers to consider carefully how to control the class effectively by designing some appropriate tasks. We should always keep in mind questions as to which period of class to deliver particular types of discussion questions, and how and when to guide and encourage students to express their opinions and insights.

There is an essential difference between after-class study of the blended learning mode and after-class study of the conventional teaching mode. In the latter, students preview before class, listen to lectures during class, and review after class. However, they preview and review the same content that teachers teach in class, all the three being the same. Repetition is the main method to improve students' competence. In the blended learning mode, by contrast, all three are different. Through the teachers' meticulous lesson design, the students' pre-class preparation involving online learning, the classroom discussion, and the after-school learning components function as complementary parts which when taken together constitute the whole teaching content. Here, complementarity is the main method to improve students' competence.

As knowledge is constructed through social negotiation, discussions with other individuals are a primary instructional methodology. The blended teaching mode encourages discussions between teachers and students, and between students themselves in the flipped classroom. However, as regards actual teaching efficiency, such discussion is relatively inefficient for it cannot guarantee that students' feedback and statements are correct, meaning teachers may need more time to guide students to complete the discussion of certain knowledge points. This in turn requires teachers to forego some in-class activities so that class-time can be saved to strengthen the interactions among students, thereby achieving the greater goal of cultivating their independent thinking and critical thinking. Students however will still be able to study the deleted part of the class afterwards, via MOOC. It is therefore crucial to make good use of excellent resources such as MOOC to enable students to learn the content not involved in class flexibly in their free time. In this way, teachers and students will enjoy greater opportunities for in-depth discussion of the most important knowledge points during class, and to address those problems which students cannot solve themselves.

Conclusion

The establishment of this blended teaching mode of college English based on the MOOC + SPOC platform at HIT has achieved the goal of "teacher-led and student-centred education" which helps stimulate student motivation to learn English and facilitates the effective development of language skills. This mode has the potential to create an interactive, open, personalized and cooperative learning environment, changing the passive or "spoon-fed" learning of students. The blended mode seeks to transform the educational system from the exam-oriented education of the past into a quality system of improving students' communicative ability. It also integrates a variety of teaching resources effectively, challenging more traditional teaching modes which typically are constrained by time and place. The results show that blended teaching not only makes full use of the advantages of MOOCs but also gives full play to the strengths of face-to-face instruction, thus optimizing the teaching effect.

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Understanding and Characterising a Context-based EFL Learner Autonomy in Algerian Higher Education

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Abstract
The study explores the beliefs and practices that Algerian EFL students and teachers attribute to autonomous learning. Moreover, it attempts to identify then investigate the underlying factors behind those beliefs and practices. Factors that influence students` beliefs, practices and primarily their understanding of the concept LA are traced in the literature to be; personal, institutional, socio-cultural and socio-economic (Hamad, 2018; Kemala, 2017; Palfreyman and Smith, 2003; Jiang, 2008). Whereas those which affect teachers understanding of this concept can be referred to; experience, professional development, classroom practices and contextual factors (Szőcs, 2017; Borg, 2015). The main aim of the research is to construct contextualised understanding/s of EFL learner autonomy based on students` and teachers` beliefs towards this notion, their practices and the factors laying behind them. The significance of this study is derived from investigating a contradictory situation in Algeria. After implementing a new higher education system (LMD) that in its essence is built upon the idea of autonomy of learners, claims of having dependent EFL students with low or non-autonomous attitudes started to rise (Ghout-khenoune, 2015). This research challenges those claims and favours the idea that different existing *varieties of learner autonomy* reflect contexts where they are used and often "missed by educators especially those looking with western eyes" (Smith, Kuchah & Lamb, 2018, p.18).

Keywords: Learner autonomy, Students`/Teachers` beliefs and practices, LMD system

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Introduction

Algeria is one of the Maghrib countries that embraced a European higher education system known as LMD, which in its essence is based on the notion of autonomy in learning. This was an attempt for the country to meet the demands of a new globalised world, to increase students` mobility and to upgrade their learning skills. In this respect Hanifi (2018) mentioned that LMD system`s aim was "to offer students a more free space of autonomous learning under new pedagogical management" (p. 31). The newly adopted HE system was heavily criticised since the day of its implementation, issues about its inappropriateness and ineffectiveness were raised, However, it is noticed that this discourse started to have less pessimistic views about the LMD system. in Sarnou, Koç, Houcine & Bouhadiba (2012) it was concluded that "despite some negative aspects of the LMD system related to its novelty, this reform is perceived to be more beneficial and valuable for both EFL students and teachers compared to the classical system applied previously" (190) also Idri (2012) declared that it is normal for a new system still in its embryonic stages to face difficulties before it starts to reach its drawn objectives which include to promote for autonomous learning. Nevertheless, discourse about EFL learner autonomy remained unchanged, it still contains doubts about whether or not LMD is really promoting for students` responsibility and freedom in learning. Over the last decade, most research about learner autonomy in Algerian context raised the issue about having students with low or non-autonomous attitudes (Ghout-Khenoune, 2015; Hadi, 2018). On the other hand, students seem to be succeeding in a learner autonomy demanding HE system (LMD), they are doing their study presentations, they are finishing their senior year dissertations and finally getting their degrees. In the given contradictory educational situation, this study will not employ any pre-determined understandings of what LA is. Instead, it will aim to conduct a bottom-up approach to figure out how learner autonomy is understood in Algerian context. This decision was taken based on the literature about LA which refers to it as a socially and culturally biased construct (Ushioda & Smith, 2009). More illustrations about the theoretical background of this study will be provided in the coming section, while a description of the research design and methods of analysis will come later. Finally, the paper will end by providing some expected outcomes and a summary of conclusions that was reached so far as data of this project are yet to be collected.

Literature Review

1. Defining learner autonomy

When talking about autonomy in language learning one must mention Holec, the most influential figure in this field and his most cited definition of learner autonomy "the ability to take charge of one`s own learning" (as cited in Palfreyman and Smith 2003). This definition paved the way for researchers to add more meaning and clarification to the concept. What Holec presents seems to make a big part of what we currently know about learner autonomy. However, from a pedagogical point of view, his definition addressed adult learners with self-management skills as prerequisites. Unfortunately, it is difficult to generalise this understanding to cover young learners who do not possess such type of skills. Besides that, Holec`s definition sounds too idealistic to be realised in an institutional learning environment. Reviewing the definition of Dam (1990) as cited in Smith (2008) "a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a socially responsible person" (p.

396) gives emphasis on the importance of the social aspect which was ignored by Holec. This definition has corrected a lot of misconceptions by indicating that autonomous learning does not necessarily mean that learners are completely on their own, instead they are "inter-dependent", meaning that they are encouraged to learn from other people and ask for help when assistance is needed.

Another significant definition in the area of learner autonomy is by Little (1991) he mentions that LA is "the capacity for detachment [from the teacher], critical reflection, decision-making and independent action" (p. 3-4) Little believes that autonomy is part of human beings' nature, to have your own space, think and make up your mind then take action about certain things including learning. Little (1991) emphasizes on cognitive abilities which he thinks are critical for autonomous learning. Hence, to Little (1991) autonomy is not mainly about organizing learning but also the cognitive capacities that make learning achievable (Benson, 2013). In (Little, 2004) another definition of autonomy was provided which is "learning how to learn intentionally" (p. 105). This time a great deal of self-awareness is conveyed in this definition. Being aware about strategies, motivation, also strengths and weaknesses is of a great importance in Little`s definition.

In a response to Holec`s dilemma about the difficulty of applying autonomy within educational institutions, Littlewood (1999) in his definition proposes two categories of autonomy. Proactive or better say absolute autonomy which involves learner taking charge of all aspect of his learning. This category seems to be far to be achieved in educational institutions which are governed by rules and regulations. The other type of autonomy is reactive autonomy, it involves learners manging their learning resources and achieving their goals but only when a direction is already created by a teacher, a tutor or a supervisor. When following the time line of leaner autonomy definitions in language learning we would reach to the one of Benson (2013) who successfully gave a succinct yet overarching definition to this notion, stating that it is "taking control over learning at different levels: learning management, cognitive management and learning content" (p. 63). Benson acknowledges the importance of learning management by Holec and the vital psychological aspect by Little, but also pushes the span of learner autonomy a little bit further to a political dimension to include the freedom of choice and negotiating not only how to learn but also what to learn.

The chronological evolution of learner autonomy definitions presented above, gives an overall view of how it has changed from being labelled an ability in Holec`s definition to a capacity in nowadays discourse. The assembly of definitions can help spotting the attempts of reconceptualization autonomy to be practiced with educational institutions.

2. Students/teachers beliefs and practices in relation to learner autonomy

Investigating beliefs about learner autonomy seems necessary before attempts to find pedagogies to promote for it or understand how it is interpreted. Despite of the growing interest in learner autonomy beliefs in the last years, research about this issue is very limited in Algerian context comparing to other places. Nevertheless, it was reported in some works like (Bensalem, 2018; Hadi, 2018; Houha, 2016) that Algerian EFL students` beliefs about LA are very diverse. In a story shared in Hadi (2018) a teacher asked his students help to prepare the lesson and involve in

classroom discussions as an attempt to share learning responsibilities hence promoting for autonomy. Some students ironically said, “as if he wanted us to do his job” (Hadi, 2018, p. 135). Although this situation cannot be generalised; it explains a lot about how teachers` limit their understanding of LA with classroom practices. It also shows that teachers and students sometimes might not see LA from the same lens. This confirms Benson`s (2008) view of this issue when he says that “My argument is that, from the teachers` perspective, autonomy is primarily concerned with institutional and classroom learning arrangements within established curricula” (p. 15). Great deal of our practices depends on what we believe in. For this reason, wrong, inappropriate or unsuitable beliefs of learner autonomy will lead to innocently disfigured practices. In a situation where teachers` and students` beliefs about autonomous learning do not match, I tend to prioritise learners` views. In this respect Beson (2008) argues that autonomy needs to be viewed from the learner`s perspective rather that from the teachers` this is to understand the conditions which learners` think are helpful to its realization. To do this, a bottom-up research is encouraged to take place to report about the environment and actions that learners think to take place for them to become autonomous language learners. This seems as the perfect response to the story that Hadi (2018) previously shared with us in her work. I believe that trying to find signs of autonomy which resemble what is found in literature in western contexts is the main reason for assuming that Algerian EFL students are not autonomous or lack autonomy. Students may appear to have different beliefs and standpoint about LA if this concept was investigated without pre-determined ideas or previous convictions.

3. Factors that influence understanding learner autonomy

a. Students:

Student-centred learning approaches prioritise students in all aspects of the learning-teaching process. Hence pedagogies are built upon what suit students and fulfil their educational needs. The first factor that can be identified to have an influence on how learner autonomy is understood by students is the personal/individual factor. This seems almost a generic factor since the notion of autonomy itself is something personal before it outreaches the social aspect. Besides motivation, agency and even confidence, Jiang (2008) found that “personality and previous experience appeared to be the most salient aspects as revealed by the present study that affected students' learner autonomy and associated behaviours.” (p. 306).

The second factor is “Institutional”. This factor is very tricky to deal with as it indicates the dilemma about how autonomy can exist in educational institutions, which most of the time are strictly regulated. On the one hand, the concept of autonomy in learning is first and foremost about freedom in what and how to learn. On the other hand, one should ask is how can this freedom exist in an environment governed by rules, teaching methods and syllabi to follow? Most of the time educational institutions are regarded as a hindrance to students' autonomy (Nasri, et al, 2015) In other words, institutional environment in one way or another does have an impact on how students understand learning whether it is exams-related and bound by teachers or there is a chance to learn without any pressure and still get the knowledge in a more effective way. Although it is not a very common opinion, but I believe that the influence of the institutional factor can be positive as much as it can be negative as previously indicated. This can be very apparent when talking about innovation within new academic educational systems which seems to support learner

autonomy in various aspects. Taking Algeria as an example since data of this project will be collected there. Algerian universities were adopting a teacher-centred approach for many years since the country`s independence. When the LMD system was implemented in 2004/2005, new pedagogical managements were undertaken. These managements introduced different parties of the Algerian universities particularly teachers and students to different roles which involve more space for freedom for students to learn and for teachers to be innovative in their teaching practices hence promoting for autonomy.

Many academics acknowledge the fact that both society and culture in general have a major effect on how the concept of learner autonomy is understood in different contexts. (Smith & Ushioda, 2009; Nguyen, 2011) Therefore, the sociocultural factor is identified as one of the integral variables that this research is taking into consideration. When discussing the notion of society, culture and learning, one must mention the theorist Vygotsky who believes that knowledge is socially and culturally constructed. Based on his ideas, the same goes for the concept learner autonomy. In Kemala (2017) it was mentioned that "Parents, brother, sisters, relatives, friends, and teachers are some examples of social aspects. They greatly influence the autonomous learners" (p. 13) this gives the impression that we know what we know about learner autonomy not only from personal experiences but also from our surroundings which can have an influence on our perception and comprehension of things. To be more specific on how the socio-cultural factor influence understandings of LA. One should consult one of the most significant books that deals about this matter *learner autonomy across cultures* by Palfreyman and smith (2003) where the importance of learner autonomy was stressed, its universal appropriateness but in a more culture specific manner. In this vein Smith (2003) mentioned that learner autonomy is "not one-size-fits-all" (p. 256). in the same book, culture was referred to as a hindrance when trying to implement learner autonomy. However, In (Nasri et al., 2015) it was mentioned that culture can also facilitate the implementation of learner autonomy. For example, learner autonomy at first was associated only with its individual dimension. However, having the social dimension of autonomy pointed out opened a new aspect in which those known as collective societies can practice. In this sense, the socio-cultural context shapes what individuals know about learner autonomy. If it is perceived as an individual or collective practice or if it is a favourable notion to support in the first place.

Although it may not seem as influential as the other variables, the socio-economic factor can have a significant impact on how learner autonomy is understood by language learners. The fact that developed areas tend to have infrastructural resources including teaching facilities, technological equipment and evolved and carefully chosen pedagogical practices, gives advantage for students in that learning environment. However, this process does not work as smoothly as imagined because learner autonomy is not a matter of having an abundance of learning resources. It would be also logical to presume that low socio-economic background can work as a constrain for language learners. Nevertheless, this is not always the case. There have been many proofs of learners from a very low or at least average social and economic background, still they were able to achieve a respectful degree in autonomy in their learning. In Lamb (2012) it was indicated that students living in provincial areas strong instrumental goals, he explained this students' desire to move to metropolitan areas to access further education (2012), in other words the socio-economic

background in both cases high or low it has an impact on individual`s autonomy as persons and learners, and the impact reaches to the way this notion is understood and enacted.

a. Teachers:

Teachers are no different than their students in having personal and educational beliefs about what is meant by learner autonomy. As it was mentioned before, unless students` and their teachers beliefs match, promoting LA will remain a far aim to reach. Although that learners` view of the notion learner autonomy makes an integral part of this research, teachers` view is also worth of consideration. Having mentioned what is meant by teachers` beliefs and their practices, it is high time to discuss the factors that affect how teachers understand the notion learner autonomy, these factors may appear to lay behind what teachers` believe in regard LA and the practices they do consciously or unconsciously to promote for this notion.

Teachers` life experiences have a great influence on how they perceive the notion learner autonomy. These experiences vary from them being learners till the beginning of their teaching career. In Szőcs (2017) it was mentioned that "Teachers' attitudes towards autonomy seem to be strongly connected to their own experiences as language learners and influenced their practices concerning autonomy support" (p. 142). Having different reactions about learner autonomy appreciation and implementation entails that there could be different perceptions and understandings of this notion, these understandings seem to be primarily formed by teachers` own experiences. It would not sound strange if one says that a teacher who practiced learner autonomy as a learner would not have a difficulty preaching for LA. However, the type or the variety of autonomy he/she was accustomed to during his/her days of learning might be different from what 21st century students understanding of what freedom in learning is. This raises the problem between the old generation of teachers which sometimes have different views and pedagogical orientations comparing to novice teachers who might lack experience but seems to know more about 21st century students. The differences between old generation of teachers and novice teachers are always treated with what is called professional development. However, when relating professional development to this research it is considered as one of the factors that shape both generations of teachers` understanding of what is meant by learner autonomy (Borg, 2015). Although that professional development classes are specialised training classes but having them not contextualised may lead to preaching to a variety of learner autonomy that is different than what students already possess and currently practicing. In Vieira, Barbosa, Paiva, and Fernandes (2008) about professional development it is mentioned that "to articulate teacher and learner development into a common framework towards an ideal view of education as liberation and empowerment is meant to be transformative rather than reproductive" (p. 210) for this reason. Unless professional development is contextualised to fit within the beliefs and support the practices of students. It will be regarded as overwriting ideas and practices upon the ones of students which are considered genuine.

Teachers understanding of a phenomenon which is what they know, think of and believe in can be referred to the unobservable *teacher cognition* in Borg` work (2003). Borg attempted to unravel the complexities between teachers` cognition and classroom practices, he concluded that they work in an interactive way. Although,

Borg (2003) does not specify what parts of teacher cognition he talks about, his work is positive to be adopted in the research in hands in a derivative and referral way. In other words, teachers` understanding of learner autonomy can be one aspect of what Borg (2003) discussed in his talk about teacher cognition. In this line of thoughts one can say that teachers` understanding of the notion LA can also be affected by their classroom practices and vice versa. This would inform my research to explore how and in what ways Algerian EFL teachers' practices shape their understanding. Both Borg (2003) and Wang (2016) explore the wider educational contextual factor and how it influences teachers` cognition. Therefore, the educational environment of teachers seems worthy of exploring before any attempt to generate a contextualised understanding of the notion LA.

4. Learner autonomy in LMD Higher Education system

LMD is an educational system of tertiary level that was designed and initiated by a group of European countries in a series of meetings called *Bologna process.* It primarily aims to standardise the European educational system at the level of university, to facilitate students` mobility and improve higher education quality. LMD system was designed to offer students a flexible programme of studying, help them assume more autonomy in their educational and vocational life (Hanifi, 2018), grant them facilities and tool to create chances for mobility within institutions, across the country or internationally. This educational system is characterised by its endorsement of learner autonomy as one of its main pedagogical objectives. In fact, the term autonomy and LMD system meet at various levels that it is almost impossible to talk about the LMD system without to mention autonomy.

Algeria as a Mediterranean country that shares many diplomatic and economic activities with European countries, it aimed to establish further relations with leading powers in the world in the sector of higher education. For the country to meet the new changes that globalisation imposed on the world, LMD as a new higher education reform was implemented in Algerian higher education institutions. The reform was put into practice as a pilot process during the academic year 2004 - 2005 before being generalised at the national level in the following years. The system, its structure and organisation stress the importance of the notion learner autonomy, it is read in the LMD guide (2011) that learner autonomy should be encouraged, and adequate success conditions should be provided for the learners to assume more responsibility in their learning. Despite of how idealistic the LMD system might look, its adoption has faced some heavy criticism about its efficiency and appropriateness to the Algerian context which at that time was known to be greatly accustomed with teacher-centred approaches. Moreover, investigations about whether LMD system is really promoting or LA or not started to raise. For instance, Idri (2012) argued that regardless of the LMD`s firm structure which seems to support autonomy in every possible aspect, there is little evidence that it promotes for autonomous learning.
After over a decade of the implementation of the LMD system, and through reviewing academic articles about LMD system one can notice a significant change in views to be less pessimistic about the reform`s inappropriateness and effectiveness. However, the discourse about EFL learner autonomy has always and still contain doubts about whether or not LMD is really promoting for students` responsibility and freedom in learning. The research between hands investigates the contradictory situation with a strong idea in mind which is that as long as there are EFL learners managing to successfully complete their studies in a LA demanding HE system, there must be

autonomy in learning somewhere. And just because autonomy is not spotted by academic research which are most of the time using non-contextualised tools, it does not mean that LA is not there.

Research questions

1. What beliefs and practices do Algerian EFL students and teachers attribute to autonomous learning?
2. How and what factors shape Algerian EFL students` understandings and practices of learner autonomy?
3. What does LA mean to EFL students and teachers in Algerian HE context?

Methodological design

A bottom-up approach is used to investigate the notion of learner autonomy in this study, for this reason the research is identified as a comparative mixed method case study. The mixed method approached used in the study entails using questionnaires and interviews.

Location

The research will be conducted in two different universities in Algeria. The first university (Ahmed zabana) is situated in to some extent a rural city (Relizane) and the department of English and staff there are relatively new. The second university (Mohamed Ben Ahmed University) is situated in a coastal are where it receives a growing number of foreign and local tourists each year. The department of English there is equipped with staff that include professors and doctors. Moreover, the sociocultural structure of the society where this university is situated is less conservative than many of the areas in Algeria. Concerning economy, the city of Oran is an economic power with an increasing number of local and foreign companies in all domains. On top of this equation, the Mohamed Ben Ahmed University receives more than twofold the number of students that the university of Relizane does. The two universities were purposefully chosen for the differences they have which will be investigated to highlight how “institutional, socio-cultural and socio-economic factors” can influence students understanding of the concept learner autonomy.

Sample

For questionnaires, the study aims to cover all first year EFL master's students (160), and EFL teachers within each university (35). While the number of students and teachers interviewees will be based on the suggestion of Guest, Bunce & Johnson (2006) when they state that "a sample of six interviews may [be] sufficient to enable development of meaningful themes and useful interpretations" (p.78). However, more interviews will take place till saturation occurs.

Procedures

First questionnaires will be administrated to first year masters EFL students and EFL teachers, the questionnaires will aim to uncover the beliefs and practices that both parties of this research have in relation to the notion of learner autonomy.

Questionnaires will also serve as a guideline for the qualitative research tool which is the interviews. This is in a sense that new factors that might have an effect on the notion of LA might emerge after the analysis of questionnaires, and this will be furthermore discussed in the semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires and interviews will be in English language however, translated copies of questionnaires and interviews questions can be provided. Student interviewees will be selected if they are identified as students of one of the universities where the research will be conducted. Resident of one of those cities and depending on their socio-economic status which one part of the questionnaire will help identifying.

Data Analysis

Data will be analysed consecutively using two different research methods. First, quantitative data will be dealt with. While relatively straightforward questions will be easy to calculate their proportion, open-ended questions will be reviewed, categorised then coded. After that those codes will be analysed statistically using Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) where a numerical value will be given to each answer in the questionnaires in order to calculate percentages and frequencies. Concerning the quantitative part of the research, the research favoured the thematic analysis by Baurn and Clarke (2008) which indicate that it is most suitable to seeks theorising the sociocultural contexts, and structural conditions of subjects in the study. the in this respect this type of data analysis seems to perfectly serve the objectives of the research that tackles learner autonomy with context-related issues.

Expected Outcomes

Although the work is still in its beginnings, there are some conclusions that can be drawn at this early stage. Reviewing the literature on learner autonomy and some research undertaken in Algerian context, one can tell that students in Algerian universities do not practice learner autonomy the same way it is described in learner autonomy models like the one of Nunan (1999) and Scharle and Szabo (2000). Nevertheless, students` success in the LMD system that is LA demanding HE system, is an indicator or certain practices that students do but haven't been given much attention in research about this notion in Algeria.

The research will be purposely conducted in two different universities situated in two different cities as indicated before. This is to highlight the sociocultural and socioeconomic impact if existed. However, in case data in both universities resemble or are not with significant difference, which probably be caused by globalization. the findings of the research would be compared to different contexts on a global level.

Finally, based on the literature reviewed, it is expected in this research that students would have more personal autonomy than the one practiced in learning at university, while teachers` understanding of learner autonomy is expected to be confined within the boundaries of academic learning.

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Foreign Language Anxiety in e-Tandem Learners: Is It Predictable?

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Abstract
Learning a foreign language (FL) is a challenging path, and speaking interaction with native speakers of the target language (TL) is perceived as a threatening event for many students. Nevertheless, the use of telecollaborative practices, such as e-Tandem, is considered to have an anxiety-reducing effect on learners over time (Appel & Gilabert, 2002). The present study investigates foreign language anxiety (FLA) in the context of e-Tandem language learning. The aim of our research is to understand to what extent e-Tandem learners' innate tendency to experience FLA (*trait anxiety*; Spielberger, 1972) is related to the FLA they experience while completing speaking activities in pairs. The sample of the study is composed by 50 students (26 native speakers of English; 24 native speakers of Spanish) enrolled in a free and open online conversation course based on e-Tandem language learning tasks. Once the course starts, the subjects complete a demographic questionnaire and a questionnaire based on 23 items extracted from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS; Horwitz et al., 1986). Then, after each speaking task, they self-rate their FLA using an adapted version of the Anxometer (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). By conducting an exploratory statistical analysis, we expect to identify the relationship between the FLCAS scores of the learners of our sample and their FLA while participating in online speaking tasks in pairs, taking into account their age and gender. Our results will provide the Language Learning Community with more information on this emotion in e-Tandem learners.

Keywords: Foreign language anxiety, foreign language learning, online learning, e-tandem.

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Introduction

In the context of foreign language learning (FLL), the use of technology is growing day by day. Since the last two decades, educators and researchers have shown an increasing interest in looking for alternatives to traditional textbooks (Godwin-Jones, 2016) in order to foster learners' foreign language (FL) skills.

One of the advantages that the implementation of technology in language education brings to FL learners is the possibility to meet with native speakers of the target language (TL) they are studying, despite being physically distant. For this reason, telecollaborative projects foster FL learners' interest in learning others' language and culture (O'Dowd, 2011).

In the present research, we focus on the study of one specific type of telecollaborative practice: e-Tandem language learning, and the foreign language anxiety (FLA; Horwitz et al., 1986) that some learners experience while taking part of it. FLA is a debilitating emotion that, to date, has been little researched in online learning environments (Bollinger & Wendt, 2016). Thus, the purpose of this study is to find out new insights into the topic of e-Tandem language learning and FLA, by observing to what extent e-Tandem learners' FLA is predictable, and which is the relationship between learners' age and gender and the FLA they experience in e-Tandem language learning environments.

e-Tandem language learning and FLA

e-Tandem is a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) practice in which two students who have a different native language (NL) want to learn each other's language, so interaction is produced 50% in one language and 50% in the other language. This practice is carried out following two principles (Brammerts, 2003): the *Principle of Reciprocity*, for which two speaking partners "bring certain skills and abilities which the other partner seeks to acquire and in which both partners support each other in their learning" (2003: 29), and the *Principle of Autonomy*, for which students are responsible of their learning.

While in traditional classroom environments it might be difficult for students to carry out peer-to-peer speaking activities because they might end up using their common NL or lingua franca (Appel, 2012), e-Tandem allows learners to practice their FL speaking skills, having real life conversations with native speakers of their TL. This practice offers, indeed, stimulating opportunities for students to practice their FL skills (Fernández-Quesada, 2015) and it has been considered a confidence-increasing practice over time (Appel & Gilabert, 2002). However, e-Tandem is also perceived as an anxiety-triggering practice by some learners (e.g., Appel & Gilabert, 2002; El-Hariri, 2016; Martin & Álvarez Valdivia, 2017).

In fact, FLA is a debilitating emotion related, most of all, to the oral aspects of the FL use (Horwitz, 2001). This emotion has negative academic effects (e.g., poor academic achievement and lowered grades); negative cognitive effects (e.g., difficulties to process the language inputs), and negative social effects (e.g., lack of willingness to communicate in the FL) on language learners (MacIntyre, 2017).

Research findings showing the negative effects of FLA on learners' learning processes are consistent (Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011), but there are still many controversies regarding the characteristics of anxious FL learners. For instance, when considering two main learner biographical variables, age and gender, previous research shows that age is negatively related to FLA (i.e., older students tend to experience less FLA than the younger ones) (Dewaele, 2013), and females tend to experience more FLA than men (e.g., Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Park & French, 2013). Nevertheless, in both cases, scholars claim that further research should be carried out in order to achieve more consistent results.

Finally, regarding the research instruments that have been developed to assess learners' FLA, it is worth highlighting the relevance of the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS; Horwitz et al., 1986), a widely used and validated scale (Dewaele, 2013). As Gregersen et al. (2014) suggest, this scale is useful as a starting point to assess learners' tendency to experience FLA. Since, to our knowledge, few scholars have focused on the study of FLA in e-Tandem language learning contexts (e.g., El-Hariri, 2016; Fondo & Erdocia, 2018), the adequacy of the applicability of the FLCAS in this type of online learning environment is still uncertain.

Research Questions

The research questions (RQs) that the present study addresses are:

RQ1: Do learners' age and gender have an influence on the FLA they experience while participating in e-Tandem language learning activities in pairs?

RQ2: To what extent e-Tandem learners' scores in the FLCAS are related to the FLA they experience while participating in e-Tandem language learning activities in pairs?

Methodology

Research context

The research context of the study is a free and open online speaking course called *TandemMOOC18*. The course had a duration of six weeks and consisted of a series of task-based speaking activities that students completed via videoconference in pairs. The course was addressed to NSs of English and NSs of Spanish who were FL learners of Spanish and FL learners of English respectively. Thus, activities were designed to be carried out 50% in English and 50% in Spanish, following the *Principle of Reciprocity* of e-Tandem language learning (Brammerts, 2003).

All participants were assigned one speaking partner randomly by an automatic system, which was integrated in the course. Dyads were established taking into account learners' NL and their time availability to complete the activities. All participants had, at least, an *Intermediate* level of FL, which was the minimum level of proficiency required to participate in the course.

Participants

The sample of the study was composed of 50 volunteer participants: 26 NSs of English and 24 NSs of Spanish. Female students predominated in the entire sample and in both subsamples (learners of English and learners of Spanish), as shown in the table below:

Table 1. Classification of participants according to their NL and gender.

	Males	Females
Learners of English (N=26)	9	17
Learners of Spanish (N=24)	8	16
Total participants (N= 50)	17	33

The majority of the English learners resided in Spain (25), while one English learner resided in Colombia. On the contrary, the countries of residence of the Spanish learners were more varied: Ireland was leading the list (9), followed by the USA (8), the UK (5), Denmark (1) and Hungary (1).

When taking into account the age of the participants of the sample, it is worth mentioning that the majority of the participants were between 40 and 59 years old, as shown in Table 2. The average age of the overall sample was 43.

Table 2. Classification of participants according to their age and language learnt.

	18 – 29 years old	30 – 39 years old	40 – 49 years old	50 – 59 years old	60 – 69 years old
Learners of English (N=26)	6	6	7	5	2
Learners of Spanish (N=24)	3	3	6	8	4
Total participants (N=50)	9	9	13	13	6

Research instruments and procedure

First, the 50 volunteer participants enrolled in *TandemMOOC18* were asked to complete a socio-demographic questionnaire and a short version of the FLCAS (Park, 2014), which were both available within the course site.

Second, they started to complete several speaking tasks in pairs. The total number of fulfilled tasks during the six-week course changed notably from one participant to another. In fact, participants were required to complete, at least, three speaking tasks, but there was not established a maximum number of tasks to be carried out.

All tasks followed a similar design and had the same level of difficulty, in order to avoid biases. Each time participants completed one task, an adapted version of the Anxometer (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991) automatically popped-up, so they could rate, in an 11-point Likert scale, the FLA they experienced while doing that task.

Finally, once the course was over, an exploratory statistical analysis was conducted using *R,* in order to answer our RQs.

Figure 1. Adapted version of the Anxometer created for this study (-5 *Very comfortable*; 5 *Very nervous*).

Results

RQ1: Do learners' age and gender have an influence on the FLA they experience while participating in e-Tandem language learning activities in pairs?

In the first place, before participants took part of the speaking activities, we classified them as low anxiety or high anxiety participants, according to their scores in the FLCAS. As a starting point, we observed the relationship between this classification and their age.

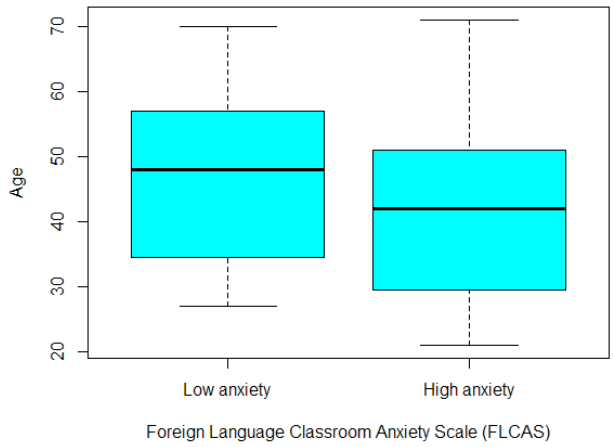

Figure 2. Box plot of participants' classification (FLCAS scores) and age.

As shown in the figure above, the median age of the low anxiety participants was slightly higher than the median age of the high anxiety participants. Also, most of the low anxiety participants were generally older than the high anxiety participants.

In the second place, we observed the relationship between participants' age and their Anxometer average values, which reflected the level of anxiety that they felt while completing the speaking tasks of the course. In this case, we found no significant correlation between the independent variable (age) and the Anoxmeter average values, as shown in the dispersion graphic:

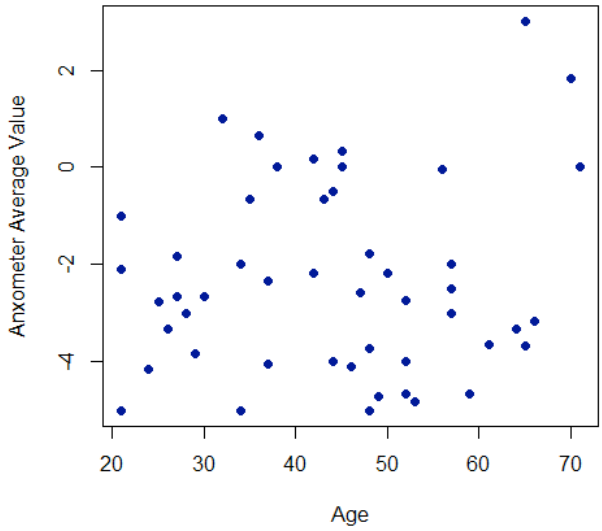

Figure 3. Dispersion graphic of participants' age and Anxometer average values.

In the third place, in order to understand the relationship between participants' gender and FLA, we observed, previously, participants' classification according to their FLCAS scores and gender. As reflected in the table below, high anxiety participants were predominant in the total sample, and in both subsamples (males and females).

Table 3. Classification of participants according to their FLCAS scores and gender.

	Low anxiety	High anxiety	Total
Males	16%	24%	40%
Females	22%	38%	60%
Total	38%	62%	100%

Finally, we explored the correlation between participants' gender and their Anxometer average values. We observed that the median of females' Anxometer values was slightly higher than the median of males' Anxometer values. However, males' Anxometer average values were more dispersed than females' Anxometer average values. Also, the higher Anxometer values appeared in the group of males, who showed a tendency to experience more FLA than females.

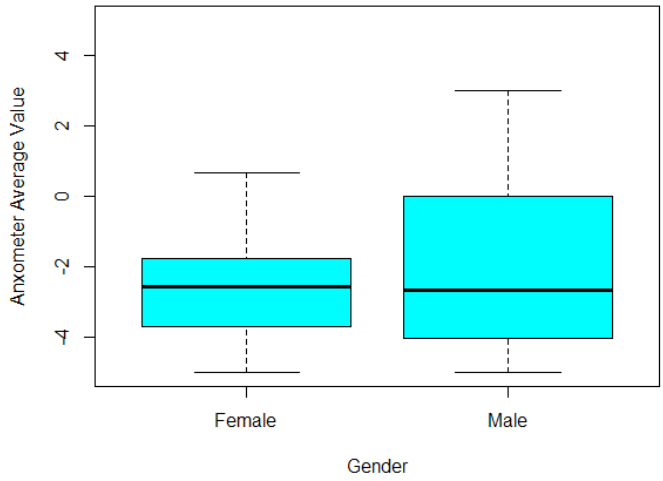

Figure 3. Box plot of participants' gender and Anxometer average values.

RQ2: To what extent e-Tandem learners' scores in the FLCAS are related to the FLA they experience while participating in e-Tandem language learning activities in pairs?

In this case, we studied the correlation between participants' FLCAS scores and their Anxometer average values. Results showed that the median of the Anxometer average values of both groups -high anxiety participants and low anxiety participants- were very similar. However, the Anxometer average values were more dispersed in the group of high anxiety participants.

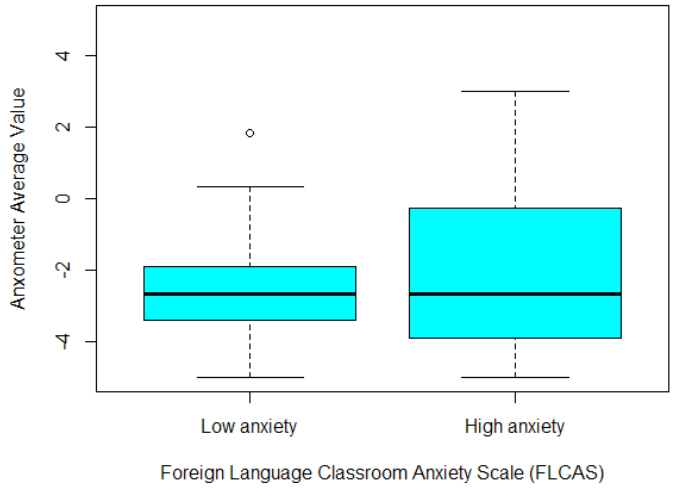

Figure 4. Box plot of participants' classification (FLCAS) and Anxometer values.

As the figure above shows, the Anxometer average values of most high anxiety participants were comprised between 0 and -4 (being -5 *very comfortable*; + 5 *very nervous*), while the Anxometer average values of most of the low anxiety participants were comprised between -2 and -4. Also, it is worth highlighting that the group of

high anxiety participants counted with higher Anxometer average values than the group of low anxiety participants.

Conclusions

Despite having been widely studied in traditional language learning environments, FLA is still an unexplored emotion in online language learning contexts such as e-Tandem. Within the findings of the present study, we expect to provide the FL education community with new insights into this topic.

In the first place, we found no significant correlation between participants' age and the FLA they experienced while taking part of e-Tandem activities. However, when we assessed, beforehand, their tendency to experience FLA (measured by the FLCAS), we noticed that older participants, in general, scored lower than younger participants. Thus, older participants were expected to be less prone to experience FLA while participating in e-tandem activities, as previous literature claims (e.g., Dewaele, 2013). However, this tendency was not shown during the *TandemMOOC18* course.

In the second place, we observed that both males and females presented a similar median of FLA while taking part of e-tandem activities. Nevertheless, males' values of FLA were more dispersed than those obtained by female participants, pointing to a tendency of males to experience higher levels of FLA in e-Tandem contexts than females. These results are contrary to the findings of previous studies conducted in traditional learning environments (e.g., Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Park & French, 2013).

Finally, we found no significant correlation between learners' classification as high anxiety participants or low anxiety participants (measured by the FLCAS) and the FLA they experienced during the e-Tandem activities. Nevertheless, the values of FLA while taking part of the e-Tandem activities were more dispersed for the high anxiety participants than for the low anxiety participants. These results point to a tendency of high anxiety participants to experience more FLA than low anxiety participants in e-Tandem learning environments, so we believe that further research with a bigger sample will lead to interesting results.

Indeed, predicting e-Tandem learners' FLA might be a utopian idea. However, identifying the main characteristics and traits of anxious learners in online language learning environments is a more reachable goal. By knowing which students are more prone to experience FLA in online learning environments, teachers and educators could adapt these learning contexts to the most anxious learners, facilitating their language learning process. Hereby, more research is needed to achieve conclusive findings on this topic.

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Introducing Gamification to Increase Student Motivation and Engagement

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Abstract
Gamification is a term that has been used in education recently. According to Kapp (2014a), gamification involves applying game design elements to a nongame context to increase student engagement and learning. Students in a university Intensive English Program often find the transition from school to university challenging. To encourage students to "demonstrate behavior and attitudes appropriate to a university environment", which is one of the course goals, elements of gamification were introduced to motivate a group of 30 students to participate actively in class, submit assignments on time, work together collaboratively, and work independently to strengthen their skills. Students were awarded "experience points" (XP) for demonstrating these behaviors. Opportunities to gain additional XP for both individual and group challenges were made available and students could claim points for doing extra work using a Google Form. The points were added up using an Excel sheet and the leaderboard was updated every week as a motivator and to encourage competition. When students accumulated a certain number of points, they moved to a higher level and received a virtual badge. Achieving specific levels resulted in an individual or class-wide reward. A self-evaluation survey was administered to the students at the end of the course to assess the effect of the game structure on their motivation and performance. The results were positive, showing that the students enjoyed the gamification aspect of the course and felt motivated to complete the course requirements and do extra work.

Keywords: gamification, motivation, university students, language learning

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Introduction

In the Intensive English Program (IEP) of The American University in Cairo, students attend five hours of class per day and are expected to do daily assignments. The final exams are heavily weighted, and students need to work hard throughout the semester in order to perform well on the exams. The program has high expectations, and students are expected to meet several learning outcomes including "demonstrating behavior and attitudes appropriate to a university environment" by being on time, being prepared for class, adhering to deadlines, participating in class discussions, being independent, and taking responsibility for their own learning.

For many students, the transition from school to university is quite challenging, and they often have difficulty living up to the expectations. The IEP is very demanding, and some students lose motivation half way through the semester and stop working hard, and this can affect their performance on the final exams. The purpose of this study is to increase student motivation through gamification to encourage students to continue to exert effort throughout the semester.

An introduction to gamification in education

Gamification was introduced in an attempt to keep the students motivated throughout the semester so that they perform their best on the end-of-semester exams. Much like online games such as Kahoot!, gamification of a course includes specific elements intended to motivate students, such as using code names, receiving frequent feedback, monitoring progress on a leaderboard, and earning awards.

Gamification is widely used in different contexts. For example, online games award points or stars for completing a round or achieving a certain level; fitness trackers award badges for taking a certain number of steps per day; shops award loyalty points to be spent in store to encourage shoppers to buy more from the shop or chain, etc.

More recently, gamification was introduced in education and has become popular as a way to motivate students. According to Kapp (2014a), in gamifying education, in order to increase student engagement, elements of game design are applied to an educational context, and the structure of the course is modified. However, the content remains unchanged. Gamification can be applied to a whole course or to a specific component of a course. According to Kapp (2014b), the gamification of learning should include the following elements:

- Goal: students strive to gain "experience points" (XP) for demonstrating the required behaviors. XP are different from grades and do not affect the student's final placement. Students are often very interested in grades, and part of the incentive to introduce gamification is to divert the students' attention away from grades and to engage them in earning XP, which helps the students monitor their own progress through the gamified component of the course.
- Competition: students compete against each other to earn the most points.
- Cooperation: group challenges are also included to encourage students to cooperate to complete the task.
- Rules: the game rules should be predictable and clear as this empowers students by giving them control and allowing them to gain more points.

- Objectives: the activity should address the learning outcomes that the students are required to achieve.
- Feedback: students receive regular and timely feedback as this increases motivation.
- Failure: students should become comfortable with the idea of failure as the road to success always includes some failures, and students can keep trying until they achieve their goal.
- Achievements: students can earn points for two types of achievements: "measurement achievements" if they perform at a high level, and "completion achievements" simply for completing the task, regardless of how well they do.
- Levels: when students earn a specified number of XP, they move to the next level in the gamification experience.
- Badges: students earn badges for achieving a certain level, completing a series of assignments, demonstrating a specific behavior, showing mastery of specific information, etc.
- Leaderboard: XP are plotted on a leaderboard to show the total points earned and the rank of each student in relation to the rest of the class. Code names are used to ensure the anonymity of the students.

The gamification model implemented in the study

Students in the IEP at the American University in Cairo should "demonstrate behavior and attitudes appropriate to a university environment". In addition, to perform well on the final exams, students are strongly encouraged to do extra work outside of class to strengthen their language skills. The current study, therefore, introduced gamification to achieve two main goals: the first was to give students an incentive to be on time, be prepared, check the class site regularly, participate appropriately in class, and submit assignments on time; the second was to encourage students to do extra work and out-of-class activities in order to strengthen their skills.

This study involved thirty intermediate-level students of English who attended class for one hour per day, four days a week, for one fourteen-week semester. Opportunities to gain XP for both individual and group challenges were made available to the students as follows:
- Daily XP: students earned 10 XP every day for coming to class on time and being prepared.
- Homework XP: points were awarded for completing assignments on time.
- In class XP: active class participation and engagement also earned students XP.
- Bonus XP in response to challenges: the teacher offered bonus XP to increase student motivation to demonstrate specific required behaviors, such as responding to questions posted by the teacher on the class site, participating in class discussions, bringing the textbook to class every day for a week, etc. Group challenges were also introduced where all students in a group or class received bonus XP if all students in that group completed an assignment.
- Bonus XP for completing extra work: the teacher provided a list of possible tasks for the students to do at home to strengthen their skills, and each task was assigned a corresponding number of XP for students to earn upon completion. For example, if a student listened to and took notes on a TED talk, 10 XP would be awarded; completing an online listening activity would award the student 3 XP, etc.

Students claimed their XP using a Google Form where they submitted notes or a screenshot as evidence of the completed task and requested the corresponding number of XP.

The XP were added up using an Excel sheet, which generated a graph that served as the leaderboard. The leaderboard was updated every week as a motivator and to encourage competition. Students could see their total score and their rank in relation to their classmates, and they knew what to do to earn more XP. Their identity remained anonymous by using code names of their choice. As students earned more points, they reached different levels, and earned badges for each level. For example, when a student earned 300 XP, the student reached level 1 and was awarded the Amateur Badge. At 600 XP, students reached level 3 and earned the Semi-pro badge, and were presented with a certificate of achievement. When all the class reached level 3, the class was rewarded by having a lesson outside the classroom, for example visiting an art exhibition and having the students select a painting to write a reflection on, or having a class discussion in the garden. As students progressed through the six levels, it became more challenging to achieve the next level, which is typical of most games. The teacher also awarded badges to reward specific behaviors. The points and badges were awarded virtually by posting them at the end of each week on each student's Level Chart Google Doc, and this allowed students to keep track of their progress.

Results of student feedback

A student self-evaluation survey was administered at the end of the semester to assess the effect of the game structure on the students' motivation and performance. Students responded to each question on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The students' feedback was very positive, with most responses in the Strongly Agree and Agree categories. Very few responses were in the Uncertain category, and no responses were in the Disagree or Strongly Disagree categories. See table 1 for the questions and distribution of responses across the three categories that were selected. The survey was completed by 30 respondents.

Table 1: Survey questions and distribution of responses

Question	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain
I was motivated to follow instructions carefully.	14	15	1
I was motivated to submit my assignments on time.	13	12	5
I made an effort to be prepared for class.	15	14	1
I was motivated to work collaboratively with my classmates.	11	15	4
I have learnt skills that will help me succeed in my freshman year courses.	13	16	1
Seeing my progress on the class leaderboard was motivating for me to do better.	14	14	2

The two questions where a few students selected the Uncertain category were submitting assignments on time and working collaboratively with classmates. Some

students continued to struggle with time management, and a few students preferred to work individually and resisted group work.

Students were also given the opportunity to write comments. In response to a question about the things the students liked most about the reward system, they mentioned increased motivation to do their best, knowing their level, the bonus points, and the opportunity to target new levels. Regarding the things that students thought should be improved about the reward system, they mentioned that they wanted more frequent rewards that are easier to achieve, and an easier method of claiming the bonus XP.

Implications for the future

Based on the results of the student feedback survey, there are two points to work on in the future to make this game structure more effective. The first is to offer more frequent rewards. As mentioned earlier, the first levels were easier to achieve than the more advanced levels, and some students took several weeks to move from one level to the next in the second half of the semester. More rewards could be made available to the students, and a wider variety of rewards could be used. For example, students could earn privileges, in addition to XP and badges. These could include the chance to choose the topic for the next debate, the chance to choose a partner for an activity, etc.

In order to address the students' second recommendation of an easier method of claiming the bonus XP, more class time can be invested early in the semester to provide technology training to ensure students know how to take a screenshot of their work and send the link to the teacher via the online form. While this was manageable for most students, some did struggle with the technological skills required for this.

In reflection, the group challenges and class-wide achievements that required students to work together were received very positively by the students, and including more group challenges will allow students to develop their team work skills and help each other to achieve the goal.

Conclusion

The results of the survey indicate that the students enjoyed the gamification aspect of the course. They reported that they felt more motivated to complete the course requirements, and many students did extra work in order to earn the bonus XP.

Since student motivation is often a challenge in the IEP, these findings are very positive as they indicate that introducing a simple game structure can have a positive effect. In addition, extra practice is very beneficial when learning a language and developing language skills, and this game structure motivated students to do extra work, which indirectly should contribute to increased success rates. Although this was not formally measured in this study, there appeared to be a correlation between the total number of XP earned and the scores on the final exams. This shows that the students who did the most work in and out of class tended to score higher on the final exams. Future research could be done to measure this correlation in a more formal way.

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Increasing Student Independence and Interdependence in Multidisciplinary Language Courses

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Abstract
In this account of our teaching practices we will focus on the independence and interdependence among students and teachers in multi-disciplinary courses, *Business French* and *Translation*. We will argue that the success of our interdisciplinary practices is consistent with major tendencies in university education – increasing learner autonomy and growing interdependence between language studies and other disciplines. On the one hand, language studies cannot remain a stand-alone discipline but need to be adapted to the fields of students' specialization; on the other hand, business studies can be enriched with content-based language courses even immediately after an intensive beginner's course encouraging independent learning.
We will present our best practices, including inversed-classroom and use of on-line materials and tools like Google Translate. We will share our methods of using technology and linguistically- and culturally-informed explanations of language phenomena for the further refinement of language skills: class time can be used for more sophisticated interactions when technology can help with drills and independent preparation. Finally, based on comments in student evaluations, we will offer the hypothesis that in a globalized world offering ever-better translation devices to a continually-growing international student body, it may be possible to offer specialized language courses geared to other programmes of study earlier than was previously considered plausible.

Keywords: multidisciplinary and specialized language courses, linguistic and cultural knowledge, on-line resources and translation tools

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Introduction

In recent years we have been using more and more on-line resources and electronic translation tools in our specialized language and multi-disciplinary courses, which deal respectively with *Business French* and *Translation*. Since the results of this practice involve both learners' independence and all sorts of interdependencies, we would like to describe how these resources contribute to our students' autonomy and how the dynamics of interaction among students as well as between students and teachers have evolved during these years.

Our original aim was simple: integrate the use of translation devices into our courses and teach students to use them independently and effectively. We did this, finding that it changed our teaching practices drastically, and according to student evaluations, for the better. This outcome and the the study of trends in publications on didactics (by Lightbrown, van Lier, Lester & Carol, Gearon et al.) and on translation (by Hatim and Pim) led us to believe our findings might be presented as an empirical case of experimental didactics[1]. We believe it is important to continue sharing our observations and best practices because they may have bearing on the teaching of language courses generally. We hope our findings based on the results of 120 students in *Business French* and 350 in translation over a five-year period may prompt professors to create more specialized, content-based, professionalized language courses. In this contribution we will illustrate how electronically-based resources can increase student independence and interdependence among undergraduate participants in the teaching process, using examples from both *Business French* and practical translation courses.

1. Increasing interdependence

1.1. Student – teacher interdependence

It is fair to say that since teaching without a textbook became possible thanks to the abundance of on-line resources available, interdependence within the student-teacher relationship, traditionally weighted in favour of the instructor's needs, has shifted to better reflect student needs. In previous years textbooks dictated the choice and order of topics to study and both professors and students depended on the textbook author's preferences and ideas. Since an ideal textbook could never be found, we tried to adjust content by skipping or rearranging some chapters but that always led to shortcomings due to disruption of the order projected by the author. Now, using on-line materials, we can easily adjust our course content to the needs of each class. This is a valuable feature given the reality of our new environment: a constantly changing international student community where we never know what exactly to expect. The sole constant characteristic of our classes is a high degree of diversity in students' native language, chosen university specialization, and level of foreign language preparation. Hence the first class is usually devoted to learning students'

[1] See Mittler, Sylvia & Sonina, Snejina, (2018). This article contains a description of the didactic background and our practices for using on -line resources and translation devices both for learning business vocabulary and for translating non-literary texts.

specializations and their expectations with regard to learning outcomes. Teaching materials are then chosen accordingly.

There are certainly some constant objectives for each course. For example, in *Business French* the outcome of the course is threefold: students learn a great deal about the world of business and finance, about cultural differences in French and English correspondence, and about specific linguistic patterns characteristic of business French. However, once we added to these goals a fourth dimension – the skill of using translation devices in the business context – we discovered that we could easier adjust the course material to students' specializations and even address the problem of different levels of proficiency in French. These different levels range from those of second-year students, who have completed only one year of university-level French, to those of francophone students aiming to familiarize themselves with the world of business.

Adjusting teaching materials for us means adjusting them to the proficiency level of the majority. Most often we have second- and third-year students among whom there are only a few francophones, so we choose quite simple videos with clear pronunciation and slow tempo for our *Business French* course, which is taught as an inversed classroom. Students can watch them at home as often as needed, and this alone is more helpful for levelling proficiency among them than the traditional scenario where the entire class heard a teacher's explanations only once. If they desire, francophone students are given some extra materials for special presentations. Sometimes (especially in the summer semester) we have a very strong class with only a couple of second year students. In this case we add some more advanced video materials but give stronger students a task formulated to help the weaker student(s) in their group.

The inversed classroom in *Business French* presupposes viewing the prescribed videos at home and preparing a group presentation based on them. For this activity students are advised to use on-line translation devices like Google Translate, which we discovered acted as a further powerful levelling tool: even second year students can be creative with the help of translation tools, but it takes more effort for them to master their electronically-translated text for presentation. We will return to this aspect in a later section concerning student independence. Here we need to mention that the role of the teacher consists in choosing the right level of difficulty for on-line materials to be used, in providing a brief introduction accompanied by core vocabulary for each new topic, in warning about difficulties, in particular About what in French are called "false friends", and in giving feedback after student presentations.

In *Business French* the best practice for providing feedback proved to be one consisting of the following steps: take notes during the presentations; sort problems according to type – pronunciation, register, meaning – while taking notes (simply write on different pieces of paper); after all presentations are over point out problematic issues and clarify difficult concepts; recommend some more video materials for review and clarification if necessary. It seems best to correct mistakes after all the presentations because one thus avoids identifying this or that student; it also gives the teacher an opportunity to summarize difficulties and to wrap up the topic. The exception here would be correcting a mispronounced term immediately in

order to avoid repetition of the mistake. However, to make the correction less direct, we ask the entire class to repeat the word together.

Student-teacher interdependence works much the same way in our translation classes, which begin in the second year, focus on instructor-chosen non-literary texts such as newspaper and magazine articles, and normally prioritize translation from English to French. Here again the teacher's role, particularly at the introductory level, involves having the students understand and then practice basic concepts such as the overall supremacy of faithfulness to meaning, the importance of clarity and precision and the awareness of different registers available to the translator. This is done in a classroom where each class member sits behind a computer screen and contributions are elicited sometimes from the entire group, sometimes from smaller sub-groups working on particular sections of text. All can offer suggestions as the group slowly constructs a sentence. Students soon learn there is no single perfect translation, only variations dependent on the translator's skill, ethics, and cultural sensitivity. Finding adequate textual solutions to the problems associated with these three aspects invariably stimulates them to develop a sense of translation as an exercise in strategic thinking. As they learn to focus on meaning before form, they only need the teacher to illustrate to them once or twice how to identify syntactic clusters and various difficult elements before attempting translation. The same "strategic" method lies behind choosing non-ambiguous words over polysemic ones, avoiding needless repetition, or at the most basic level, using logic to interrogate the meaning of words or phrases. It is always surprising for us in the first weeks of our introductory course to see how few students actually think about the words they use; happily this situation tends to improve as they gain more experience and continue with higher-level translation classes.

Axiomatic for translation is the use of on-line translation aids, including Google Translate, grammar correctors, dictionaries like Linguee and terminology banks like Termium. In translation as in *Business French*, second-year students must expend more effort to produce a competent translation based on their use since there is usually more to look up. Working within a sub-group however, "weaker" students can acquire helpful tips from more advanced peers, although the bulk of correction invariably falls to the teacher during whole-class sessions where suggestions are offered and a translation is group-built. In this interactive space it is the teacher's job to comment on appropriateness in a given context, further develop a suggestion by giving examples of what to use in other contexts, offer synonyms, or perhaps advance one of several alternative translations in order to stimulate further reflection. Great care is taken to create an atmosphere in which students can experience translation not as "right" or "wrong", but as a group defensive strategy game akin to some video games; the gamification element is important for freeing up creativity, minimizing stress and creating interactive enjoyment.

1.2. Interdependence between language studies and other disciplines

Given today's abundance of on-line materials, the issue of student choice of topics is built into our courses. This works well for the choice of translation texts, particularly at a more advanced level where students have future professional needs in mind. Texts chosen for translation can thus deal with anything – finance, public health, information technology, shrinking biodiversity, agribusiness, even plastics recycling. Theoretically, this approach could also be used in Business French, but in practice,

the course requires us to cover certain basic and important topics within a short semester in order to give students a solid knowledge of business French. That said, there we still manage to tailor our content to students' specializations.
Since *Business French* caters to students from a great range of departments, we have long practiced breaking students in it into groups according to their specialization or future profession. These groups then stay together throughout the semester to work on projects related to their field of study. Home projects have always worked well because students are able to use all the necessary resources. In the past, however, in-class activities were often slowed down by the lack of expertise in specialized terminology.

With the arrival of translation devices available on cell phones and tablets, the terminology problem is now easily solved, and in-class activities can be as successful as home-prepared projects. So now from the very first class, when the group and its imaginary enterprise are created according to students' specialization (see Fig. 1 and 2 below), till the last class, when the enterprise comes to an end, each group has a chance to study business topics through the stages and problems of their particular enterprise. In the process, they master business French applied to their own field of study.

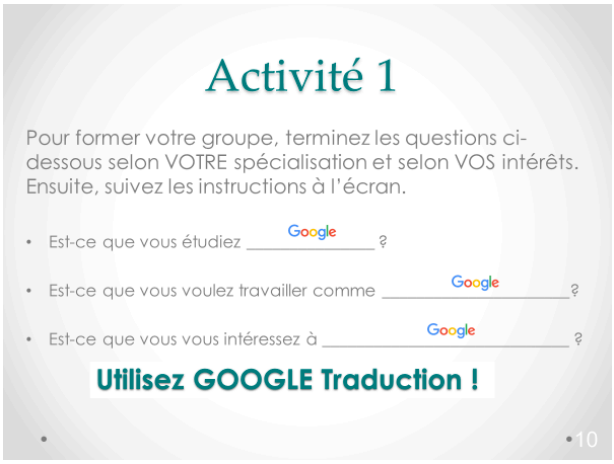

Figure1. First class activity – group creation

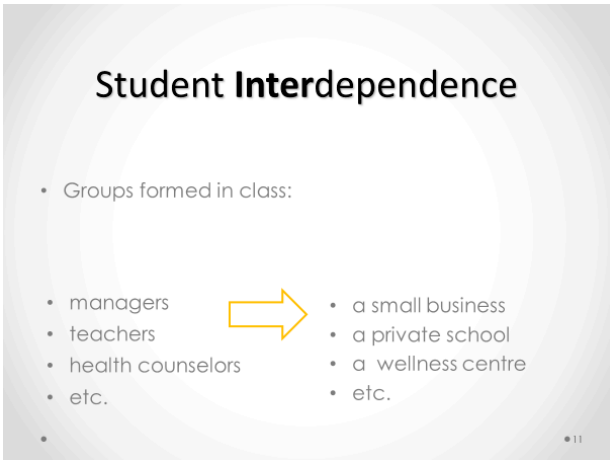

Figure 2. Group specializations and their enterprises

In our experience, students are always happy to bring their own expertise to class and to talk about things that they know better than others (including the teacher). This leads to a real exchange and, with the help of translation devices, to serious conversations. Within a small group, students find and discuss terms together so specialized terminology does not present a problem, but for presentations offered to a larger audience, students are asked to provide a specialized vocabulary sheet (or the list on the blackboard) for the rest of the class.

1.3. Interdependence among students

Starting from the very creation of the group and its corresponding enterprise in *Business French*, the group members work closely together. Every week they prepare a presentation on a new business topic and two or three times during the semester they work on a project – creating a commercial poster to launch their new product or hiring new specialists, which means evaluating their own CVs and cover letters and switching roles as they go from being job applicants to being hiring committee members and vice versa.

Some students' work is evaluated by a mark for the whole group under the condition that every member contribute equally to each presentation and project. This stipulation helps both weaker and stronger students to learn better: the weaker ones get the necessary training, but the stronger ones learn even better by teaching. Students enjoy helping each other and often form new friendships as a result of such close cooperation.

The group work provides a lot of fun when it comes to the discussion of cultural differences and attitudes that range from punctuality to dress and eating habits. Students are invited to share their experiences, opinions, and funny stories within the group and then bring their most salient findings to the general discussion. When each group presents its cumulative ideas on these topics, the class becomes a memorable lesson in business manners as well as in acceptance and tolerance of different cultural phenomena. Additionally every student in class gets involved and has a chance to contribute to the growth of cultural awareness among his/her peers.

In translation courses students work together on some home projects and have occasion to help each other in class too, leading to many of the same positive results. Interdependence fosters greater enjoyment. Cultural tolerance is underlined as students learn several times over that French and English have different ways of formulating ideas, ways which in turn reveal the presence of different cultural perspectives. Students' comments show that they enjoy such interactions greatly: *"a great way to learn ... because madame lets us help each other"*. (A comment from course evaluations, FREC18 *French Translation*, 2018)

2. Increasing student independence

As we mentioned in 1.1., on-line translation devices represent a powerful tool for levelling student language proficiency in specialized language courses: even second year students can succeed with the help of these devices, although compared to third- and fourth-year students it requires more effort for them to master their electronically

translated text for oral presentation. Nonetheless they too can fit into the big scheme of our *Business French* course, which is briefly presented in the following table:

Table 1. Course progress according to students' expertise

Course progress	Topics and activities	Examples of activities
First class	simple activities based on the following: - limited vocabulary - basic principles of business writing	- learn the main types of ventures - form their own imaginary venture - write a short business e-mail
Following classes	topics increasing in difficulty: enterprise organisation and development, employment, marketing, banking, transportation, insurance, stock market	for each topic: - group presentation - business letter sample
Last class	sophisticated tasks based on the following: - enlarged business vocabulary - awareness of business correspondence patterns and cultural differences	- discuss investment opportunities for the "gained millions" - write a detailed letter to investment advisors

As can be seen from the table, *Business French* progresses according to a vigorous alignment with the growth of students' expertise: from activities that require near-zero knowledge of business vocabulary and concepts to sophisticated tasks requiring the retention of almost everything learned in the course. Such alignment is supported by what is termed scaffolding[2] in an action-based approach. Let us see how scaffolding is complemented by on-line materials and translation tools in our practices.

In 1.2. we described forming students' groups according to their specialization, and in Fig. 1 we showed the possible use of Google Translate by students who may not know the French term for their field of study. Fig. 3 below illustrates how students' attention is drawn to the possibility of checking pronunciation as well via the same device: after a couple of students specialized in psychology have mispronounced the French word "psychologie", following the English model by leaving out the initial "p" sound, one can highlight the microphone pictogram in the top right hand corner of the translation window and suggest the constant use of it. In the very first class students thus learn that the soundtracks accompanying translations are extremely useful not only for those who are not sure about the correct French pronunciation but also for everyone who strives for better memorization by activating auditive memory.

[2] Scaffolding is "supporting the communicative efforts of another speaker, especially a language learner, by providing vocabulary or partial sentences that the speaker can 'build' on" (Lightbrown, 2014, 146)

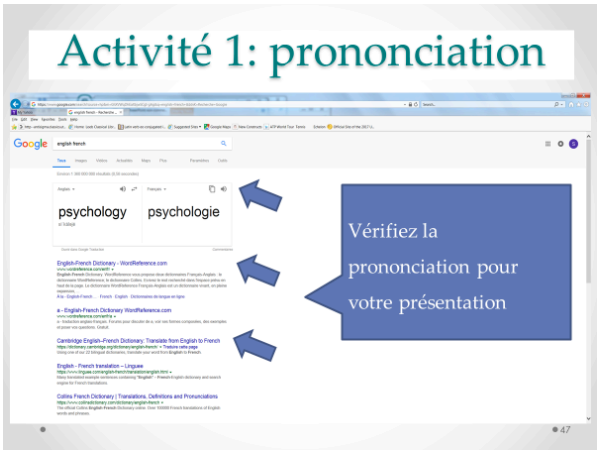

Figure 3. First class activity – pronunciation

Figure 4. Video materials useful for presentations

According to students, the soundtracks accompanying translations are excellent for preparation of in-class presentations, and especially so for students with low confidence. Even though struggling with the pronunciation of a particular French sound, some of these "weaker" students can progress considerably when given a hand from their "stronger" groupmates as well as individual consultations about articulation with the instructor. For a student to correct a pronunciation mistake once and for all it suffices to explain the articulation well, once, and have them pronounce a sound a few times correctly. After that the student can work on a difficult sound's pronunciation independently using the soundtracks of translation devices and on-line dictionaries.

The advised procedure for preparing weekly presentations is as follows: students watch the assigned materials independently and then meet with their classmates outside of the classroom to create a short narrative for their presentation. For example, for the class on Marketing based on the video materials shown on Fig.4, they often create several dialogues about prospective kinds of products and their possible advertising. The presentations do not need to be perfect (only participation counts for the mark) and mistakes are in fact welcome – they allow us to draw everybody's attention to possible pitfalls and constitute valuable learning experience. Still, the availability of translation devices and soundtracks helps to relieve the anxiety of those students who feel they need to put more effort into preparation, for they can practice

their part independently as much as they want. These students usually progress the most in the course.

Group tasks also benefit from greater student independence thanks to electronic translation devices. For example, in learning business correspondence, after the instructor provides a brief explanation of main concepts and distributes the handouts with thematically organized terminology and partial syntactic frames for business letters, the students can complement these frames with the terminology specific to their field of specialization and their business "venture". Such secondary scaffolding was missing in previous years: students had to ask the teacher's help for every missing vocabulary item and their creativity was thus often interrupted.

Figure 5. Business correspondence – syntactic frame

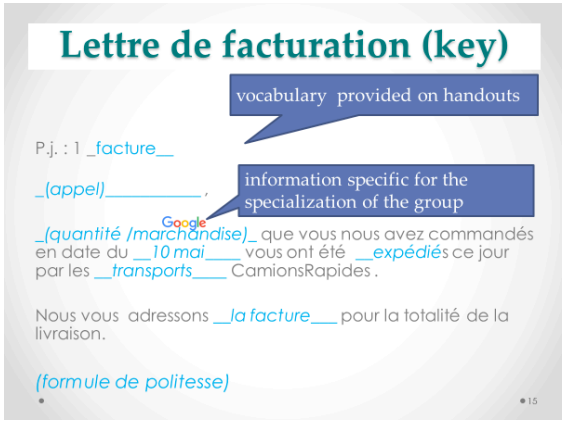

Figure 6. Business correspondence – scaffolding

Thus, in our content- and task-based *Business French* course, group presentations, projects, and business writing activities are now advantageously aligned with the growth of student expertise and allow for its independent improvement. Electronic translation tools complement teacher-supplied scaffolding by helping students at all levels build on the initial structures we provide. Already in 2007, van Lier considered autonomy a « defining feature » of scaffolding in the action-based approach. In both *Business French* and translation courses we have found that scaffolding helps to grow learner autonomy even further when it is combined with the use of electronic translation tools. For example, translation students are taught to use a self-directed three-part process when at work on the translation of a given text from English to French: first they decide on an initial translation with the help of Linguee, Google Translate and anything else they consider useful; next they test its accuracy by

checking for correct French usage in context, again using aids such as Linguee; and lastly they perform a final check by using those aids to translate back to English and verify that the meaning they set out to translate is unchanged. This degree of verification is only possible thanks to electronic translation tools. Through their use, students can gain greater sophistication and accuracy in translating as they increase their familiarity with a methodology that allows them to independently correct and refine their own work.

Conclusion

To summarize the interdependence among the participants of the teaching process in our specialized language courses, we created the following table where the arrows show the main direction of interaction at each stage of course activities.

The table includes more traditional elements in the first column – there is nothing new in providing feedback as a teacher or in adjusting material to students' level of preparation - but the second column breaks with tradition in most language courses because it systematically accounts for different student specializations. It is the use of translation devices that has made it possible to account for specializations, rendering interactions within the teaching process more meaningful and useful for students.

Table 2. Student-teacher and student-student interdependence

Student – teacher interdependence	**Student – student** interdependence
Information about students' needs and levels ↓	Information about students' specialization ↓
Choice of materials and activities ↓	Creation of student groups ↓
Tasks and on-line materials for weekly presentations or translations →	Preparation of presentations or projects based on group's specialization or common interest ↓
Feedback on linguistic aspects, cultural aspects or business concepts	In-class presentations as well as work submitted ←

In our courses, electronic translation tools helped to improve inclusiveness because they provided a useful additional scaffolding device even for students with limited knowledge of French. Moreover, since these tools were used for independent practicing of skills at home, in class we had more time to work on important elements such as more sophisticated translation, pronunciation and cultural awareness. This led us to re-evaluate our role.

As teachers, we can describe our objectives in the following four statements:

- To guide students to more conscious mastering of linguistic and cultural phenomena
- To train them to expertly use translation devices that help them help themselves
- To underline the sometimes-overlooked importance of comparison as a method of understanding and assessing information

- To raise awareness of the multiple pitfalls that await the unwary translator

As for our course outcomes, they are summarised in the following table and illustrated by students' comments below.

Table 3. Course outcomes

Course	**Course outcomes before translation devices**	**Additional outcomes with translation devices**
Business French	business letter samples and good knowledge of vocabulary and syntactic patterns helpful for a career	confidence in knowledge of basic business patterns that can be complemented by translation devices
French Translation	expertise in consulting dictionaries and grammar manuals	proficiency in using translation devices and double-checking

Students' comments:

"Mini–presentations helped reinforce prior topics very well. They also helped with developing better oral speaking skills. I really liked this course because it provided knowledge on a specific subject matter (business)." (A comment from course evaluations, FREB18 *Business French*, 2017)

"We were allowed to use on-line tools which most of us knew about already. But through trial and error I was able to decipher the ones that provided the most accuracy." (A comment from course evaluations, FREC18 *French Translation*, 2017)

As the above comments show – particularly the first one - students are more enthusiastic when they have a chance to discuss their field of study than when they are asked to perform some general activity in a language course. It is often true that language textbooks offer students rather banal and artificial tasks, whereas a chance to express in another tongue something considered real and relevant contributes to the desire to talk. The conversation then comes from the heart and can be based on genuine intellectual understanding, thus directly fostering a positive learning atmosphere[3]. There is also the joy of recognizing old friends – many scientific terms are almost the same in English and French and easily identified, remembered and used once one gets through pronunciation differences. Training in specialized terminology, whether for business, media, science and medicine, law or international relations, is certainly not new and is habitually included in graduate-level translation and interpreting programmes; we have encountered it as well in the upper-level courses offered within a few university undergraduate programmes. On the basis of our practices, geared to increasing learner independence, we would, however, like to suggest that today it is possible to *extend* this interdependence between language studies and other disciplines to encompass earlier, more preparatory levels of language instruction.

[3] On the benefits of the positive emotions in language learning see Jean-Marc Dewaele (2015).

In our interconnected world ever-better translation devices have already revolutionized human communication and opportunities for learning. More fundamentally, educators of all levels in many countries recognize students' need to receive intellectual training that not only offers knowledge but is also useful for a future career. At the post-secondary level, if greater professionalization of language courses is indeed perceived as a positive and relevant step forward, planners will have to take into account future specializations and include instruction in a number of career-defined syntactic structures and terminologies. Indeed, outside the university professionals already in the work force have already massively understood the advantages of learning languages in the appropriate context, the better to advance their careers; this is witnessed by on-line listings such as 'The 30 Best Online LANGUAGE Courses for Any Budget or Level" and the claim by one such programme, FluentU, that "more than 50,000 people are learning how to learn languages faster and more effectively" (https:www.fluentu.com/blog/best-online-language-courses). FluentU and other on-line programmes such as Babbel, LingQ, Duolingo, Foreign Services Institute, Internet Polyglot and Omniglot have sophisticatedly leveraged two important trends of the twenty-first century: technological improvements and the continuous growth of interconnections in a globalized world. At the university level, language educators can help fulfill a documented need - and remain meaningful - by recognizing that it is possible to offer specialized language courses geared to other programmes of study earlier than was previously considered plausible.

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Supporting 21st Century Skills in Language and Literacy Classrooms with a Multiliteracies Approach

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Abstract
Educational leaders, governments, and international organizations have responded to the combined forces of globalization and socio-technological transformation by formulating education initiatives that attempt to equip young people with an education relevant to the needs of the future. Some of these initiatives, such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) program emphasize the healthy development of the individual within the context of sustainable community. Others, such as the 21st century skills movement focus more on individual competition with wellness and community being important but secondary motives. Many of the 21st century skill models that have been developed display progressive attributes. However, there is potential for criticism of them as well. For example, the basis of these reforms can be taken by some as stemming from neo-liberal trends that are commodifying education and people instead of supporting more cooperative mindsets such as those found in ESD. Another point for critique relates to how assessment washback from standardized testing could actually be diluting the time spent to train the most important components of 21st century skills in the classroom, and how incorporating more process-oriented assessment that takes multiliteracies into account could be helpful in this regard. Also, the prioritization of traditional text types and registers within the classroom may be ignoring the potential to help contribute to a more engaging and authentic 21st century education for many students by recognizing the diversity of modes of communication through a multiliteracies approach.

Keywords: Multiliteracies, Educational Assessment, Project Based Learning

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Introduction

Educational leaders, governments, and major international organizations such as the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have responded to the combined forces of globalization and rapid social transformation by attempting to formulate new ways of conceptualizing education in order to equip young people for the needs of the future. Some of these, such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's (UNESCO, 2016) Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) initiative prioritize the healthy development of the individual within the context of sustainable community. Others, such as the 21st century skills movement, though having significant overlap with many ESD objectives, focus more on individual employability with wellness and community being important but secondary motives. The 21st century skills movement has sparked particularly widespread reform in literacy and numeracy efforts around the world as states seek to enhance their overall competitiveness by making their citizens more individually competitive (Babones, 2015).

Literacy studies have also transformed dramatically over the last century. Originally giving strong primacy to the written word (Goody & Watt, 1963), this area of research has progressed to examine multimodality and a variety of literacy skills from a socioculturally oriented, post-modern perspective (Kress, 1997). Importantly, this perspective now values many different forms of literacy, both digital and analogue, and situates meaning making within various cultural, spatial, and social contexts (Cope & Kalantziz, 2015). It also now considers the power structures that are deconstructed or reconstructed through education and the relevance of the entire educational experience to participants from a multiplicity of backgrounds (The New London Group, 1996). The multiliteracies movement developed in recognition of the impacts of immigration, globalization, multiculturalism, digitization, and multimedia on modern communication and therefore on the needs of students (Cope & Kalantziz, 2015). A multiliteracies approach can therefore help to provide a framework for overlap between traditional literacy, digital literacy, media literacy, and critical literacy. Given this expanded view of literacy, it is relevant to debate how the prioritization of traditional text types and registers within the classroom may be ignoring the potential to help contribute to a more engaging, authentic, and equitable education for many students by recognizing the full diversity of useful modes of communication in our emerging digital society as well as how this multimodal literacy can be supported. If multimodal approaches are indeed more authentic, equitable, and engaging, they may also assist more young people in gaining successful employment than a rigid focus on traditional forms (The New London Group, 1996).

The goal of anticipating the needs of young people in a dynamic and challenging global environment is worthwhile, and the 21st century skill frameworks that have been developed display progressive attributes. However, there is potential for criticism of them as well. For example, the basis of these reforms can be taken by some as stemming from neo-liberal trends that are increasingly commodifying both education and people (Babones, 2015). The work of multiliteracy theorists is based in empowerment and power relations and may therefore be a useful perspective to counterbalance these concerns. Another point for consideration is the possibility that assessment washback from standardized testing could actually be diluting the time

spent to train the most important components of 21st century skills, and the potential that incorporating more process-oriented assessments such as rigorous project-based learning that takes multiliteracy research into account could be helpful in this regard. Given the tremendous sway of initiatives such as the 21st century skills movement over curricula, budgets, teachers, and students and the growing tendency for standardized tests such as PISA to shape national education policies (Breakspear, 2012), it is important to critically examine how educators and assessors can best support desired student outcomes. These considerations suggest that a more explicitly articulated reference to the pedagogies of multimodality within 21st century skill frameworks could be helpful as well as improving the links between the field of multiliteracies and that of Project Based Learning.

With these considerations in mind, this paper will briefly examine the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) framework through a post-structuralist lens. It will then consider multiliteracy research, and what if any guidance it can offer educators around the world who are being asked to implement 21st century-oriented programs. Finally, an attempt will be made to briefly relate the findings to the global education environment and provide emerging examples of alternative models of assessment that may be more relevant to the lives of students than standardized tests alone.

Discussion

Governments and non-governmental bodies have been working both within nations and across nations to create new educational frameworks in order to ensure that what is taught in schools adequately reflects the reality of what students will need to know in order to be competitive in the workforce, and well as to function socially and civically (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009). One of the watershed moments for the globalization of education came out of the seminal 1983 report on American K-12 education entitled *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Gardner et al., 1983). This report was commissioned by the Republican administration of the time and laid out a frightening vision of American schools that were failing to equip students adequately for the future. Specifically, it addressed the future in terms of eventual career readiness and discussed the disconnect between the teaching styles and content that were being used at the time and the rapidly changing global work environment. The tone of the report was critical, indicating that the education system was in shambles overall, that America was rapidly losing its competitive edge, and that without significant top-down reform the long-term results on the economy and geopolitical landscape could be catastrophic (Gardener et al., 1983).

Although the findings of this report continue to be controversial (Babones, 2015) it spurred several waves of initiatives aimed at improving competitiveness in education. This occurred first in America and then internationally as other nations with the same concerns aimed to increase their competitiveness as well. Gardner et al. (1983) suggested strengthening the depth and breadth requirements for core courses such as English, math, science, social studies, and computer science. They also called on the education system to improve standardized accountability measures and switch to data-based decision making and quality assurance programs. They recommended that a renewed focus on achieving benchmarks should be accomplished by increasing hours of instruction, supporting a diversity of teaching methods, and providing increased funding to school systems.

In the wake of these recommendations, successive groups were called upon to help further refine the vision of what a modern education should look like, and how it should be both administered and measured. One of the key groups behind the "solving the problem" of education in America was Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21). Their framework for 21st century learning is not the only one in use, but it is one of the most influential and now forms the backdrop for much of the current discourse for 21st century learning internationally (Dede, 2009). The P21 framework evolved through a number of iterations and now has many points of contact with other progressive education models such as the United Nations ESD initiative (UNESCO, 2016). The P21 framework contains both student objectives and the support systems that are thought to be needed to achieve them.

The heart of the student objective set of P21 is the so-called 3R's (reading, writing, and mathematics) set within authentic 21st century learning contexts. To this core is added world languages, arts, science, social science, and civics. Notably, it discusses the need for schools to include interdisciplinary learning into the core content programming. These interdisciplinary themes include global awareness; financial, economic, business, and entrepreneurial literacy; civic literacy; health literacy; and environmental literacy.

This content knowledge is then enriched with three other objective areas including information, media, and technology skills; learning and innovation skills; and life and career skills. The information, media and technology skills include the ability to access information; to adapt successfully to technological change; and to be effective at evaluating and creating media in a variety of forms. The learning and innovation skills area is populated with the "4 Cs". These include creativity/innovation training; critical thinking; communication, and collaboration. Finally, the life and career skills are described as social and emotionally-based, and include skills such as adaptability, self-direction, social skills, cross-cultural skills, accountability, and leadership.

When examining this framework in detail, it is clear that there are many elements of progressive, multiliteracy compatible education embedded in it. However, there are questions about how well these elements are being converted from the framework documentation to the classroom given the focus on competitiveness and the relative level of priority of easily testable core knowledge. Babones (2015) is highly critical of the *Nation at Risk* (Gardner et al., 1983) report as a starting point for any educational reform. She states that the public education system in America has been under attack by the conservative business lobby since 1983. This has resulted in a much wider utilization of for-profit education and a prioritization of educational outcomes that amount to subsidized employment training. However, her most important concern is that this lobby has succeeded in pushing an agenda that over-utilizes standardized testing and thereby works against attainment of many of the 21st century skills that were identified as critical by the report and in subsequent work by groups like P21. Her argument is not only that that school administrators, teachers, and students have become ever more focused on high stakes testing, but also that the nature of this testing clouds the difference between excellence through critical, process-oriented education and a race to the bottom with test-oriented for-profit schools who undermine teachers and the public education system as a whole. This leads her to fear that the actual agenda behind these policies is the privatization of education in America rather than the welfare of students or even of their eventual economic output.

Within the field of language and literacy studies, examples of process-oriented projects such as those that turn students into project based "language researchers" can promote Critical Language Awareness (CLA) as well as potentially enhancing the ability to interpret, redefine, and guide one's own "linguistic landscape" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). An in-depth understanding and ownership of the linguistic landscape can result in significant shifts of meaning for young people in lower income areas such as identifying underappreciated elements of a neighborhood as being valuable parts of the local social fabric rather than something to be replaced by redevelopment projects (Burwell & Lenters, 2015). These forms of learning and assessment are important, because they help young people to take ownership over where they live and, by extension, over part of their own identity development. Although arguably appropriate for all demographics, this can be particularly useful for lower performing youth in marginalized areas or groups. The kind of Project Based Learning described by Burwell and Lenters (2015) is just one example among a tremendous array of possible process-oriented projects that are suitable for developing 21st century skills but are not adequately captured by most current standardized assessments.

Cope and Kalantziz (2015) note that early pedagogical approaches to multiliteracy such as situated practice, overt instruction, critical framing, and transformed practice have given way to the newer Learning by Design multiliteracy pedagogical project. However, the foundations of linking in-school learning to real world contexts, creating transfer between the familiar and unfamiliar, the development of explicit metaknowledge, critical analysis, and the application of learning back into the real world remain important (Cope & Kalantziz, 2015). Many of these approaches are also embedded in the P21 framework and examples of their use is well supported by multiliteracy researchers such as Burwell and Lenters (2015), who situate Project Based Learning within unique communities and utilize it as a means of local empowerment.

The importance of considering an evolving view of literacy is outlined by The New London Group (1996). They argue that the multiliteracies perspective is critical to understanding the full range of communication types that are occurring within current educational, work, civic, and private contexts. They also argue that because so many people are disenfranchised, it will be difficult to facilitate the majority of students toward being able to self-design their social futures and find successful employment without a multiliteracy based approach. The emphasis of The New London Group (1996) is more heavily oriented toward critical multiliteracy and the deconstruction of power structures than the more traditionally-oriented and seemingly pro-business P21 framework. However, there is still significant overlap in terms of expressing the need for students to be empowered, to take leadership roles, to critically think using 21st century contexts, and to create meaning. One significant difference is in the relative value placed on different kinds of literacy. The value that is placed on different expressions of literacy translates into how that value is assessed. The way we decide quantify the literacy skills of students is of critical importance and will be one of the main determinants of student futures, regardless of the reality of their capacity. This is because what we test, and how we test it, determines what is taught and valued in schools. The "disparities in life chances" (The New London Group, 1996, p.61) that arise from what kinds of literacy are valued are one of the key points of tension in education that these researchers highlight and argue for a better understanding of.

The New London Group (1997) discusses the variability in literary orientations for different cultures or subcultures who might favour the visual or symbolic over the written. Although these factors are certainly touched upon in the P21 framework it, there is a central place given to more traditional literary practices and academic forms in our systems. This raises a question for educators. Should the more traditional and formal literacy practices, such as formal essay and report writing, still be favoured over newer forms, which may be both more enjoyable and more relevant to the lives of large numbers of young people (Jewitt, 2005)? It is a difficult question as there seems little doubt that traditional academic practices are still valuable for many job positions (Lane & Conlon, 2016). However, it is equally true that many very creative and well paying positions can be had without writing traditional reports or reading long technical texts. Also, one of the primary goals of the 21st century skill movement is to foster an entrepreneurial mindset and motivation. Could it be that a process-oriented multiliteracies approach in which all students are no longer forced into high level academic writing, but instead allowed to pursue equally rigorous study using a variety of media and registers, could achieve this objective as well or better in a dynamic, technologically driven economy (Street & Leftstein, 2007)?

This, combined with the possibility that such an approach might better support social mobility and meritocracy for chronically marginalized groups, is a powerful point that is made eloquently by multiliteracy theorists. Although there has been some attempt made by groups such as P21 to raise the relevance of different cultural and literacy practices, the strong bias toward traditional skills that comes from the original panic of the Gardner et al. (1983) report is still echoing through American education. It is also increasingly becoming the foundation of international education and the assessment practices that drive it. Groups such as the OCED are aware of the potential to reinforce power differentials through PISA and other assessment measures and also of criticisms that its testing could contribute to problems of entrenched marginalization (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009).

The intersection of pedagogy and assessment is important as assessments are often used to determine both what is taught and how it should be delivered (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Indeed, researchers such as Berger, Rugen and Woodfin (2014) and Larmer, Mergendoller, and Boss (2015) argue that process-oriented, student-engaged assessment and Project Based Learning are key to shifting from an educational environment that prioritizes evaluation and ranking to one that motivates students from different backgrounds to excel in learning that matters to their future and that develops the 4 Cs. Modern Project Based Learning design also offers insight for those wishing to explore multidisciplinary/interdisciplinary studies that blur the lines between literacy, numeracy, citizenship, and other often discrete zones of learning (Larmer, Mergendoller, & Boss, 2015). Although demonstrating different emphases depending on the framework, there is recognition in the modern project based, student-engaged, multiliteracy oriented literature that better balance needs to be achieved between didactic, authentic, and critical pedagogies, which Cope & Kalantziz, (2015) describe as a reflexive pedagogical stance.

Conclusions

It is important to remember that much of the origins of the 21st century skills movement came from the *Nation at Risk* (Gardner et al., 1983) report. The language

in this report served to provide the impetus for a total re-evaluation of American education through the lens of employment preparation. However, as worthy as training youth for jobs is, such preparation has not historically been the sole reason for education (Babones, 2015). As 21st century skills have evolved, they have gradually come to resemble more cooperative and project-oriented frameworks such as ESD (UNESCO, 2016). Continued work needs to be done to emphasize the cooperative, social/environmental, creative, and critical aspects of this framework in the classroom and in policy.

For education to be truly meaningful at a local level as well as at the global level, the community should be involved. Like Livingstone and Sefton-Green (2016), Babones (2015) feels that schools should follow a community center model in which teachers are professionals who know and understand their students, the context of the lives that are being led locally, and the wider community conditions that students are still quite likely to work in after graduation. Process-oriented multidisciplinary project work that involves the community and builds understanding of the socio-cultural realities of education and employment are extremely important as we progress to even more technologically driven ways of interacting and creating both wealth and meaning (Dede, 2005). Such an orientation does not preclude work with global competencies and fits emerging frameworks for the delivery of ESD (UNESCO MGIEP, 2017). This point also relates well to the findings of Burwell and Lenters (2015). Schools are situated in a specific place, and the local is still at least as important in the day-to-day lives of students as the global. Engaging in authentic work that has authentic impact can be practiced at all levels ranging from the local to the global.

This acknowledgement of the nurturing element of education within a unique glocal context is important in North America, but perhaps even more so outside of it where many of the 21st century skills have been imported into cultural contexts where they are alien. Poorly conceived education can be harmful to any student. However, when dealing with the extremely vulnerable students in countries with a very low development index, it can deprive them of basic literacy (Djite, 2005) and the dignity of connection with their own community. The work done in the field of multiliteracy theory is helpful when considering these problems as it constantly reminds us that context is critical, as is the uniqueness of every student. Once we accept that identity, literacy, and education are socially constructed and that they both reflect and reproduce power, we can reorient education to empower first and provide employment second. The 21st century education movement is evolving from early life employment training to a more multifaceted view that is better linked to citizenship, the community, and the planet. As this evolution continues, we might wish to explore ways to better incorporate the full spectrum of multiliteracies as well as the more cooperative/activist agenda built into ESD. Projects such as the one detailed by Burwell and Lenters (2015) can help students to take what could be argued to be the most important step in multiliteracy work, which is to begin to self-define their identities and communities with an explicit understanding of the post-structuralist perspective on reality and power. The opportunities afforded by project based work are almost endless depending on the interests of the students and the unique characteristics of the community (Bell, 2010).

Garner et al.'s (1983) report has resulted in a vision of accountability that is standardized test heavy and data driven. Because objectives such as creativity,

collaboration, critical thinking, and communication in a variety of registers and media are not suitable for the standardized testing that is driving so much of global educational policy right now, they may not be manifesting in classrooms with the depth that groups such as P21 might wish (Dede, 2009). This is not meant to imply that standardized testing has no place. Tests such as PISA may improve some educational practices, particularly in areas where rote learning is still the norm (Breakspear, 2012). They may also provide useful data as long as that data is understood to be extremely narrow in scope and not a valid representation of achievement for all elements of the educational endeavor. If the objective is actually to develop authentic, cooperative, process-oriented skills that are applicable to a wide range of situations, then students will need to be assessed in a variety of ways or the inevitable test washback will push teachers and policy makers toward the most simply tested objectives. With this in mind, education policy makers and assessment designers need to be clear on what the 21st century objectives really are and how they can be assessed ways which are valid but still offer accountability. Dede (2009, p.3) points out that this must include efforts to educate policy makers, communities and teachers to "unlearn the beliefs, values, assumptions, and cultures underlying schools' industrial era operating practices".

Creating accountable but process-oriented 21st century multimodal learning is not impossible and may help to move those objectives from theory to the reality of classrooms. Common examples of promising steps in international education include the development of programming based in the Buck Institute for Education's Project Based Learning frameworks, College Board's Advanced Placement (AP) Capstone course, and the new Cambridge International Project Qualification course. As one example, AP is a well-respected system of courses that have relied entirely on standardized tests for the official grade. The strength of the new AP Capstone is that it is highly interdisciplinary, research oriented, and potentially multimodal. It can be utilized by a student for almost any research they wish. A student who is interested in design could research and design a solar pump for their community water supply, while another that is interested in Spanish language hip-hop could examine the impact of the genre on their peer group. Assessment is via a spectrum of written, visual, and oral components that utilize trained markers with rubrics that are designed for reliability and accountability. Programs like these can offer insight into ways we can begin to incorporate the diversity of interests and ideas that students have into their own education, as well as offering a means of assessment that can adequately tap the kinds of skills that are listed in the P21 framework so that our education policy is not guided solely by traditional test formats.

As The New London Group (1997, p.69) points out, without the ability to negotiate a wide variety of linguistic, cultural, and symbolic literacy types "averting the catastrophic conflicts about identities and spaces that now seem ever ready to flare up" is less likely. When looking at these conflicts in today's America it is clear that they are serious. When considering them internationally, they can make the difference between peaceful international development and great international suffering. Even as we attempt to build multiliteracies and ESD into classrooms along with 21st century skills, research needs to continue into how our assessments and educational paradigms are driving education. This research needs to happen alongside a frank discussion on what kind of global future we are trying to bring about. Williams and Cooke (2002) describe some of the decisions to be made regarding sustainable versus

neoliberal trajectories in development. These are not only considerations for so-called developing nations, but also for highly industrialized nations. The decision of whether to design education policy around cooperation, sustainability, and the fostering the ability of diverse groups to communicate can be informed by the work of many of the multiliteracy researchers who have been warning that how we construct identity and communication through meaning-making practices will have a direct impact on what kind of world we live in. Further discussions around sustainability, intercultural competence, cooperative problem solving, and multiliteracies are entwined with a need to support meritocracy, economic fairness, and an education system that serves all.

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A Pragmatic Study of Euphemisms in A Dream of Red Mansions with a Rapport Management Approach: Cultural Independence and Interdependence

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Abstract
As a social and cultural phenomenon, euphemism helps lubricate interpersonal relations and maintain the face of interactants. So euphemism relates closely to face and politeness. Built upon notions of face and politeness, Helen Spencer-Oatey's rapport management (2000) is a theoretical framework for interpersonal relations with face and rights as core components. As facework is typically Chinese conflict-preventive mechanism, the theoretical foundation and core components of rapport management happen to be in concert with Chinese attachment to interpersonal relations and face. As a world-famous classical literary masterpiece, *A Dream of Red Mansions* unfolds a panoramic picture of a highly ritualized and strictly hierarchical feudal society, highlighting the role the traditional Chinese idea of 'harmony and integrity' assumes in interpersonal relations. The complexity of the social and familial relations in the novel lends abundant resources to the study of euphemisms. The present research takes Spencer-Oatey's rapport management as theoretical framework and investigates euphemisms in the character utterances of the novel. Considering the complexity and rigidity of social and familial hierarchy, the study takes power as a major variable. The study has implications in that it has proved a new western theory's capability in governing and explaining the use of euphemisms in a classical eastern novel, which significantly indicates its possible application to the pragmatic analysis of other texts in both English and Chinese languages. Culture, carried and reflected by language, has remained both national and international. A perfect combination of cultural independence and interdependence is what the world is glad to embrace.

Keywords: Euphemism: A Dream Of Red Mansions; Rapport Management; Culture

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Every language has a dual function of transferring information and managing social relations. Basically there are two ways of communicating: literal and indirect. In Blakemore's (1992) words, "Whenever a speaker communicates he must make a decision as to what he chooses to make explicit and what he chooses to leave implicit" (7). Although literalness costs the least linguistic effort, Sperber and Wilson (1986) argue literalness is not necessarily the most communicatively efficient way of saying something. Instead, indirectness is alternatively desirable and efficient in interaction.

Euphemism is characterized with linguistic indirectness. Owing to its relatedness to face and facework euphemism is a communicative strategy in interpersonal relations. Allan and Burridge (1991) put, "A euphemism is used as an alternative to a dispreferred expression, in order to avoid possible loss of face" (18). So euphemism is deemed an effective way of protecting face and managing identity.

Furthermore, euphemism is related to politeness. The primary concern of politeness is the care of face. And the care of face entails language as a means of communication. Leech (1983) believes "If we want to explain why many speakers prefer to use euphemistic words or phrases to substitute for those unpleasant ones in their interpersonal communication or to express their meanings in a roundabout way, the reason is for politeness" (46). So euphemism linguistically actualizes politeness.

The study of face, facework and politeness has been conducted in pragmatics and cross-culture communication. Some specialists like Brown and Levinson (1978) intend their face theory to be universal in interpreting human interactions. Other researchers attach importance to culture specificity and account for human interactions in terms of cultural peculiarities (Matsumoto, 1988; Ting-Toomey, 1988; Gu, 1990; Zhan, 1992; Chang & Holt, 1994; Cupach & Metts, 1994; Penman, 1994; Scollon & Scollon, 1994; Ting-Toomey & Cocroft, 1994; Tracey & Baratz, 1994). Still some scholars take strong interest in Chinese concept of face and work at a theory or principle characteristic of and well-grounded in Chinese culture (Hu, 1944; Ho, 1976; Cheng, 1986; Chang & Holt, 1994).

As for the applicability of Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness or face theory to the Oriental culture, critiques are not few. One criticism is it is a highly rational model rather than a relational one (Matsumoto, 1988; Ting-Toomey, 1988; Gu, 1990; Chang & Holt, 1994; Penman, 1994). Ting-Toomey (1988) argues Brown and Levinson's theory conceptualizes 'positive face' and 'negative face' from the individualistic culture framework. Matsumoto (1988) criticizes the theory in that the negative face want of preservation of individual territories seems alien to Japanese. Gu Yueguo (1990) holds the model does not apply to the Chinese social interaction. Penman (1994) points out both the negative face and the positive face are self-oriented. Chang and Holt (1994) find the Western understanding of facework is a reflection of "the dominant individualistic characteristics of Western cultures. This can be contrasted with the Chinese conception of *mianzi* which places more emphasis on the nature of the relationship (126)".

Another question is raised over its neglect of social identity. Therefore, Brown and Levinson's conceptualization of face is accepted with reservations. Matsumoto (1988), Ide (1989) and Mao (1994) argue for the importance of social identity as a concept, especially in Japanese and Chinese societies. Gu Yueguo (1998) argues it is not that concerns about autonomy, imposition and so on do not exist in Eastern cultures, but rather that they are not regarded as face concerns (qtd. Spencer-Oatey, 2007: 13).

Taking all these arguments into consideration, Helen Spencer-Oatey (2000, 2007) proposes a framework for the conceptualization of face and rapport. She maintains "Brown and Levinson's (1987) conceptualization of positive face has been underspecified, and that the concerns they identify as negative face issues are not necessarily face concerns at all" (13). She proposes that rapport management involve two main components: the management of face and the management of sociality rights.

1.2 Objectives

Guided by Helen Spencer-Oatey's theory, the present study purports to focus on cultural independence and interdependence by investigating euphemisms in the character utterances of *A Dream of Red Mansions*. The study is intended to achieve the following goals:

1) Based on such related notions and principles as indirectness, Goffman's notion of face, Brown and Levinson's face theory, and Gu Yueguo's PP, the necessity and possibility of applying the theory of rapport management to the present research will be put under discussion. The theory's salient emphasis on the 'socialness' of 'face' and 'rights' will merit adequate attention.

2) The study is going to examine the cultural independence and interdependence on the basis of the euphemism. If the theory of rapport management is applicable to a context that is linguistically, culturally, socially and psychologically Chinese, its controlling force and explanatory power will hold water.

1.3 Methodology

A qualitative method is mainly adopted in the demonstration analysis. To facilitate the study, comparison, contrast, illustration, categorization, induction and discussion are supplementary methods.

1.4 Collection of Euphemisms

The study takes as its first-hand source of euphemisms the first eighty chapters (allegedly composed by Cao Xueqin) of *A Dream of Red Mansions* in a Chinese-English format, published by the Foreign Language Press and Hunan People's Publishing House (1999). The English version is provided by the Yangs. Although it is a problem that the English version does not remain an absolute counterpart to the Chinese version, it does not affect the final result of the study.

Generally, the euphemisms can be classified into conventional and situational ones. Conventional euphemisms are standard expression and relatively stable. The

collection and processing of the conventional euphemisms basically follow *A Dictionary of Chinese Euphemisms* compiled by Zhang Gonggui (1996). It is acclaimed as the first dictionary with over 3,000 Chinese euphemisms. Situational euphemisms are not socially conventionalized as they are context-dependent. Some secondary written examples are referred to from sources such as publications, periodicals and PhD dissertations. Samples are provided in both Chinese and English.

2. Fundamentals revisited

Euphemism is associated with face, facework and politeness. The following is a retrospect of face, facework, Brown and Levinson's face theory, and Gu Yueguo's PP.

2.1 Face

People tend to use communicative messages for preserving each other's image or identity. Diachronic study shows 'face' has its origin in Chinese culture. In Thomas' (1995) words, "The term 'face' in the sense of 'reputation' or 'good name' seems to have been first used in English in 1876 as a translation of the Chinese term 'diulian' (丢脸)" (168), meaning 'losing face'.

In Chinese culture 'face' is assumed vulnerable and held dear. As Hu (1944) notices, 'face' connotes two meanings in Chinese context: *mianzi* and *lian*. Here *mianzi* "is a reputation achieved through getting on in life, through success and ostentation" (45). On the other hand, *lian* indicates one's basic moral worth and good quality. So the double-faced 'face' has two opposing but correlated aspects: *mianzi* that is social and *lian* that is personal.

In Goffman's (1972) work on social interaction and facework he takes 'face' as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (5).

2.2 Facework

Goffman (1972) defines facework as "the actions taken by a person to make whatever he is doing consistent with face" (5). Taking 'face' as a notion of situated identities, Tracy and Coupland (1990) refer to facework as a set of "communicative strategies that are the enactment, support, or challenge of those situated identities" (210). So facework is the management of identity.

2.3 Brown and Levinson's Face Theory

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness is identified as the 'face-saving' theory of politeness, for it is built upon Goffman's (1967) notions of face. In their theory every individual has 'face', which is "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (61). Face is classified into two types: positive and negative. Positive face is one's desire that his/her wants be appreciated and approved of in social interaction, whereas negative face is the desire for freedom of action and freedom from imposition.

2.4 Gu Yueguo's Politeness Principle

Goffman's notion of face and facework is self-directed, so is Brown and Levinson's face theory. Therefore, when it comes to the Chinese culture characterized with collectivism, there's still more to be done. Gu Yueguo postulates politeness principle in Chinese culture, which translates into five maxims: the Self-denigration maxim, the Address-term maxim, the Refinement maxim, the Agreement maxim and the Virtues-words-deeds Maxim (Gu, 1992: 11-14).

2.5 Euphemism

Despite a variety of definitions of euphemism from dictionaries and scholars, the present researcher quite agrees with Shao Junhang (2007) over his definition of euphemism: "Euphemism is the non-direct expressions or utterances for the things which bring information organizer and interpreter pains such as reverence, fear, shame, discomfort, etc. and which is formed by using phonetic, semantic and grammatical methods" (ix). This definition merits attention for its coverage of all the context-related factors that euphemism involves: the context in its broad sense and narrow sense, including topics and talking parties, target, formational devices, accompanying character and motivation.

3. *A Dream of Red Mansions*

As a masterpiece of Chinese literature, *A Dream of Red Mansions* (*DRM* for short) claims a pinnacle of classical novels. The first eighty chapters of the novel were allegedly composed by Cao Xueqin in the mid-18th century. The novel teems with a multitude of characters. There are 774 named characters (Feng Qiyong, 2008: 28), of whom nearly 30 are main ones. The intricate social network and officialdom, intriguing social and cultural norms, entwined family relationships as well as distinctive personality and characteristic language of all the characters boast rich resources for studies from various perspectives.

Literature review evidences an inadequacy of systematic investigation on euphemisms in the character utterances. And such attempt has never been made in light of Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management. Now the research aims at a tentative study of the euphemisms in the novel within the theoretical framework of Spencer-Oatey's rapport management.

4. Rapport Management

Spencer-Oatey proposes 'rapport management' over 'face management' owing to the fact that "'face' seems to focus on concerns for self, whereas rapport management suggests more of a balance between self and other" (ibid. 12).

4.1 Quality Face and Identity Face

By quality face, Spencer-Oatey means "We have a fundamental desire for people to evaluate us positively in terms of our personal qualities, e.g. our competence, abilities, appearance, etc." (ibid. 14). By identity face, Spencer-Oatey means "We have a fundamental desire for people to acknowledge and uphold our social identities or roles, e.g. as group leader, valued customer, close friend" (ibid.14). In essence quality face is personal yet identity face social.

4.2 Equity Rights and Association Rights

Equity rights are personal yet association rights social. By equity rights, Spencer-Oatey means "We have a fundamental belief that we are entitled to personal consideration from others, so that we are treated fairly: that we are not unduly imposed upon, that we are not unfairly ordered about, and that we are not taken advantage of or exploited" (ibid. 14). By association rights, Spencer-Oatey means "We have a fundamental belief that we are entitled to an association with others that is in keeping with the type of relationship that we have with them" (ibid. 14).

In conclusion, the management of face and sociality rights has both a personal component and a social component. Therefore, this framework is distinct from Brown and Levinson's (1987) face theory in two ways. On the one hand, Brown and Levinson's model remains personal or individualistic whereas Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management is inclusive of the social or relational properties of face. On the other hand, her theory "draws a distinction between face needs (where one's sense of personal/social value is at stake), and sociality rights (where one's sense of personal /social entitlements is at stake)" (ibid. 15). So Brown and Levinson's identification of 'negative face' is not a face want in Spencer-Oatey's rapport but coincides with what she terms as sociality rights.

Table 1 Components of rapport management (Spencer-Oatey, 2007: 15)

	face management (personal/social value)	**sociality rights management (personal/social entitlements)**
personal/independent perspective	quality face (cf. Brown and Levinson's positive face)	equity rights (cf. Brown and Levinson's negative face)
social/interdependent perspective	identity face	association rights

Spencer-Oatey specifies rapport orientation into four types: rapport-enhancement orientation, rapport-maintenance orientation, rapport-neglect orientation and rapport-challenge orientation. A second set of factors are a number of contextual variables: "participant relations, message content, rights and obligations, and communicative activity" (ibid. 31). A third set of factors are social/interactional roles. Considering the complexity and rigidity of social and familial hierarchy, the study takes power as its major variable. Other influencing factors are analyzed comprehensively with power.

Table 2 Influencing factors

Interactional roles	
Rapport orientation	
Message content	
Communicative activity	
Cost-benefit consideration	

The management of face and rights are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 The management of face and rights

Interactional roles		**Face Management**		**Sociality Rights Management**	
Euphemisms		Quality face (personal/ independent perspective)	Identity face (social /interdependent perspective)	Equity rights (personal /independent perspective)	Association rights (social /interdependent perspective)
Conventional euphemisms	Situational euphemisms				

5. Demonstration Analysis

5.1 Power

According to Spencer-Oatey (2007), power has a number of other different labels: "social power, status, dominance, authority" (32). In essence, power means unequal relationship. Social psychologists French and Raven (1959) have identified five forms of power: coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power.

5.2 Related Characters at a Glance

A Dream of Red Mansion charts two branches of the Jia clan: the Rongguo House and the Ningguo House, which adjacently stand in grandeur and splendor in the capital. Jia Yan and Jia Yuan, ancestors of the two houses, win the royal favour and are made dukes respectively. The Lady Dowager is wedded to Jia Daishan, son of Duke of Rongguo, and gives birth to three children: Jia She, Jia Zheng and Jia Min. The Rongguo House is a growing family. Jia Baoyu, son of Jia Zheng and Lady Wang, is one of the protagonists of the novel. Jia Yuanchun, granddaughter of the Lady Dowager and Jia Baoyu's elder sister, is made Imperial Consort. Wang Xifeng, Lady Wang's niece, is also Baoyu's cousin-in-law. Some of these characters are related to the following demonstration analysis. They and all other characters are entwined in a network of power relations of various types.

5.3 Social Power Relations

The following example shows how monarchal power precedes familial intimacy. Jia Yuanchun is promoted to be Secretary of the Phoenix Palace. Now her Imperial Visitation to her parents' house is royally granted. She is talking to her grandmother, the Lady Dowager [a most respected person of the house], and inquiring about Baoyu, her younger brother.

5.3.1 Imperial Consort-Subject (Jia Yuanchun-the Lady Dowager)

Example 1:
[贵妃]因问："宝玉为何不进见？"贾母乃启："无谕，外男不敢擅入。(*DRM*, Chap. 18: 484)
Then she [the Imperial Consort] inquired why Baoyu had not come to greet her. The Lady Dowager explained that, unless specially summoned, as a young man without official rank he dared not presume. (*DRM*, Chap. 18: 485)

All the influencing factors are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Specification of all the influencing factors

Interactional roles	Imperial Consort-Subject (Jia Yuanchun -the Lady Dowager)
Rapport orientation	The Lady Dowager's rapport enhancement/maintenance with Jia Yuanchun
Message content	The reason for Baoyu's absence
Communicative activity	Answering the Imperial Consort's question
Cost-benefit consideration	Making the reply most beneficial to the Imperial Consort

The nature of the Imperial Consort-subject relations predetermines the nature of the Lady Dowager's utterances as a type of rapport-enhancement or rapport-maintenance orientation. The message content is about why Baoyu is present to greet the Imperial Consort. The communicative activity is for the Lady Dowager to answer the Imperial Consort's question in a most respectful way. As regards the cost-benefit consideration, the Lady Dowager must also make her reply most beneficial to the Imperial Consort. As far as the Lady Dowager, Yuanchun and Baoyu are concerned, Yuanchun's identity is three-fold: the Imperial Consort, the Lady Dowager's granddaughter, and Baoyu's elder sister. Before Yuanchun is married to the emperor, she's been under the care of the Lady Dowager. Needless to say, they are in very close grandmother-granddaughter relationship. As for Baoyu, her younger brother, she has been caring about him dearly. They are on intimate sister-brother terms. However, on this occasion of Imperial Visitation, even the Lady Dowager is very scrupulous with etiquette and wording. Therefore, first consideration should be given to the Imperial Consort's social status as a royal member. Disregarding the sister-brother relations between Yuanchun and Baoyu, the Lady Dowager refers to Baoyu as '外男', which, in this context, is a euphemism that indicates a man other than a member of the royal house. Obviously, the Lady Dowager is trying to maintain Yuanchun's identity face as the Imperial Consort rather than her familial identity as Baoyu's elder sister. In this case, the monarch-subject relations overwhelm kinship and rapport-enhancement or rapport-maintenance orientation is achieved. The management of the Imperial Consort's face by means of euphemism is shown in Table 5.

Table 5 Euphemism used by the Lady Dowager for the Imperial Consort's face

Interactional roles		**Face Management**		**Sociality Rights Management**	
the Imperial Consort-Subject (Jia Yuanchun-the Lady Dowager)		Quality face (personal/ independent perspective)	Identity face (social /interdependent perspective)	Equity rights (personal /independent perspective)	Association rights (social /interdependent perspective)
Euphemism					
Conventional euphemism	Situational euphemism				
外男			showing due respect for Jia Yuanchun in terms of her social role as the Imperial Consort		

5.4 Familial Power Relations

The family power relations are further divided into two types: relations between family members and master-servant relations. The following is an example of unequal kinship.

5.4.1 Unequal Kinship

Mother-in-Law-Daughter-in-Law (the Lady Dowager-Lady Wang)
A typical example is an apology euphemistically made by the Lady Dowager to Lady Wang, her daughter-in-law. Jia She (the Lady Dowager's son, Lady Wang's husband) wants to take Yuanyang, the Lady Dowager's maid as his concubine. The news plunges the Lady Dowager into a fit of rage. She blames Lady Wang, who happens to be one of those ladies present but does not venture a word in defence of her own innocence. Now the mother-in-law and daughter-in-law rapport is challenged. Therefore, a certain degree of repair seems necessary. So after the Lady Dowager is made to see her own mistake, she decides to apologize to Lady Wang, but "in a most roundabout and complicated way" (Lan Chun & Zhao Yun, 2010: 82).

Example 2:
贾母笑道："可是我老糊涂了！姨太太别笑话我。你这个姐姐他极孝顺我，不像我那大太太一味怕老爷，婆婆跟前不过应景儿。可是委屈了他。"薛姨妈只答应"是"，又说："老太太偏心，多疼小儿子媳妇，也是有的。"贾母道："不偏心！"因又说道："宝玉，我错怪了你娘，你怎么也不提我，看着你娘受委屈？"宝玉笑道："我偏着娘说大爷大娘不成？通共一个不是，我娘在这里不认，却推谁去？我倒要认是我的不是，老太太又不信。"贾母笑道："这也有理。你快给你娘跪下，你说太太别委屈了，老太太有年纪了，看着宝玉罢。"宝玉听了，忙走过去，便跪下要说；王夫人忙笑着拉他起来，说："快起来，快起来，断乎使不得。终不成你替老太太给我赔不是不成？"宝玉听说，忙站起来。贾母又笑道："凤姐儿也不提我。" (*DRM*, Chap. 46: 1314, 1316)

At once the old lady chuckled, "I'm losing my wits with age," she exclaimed. "Don't laugh at me, Madam Xue. This elder sister of yours is a very good daughter-in-law, not like my elder son's wife who's so afraid of her husband she only makes a show of compliance to me. Yes, I was wrong to blame your sister."

Aunt Xue murmured agreement, then added, "I wonder if you're not, perhaps, rather partial to the wife for your younger son, madam?"

"No, I'm not partial," the old lady declared. She continued, "Baoyu, why didn't you point out my mistake and prevent me from blaming your mother so unfairly?"

"How could I stick up for my mother at the expense of my elder uncle and aunt?" he countered. "Anyway, someone's done wrong; and if mother here won't take the blame, who will? I could have said it was *my* fault but I'm sure you wouldn't have believed me."

"Yes, that's right," chuckled the Lady Dowager, "Now kneel to your mother and ask her not to feel hurt, but to forgive me for your sake on account of my old age."

Baoyu stepped forward and knelt to do as he was told, but his mother instantly stopped him.

"Get up," she cried with a smile. "This is absurd. How can you apologize for your grandmother?"

As Baoyu rose to his feet the old lady said, "And Xifeng didn't pull me up either." (*DRM*, Chap. 46: 1315, 1317)

All the influencing factors are shown in the following table.

Table 6 Specification of all the influencing factors

Interactional roles	Mother-in-law-Daughter-in-law (the Lady Dowager-Lady Wang)
Rapport orientation	The Lady Dowager's rapport maintenance with Lady Wang
Message content	The Lady Dowager's apology to Lady Wang
Communicative activity	Apologizing to Lady Wang in a devious way by talking to Aunt Xue, Baoyu and Wang Xifeng
Cost-benefit consideration	Making the message beneficial to Lady Wang and less threatening to herself

Both the message content and the communicative activity are for the Lady Dowager to apologize to Lady Wang, which is certainly threatening to the apologizer (the Lady Dowager herself) and beneficial to the offended (Lady Wang). According to Spencer-Oatey (2007), "Apologies are typically post-event speech acts, in the sense that some kind of offence or violation of social norms has taken place. In other words, people's sociality rights have been infringed in some way" (18). Apologies can be made in private or in public. If the apology is made in public, it may threaten the apologizer's identity face (ibid. 18). However, in Spencer-Oatey's words, "if no apology is forthcoming, this can be rapport-threatening to the offended person" (ibid. 18).

In fact, the Lady Dowager does not have to apologize to Lady Wang because as matriarch, she has an absolute power and say in the family. If she has done wrong, nobody ventures any comment or criticism. But now several factors might contribute to her apology. First of all, in regard to her relationship with her two daughters-in-law, she favors Lady Wang. Then among those present are Madam Xue (Lady Wang's younger sister) and Wang Xifeng (Lady Wang's niece), who are both kin to Lady Wang. Moreover, Baoyu, an apple in the eye of the Lady Dowager, is son of Lady Wang. And a traditional saying goes, "A mother is prized because of her son." So senior as she is, she wants to appear fair and generous.

The Lady Dowager does apologize but not face to face. Instead, she speaks to all the people that are present other than Lady Wang: Madam Xue, Baoyu and Wang Xifeng. If the Lady Dowager apologized to her daughter-in-law directly that would be more face-threatening to herself. Again in Spencer-Oatey's words, "Rapport-management norms seem to be 'number-sensitive', in that what we say and how we say it is often influenced by the number of people present, and whether they are all listening to what we say" (ibid. 35). Hence the Lady Dowager deviously manipulates the apology in a way that is minimally face-threatening to herself.

In her words with Madam Xue, the Lady Dowager uses "我老糊涂了", which more or less threatens her own quality face (sense of personal competence). Then she maintains Lady Wang's quality face by saying "你这个姐姐他极孝顺我" and apologizes again: "可是委屈了他", which is also meant to maintain Lady Wang's quality face (a woman's absolute submission to her mother-in-law without any means

of self-defence, which was deemed one of the fine qualities of women in old times) as well as her association rights in terms of her entitlements to concerns from others.

After that, she pretends to blame Baoyu for not defending her mother: "宝玉，我错怪了你娘，你怎么也不提我，看着你娘受委屈？" This again can be taken as an apology. "我错怪了你娘" threatens the Lady Dowager's quality face (sense of personal competence) but maintains Lady Wang's association rights in terms of her entitlements to concerns from others. Furthermore, she instructs Baoyu to kneel an apology to his mother: "你快给你娘跪下，你说太太别委屈了，老太太有年纪了，看着宝玉罢。"

Then she pretends to scold Wang Xifeng by saying, "凤姐儿也不提我", which is also threatening to her own quality face in terms of her personal competence (poor judgment) and identity face in terms of her authority in the house.

In the whole course of the conversation, the Lady Dowager makes use of quite a number of euphemisms mainly at the syntactical level to protect her own face and rights and repair those of Lady Wang. In their 2010 article, Lan Chun and Zhao Yun observe,

> This devious way of apologizing by the Lady Dowager is attributable to the extremely asymmetrical relationship between mother-in-law and daughter-in-law in feudal China. To her daughter-in-law, mother-in-law claims absolute authority and dignity. Hence, when an apology has to be made by mother-in-law to her daughter-in-law, it seems most embarrassing to both sides (82).

This apology is finally accepted by Lady Wang. That is, the rapport-maintenance outcome successfully complies with rapport-maintenance orientation. The management of Lady Wang's face and rights by means of euphemisms is shown in the table.

Table 7 Euphemisms used by the Lady Dowger for face and rights of Lady Wang

Interactional roles		**Face Management**		**Sociality Rights Management**	
Mother-in-law-Daughter-in-law (the Lady Dowager-Lady Wang)		Quality face (personal/ independent perspective)	Identity face (social /interdependent perspective)	Equity rights (personal /independent perspective)	Association rights (social /interdependent perspective)
Euphemisms					
Conventional euphemisms	Situational euphemisms				
	我老糊涂了！	threatening the Lady Dowager's own self-image in terms of her poor judgment; making her remarks most beneficial to Lady Wang in respect of her innocence			
	你这个姐姐他极孝顺我……	commending Lady Wang for			

		being filial and obedient			
	可是委屈了他。	threatening the Lady Dowager's own self-image in terms of her poor judgment; making her remarks most beneficial to Lady Wang in respect of her innocence			maintaining Lady Wang's rights to care and consideration from other people
	宝玉，我错怪了你娘，你怎么也不提我，看着你娘受委屈？	threatening the Lady Dowager's own self-image in terms of her poor judgment; making her remarks most beneficial to Lady Wang in respect of her innocence	threatening the Lady Dowager's own role or credibility in the family		maintaining Lady Wang's rights to care and consideration from other people
	你快给你娘跪下，你说太太别委屈了，老太太有年纪了，看着宝玉罢。	threatening the Lady Dowager's own self-image in terms of her poor judgment; making her remarks most beneficial to Lady Wang in respect of her innocence			maintaining Lady Wang's rights to care and consideration from other people
	凤姐儿也不提我。	threatening the Lady Dowager's own self-image in terms of her poor judgment	threatening the Lady Dowager's own role or credibility in the family		

The demonstration analysis reveals the important role of euphemisms in rapport management. The use of euphemisms in interpersonal communication can also be explicated by the theory of rapport management.

6. Conclusion

The study is brought to conclusion with findings, implications as well as limitations and suggestions.

6.1 Findings

1) The demonstration analysis of euphemisms in concert with Spencer-Oatey's theory proves that euphemisms can effectively help maintain rapport and conversely, Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management is applicable to the analysis of euphemisms in the novel. The theory of rapport management has a controlling force and explanatory power over use of euphemisms under study.

2) The salient emphasis on the 'socialness' of 'face' and 'rights' in Spencer-Oatey's theory is well exemplified in the characters' choice of euphemisms. Identity face and association rights are the social components of rapport. In fact, it is found that great importance is attached to these two aspects in the novel. This complies with the Chinese context of collectivism that attaches importance to socialness.

Stressed and upheld in the Chinese context are relations in which people endeavour to maintain each other's face and establish harmonious rapport. Cao Yingzhe (2004) rightly observes,

> Ever since ancient times the Chinese people have been striving, in every aspect of their life, for integrity with nature and have deemed harmony the supreme realm. In interpersonal relations and speech acts, the Chinese people are inclined to achieve and maintain harmonious and integral social relations and create an intimate atmosphere (106).

Spencer-Oatey's rapport management has a nice ring to the traditional Chinese value of rapport, which can be verbally realized.

6.2 Implications

1) Guided by Helen Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management, euphemisms in the character utterances of *A Dream of Red Mansions* have been tentatively investigated. It is assumed that the study has both theoretical and practical implications.

2) The study has taken *A Dream of Red Mansions* as its text and analyzed euphemisms in the character utterances of the novel in light of Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management. The theory has proved to be capable of governing and interpreting the euphemisms in the character utterances of the novel. It is thus argued that the theory can also be applied to the analysis of other texts in both English and Chinese languages.

6.3 Limitations and Suggestions

The study suffers two major limitations, which call for attention and appeal to improvement.

1) The study has mainly attempted a qualitative approach to the euphemisms. In spite of a large collection of euphemisms from the novel, the research cannot claim to be quantitative. Hence it is desirable that a quantitative approach be simultaneously adopted to work with the qualitative approach in order for a more objective bird's-eye view of the euphemisms.

2) While Spencer-Oatey intends her formulation of rapport management to be universal, she keeps alert to the fact that culture remains specific. In that sense, stress may be put on different components of rapport management so that communicative strategies can be adopted correspondingly. So there is still much room for an in-depth study of cultural independence and interdependence.

Further attempts are encouraged and friendly suggestions are made in the following aspects.

1) The contextual variable 'power' has been taken as a major influencing factor. Now it is suggested that one or more influencing factors other than 'power' in the theory of rapport such as 'distance' be taken as major variables.

2) A joint approach can also be taken of both Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport management and Gu Yueguo's PP. Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport is well-grounded in the notions of face and politeness whereas Gu Yueguo's PP is closely based on the Chinese notion of politeness and critical adoption of Leech's maxims of politeness. In that sense, Spencer-Oatey's theory of rapport might be taken as goal-oriented and Gu Yueguo's PP instrumental. The two might be a perfect example of independence and interdependence by cooperating as a combined means-end approach to the euphemisms in *DRM*.

3) Spencer-Oatey's rapport management is theoretically goal-oriented yet void of its own corresponding maxims. Therefore, an attempt seems most worthwhile to complement the theory by formulating a set of maxims in its own right so that a truly means-end model of rapport management might be built with face and rights appropriately managed.

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The Change In Accentual Patterns In Certain English Words - A Diachronic Study

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Abstract
All languages tend to change in certain respects over a period of time. These changes become perceptible only when they remain in vogue for a period of twenty five to thirty years. In English it is noticed that changes take place in the pronunciation of certain words with time, leading to two alternative pronunciations for the same word resulting from a shift in the position of the word accent. This is evident in the pronunciation patterns of the younger generation being different from the older generation. The present diachronic study examines some of the important changes in the accentual patterns of certain English words having alternative pronunciations over a time period of about 60 years. Some words having alternative pronunciations were noted down from the Fourteenth edition (1987) of the ENGLISH PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY by Daniel Jones. In order to study the pronunciations of such words over a period with a time lapse of about thirty years, the Eleventh edition of the EPD (1956) was chosen for reference. The words that showed some changes (from 1956 to 1987) were also looked up in the Eighteenth edition of the EPD (2011). The changes that took place in the accentual patterns from 1956-1987 were much greater than those during 1987-2011. This phenomenon can be attributed to the unparalleled spread of the English language in the recent times and the impact of technology on language learning. The findings of this study proved that independence and interdependence in language learning coexist and are indeed synergistic.

Keywords: English Pronouncing Dictionary (EPD), accentual patterns, alternative pronunciations, diachronic

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1.0 Introduction

Language has a very important social purpose, being mainly used for linguistic communication, which can take place either in the spoken medium or in the written medium. The medium of speech is more important than the medium of writing because in the history of any language community it is speech that had evolved centuries before writing. Every individual acquires speech long before the writing skill and uses speech to a much larger extent than writing.

All languages tend to change over a period of time. Although changes occur in the spoken as well as in the written media, it is speech that undergoes changes more rapidly than writing. A significant aspect that is very prone to change in speech is pronunciation. Pronunciations tend to change every twenty or thirty years. Changes occurring in ten or fifteen years are not very perceptible. The changes, however, become obvious when they remain in vogue for a period of twenty five to thirty years. This is evident when we notice the speech of older people, which is significantly different from that of younger people. For example, we may hear an older person (born in the thirties or the early forties) pronouncing the word ***cervical*** as /ˈsəːvɪkəl/ and the word ***trajectory*** as / ˈtrædʒɪktərɪ/ while a younger person would pronounce them as /səˈvɑɪkl/ and /trəˈdʒektərɪ/ respectively. Obviously the above two words have changed in pronunciation which is associated with a shift in the position of the word accent. There are many such words, which have two different pronunciations because of alternative accentual patterns.

The present study examines certain English words that have alternative pronunciations and the kind of changes that have taken place in their accentual patterns of over a time span of about sixty years.

1.1 Aim and Procedure

This study aimed to investigate and examine the changes in accentual patterns of certain English words over a period of sixty years or so and to identify the kind of change so that it may possible to characterize pronunciations diachronically in terms of language learning being independent as well as interdependent.
There are number of words in English that have alternative accentual patterns. For example :

ˈAdult	-	Aˈdult
ˈAllies	-	Aˈllies
ˈCaloric	-	Caˈloric
ˈTrajectory	-	Traˈjectory
ˈNugatory	-	Nuˈgatory

About 272 (there could be many more) such words having alternative pronunciations (a common pronunciation and an uncommon pronunciation) were noted down from the Fourteenth edition (1987) of the ENGLISH PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY compiled by Daniel Jones and later revised and edited by A.C.Gimson. The Fourteenth edition was also revised by Susan Ramsaran.

In order to study the changes in pronunciations of such words over a period which would give a time lapse of at least thirty years, the Eleventh edition of the ENGLISH

PRONUNCIATION DICTIONARY (which appeared in 1956) was chosen for reference.

All the 272 words with alternative pronunciations that were taken from the Fourteenth edition (1987) were also looked up in the Eleventh edition (1956) and their pronunciations were noted.

It was found that of the 272 words with alternative pronunciations, in the 14th edition, forty-five of them had undergone some change in the span of thirty years which was evident from referring to the 11th edition. The changes, however, were of different kinds. A systematic analysis of these words helped to see whether the common pronunciation in the fifties was the same as in the eighties or has become uncommon with the uncommon pronunciation of the fifties becoming common. Sometimes the common pronunciation in the fifties became uncommon in the eighties with an entirely new kind of pronunciation which emerged and became common.

Later, the same set of 45 words were also looked up in the Eighteenth edition of the ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION DICTIONARY which appeared in 2011, (edited by Peter Roach, Jane Setter and John Esling).after a time period of 24 years. The changes were noted with respect to the common and uncommon pronunciations being the same or altered and if new pronunciations were added. It was noticed that the changes in accentual patterns from 1956 to 1987 were much more than the changes noted from 1987 to 2011. The changes from the 1987 to 2011 were minimum and can be attributed to globalization and the impact of technology on Language Learning. The findings of this study prove that today, independence and interdependence in language learning indeed are synergistic and cannot exist without each other.

1.2 Data

Given below is the table containing the 45 words that showed some changes in their accentual patterns. The second column gives the words in orthography and the third, fourth and the fifth columns give the transcriptions with the accentual patterns as noted from the three editions of the EPD by Daniel Jones, the 11th, 14th and the 18th editions that were published in 1956, 1987 and 2011 respectively. The pronunciation used commonly is given in slashes and that used uncommonly is given in square brackets. Ref. Appendix

1.3 Analysis

The analysis was done in two stages. First, the accentual patterns of the 272 words (there may be more) showing alternative pronunciations in the 14th edition of the EPD were identified and were looked up in the 11th edition of the EPD and the changes were noted. It was observed that out of the 272 words that had alternative pronunciations 45 words had undergone a change of the accentual patterns from what they were in the 11th edition. In the second stage the 45 words that showed some change in the accentual patterns were also looked up in the 18th edition of the EPD. It was observed that the changes in accentual patterns as recorded in the EPDs of 1956 to 1987 were much more than the changes from the 1987 to 2011 EPD. The changes from the 1986 to 2011 were minimum.

1.3.1 Analysis of the Change in Accentual Patterns from 1956-1987

It was observed that of the 45 words, 20 words showed that the accentual patterns and therefore pronunciations that were commonly used in the fifties became uncommon in the eighties, and the pronunciations that were uncommon in the fifties became common in the eighties

Table 1: Common Pronunciations of the Fifties Became Uncommon in the Eighties and the Uncommon Pronunciations of the Fifties Became Common in the Eighties.

SL NO	WORDS	ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION DICTIONARY DANIEL JONES	
		11TH EDITION 1956	14TH EDITION 1987
1.	Acumen	/əˈkuːmɛn/ [ækjumɛn]	/ˈækjʊmən/ [əˈkjuːmən]
2.	Cameroon	/kæməruːn/ [ˌkæməˈruːn]	/kæməˈruːn/ [ˈkæməruːn]
3..	Cervical	/səːvɪkəl/ [səːˈvɪkəl]	/səˈvɑɪkl/ [ˈsɜːvɪkl]
4.	Capitalize	/kəˈpɪtəlɑɪz/ [ˈkæpɪtəlɑɪz]	/ˈkæpɪtəlɑɪz/ [kəˈpɪtəlɑɪz]
5.	Discourse	/dɪsˈkɔːs/ [ˈdɪskɔːs]	/ˈdɪskɔːs/ [dɪˈskɔːs]
6.	Ecuador	/ɛkwəˈdɔː/ [ˈɛkwədɔː]	/ˈɛkwədɔː/ [ˌɛkwəˈdɔː]
7.	Etiquette	/ɛtɪˈkɛt/ [ˈɛtɪkɛt]	/ˈɛtɪkɛt/ [ɛtɪˈkɛt]
8.	Explicable	/ˈɛksplɪkəbl/ [ɪkˈsplɪkəbl]	/ɪkˈsplɪkəbl/ [ˈɛksplɪkəbl]
9.	Glycerin	/glɪsəˈriːn/ [ˈglɪsərɪn]	/ˈglɪsərɪn/ [glɪsəˈriːn]
10.	Grenadine	/ˌgrɛnəˈdiːn/ [ˈgrɛdəˈdiːn]	/ˈgrɛdəˈdiːn/ [ˌgrɛnəˈdiːn]
11.	Ibidem	/ɪˈbaɪdɛm/ [ˈɪbɪdɛm]	/ˈɪbɪdɛm/ [ɪˈbaɪdɛm]
12.	Inexplicably	/ɪnˈɛksplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ]	/ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnˈɛksplɪkəblɪ]
13.	Kamerun	/ˈkæmərʊːn/ [ˌkæməˈruːn]	/kæməˈruːn/ [ˈkæmərʊːn]
14.	Maladroit	/ˈmælədrɔɪt/ [ˌmæləˈdrɔɪt]	/ˌmæləˈdrɔɪt/ [ˈmæləˈdrɔɪt]
15.	Manganese	/mæŋgəˈniːz/ [ˈmæŋgəniːz]	/ˈmæŋgəniːz/ [ˌmæŋgəˈniːz]
16.	Marital	/məˈrɑɪtl/ [ˈmærɪtl]	/ˈmærɪtl/ [məˈrɑɪtl]
17.	Marrakesh	/məˈrækɛʃ/ [ˌmærəˈkɛʃ]	/mærəˈkɛʃ/ [məˈrækɛʃ]
18.	Mediocre	/ˈmiːdɪoukə/ [miːdɪˈoukə]	/ˌmiːdɪˈəʊkə/ [ˈmiːdɪˈəʊkə]
19.	Panama	/pænəˈmɑː/ [ˈpænəmɑː]	/ˈpænəmɑː/ [pænəˈmɑː]
20.	Trajectory	/ˈtrædʒɪktərɪ/ [trəˈdʒɛktərɪ]	/trəˈdʒɛktərɪ/ [ˈtrædʒɪktərɪ]

It was observed that in the following 14 words given below in table 2, the pronunciations that were commonly used in the fifties remained common in the eighties, but alternative (less common) pronunciations evolved in addition to these common pronunciations.

Table 2: Common Pronunciations of the Fifties Remained Common in the Eighties and New alternative (Uncommon) Pronunciations Evolved

SL NO	WORDS	ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION DICTIONARY DANIEL JONES	
		11TH EDITION 1956	14TH EDITION 1987
1.	Articulatory	/ɑːˈtɪkjulətərɪ/ [-]	/ɑːˈtɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [ɑːtɪkjʊˈleɪtərɪ]
2.	Gallop	/ˈgæləp/ [-]	/ˈgæləp/ [gæˈlɒp]
3.	Abigail	/ˈæbɪgeɪl/ [-]	/ˈæbɪgeɪl/ [æbɪˈgeɪl]
4.	Adulatory	/ˈædjuleɪtərɪ/ [-]	/ˈædjʊleɪtərɪ/ [ædjʊˈleɪtərɪ]
5.	Autopsy	/ˈɔːtəpsɪ/ [-]	/ˈɔːtəpsɪ/ [ɔːˈtɒpsɪ]
6.	Avimore	/ævɪˈmɔː/ [-]	/ævɪˈmɔː/ [ˈævɪmɔː]
7.	Jamboree	/ˌdʒæmbəˈrɪ/ [-]	/dʒæmbəˈriː/ [ˈdʒæmbərɪ]
8.	Hammam	/ˈhæmæm/ [-]	/ˈhæmæm/ [həˈmɑːm]
9.	Mandatory	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [-]	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [mænˈdətərɪ]
10.	Medici	/ˈmedɪtʃiː/ [-]	/ˈmedɪtʃiː/ [meˈdiːtʃiː]
11.	Minaret	/ˈmɪnəret/ [-]	/ˈmɪnəret/ [ˌmɪnəˈret]
12.	Nugatory	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [-]	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [njuːˈgətərɪ]
13.	Victorine	/ˈvɪktəriːn/ [-]	/ˈvɪktəriːn/ [ˌvɪktəriːn]
14.	Viniculture	/ˈvɪnɪkʌltʃə/ [-]	/ˈvɪnɪkʌltʃə/ [vɪnɪˈkʌltʃə]

Finally it has been observed that in the following 11 words the common pronunciation in the fifties became uncommon, along with new pronunciations, which emerged and became more common. Such words are listed below in Table 3.

Table 3: Common Pronunciations of the Fifties Became Uncommon in the Eighties and New Alternative Common Pronunciations Evolved in the Eighties.

SL NO	WORDS	ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION DICTIONARY DANIEL JONES	
		11TH EDITION 1956	14TH EDITION 1987
1.	Batik	/ˈbætɪk/ [-]	/bəˈtiːk/ [ˈbætɪk]
2.	Bathsheba	/ˈbæθʃɪbə/ [-]	/bæθˈʃiːbə/ [ˈbæθʃɪbə]
3.	Chachou	/kæˈʃuː/ [-]	/ˈkæʃuː/ [kæˈʃuː]
4.	Carillon	/kəˈrɪljən/ [-]	/ˈkærɪljən/ [kəˈrɪljən]
5.	Divorcee	/dɪˈvɔːseɪ/ [-]	/dɪvɔːsiː/ [dɪˈvɔːseɪ]
6.	Banal	/ˈbænəl/ [-]	/bəˈnɑːl/ [ˈbeɪnl]
7.	Doyen	/ˈdɔːən/ [-]	/dɔɪˈen/ [ˈdɔɪən]
8.	Oxalis	/ˈɔksəlɪs/ [-]	/ɒkˈsɑːlɪs/ [ˈɒksɑːlɪs/
9.	Urea	/ˈjuərɪə/ [-]	/jʊəˈrɪə/ [ˈjʊərɪə]
10.	Pariah	/ˈpærɪə/ [-]	/pəˈrɑɪə/ [ˈpærɪə]
11	Pejorative	/ˈpiːdʒərətɪv/ [-]	/pɪˈdʒɒrətɪv/ [ˈpiːdʒərətɪv]

1.3.2 Analysis of the Change in Accentual Patterns from 1987-2011

Of the 45 words that were listed in both the 11th edition and the 14th Edition of the EPD, it was observed that 3 words (Chachou, Kamerun and Victorine) were not recorded in the 18th edition of the dictionary. 24 of the remaining 42 words did not show any change in the use of the two accentual patterns. The common pronunciations recorded in the 14th edition remained the same in the 18th edition which was published after a time period of 24 years. The same was noted about the uncommon pronunciations. The following table shows the list of words where the common and uncommon pronunciations remained unaltered.

Table 4: Unaltered Accentual Patterns from 1987 to 2011

S.no.	WORD	14TH EDITION 1987	18TH EDITION 2011
1.	Acumen	/ˈækjʊmən/ [əˈkjuːmən]	/ˈækjʊmən/ [əˈkjuːmən]
2.	Articulatory	/ɑːˈtɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [ɑːtɪkjʊˈleɪtərɪ]	/ɑːˈtɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [ɑːtɪkjʊˈleɪtərɪ]
3.	Autopsy	/ˈɔːtəpsɪ/ [ɔːˈtɒpsɪ]	/ˈɔːtəpsɪ/ [ɔːˈtɒpsɪ]
4.	Batik	/bəˈtiːk/ [ˈbætɪk]	/bəˈtiːk/ [ˈbætɪk]
5.	Cervical	/səˈvaɪkl/ [ˈsɜːvɪkl]	/səˈvaɪkl/ [ˈsɜːvɪkl]
6.	Capitalize	/ˈkæpɪtəlaɪz/ [kəˈpɪtəlaɪz]	/ˈkæpɪtəlaɪz/ [kəˈpɪtəlaɪz]
7.	Discourse	/ˈdɪskɔːs/ [dɪˈskɔːs]	/ˈdɪskɔːs/ [dɪˈskɔːs]
8.	Etiquette	/ˈetɪket/ [etɪˈket]	/ˈetɪket/ [ˈetɪkɪt]
9.	Explicable	/ɪkˈsplɪkəbl/ [ˈeksplɪkəbl]	/ɪkˈsplɪkəbl/ [ˈeksplɪkəbl]
10.	Glycerin	/ˈglɪsərɪn/ [glɪsəˈriːn]	/ˈglɪsərɪn/ [glɪsəˈriːn]
11.	Grenadine	/ˈgredədiːn/ [ˌgrenəˈdiːn]	/ˈgrenədiːn/ [ˌgrenəˈdiːn]
12.	Hammam	/ˈhæmæm/ [həˈmɑːm]	/ˈhæmæm/ [həˈmɑːm]
13.	Ibidem	/ˈɪbɪdem/ [ɪˈbaɪdem]	/ˈɪbɪdem/ [ɪˈbaɪdem]
14.	Inexplicably	/ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnˈeksplɪkəblɪ]	/ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnˈeksplɪkəblɪ]
15.	Mandatory	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [mænˈdətərɪ]	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [mænˈdətərɪ]
16.	Marrakesh	/mærəˈkeʃ/ [məˈrækeʃ]	/mærəˈkeʃ/ [məˈrækeʃ]
17.	Medici	/ˈmedɪtʃiː/ [meˈdiːtʃiː]	/ˈmedɪtʃiː/ [meˈdiːtʃiː]
18.	Mediocre	/ˌmiːdɪˈəʊkə/ [ˈmiːdɪəʊkə]	/ˌmiːdɪˈəʊkə/ [ˈmiːdɪəʊkə]
19.	Nugatory	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [njuːˈgətərɪ]	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [njuːˈgətərɪ]
20.	Oxalis	/ɒkˈsɑːlɪs/ [ˈɒksɑːlɪs/	/ɒkˈsɑːlɪs/ [ˈɒksɑːlɪs/
21	Pariah	/pəˈraɪə/ [ˈpærɪə]	/pəˈraɪə/ [ˈpærɪə]
22	Pejorative	/pɪˈdʒɒrətɪv/ [ˈpiːdʒərətɪv]	/pɪˈdʒɒrətɪv/ [ˈpiːdʒərətɪv]
23	Urea	/jʊəˈrɪə/ [ˈjʊərɪə]	/jʊəˈrɪə/ [ˈjʊərɪə]
24.	Viniculture	/ˈvɪnɪkʌltʃə/ [vɪnɪˈkʌltʃə]	/ˈvɪnɪkʌltʃə/ [vɪnɪˈkʌltʃə]

Twelve words showed that the common pronunciations remained common and the uncommon pronunciations recorded in the 14th edition totally disappeared in the 18th edition of the EPD.

Table 5: Common Pronunciations of the Eighties Remained and the Uncommon Pronunciations Disappeared in the Early Two Thousands

S.no.	WORD	14TH EDITION 1987	18TH EDITION 2011
1	Abigail	/ˈæbɪgeɪl/ [æbɪˈgeɪl]	/ˈæbɪgeɪl/
2.	Banal	/bəˈnɑːl/ [ˈbeɪnl]	/bəˈnɑːl/ -
3.	Cameroon	/kæməˈruːn/ [ˈkæməruːn]	/kæməˈruːn/
4.	Divorcee	/dɪvɔː ˈsiː/ [dɪˈvɔːseɪ]	/dɪvɔː ˈsiː/
5.	Ecuador	/ˈekwədɔː/ [ˌekwəˈdɔː]	/ˈekwədɔː/
6.	Gallop	/ˈgæləp/ [gæˈlɒp]	/ˈgæləp/
7.	Jamboree	/dʒæmbəˈriː/ [ˈdʒæmbərɪ]	/dʒæmbəˈriː/
8.	Maladroit	/ˌmæləˈdrɔɪt/ [ˈmæləˌdrɔɪt]	/ˌmæləˈdrɔɪt/
9.	Manganese	/ˈmæŋgəniːz/ [ˌmæŋgəˈniːz]	/ˈmæŋgəniːz/ -
10.	Marital	/ˈmærɪtl/ [məˈrɑɪtl]	/ˈmærɪtl/ -
11.	Panama	/ˈpænəmɑː/ [pænəˈmɑː]	/ˈpænəmɑː/ -
12.	Trajectory	/trəˈdʒektərɪ/ [ˈtrædʒɪktərɪ]	/trəˈdʒektərɪ/ -

Four words showed that the uncommon pronunciations of the eighties became common and the common pronunciations of the eighties became uncommon after a time period of 24 years. The four words are shown in Table 6 given below:

Table 6: Common and Uncommon Pronunciations of the eighties changed to Uncommon and Common Pronunciations Respectively in the Early Two Thousands

S.no.	WORD	14TH EDITION 1987	18TH EDITION 2011
1.	Adulatory	/ˈædjʊleɪtərɪ/ [ædjʊˈleɪtərɪ]	/ ædjʊˈleɪtərɪ/ [ˈædjʊleɪtərɪ]
2.	Avimore	/ævɪˈmɔː/ [ˈævɪmɔː]	/ˈævɪmɔː/ [ævɪˈmɔː]
3.	Bathsheba	/bæθˈʃiːbə/ [ˈbæθʃɪbə]	/ˈbæθʃɪbə/ [bæθˈʃiːbə]
4.	Doyen	/dɔɪˈen/ [ˈdɔɪən]	/ ˈdɔɪen/ [dɔɪˈen]

Two words showed that the uncommon pronunciation became common and the common pronunciation didn't become uncommon but totally disappeared.

Table 7: Uncommon Pronunciations of the Eighties changed to Common Pronunciations and the Common pronunciations of the eighties totally disappeared in the Early Two Thousands

S.no.	WORD	14TH EDITION 1987	18TH EDITION 2011
1.	Carillon	/ˈkærɪljən/ [kəˈrɪljən]	/kəˈrɪljən/ -
2.	Minaret	/ˈmɪnəret/ [ˌmɪnəˈret]	/ˌmɪnəˈret/ -

1.4 Final Findings

The final findings of this study are recorded in the same sequence as the work done. First the comparison between the 14th edition and the 11th editions of the EPD and later the comparison between the 14th and the 18th editions of the EPD.

Of the 45 words that underwent a change in the accentual patterns in a span of about thirty years (1956-1987):

- 44.4% showed a particular kind of change. That is, the common pronunciations of the fifties become uncommon in the eighties / nineties and the uncommon pronunciations in the fifties became common in the eighties.
- 31.1% showed a different kind of change that is, the common pronunciations in the fifties remained common also in the eighties, but alternative (less common) pronunciations evolved in addition to these common pronunciations.
- 24.4% have undergone yet another kind of change, where the common pronunciations in the fifties became uncommon and altogether new pronunciations emerged and became common.

Of the 45 words that were looked up in the 18th edition of the EPD, the changes in accentual patterns in a span of about 24 years (1987-2011) are noted below:

- Three words were not recorded in the 18th edition of the EPD.
- 57.14% of the words showed no change in the accentual patterns. The common and uncommon pronunciations remained the same.
- 28.57% of the words showed that the common pronunciation remained the same and the uncommon pronunciation disappeared completely.
- The above two categories showed that the common pronunciation of the words essentially survived strongly. Therefore we can say that 57.14+28.17=85.71% of the words from around 1987 to 2011 did not undergo any change in their accentual patterns.
- 9.52% of the words showed that the uncommon pronunciations of the eighties became common pronunciations and the common pronunciations of the eighties became uncommon after a time period of 24 years.
- 4.76% of the words showed that the uncommon pronunciations became the common pronunciations in the early two thousands and no alternative pronunciation emerged during this period.

- Therefore we can conclude that only 14.28% of the words showed a change in the accentual patterns during the period 1987-2011.

This kind of analysis showed that there was great flexibility in accentual patterns which can change over time. However the changes that took place in the accentual patterns from 1956-1987 were much greater than those that took place during 1987-2011. This phenomenon can be attributed to the unparalleled spread of the English language in the recent times and the impact of technology on language learning in the past few decades.

1.5 Conclusion

The English language has undergone many striking changes during the last one thousand years or so, changes which have affected every aspect of the language, its morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation as well. The pronunciation of a language seems to be subject to a continuous and inevitable process of change. This explains why there has always been at any one-time disparities between the speech of the younger and older generations. Indeed it would be surprising if a means of communication, handed orally from one generation to another, showed no variation over the centuries.

Today there are a number of reasons why we might expect these processes of changes to operate less rapidly. The communication throughout the whole world is easy. The spread of universal education and the resultant exposure to the internet, the constant impact of broadcasting with its tacit imposition of standard speech, are all influences, which are likely to apply brakes to changes in pronunciations. Thus we may conclude that although there are a number of varieties of pronunciation and varied accentual patterns existing because of the fact that the English using populations belong to different complex socio-linguistic situations, the change in accentual patterns of words has slowed down drastically in the last two decades as compared to the changes that have taken place earlier.

This study reiterates the fact that language learning and teaching are at once highly personal and individualistic while also social and that it is embedded in an ecology of inter-relationships. The findings of this study prove that independence and interdependence in language learning co exist. We can conclude that while teachers can serve students best and support them in becoming autonomous and independent language learners, these learners also learn enormously from an increasingly interconnected and interdependent world.

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APPENDIX – DATA

S.no.	WORD	11TH EDITION 1956	14TH EDITION 1987	18TH EDITION 2011
1.	Acumen	/ə'kuːmen/ ['ækjumen]	/'ækjʊmən/ [ə'kjuːmən]	/'ækjʊmən/ [ə'kjuːmən]
2.	Articulatory	/ɑː'tɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [-]	/ɑː'tɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [ɑːtɪkjʊ'leɪtərɪ]	/ɑː'tɪkjʊlətərɪ/ [ɑːtɪkjʊ'leɪtərɪ]
	Abigail	/'æbɪgeɪl/ [-]	/'æbɪgeɪl/ [æbɪ'geɪl]	/'æbɪgeɪl/ [-]
4.	Adulatory	/'ædjʊleɪtərɪ/ [-]	/'ædjʊleɪtərɪ/ [ædjʊ'leɪtərɪ]	/ ædjʊ'leɪtərɪ/ ['ædjʊleɪtərɪ]
5.	Autopsy	/'ɔːtɔpsɪ/ [-]	/'ɔːtɔpsɪ/ [ɔː'tɒpsɪ]	/'ɔːtɔpsɪ/ [ɔː'tɒpsɪ]
6.	Avimore	/ævɪ'mɔː/ [-]	/ævɪ'mɔː/ ['ævɪmɔː]	/'ævɪmɔː/ [ævɪ'mɔː]
7.	Banal	/'bænəl/ [-]	/bə'nɑːl/ [bɪ'neɪnl]	/bə'nɑːl/ -
8.	Batik	/'bætɪk/ [-]	/bə'tiːk/ ['bætɪk]	/bə'tiːk/ ['bætɪk]
9.	Bathsheba	/'bæθʃɪbə/ [-]	/bæθ'ʃiːbə/ ['bæθʃɪbə]	/'bæθʃɪbə/ [bæθ'ʃiːbə]
10.	Chachou	/kæ'ʃuː/ [-]	/'kæʃuː/ [kæ'ʃuː]	Not found
11.	Cameroon	/'kæmərʊːn/ [ˌkæmə'rʊːn]	/kæmə'rʊːn/ ['kæmərʊːn]	/kæmə'rʊːn/ -
12.	Cervical	/'sɔːvɪkəl/ [sɔː'vɪkəl]	/sə'vʊɪkl/ ['sɜːvɪkl]	/sə'vʊɪkl/ ['sɜːvɪkl]
13.	Capitalize	/kə'pɪtəlaɪz/ ['kæpɪtəlaɪz]	/'kæpɪtəlaɪz/ [kə'pɪtəlaɪz]	/'kæpɪtəlaɪz/ [kə'pɪtəlaɪz]
14.	Carillon	/kə'rɪljən/ [-]	/'kærɪljən/ [kə'rɪljən]	/kə'rɪljən/ -
15.	Divorcee	/dɪ'vɔːseɪ/ [-]	/dɪvɔː 'siː/ [dɪ'vɔːseɪ]	/dɪvɔː 'siː/ [dɪvɔː 'seɪ]
16.	Discourse	/dɪs'kɔːs/ ['dɪskɔːs]	/'dɪskɔːs/ [dɪ'skɔːs]	/'dɪskɔːs/ [dɪ'skɔːs]
17.	Doyen	/'dɔːən/ [-]	/dɔɪ'en/ ['dɔɪən]	/ 'dɔɪen/ ['dɔɪən]
18.	Ecuador	/ekwə'dɔː/ ['ekwədɔː]	/'ekwədɔː/ [ˌekwə'dɔː]	/'ekwədɔː/ -
19.	Etiquette	/etɪ'ket/ ['etɪket]	/'etɪket/ [etɪ'ket]	/'etɪket/ ['etɪkɪt]
20.	Explicable	/'eksplɪkəbl/ [ɪk'splɪkəbl]	/ɪk'splɪkəbl/ ['eksplɪkəbl]	/ɪk'splɪkəbl/ ['eksplɪkəbl]
21.	Gallop	/'gæləp/ [-]	/'gæləp/ [gæ'lɒp]	/'gæləp/ -
22.	Glycerin	/glɪsə'riːn/ ['glɪsərɪn]	/'glɪsərɪn/ [glɪsə'riːn]	/'glɪsərɪn/ [glɪsə'riːn]
23.	Grenadine	/ˌgrenə'diːn/ ['gredə'diːn]	/'gredədiːn/ [ˌgrenə'diːn]	/'grenədiːn/ [ˌgrenə'diːn]
24.	Hammam	/'hæmæm/ [-]	/'hæmæm/ [hə'mɑːm]	/'hæmæm/ [hə'mɑːm]
25.	Ibidem	/ɪ'baɪdem/ ['ɪbɪdem]	/'ɪbɪdem/ [ɪ'baɪdem]	/'ɪbɪdem/ [ɪ'baɪdem]

26.	Inexplicably	/ɪnˈeksplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ]	/ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnˈeksplɪkəblɪ]	/ɪnɪkˈsplɪkəblɪ/ [ɪnˈeksplɪkəblɪ]
27.	Jamboree	/ˌʤæmbəˈrɪ/ [-]	/ʤæmbəˈriː/ [ˈʤæmbərɪ]	/ʤæmbəˈriː/ -
28.	Kamerun	/ˈkæmərʊːn/ [ˌkæməˈrʊːn]	/kæməˈrʊːn/ [ˈkæmərʊːn]	Not found
29.	Mandatory	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [-]	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [mænˈdətərɪ]	/ˈmændətərɪ/ [mænˈdətərɪ]
30.	Maladroit	/ˈmæləʤrɔɪt/ [ˌmæləˈʤrɔɪt]	/ˌmæləˈʤrɔɪt/ [ˈmæləʤrɔɪt]	/ˌmæləˈʤrɔɪt/ -
31.	Manganese	/mæŋgəˈniːz/ [ˈmæŋgəniːz]	/ˈmæŋgəniːz/ [ˌmæŋgəˈniːz]	/ˈmæŋgəniːz/ -
32.	Marital	/məˈrʊɪtl/ [ˈmærɪtl]	/ˈmærɪtl/ [məˈrʊɪtl]	/ˈmærɪtl/ -
33.	Marrakesh	/məˈrækeʃ/ [ˌmærəˈkeʃ]	/mærəˈkeʃ/ [məˈrækeʃ]	/mærəˈkeʃ/ [məˈrækeʃ]
34.	Medici	/ˈmedɪʧiː/ [-]	/ˈmedɪʧiː/ [meˈdiːʧiː]	/ˈmedɪʧiː/ [meˈdiːʧiː]
35.	Mediocre	/ˈmiːdɪoukə/ [miːdɪˈoukə]	/ˌmiːdɪˈəʊkə/ [ˈmiːdɪˈəʊkə]	/ˌmiːdɪˈəʊkə/ [ˈmiːdɪˈəʊkə]
36.	Minaret	/ˈmɪnəret/ [-]	/ˈmɪnəret/ [ˌmɪnəˈret]	/ˌmɪnəˈret/ -
37.	Nugatory	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [-]	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [njuːˈgətərɪ]	/ˈnjuːgətərɪ/ [njuːˈgətərɪ]
38.	Oxalis	/ˈɔksəlɪs/ [-]	/ɒkˈsɑːlɪs/ [ˈɒksɑːlɪs/	/ɒkˈsɑːlɪs/ [ˈɒksɑːlɪs/
39.	Panama	/pænəˈmɑː/ [ˈpænəmɑː]	/ˈpænəmɑː/ [pænəˈmɑː]	/ˈpænəmɑː/ -
40.	Pariah	/ˈpærɪə/ [-]	/pəˈrɑɪə/ [ˈpærɪə]	/pəˈrɑɪə/ [ˈpærɪə]
41	Pejorative	/ˈpiːʤərətɪv/ [-]	/pɪˈʤɒrətɪv/ [ˈpiːʤərətɪv]	/pɪˈʤɒrətɪv/ [ˈpiːʤərətɪv]
42.	Trajectory	/ˈtræʤɪktərɪ/ [trəˈʤektərɪ]	/trəˈʤektərɪ/ [ˈtræʤɪktərɪ]	/trəˈʤektərɪ/ -
43.	Urea	/ˈjʊərɪə/ [-]	/jʊəˈrɪə/ [ˈjʊərɪə]	/jʊəˈrɪə/ [ˈjʊərɪə]
44.	Victorine	/ˈvɪktəriːn/ [-]	/ˈvɪktəriːn/ [ˌvɪktəriːn]	Not found
45.	Viniculture	/ˈvɪnɪkʌlʧə/ [-]	/ˈvɪnɪkʌlʧə/ [vɪnɪˈkʌlʧə]	/ˈvɪnɪkʌlʧə/ [vɪnɪˈkʌlʧə]

Accentual Patterns as recorded in the 11th , 14th and 18th editions of the EPD.

Raising Pre-service English Language Teachers' Research Literacy Competencies in a Teacher Education Program

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Abstract
In teacher education programs, one of the required attainments of any ideal pre-service teacher program is to enable pre-service teachers to be aware of research literacy competencies and have practice to improve such competencies during their education. This study aims at equipping the participants with the necessary critical skills and research literacy competencies and tries to investigate whether these implementations create awareness about this issue. This study was conducted at Çukurova University with 55 second-year participants studying in the department of English Language Teaching in the 2018-2019 Academic Year Fall Semester. The data was collected through a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and self-reflective reports. The results of this study show that most of the students do not have much information about research literacy competencies while some of them are aware of it to some extent. This study sheds light on the importance of integrating critical awareness into research literacy competencies in the Teacher Education Programs. The results of this study also contributes to both the pre-service teachers' professional development and the Teacher Education Programs regarding the importance of integrating critical awareness into research and their future classroom practices effectively.

Key words: Teacher education, ELT, research literacy competencies

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Introduction

There have been some developments in the English language teaching programs, and especially in the field of research literacy. Nowadays, teacher research is really significant regarding professional development. Although teachers are invited to research, they are not supported in terms of developing research literacy competencies. Supporting pre-service teachers' research literacy competencies is essential in promoting professional practice; however it remains an area in much need of development. The lack of sustained research opportunities in initial teacher education programs to enable pre-service teachers to link their understanding of research to their knowledge of teaching is the main argument of this study. In supporting prospective teachers' research literacy as part of an initial teacher education program plays an important role in supporting the sustainability of research and in enabling teachers to connect their own practice with the research knowledge. Pre-service teachers' ownership of research is crucial in developing and creating a research-integrated or research based learning environment. The integration of appropriate research to promote effective teaching and learning practices is a significant requirement for teaching professionals in twenty-first century learning environments (Waring and Evans, 2015).

Since language learning and teaching is a dynamic phenomenon, it is important to ensure that language teacher education programs should have a sufficient capacity to provide the pre-service teachers with research-informed and inquiry-rich education. Pre-service teachers need to be trained to become research- literate future teachers so that they are able to make sense of research based articles in the English Language Teaching (ELT) domain. When these pre-service teachers are equipped with such research literacy skills as part of their teacher education program, they will be able to enthusiastically follow and read research articles or studies more critically and reflectively (Liston et al, 2007; Grant and Gilette, 2006; Darling Hammond, 2000). This critical process would enable them to lead more effective teaching practices. Thus, these classroom practices will have a great impact on next generations enriching their critical thinking skills and strategies.

Bearing all these in mind, teacher candidates are in need of great support and guidance to raise their awareness in developing research literacy competencies. At this point, opportunities should be created to develop research literacy competencies at the very beginning of pre-service teachers' careers.

The purposes of the study

In this study we aimed:

- To explore pre-service EFL teachers' awareness about research literacy.
- To enable pre-service EFL teachers to be aware of research literacy competencies and have practice to improve such competencies during their education.

- To equip the participants with the necessary critical skills and research literacy competencies and try to investigate whether some implementations create awareness about this issue.

- To guide pre-service teachers in terms of understanding and analysing academic research articles about their profession and contributing to their personal and professional development.

In this study, it was aimed at drawing attention to developing research literacy competencies of prospective English Language Teachers. This study focused on guiding pre-service teachers in terms of understanding and analysing academic research articles about their profession and contributing to their personal and professional development. Lastly, this study would hopefully help the future teachers understand the relationship between the theory and practice based on research results.

Background of the study

It is vital to acknowledge that research literacy should be perceived as an essential component of what teachers do regularly and not perceived as something externally driven by an authority (Carter, 2015). Enhancing research literacy in initial teacher education program and professional development programmes should be considered carefully in collaboration with those responsible people for newly qualified teachers' induction programmes and early career teachers (Fletcher and Luft, 2011).

Universities have a vital role in promoting both the research literacy of teachers within schools and in supporting school improvement (Mincu, 2013; Coe et al. 2015). Professionalism requires teachers to read research actively, analyse research evidence critically and to be able to creatively adapt research findings into to the requirements of a specific context in order to implement effective teaching strategies. So, research literate teachers become more able to evaluate the information on an informed practice, research knowledge and experience (Wilson et al. 2013). To be research literate means to be able to understand, analyse, interpret and evaluate research. Further, it is to be able to understand why it is important and what might be learnt from it, and to maintain a sense of critical approach and awareness. Teachers having a high level of research literacy means teachers being research literate and this means that teachers are familiar with a range of research methods, with the latest research findings and with the implications of this research for their daily classroom practices, and for education policy and practice more broadly.

Within the scope of this study, it is attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are pre-service ELT teachers aware of research literacy competencies?

2. How can we help pre-service ELT teachers become research literate?

3. What are the possible effects of our implementations on the pre-service ELT teachers?

Conclusions

Main findings

Nowadays, everything is changing too fast and there is an on-going need to adapt these changes as educators and prospective teachers. Our main purpose to conduct this study was to be able to update our approaches based on the current research results and contemporary requirements of our context. Drawing on these, we planned to change our syllabuses according to the needs of 21 century skills and integrate research literacy competencies into our syllabuses in a way that could help our prospective teachers in the best way. We need to provide prospective teachers with all the necessary skills that they will need in their professional life. For that reason, this study would serve for this purpose through creating opportunities to develop research literacy competencies and consciousness into the issue at the very beginning of pre-service teachers' careers.

Research Question 1:

To what extent are pre-service ELT teachers aware of research literacy competencies?

Based on our observations we can say that our students did not read academic research articles in their daily routines or studies. They read research articles only when they were assigned by the lecturers. After that, we gave an open-ended questionnaire to the students and we realized that most of the students were not familiar with the concept of research literacy and those related competences. Although most of them could define what research is, they could not develop an argument in terms of research literacy. Some of them had difficulty to answer the questions in the questionnaire.

The open-ended questionnaire was given to 51 participants and the results show that

- Most of the students are not aware of the concept of 'Research literacy' and they have no idea about it. (27/51)
- Some students have an idea about the concept of 'Research literacy'. (20/51)
- Some of the students have some false beliefs about the concept. (10/51)

Some excerpts from the participants:

S1: In my respect, it consists of some main components such as being familiar with scientific or academic terminology, getting the better of given topic.

S24: I do not have any idea about it. I assume that it means a study which is written on a paper, but I am not sure.

S27: I don't know but I think it is something about criticizing the research and its results.

S29: I think it is about the words that we use in research which should be scientific and appropriate for the context.

S33: It is being aware of true and wrong information because when you search sth., you will face lots of information and you should be able to see the reliable ones.

S50: For me, it is some experienced observation or some statistical information which makes sth. clear in our mind. And it is full of data from different sources.

As it is clear from the excerpts, students are seriously in need of guidance and support to develop research literacy competencies. Unfortunately most of the pre-service teachers need strict instructions and practices in terms of developing research literacy competencies and becoming professional teachers who can read and understand research articles in their future careers.

When we asked them how often they read academic research articles, the results were not satisfactory. And the results are presented in the table below.

Never/Hardly ever	5/51
Sometimes/Rarely	35/51
Often	11/51

As can be understood from the table, most of the students do not read academic research articles very often. Only a few of them read articles often. Therefore, we understand that most of them are not really aware of the benefits of reading academic research articles. They are not aware of the fact that they need to be teachers who are searching and exploring new ways of teaching as they are expected to answer the expectations and needs of 21 century. At this point, we wanted to create awareness into the issue.

Research Question 2:

How can we help pre-service ELT teachers become research literate?

With the aforementioned purposes in mind, we wanted to prepare an awareness program with 2 phases in order to raise pre-service teachers' research literacy competencies in the first phase-theoretical followed by a practical phase that requires pre-service teachers to read a research article and present it to their peers in the classroom.

We prepared an awareness program with 2 phases:

Step 1: In the first phase, a theoretical training was delivered by the first researcher on how to analyse and critically evaluate a research paper from a pragmatist perspective.

Step 2: In the second phase, a practical phase was conducted, which requires pre-service teachers to read a research article and present it to their peers in the classroom. Fifty five second-year pre-service teachers in the English Language Teaching Department at Cukurova University participated in this study as part of their course in

which students were expected to make presentations. Participants were familiarized with the anatomy of a typical scientific article in the domain of ELT. Then each participant selected an article in the field which they would examine thoroughly. That was an article they received by the lecturer of the course. They were supposed to analyse and present the article in line with the training on 'how to read and analyse an article' delivered by the lecturer of the course. After presentation sessions are over, pre-service teachers were also asked to write reflections regarding their experiences during the process. We wanted to make the process easier so that we shared the academic research articles with the students.

Research Question 3:

What are the possible effects of our implementations on the pre-service ELT teachers?
Based on our observations and students' reflections, we can say that most of them benefitted from these implementations and practices as prospective teachers. Although some of them find the process a bit challenging, they not only learned to read and evaluate an article but also they learned the relationships between the theories and practices from the articles. They also learned how to benefit from research articles and evaluate themselves from different aspects.

Students' Reflections:

S12: There is lots of research about our field and I learned how to use them in my job.

S4: They will provide us to improve not only our educational background but also self-actualization day by day. It is beyond just becoming teachers. It is about understanding the main issues.

S5: I learned how to become an effective teacher and role model. I learned how to handle the problems professionally through reading articles.

S10: I improved critical thinking skills, analysing problems and finding out solutions and doing self-evaluation.

S16: I feel more self-confident about my profession.

S12: They will help me in understanding students' psychology better, having an optimistic approach while facing a problem, being more knowledgeable.

S28: We can expand our knowledge about teaching.

S37: It is possible to go on learning in this way.

Students' reflections clearly show that now they approach research articles from a more pragmatic perspective than before. If they are supported and guided at an earlier period about this issue, it will be easier for them to improve.

Implications and limitations

Recently, the necessity of research integration in initial teacher education program has gained much attention. However, most of the studies in the related literature were conducted with 4th year students. For this reason, this study was conducted with 2nd year pre-service teachers to provide them with essential research literacy competencies in their initial years in teacher education program. Even though teachers are expected to do research and benefit from it, they are not even supported enough to read and understand academic research articles in Teacher Education Programs. Therefore, there is a great need for developing research literacy competencies before asking them to conduct research at the beginning of their education. If they are guided about this issue, they will be able to meet the expectations of 21 century and they will be successful and satisfied teachers.

When it comes to the limitations, this research was conducted in only one state university. If it can be conducted in different universities, the results can be compared with the previous findings. This research also can be conducted with in-service ELT teachers and the results can be compared.

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Beyond Traditional Approaches and Methodologies: The New Roles of Texts

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Abstract
With the recent focus on bringing technology into learning environments and creating concept-based curricula, the role of a text in English as a Second Language education remained unchanged. At the same time, Language Acquisition has begun taking place outside of classrooms with no consideration of emerging and developing trends. Through a thorough study of academic journals and language publications, this paper will critically analyse the traditional approaches to texts in English Language Teaching. It will then indicate the incipient opportunities for various types of texts to become a means to equip individuals with language tools beyond traditional approaches and methodologies. Subsequently, it will present how a classroom can be turned into not only a cultural interpolation but also a favourable environment in which learners can practice their interdisciplinary recognition and their critical thinking skills. As a result, the focus from 'what to teach' which entails standard reading comprehension tasks introducing language in context is shifted onto 'how and why', to provide learners with strategies and occasions to experience, exploit and process a text in order to be ready to take a stand in the modern world.

Keywords: Language acquisition, Culture studies, Curricula, Critical thinking

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Introduction

With the focus on passive mind training in the in the nineteen century and early twentieth century that shifted onto active acquisition and communication, language learning and teaching has developed significantly. The influences of past methods and approaches are clearly visible in modern classrooms with no regard to technological, cultural and social changes. Different methodologies influenced the way texts are perceived and how they are utilised; nevertheless, many language teachers still decide to process texts in view of a single approach.

Traditional approaches and methodologies

The roles of texts in English Language Teaching have always been limited to fit the purpose of current approaches, methodologies or trends that have emerged to reflect existing foreign language learning needs. In the early nineteenth-century Europe, the knowledge of classical languages such as Latin or Greek reflected one's affluence, educational background and knowledge of culture, which gave the way to the Grammar Translation approach. This approach perceived texts as mind training materials consisting of either synthetically created sentences or classic literature. The following were used for translation purposes only and treated a foreign language with a narrow adherence to traditional teachings and doctrines that perceived it as a set of rules to be acquired in a linear fashion (Klapper, 2006:104). Furthermore, as listed by Kelly (1969), reading of classical literature took place in the early stages of language learning and as a consequence little to no attention was given to the context or meaning throughout the process. This analytical and systematic approach to target language learning gained a wide and unquestionable popularity despite the lack of theoretical underpinning to provide its pedagogical functionality (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As Harmer (2007) points out, the Grammar Translation approach is still commonly applied as referring to learners' mother tongue is a natural process that takes place at every stage of language learning for the purpose of facilitation; nevertheless, it could also obstruct a natural language acquisition; therefore, the approach is not practiced in its original form.

In contrast to the straightforward Grammar Translation method, the historical situation on both continents created a need for military personnel to learn foreign languages. In the face of World War II, it was essential for learners to master situational language for speaking and listening purposes (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014). The American Audiolingual approach was again structured around grammar points, at the same time, the British Oral Situational Approach was informed by situations and contexts that required categorised vocabulary clusters (Hawkins, 1981). Both approaches were informed by the Direct Method that stressed the importance of experience hence, demonstration and the use of authentic objects were applied. Furthermore, the theoretical underpinning for the Audiolingualism and Oral Situational Approach consisted of the works of a structural linguist, Leonard Bloomfield and a behaviourist, Burrhus Frederic Skinner. The texts used to teach in accordance with these methods were mainly oral, recorded or written, artificially constructed to present a grammar aspect (AL) or vocabulary cluster (OSA) in context. Again, texts were approached in a controlled manner to create habits, spoken rather than written. As both approaches were based on the Direct Method's assumption that a foreign langue should be acquired in a natural way that resembles L1 acquisition,

the role of texts and written communication was withheld, since similarly to small children, this form of communication is not used at the initial stages of language development (Klapper, 2006).

Following the development of cognitive theories proposed by Chomsky which perceived language learning as patterns that can be stretched over new experiences in order to test their application and correctness, new methods that approached texts as meaningful, functional constructs emerged. The Communicative Language Approach was created in order to stress the importance of input, which according to Krashen's theory, needs to be comprehensive, meaningful and challenging enough (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014). Therefore, the texts used in the classroom to facilitate the development of learners' 'communicative competence' (Hymes, 1971) were authentic and meaningful in order to present language and cultural notions. The texts were of different genres and often offered a task to fulfil or a problem to solve. In order to combine various communicative functions, aims and perceptions, the functional-notional syllabuses were designed and followed (Wilkins, 1976). The texts, however, were often modified or randomly selected and as a result exposed learner to a dogmatised input which was often incomprehensible, irrelevant and demotivating.

Initially supported by books only, then coursebooks, tapes and the use of language labs, language learning and teaching have experienced a tremendous enhancement with the implementation of computers, the internet, tablets and mobile devices. Technology has adapted a variety of texts that are utilized in structured way, for example they serve as materials for reconstruction, gap-fill or re-ordering material (Klapper, 2006). Furthermore, the multimodality of texts is an attractive feature for software users as it provides constant feedback, rewards and a selection of content that can support learning processes. Texts have become easily accessible and many tools were created to deliver them in various forms, for example digital, hyperlinked texts, audiobooks, speech recognition tools, virtual libraries, streaming services and many more. The accessibility to countless resources has shifted responsibility for learning processes onto a learner and at the same time, it has irreversibly changed the roles of teachers in modern world.

TABLE 1. – the author's own resource

Method or approach	**Text forms**	**Text purpose**	**Approach to errors**	**Method aim**	**L1**	**Classroom interaction**
Grammar Translation	Artificial sentences and passages, classic literature	Material for translation which draws attention to grammar structures	Errors result from student's insufficient knowledge of structures/ Solution: more practice	Training the mind, promoting analytical thinking and problem solving	Used for instructions and drawing comparison with L2	Teacher centred; students are passive

Audiolingual and Oral Situation approach	Artificial dialogues and role plays, vocabulary lists	Texts facilitate speaking in context, to present grammar/ vocabulary use	Errors to be avoided at any cost/ Solution: drill and memorisation	To train speaking in context and listening to native sounds	No L1 in the classroom or laboratory	Teacher centred; students are active but not activated
Communicative Language Teaching	Authentic and meaningful texts, often adapted or graded texts of different genres	Texts present language functions and notions in meaningful context to facilitate learners' progress	Errors derive from the process of natural acquisition and are tolerated	To teach 'communicative competence' (Hymes, 1971) with application of sociolinguistics and cultural studies; integration of skills	L1 to be avoided in the classroom	Various interaction patterns inside and outside of classroom: pair work, group work
Technology Enhanced Language Learning	Variety of multimodal texts, both artificial and authentic; literary and non-literary	Text present the language contexts and use and serve as input for reconstruction	Errors are immediately revised to reinforce correctness	To integrate and/or supplement traditional learning processes with technological tools; to give learner control	Preferably no L1	CMC, interactions controlled by learners/users
Concept-Based Curriculum Approach	Variety of multimodal and interdisciplinary and authentic texts; literary and non-literary	Texts provide a conceptual lens for the interdisciplinary content which exposes learners to the new and/or unfamiliar experiences	Learners' errors provide feedback to teachers and expose students' cognitive processes; they inform further actions	To establish transferable understandings across and beyond a concept-based curriculum	L1, L2 if relevant to the topic, translingualism	Learners become practitioners

The aforementioned approaches and methods capture the everchanging relationship between existing trends, resources available and foreign language learning needs. As presented in the Table 1, the chosen approaches and methods demonstrate an increasing learner independence that grows in correlation with greater understanding of texts. This interdependence; however, requires a revised approach to language learning and teaching that can no longer benefit from one methodology. As Celce-Murcia et al. (2014) indicate, no method or approach should be supreme to other, since the current, complex circumstances in the post-method era call for new learning and teaching strategies. Similarly, Erickson and Lanning (2014) emphasise the necessity of an educational model shift from the traditional, two-dimensional model of 'what and how' to the three-dimensional model of 'what, why and how, which promotes higher-order thinking and independence. As a result, the Concept-Based Approach to syllabus design is proposed to integrate subjects across the curriculum to stimulate practice beyond skill-based approach, so learners have a chance to become practitioners in a particular discipline (Tomlinson et al., 2002). In pursuance of transferable understanding of concepts, learners are required to interact with facts and principles globally across various disciplines in sufficient depth. Thus, texts become a medium that exposes learners to new and unfamiliar opportunities which are to be explored and utilised within the given concept. Both literary and non-literary texts in traditional or digital form create an occasion for learners to process information, internalise knowledge in different contexts, critically analyse facts, solve problems and create new approaches to the subject matter. Through literary texts learners may experience a plethora of emotions and affects, which generate greater intercultural involvement and may result in empathy building and social cohesiveness.

Conclusions

Approaches to texts have varied in the history of foreign language teaching. From very rigid perception of literary texts during the popularity of the Grammar Translation approach, through semi-authentic, cut-and-paste understanding of passages in Communicative Language Teaching, to unobstructed accessibility to various texts with limited interactive exploitation in Technology Enhanced Language Teaching. As current developments and academic underpinning allow teachers to build their competence in view of various methodologies and approaches, it is crucial to provide learners with strategies and occasions to experience, exploit and process texts in a conceptual and integrated manner. Texts allow students to internalise the subject knowledge beyond the curriculum so that they can be ready to take a critical stand in the modern world.

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Writing in English with Help

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Abstract
Writing is one of the most difficult skills for Japanese people to master in English learning. The Ministry of Education held a nationwide English proficiency test for the 3rd year students of senior high school in 2017. In the report, the Ministry pointed out the link between low writing scores and low frequency of employment of integrated writing activities in classrooms. Then, how can we provide more opportunities to write in English to our students? One of the obstacles in increasing writing activities is giving feedback. Introducing writing software and applications in classrooms is one way to reduce the workload of teachers to give feedback and provide more activities to write. In this study, the changes of the perceptions of the writers towards writing in English before and after the writing activities were investigated. One on-line writing tool, Criterion®, was utilized in writing instructions, and the writers' perceptions towards writing and the instrument were examined. The participants were the students of four writing classes in a college in Japan. The participants were two freshman and two sophomore classes. The questionnaires were distributed to the participants before and after using Criterion® between June and July in 2018. After using the writing tool, understanding of the tool's features was deepened and the perception towards writing in English were changed. Writing more might lead students to have more practical view of writing.

Keywords: writing, foreign language learning, perception

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Introduction

Writing in a language which is not your mother tongue is difficult. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan conducted a nation-wide English test in 2017 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2018). The target level of proficiency for the third year students of senior high school is CEFR A2. The percentage of the students who archived this target level was 19.7% in writing. There were students, 15.1%, who could not gain any scores on the writing test. How about other skills? Reading and listening were not very bad. One third of the students, 33.5% and 33.6% respectively, archived the target level. Speaking was the other area that Japanese students did not perform well on the test. The rate of achievement was 12.9%.

To improve these skills, the Ministry of Education recommended introducing more opportunities to write and speak in English in class. One of the ways to increase the opportunities to write in English is utilizing computer and the internet in learning.

In this study, Criterion® was chosen to help the instructor in class. Criterion® is an on-line writing tool. It judges the submitted text with e-rater® (Attale & Burstein, 2006). It gives scores on the written text from 1 to 6, and 6 is the highest. This tool can check not only grammar errors, usage errors, and mechanics errors, but also organization and lexical complexity. Instructors can add their own feedbacks to the submitted text. There are functions of planning and revision too. The problem here is to find if this tool is suitable in the writing instruction. Therefore, the research question of this study is: Will the perceptions towards writing be changed before and after using Criterion®?

Method

The present study was conducted between June and July in 2018. The participants of this study were the first and second year students of Japanese women's college. Two freshman writing classes and two sophomore writing classes met once a week. The freshman classes had 5 English classes a week, two reading classes, one listening, one communication, and one writing classes. The classes were fixed and had almost the same members. The sophomore classes had 3 classes in one week, one reading, one writing, and one communication classes. These four writing classes were taught by the same teacher. Therefore, the differences in instructions must be minimum. All the students read and signed the informed consent.

The questionnaires were distributed and answered before the participants used Criterion® in June, and after they used it in July in 2018. This schedule corresponded to the second Quarter of the school year.

The questionnaires were consist of five groups of questions in the pre-questionnaire, and 6 in the post-questionnaire. The first group of questions was about the previous experience of using Criterion®. The second group of questions were asking their perceptions of writing in English. There were 23 choices and "other" box, and the participants were asked to choose all of the feelings and opinions they though suitable to express their own thoughts. The third group was on which area they would like to improve in writing. There were five choices and "other" box. The fourth group

prepared to probe their perceptions of on-line materials to learn English. The last group was regarding the features of Criterion®. Fifteen choices were shown. In the post-questionnaire, there was one more group added. This section had a different format from other sections. The participants were asked to fill in the gap in "I wish Criterion® were more ( )."

Findings

The numbers of the participants and the dates of the data collection were as in the tables below.

Table 1: Date and Number of Collected Surveys

		Pre-survey		Post-survey	
		Date	n	Date	n
Sophomore	Class 1	June 18	16	July 25	16
	Class 2	June 19	15	July 31	15
Freshman	Class 3	July 10	15	July 28	12
	Class 4	July 10	15	July 28	14

Table 2: Total Number of Submission

	n
Class 1	46
Class 2	45
Class 3	42
Class 4	45

The length of the use of this system, Criterion®, was about one month, and the average of submissions per person was 3. The students did not use the writing tool very often. The instructor explained how to use three times before the students started to use Criterion®. The students were fairly well prepared to use the tool.

The data analysis was done in two steps. First, T-test was used to examine if each data set was different from others. Then, the comparison of averages was conducted to see the detailed picture.

Using T-test to check the differences, all the results showed that the groups stayed the same before using the tool and after using it (Table 3).

Table 3: Results of t-test

	t
Class 1	0.55
Class 2	0.63
Class 3	0.55
Class 4	0.63

There were no significant differences before and after using the tool. Between the classes, also, there were not differences. Therefore each class's quality stayed the same, and as a class, they were not different from each other.

To see the detailed picture, comparison of averages was done. The differences

between the pre-survey and the post-survey were gained. The ten largest differences were mainly in Q2 and Q5 sections. The questions were "How are you feeling towards writing in English? Circle all choices you think appropriate (Q2 Section)." and "How do (did) you feel about using Criterion®? Tell us your feeling towards Criterion® (Q5 Section)."

Table 4: Largest Differences in Average

Difference	Q Section	Class	Choice
-60.0%	Q5	Class 2	Using Criterion ® is troublesome
-53.3%	Q5	Class 4	I think quality of my writing was improved
46.7%	Q5	Class 2	I used it when I worked on my writing assignment
-43.8%	Q2	Class 4	I want to be a better writer
-40.0%	Q2	Class 2	I cannot write fast enough
38.3%	Q5	Class 3	I used it when I worked on my writing assignment
37.5%	Q5	Class 2	I used it when I worked on my writing assignment
-37.5%	Q2	Class 1	I want to be a better writer
-33.3%	Q2	Class 2	Writing is troublesome
-33.3%	Q2	Class 2	I feel uneasy about making grammatical errors
-33.3%	Q4	Class 2	I have no interests in using on-line learning materials

Negative percentage is not directly connected to affirmative support of the sentence. It shows the fact that the responders did not choose the sentence. Therefore, the analysis below might not be reflecting the reality. According to the results in Table X, more than half of the students in Class 2 changed their perception of using Criterion®. More than one third of the students in Class 2 understood when to use this writing tool. About one third of Class 2 felt more relaxed to write in English, and showed more interests to use on-line learning materials than before they used Criterion®. About one third of the students of Class 1 and Class 4 expressed less desire towards being better writers. More than half of the students in Class 4 responded that Criterion® did not improve their writing quality. One third of the students in Class 3 also expressed that they understood when to use this tool. As a whole, the students expressed their understanding of when to use the tool, but they also showed that the tool itself cannot improve the quality of their writing.

The first section, Q1 Section, asked about the students' previous experience with Criterion®, "Have you ever used Criterion® before?" and most of them answered that they had not used the writing tool before in pre-survey.

Table 5: Result of Section 1

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Class 1	12.5	87.5
Class 2	20.0	80.0
Class 3	0.0	100.0
Class 4	0.0	100.0

The second section asked about the participants' perception of writing in English. The

prompt said, “How are you feeling about writing in English? Circle all choices you think appropriate.” There are 23 sentences to choose from. Top ten differences of this section are seen in the following table.

Table 6: Main Result of Section 2

	Writing is troublesome	I cannot translate Japanese to English	(Writing in English is) time consuming	I feel uneasy about making grammatical errors	I do not have large enough vocabulary	I cannot write fast enough	I admire (a person who can write in English)	I want to be a better writer
Class 1								-37.5%
Class 2	-33.3%			-33.3%		-40.0%		
Class 3		-31.7%		-26.7%	-28.3%		-23.3%	
Class 4			-29.5%					-43.8%

The first six choices are showing a negative view towards writing in English, so negative percentage means these negative views might be lessened in the participants. The last two items expressed a positive feeling towards writing.

The third section is about the areas to improve in writing. The prompt said, “Which area would you like to improve in writing in English?” and there were five categories shown.

Table 7: Result of Section 3

	Accuracy	Speed	Expressiveness	Vocabulary	Fluency
Class 1	-12.5%	6.3%	-31.3%	-12.5%	-18.8%
Class 2	0.0%	6.7%	-6.7%	13.3%	0.0%
Class 3	23.3%	18.3%	8.3%	-28.3%	-8.3%
Class 4	-3.3%	1.9%	25.7%	16.7%	0.0%

The students in Class 1 chose “speed” to write as an area to improve. In Q2 Section, there were two sentences regarding to writing speed, “I can write fast” and “I cannot write fast” and no one chose “I can write fast” but the number of the students who chose “I cannot write fast” increased slightly, 6.3%, in Class 1. On the contrary, a large drop was seen in “expressiveness”. In Q2 Section, the changes seen in “I cannot translate Japanese to English (-12.5%)” and “I have no idea what expressions to use (to express my ideas) (-18.8%)” support the drop in “expressiveness” as an area to improve. They noticed that they could express their ideas better than they expected.

Unlike other groups, among the students in Class 2, big changes in the percentages were not seen. They showed they thought that they needed larger vocabulary. This result was supported by the result in Section 2. In pre-survey, 66.7% and in post-survey, 86.7% of the students in Class 2 chose "I do not have large enough vocabulary."

The students in Class 3 paid more attentions towards accuracy and speed of writing after they used Criterion®. In Section 2, they chose "(Writing in English is) time consuming (Pre-survey 86.7%, post-survey 75.0%)" and "I cannot write fast enough (pre-survey 53.3%, post-survey 50.0%)." Expressiveness did not change very much, but in the pre-survey, 66.7% and in post-survey, 75.0% of the students indicated it was an important area of improvement. In Section 2, they said "I have no idea what expressions to use (to express my ideas) (pre-survey 53.3%, post-survey 50.0%)."

Expressiveness was the area of improvement for the students of Class 4, too. About one fourth of increase was seen in this area. This area gathered attention in both pre-survey, 60.0%, and post-survey, 85.7%. The meaning of "expressiveness", however, might be different in their case. The percentage of the students who chose "I have no idea what expressions to use (to express my ideas)" showed a drop from 53.3% to 35.7%. Instead, there was a rise in "Thinking about what expressions to use is fun" in Section 2, from 13.3% to 21.4%. There was not a large difference seen in "accuracy" area, but the percentages of the students who chose this area were 53.3% and 50.0%, before and after using Criterion®. It probably reflected the results in Section 2, "I feel uneasy about making grammatical errors (pre-survey 53.3%, post-survey 50.0%)." When we see the item, "I do not pay attention to grammar when I write" in Section 2, there was a slight rise from 6.7% to 14.3%. The students in Class 4 might have found fun in writing.

The fourth section is prepared to probe their attitudes towards use of on-line learning materials.

Table 8: Main Result of Section 4

	am interested in	no interests	looks difficult	I do not wish to use on-line learning materials since I am not good with computer	want to try	can be a good way to use my time efficiently	cannot spare time	feel excited	makes me tired
Class 1	0.0	-12.5	0.0	6.3	-6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3
Class 2	0.0	-33.3	-6.7	-6.7	0.0	13.3	6.7	0.0	0.0
Class 3	3.3	0.0	-6.7	28.3	18.3	8.3	1.7	0.0	-18.3
Class 4	-16.7	0.0	21.9	-6.2	-6.2	0.5	1.0	0.0	14.8

The students in Class 1 showed rather stable attitudes towards on-line learning materials. Class 2 showed more friendly view of using on-line materials after using Criterion®. Except "cannot spare time," drops are seen in negative statements, "no interests," "looks difficult," and "I do not wish to use on-line learning materials since I am not good with computer," and rises in "can be a good way to use my time efficiently."

Class 3 offered more complicated results. The statement "I do not wish to use on-line learning materials since I am not good with computer" increased 28.3%. When we see the percentage of each item, "am interested in" increased 3.3%, from 46.7% to 50.0%. On the other hand, the increase of "I do not wish to use on-line learning materials since I am not good with computer" was gained by the movement from 13.3% to 41.7%. Half of the students in Class 3 were interested in using on-line materials to learn English, but at the same time half of the class did not wish to use on-line learning materials since they were not good with computers. The surveys were not designed to identify each participant, it is difficult to say one half of the class accepts on-line learning materials, and the other half does not. Examining the overlaps is needed.

The largest difference in percentages happened in the statement, "looks difficult" in Class 4. The rise was 21.9%, from 6.7% to 28.6%. Many students were interested in using on-line learning materials (pre-survey 66.7%, post-survey 50.0%). They found it might be difficult to use on-line learning materials, but they still had interests in them after using Criterion®.

The fifth section asked about their perceptions of Criterion® itself. The prompt was "How do/did you feel about using Criterion? Tell us your feeling and images towards Criterion." The top ten differences were as in the following table.

Table 9: Main Result of Section 5

	troublesome	I think quality of my writing was improved	it was useful to correct my errors	I used it when I worked on my writing assignment
Class 1			31.3	37.5
Class 2	-60.0		26.7	46.7
Class 3		-31.7	30.0	38.3
Class 4		-53.3	30.0	

The last two statements, "it was useful to correct my errors" and "I used it when I worked on my writing assignment" are about when to use Criterion®. The students noticed when to use it after they used it. In Class 2, "troublesome" decreased from 60.0% to 0%. It seems that the first year students, Class 3 and 4, had a high hope to improve the quality of their writing by using Criterion® before they use it. The students expressed their understanding of the use of this writing tool.

The section added to the post-survey collected the comments on Criterion®. The respond rates were rather high.

Table 10: Respond Rate of Section 6

	%
Class 1	68.8%
Class 2	46.7%
Class 3	100.0%
Class 4	85.7%

Many of the comments just said "easy to use" in the parenthesis in "I wish Criterion® were more ( )." More realistic comment was "I wish Criterion® could indicate where to correct and how to correct." They could not understand that Criterion® is just a "helper" in writing. It can suggest mechanical errors and structural indications, such as a topic sentence, but it does not correct errors automatically. The students indicated that the quality of their writing was not improved by using Criterion® in Section 5. They did not notice that they were responsible to improve their own writing.

Conclusion

This study is an action research to evaluate the employment of an on-line writing tool. The length of the use of Criterion® was not very long and it was difficult to gain significant differences. From the data collected, it might be said that the participants changed their view of Criterion®. They understood the features of the tool and started to see how they could integrate it into their writing activities. At the same time, they could gain clearer picture of "writing." Their view of writing is more practical after using Criterion®.

They also suggested the need of more understandable feedback from Criterion®. One student stated that she wanted to see her instructor's feedback. Behind this fact, there might be a problem of understanding the feedbacks. Giving feedback has been collecting attentions from instructors and researchers. It is said that students regarded receiving feedback from their instructors as valuable (Leki, 1990, Ferris, 2006). At the same time, importance of interpretable feedbacks was pointed out (Allen et al., 2016). It is supposed that the students of this study were not satisfied with the feedback given by Criterion®. They needed more detailed and personalized interpretation of the messages.

Lai (2010) mentioned "Computer anxiety" behind the disfavor of automated writing evaluation over peer feedback. In the present study, though, the participants did not show strong disfavor towards using on-line learning materials as seen in the results of Section 4. Investigating this topic, feedback, is one of the probable further studies.

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How Teachers' Reflective Inquiries Help them Facilitate Transfer Skills Achievement in Students' Academic and Non-academic Pathways?

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Abstract

In education, the transfer of skills refers to learning in one context and being able to apply the acquired knowledge and skills to other new situations. Many studies show that college/university students do not easily transfer skills from English courses to other courses or writing situations (Wardle, 2016; Lindemann, 2016; Beaufort, 2007). To name a few of causes contributing to this we can refer to three of them as: students' general attitude, course content, and instructors' perceptions and expectations. Even when instructors agree on the two categories of general writing skills and academic writing skills, students believe that knowing the conventions of writing and possessing the content competency in their fields do not help them create a piece of coherent written discourse. This reveals to us that the problem lies in another level of teaching and learning practice which is developing a metacognitive awareness in both sides of learning cycle: teachers and students. The purpose of this paper is to present strategies that enhance first, teachers' awareness of what they are planning to do by developing more contextual-based tasks and second, students' awareness towards gaining a true sense of procedural real-life achievements. The presence of experienced and reflective instructors would guarantee the success of this approach by providing students with ample opportunities of practicing and going beyond surface acquisition of knowledge to deeper levels of learning as discovery procedure, critical thinking, and reflective empowerment on how to apply this acquired expertise to further authentic contexts in both academic and non-academic life styles.

Key words: Contextual learning, learning strategies, Metacognitive awareness, Reflective teaching

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Introduction

As Farrell (2004) states: "A teacher's day never really ends" (p. 1). This not only implies our primary responsibility of teaching but also a fixed time to sit and reflect on what we do both inside and outside our classrooms. What we do in real world is to tie our students' success to what can be more or less immediately observed and measured through a "product approach" rather than a "process approach" to what we teach and expect our students to achieve progressively throughout the term. This limited vision to teaching practice automatically affects the nature of knowledge transfer as well as the strategies for facilitating it in real teaching contexts. An ideal learning context is the one in which students acquire the fundamental abstract knowledge and skills and are able to apply it into other near or far contexts by taking a "diving in" or "bridging" approach rather than "gate-keeping" or "hugging" one (Anson, 2014).

What we observe in our classrooms as English instructors teaching writing intensive courses is disheartening when we notice that mostly teachers claiming that students cannot write in its real sense and each generation identifying various culprits and offering different solutions not lasting permanently. This has been a motivation for researchers in the last three decades to investigate these claims and shift from traditional literary analysis approach to rhetorical genre-based approach. This has led to change the vision from product to process of writing and enabling students to transfer their acquired skills to write across their discipline and later in their professions.

One of these approaches which can facilitate achieving the desired goal, in my opinion, can be the "Reflection approach." According to Jay and Johnson (2002), "Reflection is a process, both individual and collaborative, involving experience and uncertainty. It is comprised of identifying questions and key elements of a matter that has emerged as significant, then taking one's thoughts into dialogue with oneself and with others" (p. 75).

This approach can be reflected in our teaching methodology as well. This is exactly what Korthagen (1993) has defined as reflective teaching which requires teachers examine their values and beliefs about teaching and learning so that they can take more responsibility for their actions in the classroom.

The Four Main Principles in Reflective Practice

Reflective practice in Farrell's opinion (2013) has four main principles: It is "**evidence-based**" because it requires a systematic information gathering approach and using them in informed decisions. Principle two discusses the inclusion of "**dialogue**" both internal (dialogue with the self) and external (dialogue with other teachers in team teaching and group discussions) to bolster reflection as one of the explicit outcomes of collaborative process of dialoguing. This teaching methodology underlies the third principle which "**links beliefs and practices**" when teachers examine what happens in their practice (theories-in-use) and compare it with their own beliefs about learning and teaching (their philosophy of teaching). And, the fourth principle emphasizes on the role of this type of practice as "**a way of life.**" This implies the dynamic nature and presence of reflection which is present not only inside

but also outside the classroom because teachers implement it in constructing and reconstructing their own theories of practice throughout their careers.

Reflective Practice: Worth it or Not?

Freeman (2016) states his concern over the persistent issue of how teachers can implement or operationalize this reflective practice to their programs. To some extent, I agree with this opinion especially when we see some of our colleagues show attitudes and resistance towards this approach by taking reflective practice as an extra time and effort that they do not have to spare and some others consider it as another "job" they have to complete. Others, talk about institutional constraints which limit teachers' hours in the day to reflect on their work and point out to curriculum coverage pressure, stressful existence, and burnout at the end. In contrast, there is another group of educators who think motivated teachers strive to create opportunities to reflect, become more aware of what happens in their classrooms, monitor accurately both their own behavior and that of their students, and function more effectively in and out of their classrooms.

Although I agree with both groups, confronting or applying "reflective practice" to their teaching practice, I strongly believe that educators can have a greater impact on the education system of their own countries and the entire world more than what they think. This can be institutionalized if and only if we take the role of "transformative intellectuals" (Nieto et al., 2002, p. 345) who attempt to reflect on and influence their work. Teachers can proactively start to take control of their working lives in different ways. They can become more empowered decision makers and engaged in systematic reflections of their work by thinking, writing, and talking about their teaching; observing the acts of their own and others' teaching; and gauging the impact of their teaching on their students' learning.

Dewey (1933/1958) has proposed teachers to possess these three features to act as reflective practitioners. He believes that this group of educators must be open-minded, responsible, and wholehearted. He defines the first feature of being "open-minded" as to be willing to listen to more than one side of an issue and to give attention to alternative views. By the term "responsible," he means to carefully consider the consequences of our actions since they can personally, intellectually, and socially affect our students' lives in an implicit or explicit way. The last characteristic, the term "wholehearted" to him means to be so committed to an idea or persistent in a belief that helps us overcome our fears and uncertainties in an effort to make meaningful personal and professional change.

These are all constraints and boundaries imposed on us, as teachers all around the world, by executives in higher levels of education systems—who without getting any input from us—just force us to fully implement their prescribed pre-packaged programs without providing us with minimum academic freedom to be able to apply minor changes or modifications to make it better. We have to think of some other practical ways to get rid of this not that much pleasant situation. You may say that this is an unquestionable scenario but how we can get through this phase of our work life to fulfill our long-term mission.

Reflection-as-Action: A Holistic Approach

According to Farrell (2004), it is difficult to talk about the place where reflective practice for teachers originated, but he believes John Dewey's work (1933/1958) has greatly influenced its popularity in America which further developed by other scholars. Argyris and Schon (1974), Cruickshank and Applegate (1981), Gore (1987), Smyth (1987), Barlett (1990), Van Manen (1991), Zeichner and Liston (1996), and Jay and Johnson (2002) are among the ones to name here (cited in Farrell, 2004). Each model carries a set of specific values which makes it different from another.
One of these models which has taken a more pedagogical approach to education is the one proposed by Farrell in 2015 and adapted in his 2019 ELT Development Series in which he discusses how teachers can implement reflection through a five-stage framework (Figure 1). The framework has been illustrated as a circle which can be navigated in three different ways: theory into practice, practice into theory, or single stage application. This framework as Farrell (2019) emphasizes on is descriptive rather than prescriptive and teachers can take a deductive approach to reflecting on practice by moving from stage 1, philosophy, to stage 5, beyond practice, or from theory-into-practice.

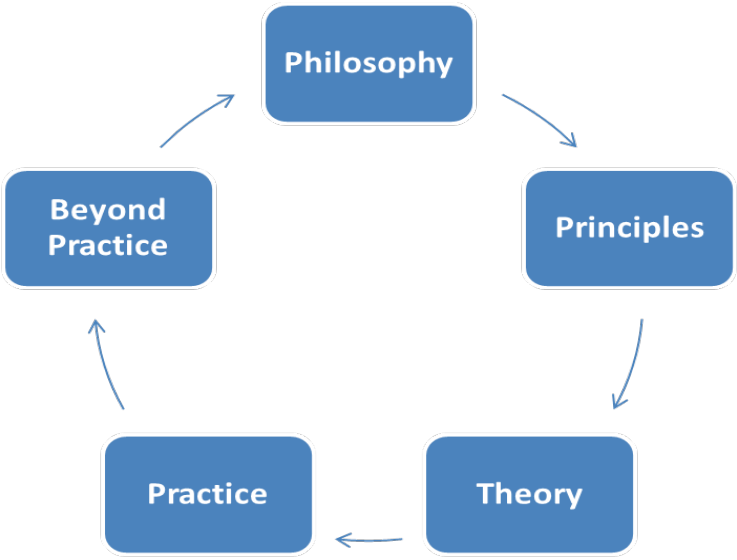

Figure 1. Framework for Reflecting on Practice (adapted from Farrell, 2015)

Operationalizing the reflective practice through this model can be accomplished by going through the five stages of: philosophy, principles, theory, practice, and beyond practice. Viewing reflection as a process in this model strengthens the teacher's role as a whole person and also the multidimensional aspects of reflection. This model not only focuses on the intellectual, cognitive, and metacognitive aspects of reflection but also includes reflection on the spiritual, moral, and emotional non-cognitive aspects of reflection.

Reflecting on Philosophy

As Goodson (2000) states, "In understanding something so intensely personal as teaching it is critical we know about the person the teacher is" (cited in Farrell, 2019, p. 16). Reflecting on philosophy helps teachers gain a holistic self-knowledge by exploring, examining, and reflecting on their entire life from a cultural perspective

including history, ethnicity, religion, socioeconomic background, and family and personal beliefs and values. Farrell (2018) maintains that a teacher's sense of self and identity that originated at birth and continues to develop throughout life invariably guides professional practice, both inside and outside the classroom.

Such a self-discovery knowledge as Palmer (1998) notes, "Good teaching requires self-knowledge ... whatever self-knowledge we attain as teachers will serve our students and our scholarship well" (p. 3) will allow us as teachers to construct our narratives of the self and close the gap between expected and actual teacher identities. Teachers should become aware of the possibility of shifting identities. Research indicates that context influences identity construction and development which can shift as context changes (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Liu & Xu, 2011; Kong, 2014). This idea becomes even more important for TESOL teachers who change contexts by moving to other countries different from their place of origin. This awareness helps teachers reflect on these possibilities and employ various activities in class indicating this identity shift.

Reflecting on Principles

Farrell (2019) believes that reflecting on your learning and teaching principles will impact both your perceptions and judgements which, in turn, affect your behavior in the classroom. Teachers have to achieve a level of awareness by articulating their thoughts because their beliefs may not always correspond to their practices. This self-reflecting on personal opinions will get them to a deeper understanding of the roots of their beliefs to see if there is any correspondence between their beliefs/values and practices and vice versa.

Kagan (1992) defines teacher beliefs as "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught" (p. 65). Another study by Abednia et al., (2013) indicates that articulation of such beliefs permits teachers to better identify their teaching strengths and areas that need improvement and to gain the overall freedom to be able to continually modify existing beliefs whenever appropriate.

Teachers' maxims and metaphors are the two means of assessing principles suggested by Farrell (2015) to guide teachers' instructional decisions and best behavior. He has introduced a list of 18 maxims in his book "Reflection-as-Action in ELT" (2019). Some of them are: "Maxim of planning, Maxim of involvement, Maxim of encouragement, Maxim of learner-centered class, Maxim of cultural input, Maxim of motivation, etc., ..." (Farrell, 2019, p. 18). And, some of the metaphors applicable to teaching practice coined by Lin, Shein, and Yang (2012) are: "Nurturer, Cooperative leader, Knowledge provider, Artist, Innovator, Tool provider, and Repairer" (cited in Farrell, 2019, p. 19).

Reflecting on Theory

By reflecting on theory, it is meant to become more aware of the different concepts and theoretical principles that underlie teachers' instructional practices (Farrell, 2019). At this stage, teachers are encouraged to reflect on their theoretical orientation to planning lessons, as well as on critical incidents (personal & teaching).

According to Ashcraft (2014), there are three different lesson plan designs: *forward*, *central*, and *backward*. Each is different from another based on the focus of the lesson plan. There are three basic features that affect the way you plan lessons. Generally, in forward planning the focus is on the lesson content first and then the particular teaching methods and activities. Central planning is when teacher does the reverse, and first chooses specific teaching methods and activities and then considers the content and outcomes of the lesson. And in backward planning, teacher emphasizes on desired lesson outcomes first, as well as the type of evidence to show that the desired outcome has taken place.

Critical incidents, both inside and outside the classroom, include any events to which critical significance can be ascribed (Farrell, 2019). Teachers can analyze these incidents by engaging in reflective activities such as self and peer observations to keep a record of that incident and investigate the reasons which caused that incident in that moment and decide why this incident led to a change in their teaching. This critical analysis leads us to adapt our theory of practice based on our students' needs and situations.

Reflecting on Practice

Reflecting on practice in Farrell's (2019) opinion "... begins with an examination of observable actions while teaching as well as students' reactions (or nonreactions) to what and how teachers teach during lessons" (p. 31). Teachers can take three reflection styles/modes when they are teaching a lesson: **Reflection-in-action**-when they are teaching a lesson; **Reflection-on-action**-after they teach a lesson; and **Reflection-for-action**-what will come next after what went before.

Good and Brophy (1991) outline the following classroom problems that occur due to a teacher's lack of awareness of his/her own behavior in class: teacher domination, lack of emphasis on meaning, overuse of factual questions, few attempts to motivate students, not cognizant of effects of seat location and grouping, and overreliance on repetitive seatwork.

Our mentors, peers/colleagues, and even our students can be effective sources of providing some guidance and, at the same time, fostering our critical reflection skill. A number of studies confirm the positive impacts of this reflection practice on teachers' influential responsibility and further education and program developments. Farrell (2018) claims that reflecting on practice in combination with theory leads to enhanced awareness of theory and practice connections. Yuan & Lee (2014) believe that this thoughtful awareness not only helps them find the connection between practice and other three stages but also begin to experiment new approaches. Waring (2014) confirms the positive impact of this reflection practice by saying that when feedback is provided, no matter accepting or rejecting , it will guide them to consider alternatives to continue or change their current practicing approaches to teaching.

Reflecting Beyond Practice: Critical Reflection

By Reflecting beyond Practice, Farrell (2019) means reflecting beyond the technical aspects of practice and focusing on more sociocultural and moral dimensions related to TESOL as a profession. This "critical reflection" entails exploring and examining

the contemplative, reflective, cognitive, emotional, ethical, moral, social, and political issues that impact teacher's practice both inside and outside the classroom.

This reflection as Farrell (2019) states—teachers' ability to transform their profession into something they consider equitable for all—transforms reflection from technical to "critical." When teachers are engaged with reflecting beyond classroom practice, this reflection practice enables teachers to not only understand their own assumptions, beliefs, and theories and how to improve them but also connect these to wider social domain in which they are practicing (Farrell, 2018). Deng and Yuen (2011) noted that critical reflection allows teachers to go beyond language instruction and fulfill educationally oriented promises such as helping people become critical thinkers and active citizens.

This practice makes teachers to be more aware of their impact on society and vice versa (the impact of society on their practice). They can understand the power dynamics inherent in education (in & out of class) and to question the beliefs that may have externally imposed on them. Crookes (2009) believes that teachers can even take a leadership role when asking legislatures to help with funding research projects by implementing a set of four actions: "Organizing, Addressing leadership, Fund-raising, Engaging in action" (cited in Farrell, 2019, p. 44).

Have you ever considered your job—teaching—as a type of moral activity? In Farrell's reflective model, yes it is. He believes that one final aspect related to the concept of critical reflection is the consideration of TESOL teaching as a moral activity (Farrell, 2019). This aspect focuses on what morals are present in and absent from our profession, something that we have to ask ourselves. What do you think? Do you think political, social, economic, and religious beliefs and trends should be included while we are practicing our job, i.e. teaching in different places and at various levels?

To me, teaching is a multifaceted profession that requires whoever is involved in such as higher education system executives, school principals, college/university chancellors, deans, chairs, instructors/professors, and students to have some sort of awareness about social forces, political trends, economic interests, and religious diversity to provide a better learning and teaching environment away from any type of discriminations that might be inherent in different educational systems.

How to Engage in Reflective Practice?

According to Dewey (1933/1958), if you want to engage in reflective practice, you have to slow down the interval between thought and action by engaging in a five-stage reflective inquiry process: **1.** Suggestion (a doubtful situation & some vague suggestions); **2.** Intellectualization (deliberate reasoning about the perplexity of the problem); **3.** Guiding idea (collecting factual materials); **4.** Reasoning (deciding to implement actions); and **5.** Hypothesis testing (examining and monitoring this refined hypothesis).

This Reflective Inquiry Cycle is very similar to action research procedures that have been proposed in general education. The Action Research process includes: Planning (identify problem); Researching (review literature); Observing (collect data);

Reflecting (analyze), and, Acting (redefine problem). Then, we can involve in reflective practice by taking an action-research approach that gives us a unique opportunity of thinking and rethinking over all the actions occurring in and out of classroom. We can think of whatever went well and not, and most importantly, ask ourselves "why" it happened and "how" it can be resolved. This is a simple practice of reflection not only applicable to our academic life but also it can be an everyday practice in our daily life (non-academic). The next section tells us how we can give our students the power of utilizing this reflection—practiced by us—in their academic and non-academic practices. There is one answer to this and it is "transfer skills."

Transfer Skills: Conditions and Mechanism

Transfer in Perkins and Salomon (1994) words, occurs when learning in one context or with one set of materials impacts on performance in another context or with another set of materials. Thorough and diverse practice, explicit abstraction, active self-monitoring, arousing mindfulness, and using metaphors/analogies are among those factors that encourage transfer.

Why do factors of the kind identified above encourage transfer? Answers to this question can best come from an examination of the mechanisms of transfer, the psychological paths by which transfer occurs.

Transfer by *abstraction* is still possible today to grant Thorndike's point (1923) that identical elements underlie the phenomenon of transfer. He maintains that an identity that mediates transfer can sit at a very high level of abstraction which can appear in very different contexts.

Transfer by *affordances* is when the potential transfer situation presents similar affordances and the person recognizes them and may apply the same or a somewhat adapted action schema there (Greeno et al., 1988).

High and low/near and far transfer acknowledges that sometimes transfer is stimulus-driven, occurring more or less automatically as a function of much and diverse practice (the low road), and some other times (in the high road), it involves high levels of abstraction and challenges of initial detection of possible connections (James, 2010).

Teaching for Transfer

The aforementioned points about transfer mechanism clarify why transfer does not occur as often as would be wished in academic contexts. They also provide guidelines for establishing conditions of learning that encourage transfer of acquired knowledge and skills. One of the reasons to this hardship might be simply explained through not being able to make any connection between what we teach to our students and what they are supposed to do in new contexts.

Then, how can we support our students to make this transition easier for them? Beaufort (2007), Bergman and Zepernick (2007), Devitt (2014), and Wardle (2016) believe that the three strategies of encouraging the development of metacognitive awareness among our students, providing ample real-life opportunities to practice and

revise their own work in a meaningful way, and engaging them through more authentic tasks and activities are the most practical ways to facilitate transfer.

By implementing these strategies into our teaching practice, we can create a learning atmosphere in which students are aware of their own learning process and through time, they can improve their general academic skills of critical thinking, innovative ideas, analytical argumentation, creative reasoning, and effective communication to an ideal level of competency to meet their needs and get a satisfying result at the end.

Students' Academic Success: Student/Teacher Interactions

Our definitions of students' success often remain tied to what can be more or less immediately observed. We want our students to be able to apply the transferrable skills learned throughout a semester not only in near contexts but also in far contexts as well. This means that academic success has been achieved when our students can communicate clearly, concisely, and correctly in different contexts; respond to various communication modes in a manner that ensures effective communication; apply a systematic approach to solve problems, and use a variety of thinking skills and strategies. In brief, we want them to be autonomous and responsible learners.

This will only take place when instructors carefully consider the essential aspects of any education program by focusing on what they ask students to do, how ask them to do it, and why; devoting great attention to identifying components and conventions of any course/program they are responsible to deliver; and involve both insider experts (scholars in the same field) and outsider experts (diverse disciplines) into our teaching practice. In other words, being able to articulate the underlying principles of teaching and learning enhance reflections and their appropriateness in various contexts. We can achieve this if we apply and re-apply the three elements of facility transfer to our real teaching contexts by: **1)** informing our students about what they are supposed to do (metacognitive awareness); **2)** creating extensive authentic opportunities for the intended communication mode (context); and **3)** giving them extensive constructive feedback and let them think (revision and reflection).

Students' Non-academic Success

Throughout my twenty-six years of academic life (teaching and researching), what I noticeably recognized and understood about my teaching style has taken place after getting familiar with the concept of reflective teaching and deeply affected by Farrell's Reflective Model. When you, yourself, become a reflective practitioner in your teaching career, then in addition to what you observe as your students' academic success, you will be able to see the followings as well (both short and long-term achievements).

- They never think of their academic success as a one-off performance for a grade but as a life-long learning experience applicable to all aspects of their life.
- They involve the process of discovery method/inquiry to other aspects of their personal life: other courses and professional lives (Far and/or Near Transfer).
- They take more responsibility for their own actions, decisions, and consequences.

- They learn how to respect self and others' values and beliefs.
- They learn how to interact with others in groups/teams.
- They can deal with any unexpected/unanticipated issues in life and at work.
- They can think of the most feasible solutions to solve different types of problems (Critical thinking and Creative actions).
- They can be multi-tasker simultaneously.
- They can make well-informed decisions.
- They can manage their time efficiently.
- They can easily adapt themselves to new situations. And finally,
- They can effectively communicate with people around.

Conclusion

Implementing and operationalizing Farrell's Reflective Practice Model into our teaching practice gives us a lens through which we can view our professional and personal worlds. In this way, we become more aware of our philosophy, principles, theories, and practices and how these impact issues inside and beyond practice. One of the most tangible outcomes of taking this holistic approach to our teaching practice will be generating more integrated teachers' community whose members have high potential of understanding how to interpret, shape, and reshape their practice throughout their careers. This practice helps us with well-designed instructions customized with our students' specific needs which, in turn, will affect their general performance to apply the knowledge and skills learned in one context—academic—to other situations—nonacademic—as well.

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British Students' Identity Transition in Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language

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Abstract
This research focuses on investigating key identity transitions for a small number of British students studying Chinese in the UK as they experienced a placement abroad, learning Chinese in Mainland China or Taiwan. Eight British students who had studied Chinese in the China exchange programme at a Scottish university were invited to take part. Drawing on poststructuralist perspectives in establishing a theoretical position and narrative identity theory as a key conceptual frame, learners' experiences, beliefs and perceptions were explored in depth. The face to face semi-structured interview with students was utilised as the main research method. After analysing the data, three themes emerged: cultural identity shifts, motivation/investment, and influences. These themes reflected students' engagement with the target language and culture and their sense of self as they experienced Chinese and Chinese culture during their overseas study time and on their return. Finally, there was a discussion about different language power and identity when learning Chinese as a second/foreign language. Speaking a new language, is seen as the start of a new identity.

Keywords: Identity, Unbalanced Power, Investment

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Research Background

China's increasing power economically has encouraged the development of Chinese Language Learning (CLL) and it is increasingly being seen as a strategic learning decision (Kecskes, 2013). While learning a language cannot be separated from identity and culture (Kanno, 2003; Riley, 2007; Jacob et al, 2015), which is applicable to both first and second/foreign language acquisition (SLA)/learning.

Norton is a very famous researcher in the field of language and identity, she (1995) uses the term identity to capture language learners' understanding of the relationship between the social world and themselves, how this kind of relationship is built through time and space, and how the learners predict the likelihood for the future. She (2013) also pointed out that when talking, the power between the language learner and the native speaker is unbalanced. In 1995, Norton extended the term motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), and pointed out the term investment, which signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language.

Methodological Framework

I totally agree with Norton's (2010) perspective -- when learning a second language, it is not only a process of achieving linguistic knowledge, but also a social practice. Such perspective is rooted in poststructuralist theories of language, which originates in the structuralist theories of language (Saussure, 1966), but focuses on the individual and society, and takes the position that the symbolic practices of communities are places of struggle (Norton, 2010). Poststructuralist theories promote researcher to define identity as a way to understand the concept of who they used to be, who they are, who they are becoming, and the relationship between themselves and the social world, to construct the sense of self and sense of subjectivity through language learning (Norton, 1995).

A person's whole identity consists of varied narratives (Taylor, 2008), and the core element of narrative identity theory is the story, which means individuals construct his or her identity across their life through stories, which are told and retold about who they are and what they believe (McAdams, 2011). In other words, life narrative is the internalized and evolving story that can be constructed and reconstructed from past to now, and can be also imagined for the future (McAdams, 2001). According to this, using narrative identity theory as a conceptual frame to elucidate poststructuralist theories is a suitable and reasonable way to investigate the trajectory of the identity transition in the social context.

By learning form this, a qualitative approach is chosen, since the focus of my research is on individuals' journeys and narratives of participants. Through qualitative research, the data, which have been collected, could be more fully and deeply understood (Hamilton, 2013). Based on the aim of capturing the information about the case itself, rather than the whole phenomena (Hamilton and Corbett- Whittier, 2013), instrumental case study (Stake, 1995) is chosen, to define the whole small group as a case.

Research Questions

As pointed out above, using poststructuralist perspectives in establishing a theoretical position and narrative identity theory as a key conceptual frame, I have investigated the experiences, beliefs and perceptions of the European students of Chinese at a Scottish university. The main research questions could be formulated as follows:

- How do these learners engage with the target language culture before and after studying in Mainland China/Taiwan?
- How does overseas experience influence these MA students' sense of self in their different educational and social communities?

Participant

There are totally eight the UK participants from one famous Scottish university, including both undergraduates and postgraduates. Some of them chose Chinese as a major, and some did as a minor. All of them have been to China. Five of them are males, and three of them are females. The following table is about their detailed information.

Assumed name	Nationality	Gender	Programme	Time spent in China	Education background
John	The UK	M	PG-Master	1 Year and a half	Philosophy - Major Chinese - Minor
Adam	Slovenia (the UK resident)	M	PG-Master	1 Month	Computer Science - Major Chinese - Minor
Colby	The UK	M	PG-Master	One Year	Chinese - Major
Alice	The UK	F	UG	One Year	History - Major Chinese - Minor
Diana	The UK	F	UG	Two Years	Chinese - Major
Fairfax	The UK	M	UG	One Month	Chinese - Major
Fiona	The UK	F	UG	One Year	Chinese - Major
Payne	The UK	M	UG	One Year	Chinese - Major

(Note: The UK for the United Kingdom, PG for postgraduate, UG for undergraduate)

Research Method – Semi-Structured Interview

According to Pavlenko (2001), L2 learning stories are 'heart and soul' sources about the relationship between language and identity in SLA research. There are two main ways of collecting L2 learning stories data. One is autobiographical accounts, the other one is about the field trip and interviews (Block, 2007). Thus, face to face semi-structured interviews with students will be the main method of data collection as well as my own field notes and documentary analysis, to explore their understandings, notions, beliefs towards identity and Chinese as a second language learning, as well as their cultural and linguistic self-positioning in different sociocultural contexts (Kanno, 2003).

Three Main Themes

The data collection process lasted about two months. After transcribed all the interviews, I classified the data into ten raw categories, which are first impression of China, attitude towards Chinese culture, big difference (reflections on experience), uncomfortable moment, the reason for choosing Chinese as a major/minor, motivation/investment, benefit, personal change, international friendship, and future plan. By analysing and synthesising these categories, I developed three main themes, which are cultural identity, motivation/investment and influences. I will explain the data depending on these three themes below.

Open A Whole New World -- Learning Chinese

Why did I choose to learn Chinese?

From eight participants, some of them have the travel experience before they chose to learn Chinese, some of them have relatives in China, some of them want to work in China because of the developing commercial and technical opportunities there, and some of them know nothing about China before they learned Chinese. They have various background about Chinese and Chinese culture, but when I asked them the reason to choose Chinese as a second or foreign language to learn, most of them gave me similar answers: *English and Chinese are quite different. I want to try something different. I am interested in the Chinese culture.*

That is to say, the big cultural distance (Lojeski & Reilly, 2008) between Chinese culture and British/European culture is the most interesting point that encourages them to learn Chinese language. From this reason, I can make an assumption that these participants have an open-minded cultural identity to accept different culture, or at least they are risk takers and have the curiosity to try something new. Otherwise, they would not choose an unfamiliar and difficult language to learn. However, many people could have curiosity to try at the beginning, but how can they persist? Like Fairfax said, *at the beginning maybe because interesting, but I never thought I could continue for so long*. This is the point of the investment (Norton, 2010), so now let us explore more about their Chinese learning experience both in the UK and China.

Learning Chinese is a Process with Sweet and Bitter

At the beginning – learning Chinese in the UK

Before they went to China to learn the language, most of them had learned Chinese at least one year in the UK. However, relatively negative feedback about their Chinese learning outcomes was shown by them. One of the most common reason is the non-Chinese speaking environment, which means they seldom had opportunities to practice Chinese after class, and lecturers in classes always taught them Chinese by using English, to help them understand easily.

There are a lot of Chinese students, but they're kind of in their own bubble, in their own world, and I don't really come across Chinese people so much here. (Diana)

In our first two years here, it was done totally in English, so yeah well not totally English, but a lot in English. (Fiona)

From these two answers, it can be seen that they had the motivation to learn Chinese in the UK, but they did not have enough investment both in and out of the class. What they had learned was more text-based, or exam-oriented, so they might have some knowledge about Chinses politics and history, could do some Chinese reading, and even Chinese handwriting, but they still did not have clear concept about what Chinese culture actually is, how Chinese people are like, and what change they had made after choosing to learn this new language. In other words, in this step, learning Chinese is just like learning a new language, their beliefs and sense of self seem no significant change.

It was a big shock – learning Chinese in China

As mentioned above, there is a big cultural distance between the UK and China. Undoubtedly all of participants told me they experienced a big culture shock when they just arrived China, such as the air pollution, the accommodation, the weather, the strange views to them from Chinese people, the crowded society and the different table manners (share dishes). Like Adam said, *there are many weird things that happen in China every day, like normal people, like an angry mother. I've never seen that before…Not unacceptable but it was something that I just couldn't understand why or how, but otherwise I love it.*

From these, it is not hard to find that living in China for them was not just learning a language in the native speaker context, but facing many unknown challenges. As I assumed, they could be risk-takers, and from their answers, expectably, it showed that most of them could accept and accustom these challenges very soon. *Chinese people were very nice to me.* As most of the participants mentioned, according to Chinese culture, Chinese people are always very nice to guests, especially international guests. Therefore, when they talked with Chinese people, even they were in a relatively weak position (because they might not understand what Chinese people said), Chinese people still gave the power to them, to encourage them to speak Chinese, or spoke in English instead. In other words, Chinese people are willing to spending investment with them. Such warm atmosphere could help them reduce the anxiety of living alone in a strange country, and accept the different culture.

Otherwise, Chinese people's investment did not always help them. *I tried to speak Chinese to them, but they spoke English to me. I didn't know why (Fairfax)*. There was a conflict between their investment. Chinese people wanted to learn English, and they wanted to learn Chinese. This is because the different language position in the world – English is the worldwide dominant language (I will explain this more in the discussion part). Payne pretended himself as a Russian student to avoid his Chinese friends speaking English with him. Thus, it can be seen Chinese people's strong investment to learn English, which definitely has negative impact on participants to learn Chinese. For some students, who do not have very high motivation to practice Chinese, and just want to pass the exams, may lose this investment, and speak English with Chinese people all the time.

Sometimes, Chinese people did not give the power to the language learner. *I feel so frustrated when I cannot understand anything a native speaker's words. Um..*

Because it's too fast. I did not want to speak Chinese anymore at that time (Alice). Here, we can find that in some site, due to the dialect accent, or some reasons that the native speaker do not want to slow down their speed, the language learner is in a passive position. Such position may give them a negative feeling and reduce their investment in the conversation.

From these positive or negative stories, we can find that there is an unbalanced power (Norton, 2013) between the language learner and the native speaker. The more investment the native speaker puts, and the more power the native speaker gives to the language learner, the more investment the language learner would be willing to put, which would help the language learner learn the target language and engage themselves in the target social community.

I find a new myself

During the interview, when we talked about personal changes after studying in China, their answers are undoubtedly similar, which are about the improvement of the Chinese language ability, international communication skills and the acceptance of difficult culture. *I think Chinese keeps me be more like open (Alice). More accepting of people, accepting cultures and I feel like my brain has expanded a bit in a different way (Diana).* The learning experience in China not only improved their language ability, but changed their way of thinking, and even changed their views of the world. That is to say, their sense of self, belief and some perceptions have been changed, which means there is an identity transition during this learning procession. *The way that I look at foreigners in the UK now has certainly changed (Fiona).*

Results – Based on Identity Transition

Cultural identity

From the data analyse above, it can be found that participants obtained a multiple cultural identity, which means they not only built a new language ability, but also rebuilt their native language ability. Like many participants said, they developed their mutual cultural understanding. They got the knowledge about how to avoid sensitive topics to not offend Chinese people, how to respect Chinese culture, and how to live in a Chinese way when they were in China. All these lead to change their sense of self, and sense of belongings. When they came back to their own country, their way of thinking Chinese students in the UK has also changed. That is to say, their identities are different from what they used to be, and the relationship between themselves and others in social world have also been changed.

Motivation/ investment

During the time of learning Chinese in China, we discovered that there is an unbalanced power between language learners and native speakers. In many situations, native speakers (Chinese) have relatively stronger power, but they chose to invest more with the language learners, which means most Chinese people are always happy to help them to learn Chinese, and slow down their speaking speed or speak Chinese in some easy-understanding words to try to help language learners understand what they are talking about easily. All these gave language learners a reasonable way to

learn Chinese language and engage the Chinese culture. However, in some special occasion, due to the accent, or some urgent affairs, Chinese people may not invest themselves much in the conversation with the language learner, which could influence the learners' investment directly, or even make the learner feel disappointed. From these, we can speculate that the process of learning language in the social context depends on the mutual investment between the native speaker and the language learner.

Influences

The influences mainly focus on the language ability and choices of the future career. After learning Chinese in China, all the participants said that their most achievement is the Chinese language ability. One of them even told me he could not speak a whole sentence in Chinese before he went to China, but now he can speak Chinese very fluently with full of confidence. As for future design, many of the participants said they had the plan to work in China after the graduate. Only one told me he would not work in China, but he still plans to work in a Chinese-related company in the UK. Therefore, the Chinese learning experience in China really influenced their future plan, and all of them never plan to work without Chinese, wherever they plan to work.

Discussion – Power and Identity

Bremer (1993, 1996) mentioned that the language learner takes the main responsibility to guarantee the conversation working between the language learner and the native speaker. Norton extended hid idea and pointed out that *identity is a site of struggle* (2013), and she believes that the language learner takes the role of both *subject of* and *subject to* the relation of power in some particular occasion. From these ideas, it is not difficult to discover that due to different identities, as a language learner and a native speaker, in one conversation, their power is unbalanced. The native speaker holds the power to lead the conversation, but the native speaker is responsible for the mutual understanding of the conversation. This theory is applied in the field of teaching and learning English as a second language.

However, when we want to discover the relationship between the language learner and the native speaker in the site of learning Chinese as a second language, does this theory totally work?

Here, I cannot say no, but at least in my research, as I mentioned in the former parts, even Chinese people (native speakers) hold the power in the conversation, in many particular sites, they are willing to give such power to the language learner, and try to construct the mutual responsibly to ensure the conversation proceeding. Thus, it is kind of different from the pattern of learning English. The reasons for this are as following.

Firstly, different from English, which is the *lingua franca* (Crystal, 2003) in the world, there are few people choose Chinese as a first language except Chinese people. Even though as the development of the international influence of China, there is an increasing number of people in the world people choose to learn Chinese, while compared with the amount of people who choose English as a second language, the amount of learning Chinese as a second language is still very small. That is to say, the

English native speakers may feel normal that a foreigner can speak very fluent English, while for Chinese native speakers, they may feel surprised when they hear a person with blue eyes and ginger hair speaking good Chinese. Such different language positions in the world leads the different attitude towards language learners, and because of such surprise, many Chinese people intend to invest themselves more to help foreigners learn Chinese.

Secondly, as I mentioned before, according to China's five-thousand heritage culture, Chinese people are always very polite to guests. They treat the language learners (foreigners) as guests, so they are very warm-hearted to them. This is also the reason why some participants noticed that Chinese people were nicer to foreigners than their compatriots. From this point, the reason can also be found to answer the question that Chinese people sometimes give the power to the language learner, and try to construct the mutual investment in the conversation.

Therefore, Norton's idea partly works in the field of learning Chinese as a second/foreign language – there is an unbalanced power between language learners and native speakers, and the native speakers hold the main power. However, the investment and responsibility for the conversation are more mutual in the Chinese context. This is the different point, which is worth to research further.

Limitations

This is an on-going study, so some of the ideas are still very raw, which need analysing more deeply, such as legitimate speaker (Bourdieu, 1977), anxiety and confidence (Norton, 2013), different investment in Chinese listening, speaking and writing, to explain the relationship between identity and investment more comprehensive. Also, the data are specific and the research method is single, which will not be generalizable in a traditional sense, but this research still extended Norton's theory of identity, to some degree.

Conclusion

From Poststructuralist Theories of identity, identity is changing over time. From the cultural identity, motivation and investment and influences, we can find that British leaners do have identity transitions, but the process is kind of different from them who learn English as a second language. Over all, speaking a new language, is seen as the start of a new identity.

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Personal and Collective Narrative Meaning Making in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract
Personal narratives are among the dominant forms of folklore. Through these stories, we make individual meaning and negotiate collective meanings simultaneously. Such a pervasive narrative practice should find a prominent role in FL teaching and learning. In order to feel a foreign language, we must first of all feel it as a genuine means of personal expression, somehow filtering our L1 selves through the new words, thus beginning a process whereby the new language becomes part of who we are. Low proficiency sometimes prevents students from feeling entitled to engage in such a process, but the benefits of narrating do not depend solely on linguistic correctness. This paper asserts the importance of employing personal narratives with university trainee primary teachers (who will be called on to teach English as well as all other subjects), with a view to encouraging them to use English in the process of narrative meaning making. Narratives collected from individual trainee teachers will be analysed, as well as collective co-narrations, with a view to discussing the ways narrative can be employed. The result is a collective narrative woven through individual stories negotiated in performance during classroom interaction. This narrative practice can represent a most effective source of motivation during training and serve as a tool for developing a sense of authenticity when teaching the language in the future.

Keywords: EFL learning, personal narratives, meaning making

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Introduction

McAdams asserts that "people living in modern societies provide their lives with unity and purpose by constructing internalised and evolving narratives of the self" (McAdams 2001: 100). If "identity is a life story" (ibidem), then reporting on important parts of one's life must be essential in the EFL classroom, in order for the foreign language to become part of who we are and affect our identity: telling stories allows speakers to feel they can exist in a language other than their own.

Personal narratives have always had a prominent role in the language classroom (Barkhuizen 2014; Castañeda 2013; Masoni 2018). Every day, the outside is brought inside in the shape of personal accounts and opinions that often do not get voiced in institutional settings, such as schools, in the language of instruction. Regardless of proficiency limitation, students often find themselves having a greater voice in the foreign language than in their own. The students who took part in the meetings I refer to in the second part of this article agreed that this had been the first occasion for them to voice certain views in the university environment. The EFL classroom appears to grant enhanced storytelling rights. Yet, how far that voice reaches, how it is heard and how much transformative power it is allowed to exert constitute another matter, which will be discussed in what follows.

Writing about ESL students, Norton points out that:

> the lived experiences and identities of language learners need to be incorporated into the formal curriculum" in order to "help language learners bridge the gap between their learning of the target language in the language classroom and their opportunities to practice it in the wider community (Norton 2000: 145).

For ESL students this means trying to equip them with the language they need to interact in the workplace, for example (Sauvé 2002). On the contrary, for EFL students, there might not be an immediate application outside the classroom walls, but telling personal stories might be the only means through which they begin to establish a relationship with the foreign language. And if narrative is an "inescapable mode of thought" we need to allow room for it in the EFL classroom (Hymes 1996: 114).

Hymes, although not writing specifically on the subject of language learning, voiced the need to give students "turns at narrative", to "allow them to bring the outside culture inside" (1996: 116). He continues:

> Students may come from homes in which narrative is an important way of communicating knowledge. They may take part in peer groups in which experience and insight is shared through exchange of narrative. A classroom that excludes narrative may be attempting to teach them both new subject matter and a new mode of learning, perhaps without fully realizing it (Hymes 1996: 115).

Working with personal narratives means putting the learner in a situation where he is the leading expert on a subject he knows inside out, and thereby feels free to concentrate solely on how to express his knowledge. In the EFL classroom, this

means filtering the L1 culture through the foreign language, which is the first stage of language learning, before we move on to learning about the target language speaker. Personal narratives and histories shared in the ESL multicultural classroom are often the only chance immigrant students have to voice their past in an empathic atmosphere (Nicholas et al. 2011) and tell their life histories. However, although much research reports that the use of personal narratives improves students' motivation in the language classroom (Nicholas et al. 2011), other studies reveal that it can have the opposite effect when used in de-contextualised ways. Eliciting stories is not enough to create a class that is willing to share as much as to listen: some students might not be interested in hearing the stories of others. Norton refers to this absent audience as non-participation (Norton 2001). Consider what she says:

> [The] method did not take into account that the learners may have little investment in one another's presentations. While the teacher might have considered her teaching methods student-centred and the students partners in learning, the approach could be regarded as little more than transmission teaching in a multicultural guise. Such disconnected exchanges in the classroom give listeners few entry points for discussion and critique. Mai had no investment in her fellow student's description of his home country in Europe; she had no stake in learning about life in India. […] Mai wanted the opportunity to practice English in the ESL classroom; she did not want to be a passive recipient of another student's exotic stories. […] [I]ncorporating student experiences into the classroom should be a more complicated process than commodifying multicultural histories in the form of student presentations (Norton 2000: 144).

The lack of entry points for the audience is experienced when narratives do not rely on common ground. Kim et al. (2014) report having found low levels of interest in storytelling, because students sometimes think of storytelling as a mere exercise in taking turns sharing completely decontextualized fragments of experience or personal opinions. Such are the results when we deprive personal narratives of their primary, real-life functions. Folklorist and personal-narrative scholar Stahl states that, when telling a personal narrative, "the storyteller hopes to create a feeling of intimacy between self and listener" and that "the personal narrative makes a gesture toward intimacy" (Stahl 1985: 48). If we adopt this view, we readily understand how a disconnected use of personal narratives completely defeats their nature. This is often the case when we ask students to improvise personal narratives based on textbook cues.

I argue that the narratives we elicit should be pre-existing and well-rehearsed in the learner's mind. Personal narratives have to be there already, before we try to elicit them. In other words, the stories that work are the ones that the learner has already been forming in his or her mother tongue: stories waiting to be voiced, but already well formed. Besides, personal narratives need the right context, as they seek to share the teller's inner life with people who are assumed to have the power to understand it: this means its use must be based on common ground (Stahl 1985).

If we wish to avoid the sense of disconnection we often experience in the EFL classroom, motivate students to talk, and give them the entry points that Norton talks about, we need to tap into a sense of community (that is, a shared body of knowledge,

beliefs and ideas). This is what Wajnryb means by 'storied classroom'. She speaks of the need to "draw on the 'storied' lives of individuals and also seek to establish patterns of commonality among students so as to build up a 'group' memory of engaging enterprises that will be remembered long after the last lesson has ended" (2003: 17). Common ground, however, is not enough to provide entry points. The will to listen and possibly step into another person's narration comes also from a sense of entitlement (Shuman 1986) towards the story of the other: this happens when that story has a resonance that goes beyond the experience of the speaker, and acquires a sort of collective value that comes from sharing views as well as experiences. The personal narrative is a form of folklore because it contains "shared 'embedded' values", and as such, it belongs to everyone and provides entry points for all (Stahl 1985: 47).

Indeed, we cannot elicit narratives just to assess the linguistic level of the students, thus collecting isolated speeches that no one listens to. As Sauvé states, we cannot treat the sharing of stories simply as a "teaching technique, because to do so is to trivialise the relationship we have with our stories. Storytelling is more a natural sharing that comes out of the relationship we cultivate with the learners and among learners " (Sauvé 2002: 91). This echoes what Stahl observes about personal narratives reflecting the 'private' folklore of a person, which is only "selectively [and I would add 'spontaneously'] shared" (Stahl 1985: 47), when we feel in the presence of someone who is a potential listener.

But what do we do with the stories we are told in the EFL classroom? What do we do with the content of these stories? McDowell speaks of "performative efficacy, that is, the notion that expressive culture performances have the capacity to shape attitude and action and thereby transform perceived realities" (McDowell 2018: 1). Do we grant them this transformative power?

It seems to me that the issue of how stories are received is essential to how narrative can help language acquisition and even more how it can help people exist in a foreign language. This calls for reflection on a deeper issue: how narrative is treated in our society at large, and its "differential distribution" in society (Hymes 1996: 114). Dell Hymes explained this in clear terms, which apply also to narrative in the language classroom. Consider what he said:

> We tend to depreciate narrative as a form of knowledge, and personal narrative particularly, in contrast to other forms of discourse considered scholarly, scientific, technical, or the like. This seems to me part of a general predisposition in our culture to dichotomize forms and functions of language use, and to treat one side of the dichotomy as superior, the other side as something to be disdained, discouraged, diagnosed as evidence or cause of subordinate status. Different dichotomies tend to be conflated, so that standard: non-standard, written: spoken, abstract: concrete, context-independent: context-free, technical/formal: narrative tend to be equated (Hymes 1996: 112).

Narrative rights imply that what is told will be taken and transformed into some collective property that can be used to make sense of other situations or, in the school context, contribute to the advancement of knowledge (see Wajnryb). Consider what

Cazden says about evening classes at Harvard. Here, "contributions to class discussion based on narratives of personal experience" did "get the floor", contrary to what happened in the daytime classes, where students reported that "when someone, even an undergraduate, raises a question that is based on what some authority says, Prof X says 'That's a great question!', expands on it, and incorporates it into her following comments. But when people like me talk from our personal experience, our ideas are not acknowledged" (Cazden in Hymes 1996:111).

Indeed, the EFL classroom may appear to have a lot in common with the Harvard evening class: anecdotes are accepted and even elicited. But this does not mean granting storytelling rights, because these depend also on how the story is received and what is done with it. Indeed, what Cazden describes is a situation where, not only is narrative accepted in the classroom, but it is also used to create new knowledge, "acknowledged by the professor", and thus used to meet the curricular objectives that Wajnryb (2003) discusses and which, Sauvé (2002) warns, should take into account not only language practice and learning, but also and foremost, pedagogical matters and the creation of a conducive community for learning, where exchanging and sharing is sought.

This deeper understanding of storytelling rights should inform narrative practice in the EFL classroom, as it has the power to create community and can have great effects on students' willingness to engage with speaking and listening. Students need to feel that something is being done with their stories, that the function of a story is fulfilled.

The first place where we need to make sure students experience the transformative power of their narratives is the performance, which should become co-performance. A story that is listened to, picked up and reused to tell new stories has already played its main role.

Then there is another level, the institutional one, where teachers also need to decide what kind of feedback they can give. At times, it is hard to do something with narratives. In contexts where students share traumatic experiences, for example (which is often the case both in the second and foreign language classroom, where students may feel empowered to express what often goes unexpressed in their native tongues), teachers struggle to know where to put boundaries and to respond to certain stories, to the point that Nicholas et al. argue that teachers should be "prepared to make follow-up referrals to health professionals" (2011: 254). But in a context where narratives are shared in a group, and considered of interest to all its members, responsibility for giving feedback to the story will be equally shared.

Feedback to the content of the story, as well as its form, is fundamental for learning to happen. The speakers must feel that their narratives can make a contribution – either in the 'here and now' of the performance, by the listeners who actively and sincerely engage with the stories and contribute to them; or in the 'then and there', where the narrative is perceived as a tool that can transform the future.

The Group: performance and responses

The students in the group were volunteers and this was not a curricular activity. Out of the nearly three hundred fourth-year students on the course, only seven enrolled on

this group (all females). Their proficiency ranged from A2+ to B2+. One student had taken part in an Erasmus trip, and another had had foreign flatmates: they were therefore more used to speaking English conversationally. The other students rarely had occasions to speak English and they welcomed the meetings as an opportunity to converse. Only one person attended the first meeting, six attended the second and four attended the third. What follows, is based mostly on the second and third meetings.

Two weeks after the last meeting, I sent a questionnaire to all participants. Only four people, the ones who had been present at both the second and third sessions, handed in the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 34 questions, in Italian (responses included here are my translations), with which students had to declare agreement on a scale from 1 to 5. In addition to these, there were two open questions and room to expand in 5 out of the 34 questions. The questions aimed to gather an impression of the relationships established with the other members of the group, of experiences of commonality and sharing, of their feelings towards speaking the foreign language, and their perceptions of the relevance and interest of the subject. Also, at the end of the second meeting, the students were asked to write a short diary entry, in English, on the day, so that I could give them some language feedback.

Initially, their motivations ranged from the need to practice spoken language to an individual interest in personal narratives. As it turned out, they knew each other only in passing, and they had never shared stories before amongst themselves, not even in their L1. But they had a lot in common, as they were attending the fourth year of a five-year degree program to become primary teachers, a course which occupies most of their lives with its heavy load of lessons, studying and teacher training in schools.

For this reason, the first and second meetings started with one simple question: "Why did you enrol on this course?" This was the only question I asked. From then on, I took part in the conversation only to encourage them to interact with one another or share fragments of my own experience. The students were told I would be recording part of the conversations and were always made aware of the tape-recorder being switched on. In what follows I will refer to six students and call them with progressive letters of the alphabet for reasons of privacy.

The initial question elicited narratives of genuine passion for their future job. One student had known that she wanted to be a teacher from a very early age (when she played 'school' with her little sister), two others reported having to fight to secure their right to enrol, a fourth realised only with time that this was her calling ("I rethought my life and discovered that I liked teaching and kids").

The narratives were very effective and clear, despite some linguistic limitations, and they disclosed much personal folklore. Interestingly, lower proficiency led one student to make more frequent use of direct speech (as reported speech in the past tense could be sometimes harder to phrase) and this device gave the stories a special narrative depth, as the teller recounted "a conversation, embodied and re-enacted through the use of constructed speech" (Shuman 2015: 40). The use of constructed dialogue, that is, dialogue reported or put together for the performance, makes the story vibrant and easier to follow. It also disclosed more private folklore, because it re-enacted the world of the speaker. As Stahl notes, "the higher the percentage of 'private' folklore embedded in a story, the more likely the creation of intimacy is a

major motivation for the storytelling" (1985: 48). These moments contributed greatly to a sense of community among the students. Sharing of private folklore also extended to other themes recurrent in the students' narratives, such as being discouraged from enrolling, and the fact that, in more than one case, the wish to be a teacher arose from negative past classroom experiences. This led to sharing of intimate aspirations, such as the need to apply more humanity to their future teaching and help children to blossom in ways that they themselves had not been allowed to. Most of these themes were conveyed through effective re-enactment of those experiences, especially in terms of feelings.

Each teller felt supported from the beginning of the story (this was confirmed by the questionnaires): the other students always listened attentively, nodded, and provided reinforcement with body language. In the questionnaire, they all declared that the subject had been of great interest to them, and that they had welcomed an occasion to share things that mattered to them in an institutional, yet relaxed setting (which they had never had the chance to do in their L1 during their years of study). The passion felt for the subject led the students to look for all possible expressive strategies to make themselves understood, and although two of them reported feeling that they had not succeeded in doing so in the questionnaire, from an external point of view, their narratives were all effective. They hardly made use of interlanguage, and only in the initial stages did they ask for my help to refine their words. After a while, as will be shown, they began to help one another also in linguistic terms.

As they discovered things in common, the students were able to share entitlement to telling the story of the others and to add their voice into other colleagues' narratives. Consider the following example, which shows where students have identified and used entry points. C has just spoken about her negative experience with maths in high school. E spontaneously follows up:

> *E: I had basically the same experience. For example during high school I started to hate maths, …and I can say this was because of my teacher. Now that I'm studying teaching I can say she was a bad teacher. And I won't do the same, I don't want my students in the future will to feel the same and start feeling something…that is actually not bad, I mean physics is not bad, maths is not bad. And I don't want that they start to hate it because someone is trying to teach in a bad way.*
>
> *F: I think, when she spoke, I was in the last year of high school, I had a bad experience with the mathematics teacher. During the exam, the final exam, I said to myself, "I never …make…I never…never…non farò mai* [lit., I will never do].
>
> *Licia: I will never…*
>
> *F: I will never make a scientific subject!*
>
> *E: About what you were saying, and maybe it's the same thing also for you (talking to C)…this bad relationship with maths and science, I don't know if you felt the same...*

C: No, I liked… during high school I liked to study scientific subjects…ehm…

E: But? (Laughter)
[General laughter]
C:[laughter]…but! The problem for me was I had difficulties, because for me maths was… [laughter]

E: Hard! Hard to understand.

C: Sì, yes, hard to understand, because, I don't know, I don't know why.

E [to C]: How do you feel about the idea of teaching maths or science?
[General nervous laughter]

E: Last year I went to Erasmus for the first time and […]
[Here C interrupts E to ask about her experience]

E.: But I was talking with a friend there and she was really good at maths, but for example she said she tried to teach maths, and she had some problems. "How is it possible that they don't understand what I say, it is so clear", she said. But for me it was easier trying to think like a child. So maybe it can actually be a motivation for us.

This exchange is of interest in many ways. Even if only three students spoke, the others participated in the performance through sympathetic laughter and nodding. E prompts C with English words and not only does C readily weave them into her speech, she also uses them to reflect upon her experience ("*yes, hard to understand, because, I don't know, I don't know why*"). F reinforces the shared narrative with her own parallel experience and every individual story becomes a thread in a collective one, as they all admitted having had difficulties with how this subject had been explained to them. The students used the past (negative experiences at school) to find the inner motivation to cope with the present (the heavy course load) and imagine the future by contrast (the need to be a different kind of teacher). These narratives are similar to life stories we tell in order to "create meaning and purpose in our lives" (McAdams 2006: 1372), but they also possess added value: their shared entitlement due to the fact that they tell a common story. Such narratives confer a sense of continuity on the individual self, while at the same time allowing the members of the group to rely on one another's experiences in order to accommodate change and foresee ways of coping with the future.

Consider what E says in the end: her story reinforces the group's sense of purpose, by conferring a positive meaning on their past efforts, which she now recasts as the source of a special ability (thinking like children do) that will enable them to be the innovative and caring teachers they wish to be. She does all this by bringing into the picture the experience she gained through English as an international language. This is also the first instance of the shift from "I" to "us". As the story is now obviously shared, E feels she can use her own personal experience to create meaning and purpose for all of them as a group/category.

Interestingly, the story in the story reported by E was immediately picked up and re-elaborated by F in her written piece, which proves that E made good use of it:

> *F: The best thing that rose was that these difficulties with scientific subjects can become an opportunity for us: maybe we'll be best teachers in these subjects because we'll engage more and we'll find way to explain hard concepts to kids (original English).*

As the students shared more information, another major theme emerged and caused a distinct shift from individual to collective narratives. It turned out that their ongoing attempt to forge their identity as student teachers, thus conferring sense upon their choice, relied in part on constructing a response/reaction to the public opinion that surrounded them, an opinion characterised by a number of false conjectures summed up in E's diary entry from the second meeting:

> *E: When someone asks me "what are you studying?" and I answer "I'm studying to become a teacher", they say, "Oh, nice, but I can't understand why they oblige you to study so many years". This makes me feel very angry. […] Many people think that to be a good teacher means to be a good mother and you don't need to study so much. […] "I know deep in my heart why I'm studying in this university, and the reason is that here they are teaching me to create new good citizens who respect themselves and who respect the planet where we are living in."*

These words, elicited by something A had brought up, echo the voices of all the girls in the group: they all confirmed that this is the public view of the course, which they reported having been nicknamed 'scienze delle merendine', lit. "Science of the afternoon snacks" (instead of Scienze della Formazione Primaria, lit. Primary Education Science), which incorporates the beliefs that teaching children does not require any particular knowledge and that the course is easy.
The story the students wove together was more than just a mere report of misconceptions people have about the course. The resulting narrative was constructed by contrasting the external voices with their own voices, as a sort of imagined dialogue, where they could represent themselves on their own terms (Lindahl 2019): the emic perspective was being voiced in contrast with the outside culture and individual strategies of response were somehow being compared among the members of the group. This collective narrative spoke of negotiation of relationships, between the outside culture and the inside practice, and it spoke of power relationships too, by contrasting the small esteem in which they feel politicians hold them, with the infinite importance of their role as educators of the future generations.

Implications for EFL learning

Although further analysis of these conversations is required and would unearth much more data, my preliminary examination reveals how much these students were able to achieve, in terms of commonality and sharing of ideas, through a foreign language. This complexity of content was conveyed through a foreign language they do not feel comfortable with. They were able to listen and interact one each other, and it was English they used to voice their collective response to the public opinion in an official setting.

Even if two of them rated their linguistic performance as low, they were still satisfied with the quality of their narrative. While character traits certainly affected responses to the questionnaire (for example, it was modesty or shyness, more than actual lack of proficiency, that led some of the students to underrate their performances and achievements), there was a number of questions they all agreed upon.
Importantly, they all declared that talking about things that matter makes it easier to speak English and motivates them to speak the foreign language. They all said it is most important to have an occasion to talk about these things among course mates and with members of staff, so that their voice can be heard and also so that they can learn to talk amongst themselves (which will be at the heart of their future relationship with colleagues). The workshop also brought about hope of learning: A declared that "Now I know that if I keep on trying, I will succeed, despite my difficulties".

A simple question that allowed students to describe themselves on their own terms, acted as an engine for six hours of conversation (second and third meetings). During these hours, commonality was soon established, listening was never an issue, and spontaneous interaction and collaboration through the foreign language were achieved naturally. The students all reported being very interested in the subject and in need of more such occasions, in order to feel less 'isolated', realise that they all have similar problems, learn to talk to each other. This was certainly compelling input (Krashen 2014). The subject gave them the drive to interrupt, add and expand: this meant using the foreign language in an authentic communicative context, where English could provide the only possible voice (given that they had never been granted a chance to talk about such matters in their L1).

Interestingly, two students reported having felt transformed by their new voice, and feeling that the 'foreign' language had allowed them to construct new meaning compared to their Italian voice. Consider these two comments:

> *C: "Come to think about it, I have a feeling that when I speak Italian, in informal contexts, for example with friends and students on my course, I discuss issues more generically, less in depth, and avoiding more refined terms and turns of phrase that might explain things more effectively" (my translation)*

> *D: "When I talk freely in Italian, I realise that I often follow pre-fabricated schemes of thought, and very often I speak exactly like my [name omitted]. Talking in English makes me feel free, it helps me say what I really feel, without feeling obliged to agree with one or another, which is what I usually do. I think it's kind of magic, it helps me discover my individuality" (my translation)*

These comments constitute an extremely important achievement from the point of view of the construction of identity in the foreign language: through the foreign language, C and D found a different voice and possibly experienced an enhanced feeling of authenticity.

On the one hand, this situation pushed students to refine their expressive skills, in order to do justice to their stories, while on the other it allowed them to experiment freely with the language, in an environment that was perceived as "empathic".

According to C, during our meetings the difference between students and teachers had disappeared to the extent that she "no longer cared about making a bad impression because of possible grammar mistakes". These are important achievements, brought about by a question that prompted a narrative they had longed to tell in an institutional setting.

The question then is: what are the narratives that learners are longing to tell and hear? And what are the ones they are waiting to construct through the collaboration of a community of equals?

Despite the limited scale of this narrative exercise, the data appears to suggest that teachers need to unearth the narratives learners have been waiting to tell for a long time. This requires a knowledge of the context, but most of all it requires teachers to take a step back and ask broad questions that allow students, as if they were interviewing each other (Lindahl 2019), to unearth common concerns and interests and come up with their own meaningful questions.

Conclusions

A language that grants a new voice and, most of all, genuine narrative rights (i.e., the opportunity to tell a story that was waiting to be told and to see the change that story can bring), becomes less foreign. The students provided a great many constructive suggestions about the course and most of them were 'heard' by the tutor and referred to those who had the power to provide change. Some changes will happen. In this group, the narrative function was not excluded: on the contrary, it was promoted, regardless of linguistic accuracy, as a way of conferring meaning on what they said, and not so much on how they said it.

But what conferred the most transformative power on these narrative was the group performance, where individual voices were woven into a collective narrative.
All the students felt a common story was being woven and here is how C summed it up:

> *A story which describes the students of this Primary Education course in the midst of a public opinion that underestimates them, the awareness of the importance of their formative role and of the emotional influence they potentially bear on the lives of young children, negative past experiences, the heavy load of work and study, the juggling that comes from having to reconcile work, study and family… At times it seemed like a difficult and sad story, but we also talked about all the beauty in this: the nice experiences during placements, the empathic lecturers, our common will to bring positive change to the school system through a more inclusive approach to teaching, the passion we share for teaching (my translation).*

This common narrative proves that the 'narrative function' was included in this particular use of narrative and that meaning making was reached thanks to this inclusion.

Providing students with opportunities to 'use' English as an alternative means of expression – that is, the possibility of constructing meaning that matters – has the potential to transform their relationship with the language. As future teachers of EFL

(among other subjects), it is important that they in the first place believe that using this language makes sense and that a feeling of authenticity can be experienced when speaking a language other than our own, regardless of the linguistic problems one might still experience.
The students in this group challenged themselves to engage with this language on a very personal level and as a result achieved a degree of narrative and interactive complexity often lacking in conversations in the L1.

Further research on how narrative meaning making correlates with levels of proficiency, context for telling and choice of narrative input by teachers, might help us make an increasingly more effective and emotionally conducive use of personal narratives in the EFL classroom (Moskowitz 1978).

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Promoting Student Autonomy and the Co-creation of the L2 Class Through Linguistic Theory

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Abstract
In this paper, I will present ways in which linguistic theory can be combined with appropriate teaching methods in order to further develop learner's independence and promote the co-construction of methodologies for the L2 class. For this purpose, I will refer to the use of some key concepts from Discourse Analysis, Pragmatics and Sociolinguistics and describe how they were used in a seminar focused on the use of Spanish in different contexts. I will stress how the combination of theoretical linguistics and current innovative pedagogical approaches can be interlinked to achieve, not only more skilled language students, but also more skilled teachers. Through many aspects of the communicative approach have been included in the teaching of Spanish in the UK, I believe that, more generally, a change is needed within our educational culture: I suggest that the incorporation of these and other theoretical concepts when teaching the use of language may be beneficial for learners, as long as it's applied in conjunction with a student centered and cumulative approach, as well as constructive alignment (between other teaching methods.) I propose that this change in perspective has the potential of helping to develop a more reflective, dynamic and flexible pedagogy of a second language, where learners and educators co-produce the process of teaching and learning.

Keywords: Teaching Methods; Linguistic Theory; Pragmatics; Sociolinguistics; Second Language Learning; Second Language Teaching

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Introduction

In this paper I will discuss how to address the teaching of communicative competence in the L2 class. I will propose that the combination of some general theoretical concepts from linguistics with the adequate pedagogical approaches is beneficial to the learning process. The use of these tools helps students develop metalinguistic awareness through concepts, but also, crucially, both the proposed pedagogical approaches and the linguistic and communicative processes examined in the theory are evidence-based. Indeed, linguistic theory has developed a good description of the linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic processes involved in communication. As a result, we can confidently talk about universal structures, strategies and processes, as well as their variation (Kasper and Rose 2001). Furthermore, the pedagogical approaches used here may encourage both teachers and learners to develop a more reflective and dynamic practice in the classroom; this, in turn, may promote the co-production of teaching practices and (socio)linguistic meaning in class.

Through many aspects of the communicative approach (CA) have been included in the teaching of Spanish and other languages in the UK, I will argue that, more generally, a change is needed within our educational culture. An evidence-based pedagogy paired with a robust theoretical background is needed to fully develop learning and teaching practices in the L2 class. For this purpose, I will examine some of the ideas stemming from current literature on these topics. In addition, I will present examples of my own teaching practices, illustrating how I develop a course and lesson design in order to articulate some of these ideas.

Theories, methodologies and research on communicative competence and academic acquisition of L2

Extensive work has been produced in the area of L2 teaching, as well as on the issues related to communicative competence in the classroom. Since Hymes (1971) and Gumperz and Hymes (1972) introduced and examined the concept of communicative competence, several works have proposed theoretical models and methodologies for the teaching of this ability in a second language. Notably, Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990) suggested two well-known frameworks of communicative competence. More recently, Rose and Kasper (2001), Kasper and Rose (2002) and Burns and Richards (2012) offer an overview of issues related to the learning of teaching of pragmatics in L2; while Goh and Burns (2012) provide an overview and a concrete proposal for the teaching of communicative competence in the L2 classroom. Conversely, works like the one presented by Geeslin and Long (2014) concentrate on sociolinguistic competence, which for other authors should be included within pragmatic competence.

Regarding proposals for teaching in the literature, it emerges that one of the most important problems the lack of appropriate natural language input. Indeed, it is often pointed out that the L2 class lacks real language exposure and/or doesn't consider the specificities of spoken language; this is particularly relevant when it comes to learning day-to-day conversation (as mentioned in Burns, Joyce and Gollin, 1996; Rose and Kasper, 2001, or Roberts, 2001). As early as 1988, Myers Scotton and Janice Bernstein were amongst the first to point out the necessity to use real language in order to teach speech in a way that it would reflect the reality of spoken

communication. Within this approach, the study of linguistic structures and organization would be primary, leading the pedagogy towards a developing corpus of research on language use. If natural language is not integrated in teaching, the input that students receive is affected (it may be idealized, unrealistic, or very limited); furthermore, students are not taught the structures and strategies present in real language settings (see Rose and Kasper, 2001; Goh and Burns, 2012).

Within the examination of communicative competence in the teaching environment, there is also a body of research that focuses in the actual results of different methods (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Nguyen, 2018, between many others. See Kasper, 2001 for an overview). These are generally studies that focus in one aspect of pragmatic development. As a result of research, it has been recognized that instruction in pragmatic aspects of language helps students to learn the pragmatics of L2 (Kubota, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Nguyen, 2018; Taguchi, 2015). Consequently, it makes sense to develop a suitable methodology for it. As for the particular methodological approaches, I won't discuss them here, but I will mention that explicit teaching appears to be more efficient than implicit teaching (House, 1996; Tateyama el al., 1997; Taguchi, 2015). Results are, however, not conclusive when it comes to teaching pragmatic competence through deductive versus inductive reasoning (Kennet, Rose and Kwai-fun, 2001). Finally, input enhancement, which draws student's attention to input, seems to be generally effective (Takahashi, 2001).

Whilst there is need for further research on the instruction of the various aspects of communicative competence, it seems clear that certain methods are more effective than others. Additionally, there is extensive research that evidences the existence of discursive/pragmatic/sociolinguistic universals, as well as a relevant corpus of research on sociolinguistic variation. Therefore, the pedagogical practice, paired with the appropriate linguistic theory, provide the conceptual and descriptive tools to make communicative competence available to students through implicit and explicit instruction.

The pedagogy of communicative competence and the communicative approach

The communicative approach has been introduced in learning settings mainly in the form of language activities where learners have opportunities to use the language, changing the focus of teaching towards language use and away from prescriptive methodologies. A general explanation of this approach can be found in Richards (2006).

Although the communicative approach has taken root in L2 teaching in the last decades, this doesn't mean that communication is actually taught appropriately. Firstly, not all the procedures of the CA have been proven successful in the teaching of communicative competence. For instance, as a consequence of emphasis on the student's active role, together with opportunities to develop skills, there is generally a lack of explicit instruction. This, despite existing evidence that explicit instruction is more efficient for learning pragmatic skills. Also, it is unclear if inductive learning is more or less effective than deductive learning (as explained above). Furthermore, affective or emotional factors that are naturally present in the classroom are often not taken into account, which makes teaching less efficient (Goh and Burns (2012).

Secondly, the fact that the teacher in the CA is "tolerant of learners' errors" (Richards, 2006) often means that not enough feedback and corrective input is given (Goh and Burns, 2012). Also affecting the quality of the input students receive, natural language is frequently absent in the teaching environment. There are significant limitations in this regard that stem from the materials available to teachers, which often lack natural language samples (Goh and Burns, 2012).

Finally, offering practical activities without an appropriate, theoretically robust structuring and conceptualization of what it's been taught will not help learners to develop the appropriate understanding of how the L2 is used. This will likely mean that context-specific linguistic performance is not generalized and applied to other contexts, creating a segmented, not cumulative, learning experience (Maton, 2007).

Therefore, if the CA has clearly brought some positive innovation into teaching, its application still needs to introduce in the methodology both a more robust theoretical background and a better pedagogy, which should be based on actual research in classroom settings as much as possible.

One crucial advantage of the communicative approach is that it promotes the negotiation of meaning. Indeed, from a pedagogical point of view, the CA sees student active participation as the best way to provide a classroom environment that favors the acquisition of communicative competence (Richards, 2006:13). Activities should be related to the interest of students, linked to their own experience, and engaging. These are all positive contributions from the CA, which should be integrated both in the planning and delivery of lessons. Another positive contribution relates to the role of the teacher in the CA classroom as a facilitator, as explained by Richards (2006:13).

These and other useful perspectives provided by the CA permeate L2 pedagogical methodologies, materials and classroom practices today. They can also be used in connection with some prevalent approaches to teaching, such as the idea of cumulative learning. Cumulative learning refers to universal characteristics of the learning process, in accordance with research. Approaches to cumulative learning may be based broadly in Gagne's Conditions of Learning Theory (Gagne, 1985). From this approach, I used the Nine Events of Instruction proposed by Gagne, Briggs, L. J., & Wager, W. W. (1992) as a basic structure for the activities in the Spanish classroom. Cumulative learning pedagogy may also broadly refer to generalization of the knowledge acquired, as well as the ability to use it in different contexts (Maton, 2009). This perspective is generally linked to a student-centered approach, where the teacher is, as in the CA, a facilitator, with student participation at the core of the learning process. A student centered approach tends to emphasize the active role of the student, as well as student's ability to make choices.

In order to better plan lessons in line with these perspectives, the idea of constructive alignment has been proposed. According to Biggs (2003), the teacher should create a learning environment that promotes the achievement of the Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOS). The use of appropriate learning strategies, together with a suitable conceptual linguistic framework, facilitates this work by the teacher, as I will exemplify.

In relation to all these elements that are relevant for the pedagogy of L2, a change in the teaching culture that incorporate the results of research on pedagogical practices has the potential of helping to develop a more reflective, dynamic and flexible pedagogy of a second language, where learners and educators co-produce the process of teaching and learning. In relation to this change, I will stress here some key ideas that I use as basic principles in my teaching practice:

-Lessons provide opportunities for negotiation of meaning.
-Lessons are designed to provide cumulative learning.
-Lessons are planned in accordance with constructive alignment.
-Focus is on learners' active engagement in the learning process, rather than passive reception.
-The teacher is a facilitator, but they guide learners with clear concepts and well planned structures.
-The teacher provides explicit learning, helping the students to learn communicative competence through both inductive and deductive processes.
-Output is encouraged, students given opportunities for choice and development of accuracy and fluency.
-The teacher provides active engagement and appropriate feedback, including corrective feedback.
-Lessons provide instruction on aspects that are relevant to students' own experience and interests.

An example of a seminar integrating theoretical and pedagogical approaches

As an example of this approach, I will explain the structure and delivery of a short seminar that I ran in Cardiff University for undergraduate language students of Spanish (L2). The purpose of the 2.5 hours long seminar was to teach students basics on how to communicate in different formal and informal situations in Spanish. Despite the fact that the degree itself includes a year of study abroad, preparation for real verbal communication is mostly limited to debate and discussion, activities that do not really prepare students for their day to day lives in Spain.

Students have intermediate to advanced level of Spanish proficiency, but their ability to communicate and understand communication in Spanish varies widely. Some are relatively confident on oral conversation, while others are very inhibited and a lack verbal resources, making it more challenging to teach them together. This is somehow balanced by the size of the class, which is limited to 12 students: a small group is more manageable and gives the teacher opportunities to interact individually with students during the activities.

I ran two seminars where I followed the same structure, but changing emphasis in different aspects upon taking into account student feedback. This feedback is used as a tool to further reflect on my own role as a teacher, stablishing which processes and activities are more efficient at creating the appropriate learning environment.

I refer here at the particular organization of activities in the course. The same sequence is followed and repeated through the seminar, introducing different sets of activities (i.e. writing an email, role plays, or organizing a conversation in the correct sequence). I then explain how these activities fit in the pedagogical framework

explained earlier. I do not go into detail here on all the aspects of this framework as they were applied to this seminar, but will concentrate on some of them.

The seminar is structured as a succession of activities, each focused in one theoretical concept, all following the structure

1. Reflection
2. Input
3. Output
4. Reflection

In the first stage, the teacher gains student attention, for example by raising a question or showing an interesting piece of natural language. Students have opportunities to then discuss as group discussion, pair discussion or individual reflection. In this activity students can use any communicative knowledge they have, be it on their L1 or L2, to reflect on a particular linguistic aspect and apply inductive learning. This activity would run for 5 to 10 minutes. Just before or after this activity, students are informed of the learning objectives of the exercise.

In the second stage, which may merge with the first one, students are exposed to input. Students have opportunities to observe the input in different ways (watching a video, reading an email, reading a conversation, reading particular linguistic units that they will be able to use in the following stage). The diverse input and reflection upon it contribute to focus the attention of students in particular aspects of communication, contributing to cumulative learning orientated towards ILOS. It also facilitates learning for students with different learning styles. This activity runs for around 5 to 10 minutes.

The third stage provides opportunities for students to apply what they have observed through output production. These were for the most part pair activities, thought they were designed to allow for activities with three students, in case the number of students was not even. At this point, the teacher moves through pairs, providing guidance upon student needs and given individual feedback on output, including corrective feedback. There also may be variable opportunities to assess students here. The length of this activity is approximately 15 to 20 minutes. Students are consulted as to the duration of this stage: all students should have sufficient time to finish their task and to consult the teacher, no student should be disengaged, waiting for others to finish. For more confident students, there are opportunities to complete more than one task (usually a set of conversations). Students provide very positive feedback on this activity.

In the last stage, reflection upon the previous activity is encouraged as group discussion. Theoretical concepts are explained at the light of students contributions to the discussion. Note that often students already have the pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge necessary to examine relevant concepts, only they don’t have the conceptualization necessary to become aware of them. This presentation of theoretical concepts allows the teacher to provide explicit instruction, whilst deductive learning may facilitate generalization of knowledge and transfer to other contexts, in line with cumulative learning. This strategy works very well with most students, with many reporting that it is useful.

From a pedagogical point of view, this structure favors both inductive and deductive learning, as well as providing opportunities for cumulative learning. Students with different learning styles can take part actively, having increased agency on how they produce language or reflect upon it. The structure of the activity itself helps the teacher to concentrate and incite reflection on relevant elements of communicative competence. For example, one activity runs around opening, closing and response strategies appropriate for different formal and informal phone conversations. Openings, closings and responses were introduced in previous activities; in this activity, students produce output and engage in reflection upon politeness. The following is an example of a role play activity proposed for this topic:

Perform the following role plays (in pairs), using the turns provided, or build your own turns. If you are not comfortable with talking spontaneously, you can write your conversations, then practice them out loud.

1. BUSCANDO PISO

Hablante 1

Llamas a una agencia para preguntar por un par de pisos que has visto anunciados en internet. Te atiende una persona muy agradable. Quedáis en que irás a la oficina de la agencia mañana, para ver los dos pisos.

Hablante 2

Te llama un-a estudiante extranjero-a para preguntar por dos pisos que tenéis en la agencia. Registras los datos del cliente y quedas con él-ella para ver las propiedades mañana por la tarde.

As illustrated here, the structure of the activities itself, paired with the methods by which the lesson is delivered, can be used to teach theoretical concepts, while also achieving particular pedagogical aims. Even teachers with a poor knowledge of the state of the art in this area can use these or similar principles to advance on the pedagogy of their practice.

Regarding more specifically to how linguistic theory in integrated in the structure of the course: a theoretical framework emerging from a number of linguistic disciplines was used to structure the seminar around different topics. Each topic concentrates on one or a set of concepts, which are then examined and used in accordance with the activity sequence explained above. In this way, students develop their communicative competence in L2 in a way that is coherently structured, and conceptually explained, in accordance with well stablished concepts from linguistics. Consequently, explicit instruction is well-founded, being stablished upon evidence-based linguistic knowledge.

Furthermore, this makes instruction easier, since the teacher can utilise the theoretical background to design lessons more likely to encourage cumulative learning and easily aligned to ILOS. Grammar is often taught in a similar manner, with courses and lessons structured in accordance with grammatical categories and functions. This has also been done in the teaching of L2 communicative competence, when authors have

applied functions or speech acts to structure their lessons and provide explicit or implicit instruction. However, it needs greater development when it comes to other structures, strategies and rules for the suitable development of communicative competence.

The seminar was organized as it follows:

1. Oral discourse is structured. Opening, closings, turns.
2. Oral discourse is context-specific. Formal and informal situations.
3. Oral discourse follows pragmatic rules. Politeness.
4. Pragmatic rules are linked to social rules. Power and distance relations.

Teaching each of these topics by using a repetitive structure of activities reinforces cumulative learning. Firstly, it increases the level of complexity of the learning experience. For instance: from being aware that openings are important, to linking these to particular strategies to show politeness or to be impolite. Secondly, it provides a conceptual organization of the different elements taught in the seminar, with each topic focusing in a set, small number of topics; awareness of these can help students to structure their knowledge and apply it to other contexts. This structure also makes it more feasible for the teacher to apply constructive alignment: the ILOS can be matched with each theoretical concept/topic, and students can be made aware of ILOS in a way that is coherent with the basic structure of the course. Finally, it makes explicit instruction more coherent and concept-specific, encouraging students to reflect upon these concepts and promoting both generalization to other contexts and awareness of the relevance of specific situations as opposed to others.

Conclusions. Student autonomy and the co-creation of the L2 class

In this paper I suggest that an appropriate combination of theoretical linguistics and pedagogical approaches in the teaching of communicative competence will achieve, not only more skilled language students, but also more skilled teachers. I argue that this requires a change in perspective in our teaching culture, involving the full application of previous research on both linguistic structures/processes and pedagogical practices.

I point out how a cumulative approach can be promoted through certain teaching and learning processes. Crucially, the presentation of theoretical concepts allows the teacher to provide explicit instruction that may facilitate generalization of knowledge and transfer to other contexts. As these concepts are based on research on discursive, pragmatic and sociolinguistic aspects of language, it will be a much more accurate description of the linguistic structures and strategies needed for communication in real life. However, if these concepts are absent, explicit instruction suffers and students may acquire poor metalinguistic awareness.

From a pedagogical point of view, student autonomy is promoted by applying some of the principles of the CA, combined with a cumulative learning and student centered approach, as well as through the appropriate constructive alignment in relation to ILOS. Negotiation of meaning and other educational aims are achieved by different procedures, such as consulting students about how the lesson is conducted, giving them a choice of activities, providing suitable feedback and the re-framing of

student's contributions within theoretical knowledge. These and other teaching strategies encourage co-creation of the learning process. It also makes it easier for the teacher to act as a facilitator and to provide the necessary implicit and explicit instruction while, at the same time, promoting student engagement.

There are a number of aspects that are important for the pedagogy of L2 that haven't been examined here, due to the limited scope of this work. For the purposes of exemplification, thought, I have shown how the structuring of activities, the particular procedures within them, and the use of a robust theoretical background, can be used to design and run a class will may be more efficient in the development of communicative competence.

There are, though, obvious limitations to providing an instruction that specifically targets communicative competence through a short seminar. The scope and effectiveness of such a seminar are clearly limited, thought they haven't been evaluated. Student feedback was obtained and it was very positive, but this doesn't give us any information about the actual efficiency of the course in terms of learner recall of what has been taught, together with its application to different contexts in real life.

Other work is being done in order to refine and develop methodologies and materials for teaching. From the point of view of the exploration involved in this paper, many questions are raised regarding a wide array of approaches and disciplines focusing in communicative competence, thought these are too far reaching for discussion here. Furthermore, more research is needed in order to establish more specifically which strategies would be best for the teaching of the different aspects of communicative competence in L2 in higher education.

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