PROCEEDINGS OF THE APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING CONFERENCE 2018

“Teaching and Learning in a Globalized World”

Edited by:
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This volume contains a selection of eighteen articles that originated as papers presented at the Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching International Conference and Exhibition (ALLT 2018), which was held at Zayed University, Dubai, United Arab Emirates, in March 2018. The articles selected for inclusion showcase high quality contributions that document theory, research, and pedagogy within the field of Applied Linguistics and language teaching in the Arab Gulf and beyond. The articles are grouped into the following five broad sections:

- Teaching of Writing Skills
- Professional Development
- Young Learners
- Teaching, Learning, and Pedagogy
- Language Teaching and Attitude

The articles included in this volume represent the diverse background, experiences, and research interests of the ALLT presenters. The contributions are a mix of theoretical, empirical and pedagogical practices with a strong emphasis on English language use and function along with language teaching. This makes the Proceedings of the Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching (ALLT 2018) Conference an invaluable resource, addressing important aspects of contemporary research topics and lesson plans on language teaching.
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Wafa Zoghbor, Suhair Al Alami, & Thomaï Alexiou

This volume contains a selection of eighteen articles that originated as papers presented at the first Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching (ALLT) Conference, was held in March 2018 at Zayed University, Dubai, United Arab Emirates. The articles selected for inclusion showcase contributions that document theory, research, and pedagogy within the field of Applied Linguistics and language teaching in the Arab Gulf and beyond. The editors wish to thank Julie Riddlebarger for her professional copy-editing of these proceedings.

The volume is divided into five sections: Teaching of Writing Skills; Professional Development; Young Learners; Teaching, Learning, and Pedagogy; and Language Teaching and Attitude.

The first section of this volume showcases articles that focus on the Teaching of Writing Skills. Teachers and academics have recently begun to question the notion of academic writing. As a consequence, traditional approaches to teaching academic writing are also being reevaluated. In his article, Peter Davidson critically analyzes traditional concepts of academic writing in order to determine if they are still valid today. The final part of his article looks at the implications that this research has upon the teaching and learning of academic writing.

Vance Stevens’s chapter reports on a study of writing classes the author taught in the year 2017 at an aviation college in an Arab context where student writings, teacher feedback, and student response to that feedback were preserved in Google Docs. The study documents results when students drafted essays on paper, but revised them from feedback spoken into Google Docs by the teacher with language corrected, so that the focus of revisions was not on form but on substantive issues, such as organization and detail. It is shown how this technique had positive effects on some students' output and attitude toward writing.

In the final chapter in Section One, Yahya Ashour Alkhoudary’s study aims to investigate the effectiveness of using flipped classroom on EFL students’ writing skill. Fifty students were divided into two groups of 25 each (experimental and control). The participants in the treatment group were taught writing using blended learning. Pre- and post-tests were administered, a questionnaire was distributed, and interviews were conducted. The findings of the study reveal that the experimental group students worked independently and excelled in writing performance. The researcher concludes that flipped classrooms can be a promising tool in teaching writing.

The second section focuses on Teacher Professional Development. In Chapter 4, Ali Shehadeh suggests five ways that have the potential to improve educators’ leadership in publishing research, providing leadership in the form of 1) holding
workshops and seminars; 2) mentoring novice researchers and research students; 3) editors’ and reviewers’ guidance; 4) co-authoring and co-presenting with novice researchers and research students; and 5) creating research groups. These five ways are intended to enable novice researchers and research students to contribute to the body of knowledge in their respective disciplines.

Chapter 5 emphasizes that education is transforming more rapidly than ever, and so must professional development (PD), which is an essential component to fostering informed and effective integration of technology in the classroom. In this chapter, Pamela Johnson, Alliya Anderson, and Tiffany Cammidge present in their persuasive paper an array of alternative avenues for PD that have the potential to meet the perpetually evolving needs of institutions, faculty, and students.

In Chapter 6, Rabail Qayyum looks at continuous professional development (CPD) opportunities offered to teachers vis-à-vis improving teaching-learning practices. Qayyum provides an account of an inquiry into the CPD opportunities provided to in-service teachers at a private school in Karachi, Pakistan. The data collection tools involved semi-structured interviews with selected teachers. The findings of the inquiry indicate that the participating school was heavily reliant on the training model of CPD. The chapter proceeds to identify some deficiencies in the current model and proposes ways in which the deficiencies may be handled.

Section Three is focused on Young Learners, and it introduces a study by Alexandra Marquis who investigated morphological awareness in 43 typically developing Emirati Arabic children. Perfect tense productions of Arabic verbs were elicited for bi-consonantal (e.g., t'aaah طاح “fall”) and tri-consonantal (e.g., kataba .write”) template root forms, agreeing with feminine or masculine subjectsكتب “write”.

Analyses reveal a significant effect of template root form and a marginal effect of subject agreement, for non-default, less frequent, and more complex morphological verb processes, indicating that by six years of age, Emirati Arabic children begin to master difficult linguistic processes involved in Arabic verb conjugation. The current data in this chapter add insight to the research on Arabic language acquisition.

Chapter 8 is based on the idea that learning through tasks has been known for its effectiveness in providing learners with the ability to apply and practically benefit from knowledge in their future academic endeavors. A more challenging task of teachers is to integrate the task-based approach into education, keeping in mind the diversity in student types. In this chapter, Nadine Jaafarawi focuses on the effect of a task-based approach in raising children’s cultural awareness. It aims at proving that this variable gives children the opportunity to experiment and use a foreign language more naturally, thus raising and reciprocating their cultural awareness of the targeted language. The research method used is a mixed method where qualitative and quantitative analysis are conducted involving 275 pupils in KG3 classrooms in an Islamic Educational Institution.

Section Four focuses on Teaching, Learning, and Pedagogy. In Chapter 9, Ahmed Sahlane asserts that training students to argue effectively, using critical higher-order
thinking skills, can enhance their overall literacy acquisition competence. In arguing to learn, students are engaged in cooperative negotiation of meaning. Students can prepare for a “critical discussion” by reading/viewing source materials, and then engage in a reasoned dialogue (Socratic circles). Finally, there should be a writing phase, wherein students’ individual work is posted on their wikispaces. This dialogic approach presupposes the use of authentic materials and tasks to nurture the learners’ critical argumentation skills.

In Chapter 10, Kevin M. Hodgson presents an overview of psycholinguistic variables that can either positively or negatively affect learners’ performance and enjoyment in subsequent language classrooms. The paper focuses on individual learning styles, language ego and risk taking, motivation and attitudes towards the target language (TL), and empathy. Although often considered as common sense, these variables are not always consciously considered when designing lessons and materials or when interacting with learners. Consequently, the aim of this chapter is to raise awareness of these issues, so that instructors can help their learners to get the “knack” they need.

Extant research reveals that there is a direct correlation between the use of constructivist pedagogy and the learning approach that learners adopt for the study of a particular discipline. In Chapter 11, Mangala Jawaher extends the existing literature by focusing on the use of constructivist approaches at both andragogic and pedagogic levels for literature teaching in EFL/ESL contexts and its relation to deep approaches to learning. The chapter focuses on trainee teachers’ perceptions of using constructivist pedagogy to teach literature at secondary level, based on their own experience of being recipients of constructivist approaches during their literature teaching methodology module.

Chapter 12 introduces the argumentative issue of the role of the first language in learning the second language. A standing tradition in the field of EFL has emphasized that for effective learning to occur, classroom practices should solely be conducted in L1. Whilst this view has been prevalent for a long time, a better understanding of the role of the mother tongue has motivated teachers to re-consider some practices. Mario R. Moya introduces in this chapter a short-scale study that focuses on mature beginner learners of EFL in compulsory education to negotiate basic communication (“Englishing”). Moya shows that L1 can become an effective tool, enabling learners to transfer expertise between languages whilst also helping them to develop learning autonomy through shared cognition.

In Chapter 13, Roberto Rabbini seeks to share cutting edge research from the fields of quantum physics and the Law of Attraction, which has the potential to empower people to achieve their goals, linguistic or otherwise. The concept of “the Four Steps to Learning” from Unconscious Incompetence through to Unconscious Competence is also described. Rabbini believes that these steps are a key element in the process of absorbing any new information or data, and are foundational for both students and teachers alike. Another concept this chapter also discusses is the “Teachability Index,” which enables learners to evaluate their level of motivation.
In the last chapter in this section, Chapter 14, **Yuko Yoshinari**, using an eye-tracking device, explores how L2 learners of the Japanese language differentiated correct and incorrect sentences. The tracking device can detect learners’ eye movements and gaze points. The study focused on transitive and intransitive constructions and compared fixation duration on key-point areas, such as verbs and particles in a sentence, and correct and incorrect answers. Yoshinari draws some conclusions about the influence of retention of grammatical knowledge on learner’s errors.

The last section in this volume focuses on **Language Teaching and Attitude**. In Chapter 15, **Amany Al-Sabbagh** introduces the motivation of Emirati police cadets for learning English, focusing on their attitude towards the English language and recognition of its scope and function in the region and worldwide.

In Chapter 16, **Eirini Kiose, Thomai Alexiou, and Konstantina Iliopoulou** introduce the results of their study that examined Greek teachers’ beliefs with regard to certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills comprising the profile of an interculturally competent teacher. The researchers explain whether gender, age, level of education, additional intercultural training, teaching experience, and intercultural teaching experience impact on their beliefs. The results revealed that the majority of the participants expressed their agreement and even a tendency to strongly agree with the aforementioned attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Also, gender, age, level of education as well as additional training seemed to have an effect on the teachers’ level of agreement. However, previous general as well as intercultural teaching experience appeared to make no impact on the beliefs expressed by the aforementioned teachers.

On the influence of attitude and cultural background on students’ performance in educational setting, **Laure Roumi Salem** in Chapter 17 argues that students’ apparent disengagement within university contexts in Lebanon should raise questions concerning the culture portrayed in their EFL textbooks. An overview of the cultural components of English language textbooks produced in the USA and UK addresses the fear of local stakeholders of domination by the culture of English-speaking countries and looks at ways of engaging students in the learning process. This chapter examines points of congruence between the local, the target, and the global cultures and suggests a non-essentialist intercultural approach to English language teaching and learning.

In the last chapter of this volume, Chapter 18, **Farah Chaudary and Mario R. Moya** argue that attitudes towards errors are changing as a result of new insights into the value of errors as opportunities to develop learners’ language awareness to further their learning, and for teachers to design more effective remedial work. The main outcome of Moya’s and Chaudary’s chapter is centered on the value of errors as opportunities for both learners and instructors, and on the salient role of feedback.
Editors’ Profiles

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Thomaï Alexiou is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, School of English, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece. Her expertise is on early foreign language learning, methodology of teaching languages, vocabulary and material development. She has authored/coauthored books and online resources in the areas of CLIL (CLIL-Prime Erasmus+ programme), strategies ("Thalis project"), dyslexia (DysTEFL2-Erasmus+ programme), Greek as a second language (Center for the Greek Language) and EFL for young learners (Greek Ministry of Education–PEAP Project). One of these books, *Magic Book 2*, has been shortlisted for the MacMillan Education Award for New Talent in Writing (ELTons 2014). She is the co-author of *Bridge to Success* (Cambridge University Press) for Grade 1 learners, the EFL book used in state UAE primary schools.
Section One:
Teaching of Writing Skills
Chapter 1

What is Academic Writing?

Peter Davidson

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Abstract

Recently, teachers and academics have begun to question the notion of academic writing. As a consequence, traditional approaches to teaching academic writing are also being reevaluated. In this article, we critically analyze traditional concepts of academic writing in order to determine if they are still valid today. Researchers such as Gardner and Nesi (2013) have analyzed corpora of students’ writing, which has informed us of the types of academic writing that students actually produce in higher education. In the final part of this article, we look at the implications that this research has upon the teaching and learning of academic writing.

1. Introduction

Teachers need to prepare their pre-sessional students for the type of academic writing that they will be expected to produce once they enter into the university. A cursory look at English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing textbooks indicates that academic writing encompasses such dichotomous rhetorical patterns as cause-effect, compare-contrast, advantages-disadvantages, and problem-solution. In reality, however, students at university are rarely, if ever, required to write these kinds of essays. In effect, these simplistic rhetorical patterns are artificial, unhelpful, and potentially harmful for pre-sessional students (Davidson & Spring, 2008). The purpose of this article is to establish what we actually mean by academic writing. We begin by defining academic writing, and then move on to examine Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) five purposes of academic writing, and the 13 genre families of academic writing that they propose. This will be followed by a critical examination of Gillet’s (2018) 15 rhetorical functions of academic writing.
2. Rhetorical Patterns

Most higher education institutions provide their EFL students with pre-sessional and in-sessional English composition courses. These courses appear to reflect a fairly strong consensus about what essay writing entails, as can be seen from syllabi and academic writing course books. These often ask students to learn various rhetorical formulae, such as compare-contrast, cause-effect, advantages-disadvantages, and problem-solution. This suggests that many teachers, course designers, and textbook writers believe that they can teach academic writing through these definable and predictable rhetorical and organizational patterns. Davidson and Spring (2008) identified 38 such rhetorical patterns that are prevalent in academic writing textbooks. These rhetorical patterns include:

- compare and contrast
- cause and effect
- problem and solution
- advantages and disadvantages (or pro/con)
- for and against
- descriptive
- classification
- narrative
- reflective
- expository
- discursive
- persuasive
- argumentative
- opinion (or position)
- research paper
- lab report
- business report

The rhetorical patterns approach has become prescriptive in the sense that its advocates have unjustifiably tried to generalize from very limited evidence in order to claim that all essays should be organized according to these rhetorical patterns (Spring, Davidson, & Palmer, 2010). This approach has become a self-fulfilling prophecy because teachers demand that their students write essays using these rhetorical patterns. Therefore, they teach students to interpret and respond to essay tasks through using these rhetorical patterns, and students are taught and tested only on essay tasks that clearly require these patterns. In EAP course books, model essays are selected because they illustrate these rhetorical patterns. These patterns then develop a sense of legitimacy, when in fact they have little relation to the authentic academic writing tasks students will be required to do in their colleges.
2.1 The appeal of the rhetorical patterns approach

The rhetorical patterns approach is attractive to both students and teachers mainly because of its simplicity and predictability (Spring, Davidson, & Palmer, 2010). This is particularly true when the students come from high school systems that did not teach academic writing. If students are able to look at any essay prompt and respond to it by following one of a limited number of organizational formulae or templates, then a major part of their task is made much simpler and more predictable. Like a template, they have merely a set of “gaps” that they need to fill with relevant content for that particular essay. Students focus on memorizing the transitional devices that are thought to be appropriate for that particular rhetorical pattern. For example, with a compare and contrast essay, students would learn “in contrast,” “on the other hand,” “similarly,” etc.

2.2 The problem with the rhetorical patterns approach

Spring, Davidson, and Palmer (2010) maintain that teaching using the rhetorical patterns approach could be harmful to students for a number of reasons. Firstly, these rhetorical patterns, certainly in the pure forms in which they are often presented, and the rigid way students are often expected to follow them, do not actually exist in the real world of academia. We need to consider whether or not these rhetorical patterns are actually academic writing. We need to ask ourselves what kind of writing students are actually required to produce at university. It is highly unlikely that students will be required to write essays using all the rhetorical patterns listed above. In reality, most students will only ever be asked to write argumentative or position essays and possibly research reports, and a few students will be required to write lab or business reports. So, we must ask ourselves, why are we teaching our students to write using these artificial, unhelpful rhetorical patterns? As noted by Spring, Davidson, and Palmer (2010, p. 55), “the rhetorical patterns presented in many EAP courses do not actually exist in any coherent sense in the real world of academia, and...emphasizing and utilizing them when teaching and assessing academic writing can have many negative effects on students’ learning by downplaying the contextual, content-based, problem-solving nature of authentic academic writing.” Even 25 years ago, the rhetorical patterns approach to teaching writing was already subject to criticism by various scholars (e.g., Spack, 1988; Silva, 1990; Raimes, 1991).

Another concern of the rhetorical patterns approach to teaching writing noted by Spring, Davidson, and Palmer (2010) is that it implies to students that academic essay writing is largely a matter of pattern-matching. That is, it suggests the following strategy to students: look at the writing task for clues about rhetorical patterns; recall the rhetorical pattern that fits most closely; fill in the gaps in the organization with relevant information and argument; sprinkle on some of the linking words associated with the pattern. This seems to be an attempt to avoid one of the key purposes of academic writing: to demonstrate the ability to think critically. In other words, the rhetorical patterns approach risks misleading students
about the complexity and unpredictability of discourse structures in academic writing.

It is harmful when students try to make an essay task fit into one of the rhetorical patterns they have learned or misread the question because the sight of particular words (e.g., “cause,” “problem,” etc.) triggers a template-based answer. We know students do this, both from the formulaic essays they submit which fail to answer the question set, and from the thinking revealed in their questions to us, such as “Is this a compare-contrast essay or a cause effect essay?” In short, the rhetorical patterns approach risks misleading students about the complexity and unpredictability of discourse structures in academic writing. Academic writing reflects a complex mixture of these supposed rhetorical patterns, not just one. For example, a report about solving traffic problems may well need a section explaining causes and effects of various problems, and a section to evaluate their seriousness. Then it may need to have a section comparing and contrasting the effects of various possible solutions, and a paragraph to evaluate the most effective solution.

Writing an academic essay should not be reduced to pattern-matching because it ignores the recursive nature of writing. If our aim is to develop students into independent academic writers, then it seems reasonable to argue that our EAP courses must teach students to think creatively for themselves so that they can analyze and respond appropriately to more ambiguous and complex writing tasks without our support. Teaching students to follow rhetorical patterns seems wrong because it does not empower students to think for themselves. Rather, it teaches them to follow a prescribed, artificial, and often contrived, template. Students need to realize that they cannot write academic essays by following a prescribed, formulaic template. Rather, they must attempt to answer each unique essay question with an original, unique essay.

3. What is academic writing?

We need to be clear about what we mean by academic writing. According to Massey University (2012), academic writing:

- has its own set of rules and conventions
- has a formal structure
- supports ideas with citations from the literature
- deals with the underlying theories and causes governing processes and practices in everyday life, as well as exploring alternative explanations for these events
- uses topics that are focused on abstract ideas and concepts
- follows a particular tone that shows awareness of audience
- adheres to traditional conventions of punctuation, grammar, and spelling
- uses citations and referencing of published authors
It is only relatively recently that teachers and researchers have begun to develop corpora of student essays set up with the aim of collecting a representative sample of different kinds of student writing in a range of different academic disciplines (e.g., Nesi, Sharpling, & Ganobcsik-Williams, 2004; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Matheson & Basturkmen, 2017). Gardner and Nesi (2013), for example, conducted research into the type of writing that students are actually required to do at university by analyzing 2858 corpus texts written by university students. From this analysis they identified five purposes for student writing in higher education. These five purposes are:

1. Demonstrating Knowledge & Understanding (DKU): students demonstrate that they are aware of and understand the latest knowledge in their subject area
2. Developing Powers of Independent Reasoning (DPIR): students argue a particular point of view making use of different kinds of evidence
3. Building Research Skills (BRS): students plan and carry out research
4. Preparing for Professional Practice (PPP): students demonstrate that they are ready for employment in a particular profession
5. Writing for Oneself and Others (WOO): students reflect on how they and other people feel and think

Once Gardner and Nesi (2013) had identified the five purposes of student writing, they then identified 13 genre families that accompany the five primary purposes of writing (Table 1). In effect, these genre families are what constitute real academic writing. As we can see in Table 1, a significant amount of student writing at university entails students demonstrating their knowledge and understanding of course content through explanations and different types of exercises. In addition to writing essays, many university students are also required to write critiques in order to demonstrate their ability to present a logical argument. More advanced students at university will be required to conduct primary research, and will need to write literature surveys, methodology recounts, and research reports. As students begin preparing for the world of work, they may need to write case studies, design specifications, problem questions, and proposals. The final two genre families, narrative recount and empathy writing, require students to translate academic ideas into a non-academic register for a non-specialist reader. Examples of this type of writing could be an accident report, an information leaflet, or a job application.

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Table 1

Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) Genre Families
The 13 genre families that Gardner and Nesi (2013) identified have been immensely helpful in helping us to determine the type of writing that students actually do at university, and hence what academic writing really is. In addition to the 13 genre families, Gardner and Nesi (2013) also identified 88 genres, or examples of the types of writing that would fall under each genre family. So, for example, under the genre family proposals, they give the following examples: book proposal; building proposal; business plan; catering plan; legislation reform; marketing plan; policy proposal; and research proposal. However, it should also be pointed out that Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) list of genre families is by no means definitive, nor exhaustive. Gillett (2018) has expanded on Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) research to come up with his 15 rhetorical functions (Figure 1). If we want to prepare our students for the type of academic writing they will encounter in the university, this is the list that we should be basing our curriculum and our teaching on.

The 13 genre families that Gardner and Nesi (2013) identified have been immensely helpful in helping us to determine the type of writing that students actually do at university, and hence what academic writing really is. In addition to the 13 genre families, Gardner and Nesi (2013) also identified 88 genres, or examples of the types of writing that would fall under each genre family. So, for example, under the genre family proposals, they give the following examples: book proposal; building proposal; business plan; catering plan; legislation reform; marketing plan; policy proposal; and research proposal. However, it should also be pointed out that Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) list of genre families is by no means definitive, nor exhaustive. Gillett (2018) has expanded on Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) research to come up with his 15 rhetorical functions (Figure 1). If we want to prepare our students for the type of academic writing they will encounter in the university, this is the list that we should be basing our curriculum and our teaching on.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing for Oneself and Others</td>
<td>Narrative recounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empathy writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 13 genre families that Gardner and Nesi (2013) identified have been immensely helpful in helping us to determine the type of writing that students actually do at university, and hence what academic writing really is. In addition to the 13 genre families, Gardner and Nesi (2013) also identified 88 genres, or examples of the types of writing that would fall under each genre family. So, for example, under the genre family proposals, they give the following examples: book proposal; building proposal; business plan; catering plan; legislation reform; marketing plan; policy proposal; and research proposal. However, it should also be pointed out that Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) list of genre families is by no means definitive, nor exhaustive. Gillett (2018) has expanded on Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) research to come up with his 15 rhetorical functions (Figure 1). If we want to prepare our students for the type of academic writing they will encounter in the university, this is the list that we should be basing our curriculum and our teaching on.

If we are to prepare our pre-sessional students for the types of writing that they will be required to produce once they enter into their baccalaureate programs, then we need to reevaluate the whole concept of academic writing. As I have mentioned above, teaching students how to write formulaic cause-and-effect or problem-solution essays is not likely to be of much help. We need to identify exactly the type of writing that students actually do in their majors. To achieve this, we need to analyze the type of writing tasks that professors give to their students, and we need
to analyze a corpus of student writing. Once we have identified what type of writing university students do, then we have to consider the most effective ways to go about preparing students to produce this kind of writing.

The first consideration should be what genre families (Gardner & Nesi, 2013) or rhetorical functions (Gillet, 2018) you will focus on in your pre-sessional course. It is unlikely that you will have the time or the resources to teach all of Gardner and Nesi’s (2013) 13 genre families and 88 genres, and it is highly improbable that all students will need to produce all of these genres, anyway. The curriculum designer needs to determine which genre families are the most common across the different university departments and disciplines, and which would be the most useful for all pre-sessional to learn. At my current place of work, we are still gathering data from professors and from students on the types of writing students do in their university courses, but a preliminary analysis of the data indicates that explanations, exercises, position essays, case studies, lab reports, and reflections are the most common types of writing that our students are required to do. Consequently, it makes sense for those of us teaching on the pre-sessional program to focus on preparing our students to produce these genre families. Surprisingly, very few of our students are ever required to write argumentative essays.

Another possibility is to consider grouping students on a pre-sessional course according to their declared major. So, for example, you could have all the business majors in one class, all the engineering majors in another class, and all the natural science majors in another class, and so on. In reality, this may be extremely difficult to achieve. It is dependent on all students choosing a major relatively early, and it is also dependent on student numbers. To open classes for students in each discipline obviously requires sufficient numbers of students. If student numbers were insufficient, however, curriculum designers could consider combining together groups of students taking similar courses, for example all students studying health sciences (such as medicine, dentistry, physiotherapy, nursing) and art (such as fine art, graphic design, animation, art history).

At Zayed University where I currently teach, a decision was recently made to group students taking an advanced, second-year, in-sessional writing course according to the college that they have enrolled in. As such, students take this advanced writing course in one of the following groups:

- College of Arts and Creative Enterprises
- College of Business
- College of Communication & Media Sciences
- College of Humanities and Social Sciences
- College of Natural and Health Sciences
- College of Education
- College of Technological Innovation
Taking this discipline-specific approach is expected to be highly beneficial for students and teachers. Students in the College of Business will likely have vastly different writing needs than students in the College of Communication & Media Sciences. Teachers can focus on meeting the specific writing needs of their students, and students can focus on mastering the types of writing genres that they will actually be required to produce once they enter into their chosen discipline.

5. Conclusion

The type of academic writing that students do is largely dependent on their major. As academic writing teachers, we need to prepare our students for the diverse range of academic writing that they will actually have to do university, not just teach them how to follow a formula to write essays based on artificial rhetorical patterns. Teaching students to follow rhetorical patterns seems wrong in principle because it does not empower them to think for themselves. Rather, it teaches them to follow a prescribed, and often contrived, template. EAP teachers should not pretend to students that academic writing can be neatly and generically simplified in the way that the rhetorical patterns approach tries to do. Attempting to reduce the complexities of academic writing to set formulae misleads students, and, therefore, does not give them the grounding that they need in order to succeed as reflective, autonomous, academic writers. Instead, EAP teachers need to make students aware that writing is a recursive process that develops and changes as the writer engages in the process of analyzing the prompt and planning and revising their response to it (Palmer, 2009). As noted by Hyland (2007, p. 148), a genre-based approach to teaching writing offers “principled ways of assisting both pre- and in-sessional writing teachers to provide their students with targeted, relevant, and supportive instruction.” Having awareness of the kinds of academic writing that students will actually be required to do at university will have major implications on curriculum and teaching.
References


Chapter 2

Teaching Writing to Students with Tablets Using Voice to Overcome Keyboard Shortcomings

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Abstract

This paper describes a technique where the teacher uses voice to help students revise handwritten essays on their iPads thus overcoming shortcomings in the digital keyboards inherent to most tablet computers and other mobile devices. The technique uses Google Docs for voice input. The students begin their essays on paper and create a blank online Google document and share it with the teacher. The teacher then uses the voice capability native to his or her tablet device to read what the students have written into their shared online documents prior to having them revise those documents on their tablets. This paper discusses problems encountered and solutions discovered and shows examples of student-teacher interaction during the revision process using this technique.

Introduction

This article describes how I have refined a technique I have been exploring for the past seven years wherein I have been getting students to compose in Google Docs or similar online word processing software, such as Office 365, and then having them revise using the collaboration tools inherent to those platforms. This has involved initiating their writing process online. Feedback was provided on the documents that were shared by the students. Eventually, it was possible to provide feedback to the students by bringing their work up on the classroom projector where the student would see it on his or her computer, and I could provide feedback on the document by speaking comments into my iPad, which the students would synchronously see as comments in their document on their iPads (Stevens, 2015).

Having students compose in Google Docs has worked well when the students have had devices such as laptops with keyboards, but less well when the students have tablet computers. I have been overcoming the lack of keyboards inherent to most tablet computers and other mobile devices by using voice to help students compose and revise essays on their iPads.
Because some Arab students have difficulties getting voice recognition to work for them in English, they were requested to begin their essays on paper, create a blank online document, and share it with the teacher. The teacher then uses voice on his or her tablet device to read in correct English what the students have submitted on paper into their shared online documents, which the students can then revise on their tablets. This paper discusses problems encountered and solutions discovered and shows examples of student-teacher interaction during the revision process using this technique.

Problems needing to be addressed in the Arab language teaching context

The students in this study were Arab students between the ages of 18 and 21. Similar to EFL students in other contexts, it was noticed that many of them avoid writing beyond the minimum required for completion of classroom tasks, or even avoid doing those tasks. When they write during class, they are not inclined to follow through afterwards. Revision and writing process are sometimes not part of their expectations, and some often see little value in taking the time to correct errors. Not all of the students recognize the importance of improving their abilities to write in English in their anticipated career trajectories.

Writing instruction in the course of this study is assessment driven. Since the students produce limited amounts of writing, have in fact produced limited amounts of writing in their early education and come to college often with insufficient levels of skills, and are so resistant to making the effort to write much of substance, teachers instinctively use class time for writing preparation in test-directed activities. These can be formulaic and boring to the students. There might be exceptions, but it seems that no matter what the purpose of the essay (e.g., argumentative) many students learn only to begin paragraphs with ordinal numbers (e.g., firstly and secondly), without much regard to internalizing a wider range of cohesive devices. Their motivation to write is mostly extrinsic; few of the students appear to have experienced much joy in writing, at least in English. Their resistance to the process and the limited time available to prepare them across all aspects of their largely assessment-driven curriculum leads most teachers and students in this setting to focus on tasks designed to quickly train students to successfully write set pieces that will fit the parameters of a prescribed marking rubric rather than to explore writing for its own sake and for the benefit it would bring to all aspects of the curriculum, including improvement in critical thinking skills, if more time could be devoted to it.

Even the modality of writing is contentious. Since the essays are usually written out longhand during most tests given to students in the context of this study (though that is changing), some teachers feel that preparation for tests should also be done longhand in the same modality. I have long felt the contrary, that the format should not matter as much as the process the students will need to employ while writing their essays in whatever format, but my attempts to get students to write on PCs and
iPads have met with limited success in the first instance due to the students' lack of keyboard proficiency, and with iPads, due to the outright lack of keyboard.

Writing on iPad might be frustrating for the course instructor as well, although instructors at my institution can usually avoid the problem by using a device with a keyboard. But if an iPad or a tablet device is the only option for writing, that device's voice-recognition features can also be used.

This is the feature that was utilized when developing the technique described here, where I hit on having the students compose in longhand. Then I would read back what they had written (correctly, in good English) into Google Docs on my iPad, and then give them the resulting texts in both hard and soft copy, with my comments, for them to revise, in Google Docs if they would use it, or in longhand if that is what they preferred.

**The problem of providing teacher feedback to writing**

Teachers have long grappled with the problem of conveying feedback on student writing in a meaningful way. There is a plethora of literature on the effectiveness of various kinds of written markup on student papers. Hyland and Hyland (2006) present an excellent overview of the issues surrounding a variety of teacher feedback techniques. They raise questions relating to feedback such as, “Does it make a difference to students’ writing? ... What is the best way of delivering feedback? ... Can technology play a greater part in delivering feedback?” (p. 83).

They cite literature to suggest it is not effective, though there are the obvious confounding variables "of varied populations, treatments and research designs" (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 84). This is certainly true in my experience. There did not seem to be many effective ways of providing feedback over my decades-long career teaching writing to students who were in varying stages of maturity and who were often even highly motivated to respond to it. But the present report regards the Arab Gulf context where, similar to other contexts, teachers are likely to find a larger than hoped for number of students with limited skills sets and minimal desire to improve them, possibly due in part to the fact that once these students have reached the tertiary stages of education, the tasks so far outstrip their ability to cope with them. Thus a common reaction of the students to the given feedback on their writing is to ignore it, as Hyland and Hyland (2006) point out:

Studies suggest that students may ignore or misuse teacher commentary when revising drafts. Sometimes they misunderstand it...or they understand the problems pointed out but are unable to come up with a suitable revision...and sometimes this causes them to simply delete the offending text to avoid the issues raised. (p. 87)
In the past 10 years of using Google Docs extensively with students, a very large amount of student work was shared with their instructor who provided them with markup on their work which they were expected to follow up on. This work by students has never been systematically analyzed, but it would show minimal improvement in students’ abilities to address their errors by revisiting the files where the comments were provided by their instructor.

As Hyland and Hyland (2006) put it, feedback "will only be effective if it engages with the writer" (p. 86). This is where I undertook to refine my techniques in an effort to engage more effectively with students that one is likely to encounter at some point when teaching at the lower proficiency levels.

**Recent applications of technology to improving feedback in writing**

This article seeks to add to the growing list of suggestions on how technology can be brought to bear on the problem of engaging unmotivated learners in the revision phases of the writing process. One milestone in making large numbers of teachers aware of how free and easy-to-use Web 2.0 technology could help bring about improvements to feedback given to students was Stannard's (2008) ground-breaking work on providing feedback on writing through screencasting. Stannard used the free tool Jing (Techsmith) to screencast himself recording audio feedback on their work, but soon replaced this with the more versatile Camtasia (also produced by Techsmith, but not free).

Alvira (2016) conducted a study of his students in Colombia using Stannard's (2008) method. In his literature search, he noted that a part of his rationale for exploring screencasting as a feedback technique is that other researchers have demonstrated the following:

[T]hat teacher comments on feedback on content are usually vague, contradictory and sometimes provide no guidance to the student ... The outcome of this situation is that students often become frustrated and discouraged and consequently ignore the comments, a situation which reduces the possibility of students improving their writing skills. (Alvira, 2016, p. 82)

Dobrou (2017) addressed the potential of technology in helping teachers provide feedback, reporting that:

with digital feedback [on writing], they get to listen to detailed comments by their teacher at their own pace and they will have to take the time to do so while looking at their piece of writing in more detail. They can later be asked to rewrite it. (para. 23)
Alvira (2016) cited a doctoral dissertation by Hartshorn (2008) who found that ideally, feedback on writing should be manageable, timely, meaningful, and constant. Manageable means that the teacher has to be able to cope with the onerous load of marking student papers. Timely means that feedback needs to reach the student as soon as possible after each draft. Meaningful means the student has to be able to understand it, and constant means that the feedback keeps coming as students continue writing.

The technique described here addresses all of these considerations. The instructor in the context of this study might usually teach two or three writing classes a day, each with 15 to 22 students, and the students are expected to produce writing and process it quickly and effectively and receive simple feedback the next day from their course instructor so that they can undertake their revisions and receive more again from their instructor.

In this last iteration of working through this technique, it was found that the students achieved better results if they begin writing using pen and paper. Often they preferred to write by hand, so allowing them to do that was a course of least resistance. Though revision would normally require even more handwriting, their conception of the task was to write it out once and forget about it. Improving writing through revision was not something they had previously had much practice with.

Going through students’ writing in Google Docs, it was found that addressing errors at this stage was not the best use of time. Rather than bogging the students down in working out where their errors were and how to correct them, the intention was to have them revise from something that they had produced but had been rendered into excellent English. While the students worked, interaction between students and the course instructor took place to help them with questions as they arose, rather than confounding them with corrections before they had had time to formulate their questions. The comments given to students addressed a few matters of form, but were usually directed at bigger issues, such as structuring paragraphs logically, and how to develop the paper by providing examples, conclusions, or whatever else was needed to get the composition to follow a successful exam model.

What my students need to know about the writing process

It was found that the students in this study had little prior knowledge of the process of writing, so I informed them about it in a handout. Each statement in the handout was designed to address some critical misconception of the writing process commonly observed in my classes. The wording of the handout appears in the text under the graphic in Figure 1.
In this class, we work using the same WRITING PROCESS that you should apply when you sit your final writing assessment in this course.

All good writers revise!

- In the past, before we had computers, we had to write or type out multiple drafts, or versions, of what we wanted to write.
- NOW, with computers, we can write out what’s on our minds in a FIRST DRAFT, but then we think more deeply and change what we wrote in second, third, etc. drafts.

Here is the process

- First draft, get some ideas down on paper or into a word processor
- Second draft / third draft, go back and
  - Add detail
  - Reorganize for better coherence
  - Find better words
  - Add transition words for better cohesion
  - Check spelling

Think about your writing as a process you can continually improve by

- Writing out and submitting a quick 100 word first draft.
- Revising your draft considering teacher feedback, and thinking about how you can improve it through
  - Adding detail, improving introductions and conclusions
  - Better organization, rewording, choosing better connecting words and phrases

It’s important that you work from and build on your first draft. Work from your teacher’s feedback. Do NOT start over.
Some disadvantages of using tablet devices to begin the writing process

The main disadvantage to using tablets at the early stages of writing is the lack of keyboard. The school in this context has transitioned from giving students PCs to giving them iPads, and for this age group, there have been problems with focus and distraction, which detracts from time spent on writing. It was also noticed that composition on iPads is awkward for students. Voice input might help, but my students were not able to use it themselves, so I came up with the technique described here to help them start writing on paper and have them carry out the revision process on their iPads.

Another disadvantage of students’ composing on Internet-connected devices in general is that they will often pursue one of two counterproductive strategies. One is the possibility to copy swathes of text from the Internet or compose a text in Arabic and run that through a translator.

Often a simple Google search might expose incidents where some material from the Internet might have been copied. For example, Student #1 submitted a passage written on paper that was copied from a text he had opened on his iPad (see Appendix A).

Voice tools in Google Docs enable the instructor to quickly render handwritten text into machine-readable format that can then be pasted into Google. Since I read all my students' work into Google Docs in order to give them feedback, it was also possible to quickly check which part was not their own writing or copied from the Internet. While reading Student #1's work into the iPad, it was transcribed as:

*I like to play football but there is an effect of anxiety of badminton players and its relation to the level of accomplishment. This study aimed to investigate the level of anxiety of the badminton players and its relationship to the level of accomplishment. Also the effect of the professional player in developing the level.*

The text was Googled, and it was found that some of its parts were copied from a study on anxiety in badminton players. The student was asked to try again and the second time he produced the work shown in Appendix B. Reading the student’s new handwritten work into Google Docs produced the following machine readable text:

*Football is one of the most famous sports in the world and I like to play the football. Countries and organizations attach great importance to the formation of teams for each country to compete in the world and to represent the country in international and annual competitions, whether annual, monthly, weekly, or otherwise. This is a very enjoyable sport, as well as a source of income in countries with large teams with high skills that win the world level and gain a
strong competitive edge in this field. And I like [my country] teams because they are strong teams and I love them, and I like sports because it helps my life.

This was not found on Google, but it had come from a student who up to now had produced no original writing in my class. By now, the students had realized that work copied from websites would be exposed in Google, so they had begun to find other sources of text that could not be found in Google. Software like Turnitin might have worked to expose texts copied from other resources, but this software was not available at the college in this context. Having at hand a machine-readable transcription of what they had written enabled me to make cloze passages from their work and revert the challenge on them by seeing whether they can fill in any of the missing words. So, Student #1 was given this exercise:

Your mark on the paper you wrote for me in class yesterday can be your score on the words that you can replace in this paragraph, which you handed in as your own writing. If you did not copy this from somewhere, then you will know the words that you used in writing this:

Countries and organizations ________ great importance to the ________ of teams for each country to ________ in the world and to ________ the country in international and ________ competitions, whether annual, monthly, weekly, or otherwise. This is a very enjoyable sport, as well ________ a source of ________ in countries with ________ teams with high skills that win the world ________ and gain a strong competitive ________ in this field.

The student made no attempt to guess the missing words from what he had claimed was his own writing. He did however produce a third version in his own words (shown in Appendix K).

Using teacher voice to help students engage in a writing process

To summarize, in order to have the students produce first drafts of their writing more quickly than they can do it on an iPad, and to enable the teacher to give them prompt and improved feedback on their writing, as well as to counter and discourage counterproductive strategies, the process is as follows:

1. students start writing on paper in class;
2. they create and share a blank Google Doc with the instructor;
3. the instructor takes their papers and speaks what they wrote into their shared Google Docs; this corrects their spelling, grammar, and punctuation and gives them something to go on in revising their work in a follow-up class; and
4. the instructor prints out hard copies of their work and makes some corrections and suggestions there, but in particular addresses more global issues that the student might work on.

This makes further revision more efficient than with other methods, since what they have written already is rendered into correct English. The students can open the soft copy on their iPads, and they can use their limited time for revision to strengthen arguments or complete the work they started.

As an example of what the technique looks like in practice, see Appendix C, where Student #2 responds to the writing prompt by composing the following in class, on paper:

\textit{In all my life. The extreme sport which I have in the earth and most popular is soccer. When you go to the goal you will to attack to anyone to come in front of you. But if the ball to other said you will hunt to get it.}

The student did not appear to address the task very seriously. He wrote only 50 words in the 30 minutes assigned to the project, half the number of words the teacher was expecting from the weakest students in the class. Yet this student is not weak in ideas. He makes interesting analogies with attacking and hunting regarding the pursuit of balls controlled by opponents while passionately engaged in the “extreme sport” of soccer.

Teachers are often at a loss as to how to respond to student writing in an effective way. All possible manner of markups have been proposed. One thing that does not appear to work well is decorating the paper in red squiggles and expecting the student to respond thoughtfully to each squiggle.

In Student #2's case, the teacher takes five minutes to read the student's work in correct English into Google Docs, prints it out, and marks it up with suggestions for revision, as seen in Appendix D.

In this technique, just the teacher's act of reading the student's work into Google Docs is perhaps effective feedback for the student, who may appreciate that the teacher has obviously taken time to read and think about the student's work. Students may or may not notice the spelling and grammatical changes, but they are arguably as likely to not notice them even if they are highlighted in red. Feedback here is focused on what the student should do next. This is designed to keep the student writing, and the time it takes to make suggestions on a printout of a paper that has
been “corrected” though voice rendition into text is a fraction of the time it takes to address such errors one by one before providing that even more valuable holistic feedback. As can be seen in Appendix E, the student responded to some of this feedback by adding more substance to two of the paragraphs (129 more words, to be exact), bringing his work much nearer to standard, and addressing the task with more thoughtfulness than before.

In practice some students might ignore the feedback the teacher has provided and might change the topic or start over using one of the counterproductive strategies mentioned earlier, in which case they waste their time and that of the teacher. But those who carry forward with the process can usually improve their work more effectively than if they were revising by hand. For those who follow the process the results have exceeded other methods I have tried in the past.

Another productive technique is to have students pre-plan how they will address a topic using an “essay planner.” Appendix F shows how Student #3 responded to the technique by providing reasons and examples for an advantages/disadvantages essay. It can be seen in Appendices G and H how the student converted these points into a 2-page essay handwritten on paper using a reasonably coherent structure.

The teacher reads what the student wrote longhand into Google Docs, correcting the student’s English, and notes from Google's word count that the work is well crafted but at only 168 words, somewhat short of the 200-word target. Along with the soft copy the student can access on his iPad, the teacher returns the draft and the Google Doc hard copy to the student, offering more suggestions orally while doing this (see Appendix I).

In this case, the student did not respond to the suggestion (shown in red in Appendix I) that he rephrase the introduction to avoid “lifting” words from the prompt that would not figure into his final word count on the upcoming exam, but he does add additional information to two paragraphs, highlighted in yellow, that significantly improve the paper, as shown in Appendix J.

These small revisions might seem trivial to teachers of students of strong writers who faithfully engage with a writing program, but small victories are significant with students whose English is not very strong, and whose writer's block is rooted in deeply negative attitudes toward something in which they feel they will never do well. This brings us back to the case of Student #1, whose first attempts at writing were copied from Internet resources. Student #1 on the third try produced his first original work, as shown in Appendix K. Reading this into Google Docs, I was finally able to give him some meaningful feedback. As can be seen in Appendix L, the student was advised to make the introduction say what the essay would be about, to add details to the middle section, and summarize the main points in his conclusion.
When the student seemed to be struggling with this, he was given an essay planner handout and was asked to complete it to help him organize his ideas into an acceptable essay. Appendix M shows that he was able to supply the missing components on the form, which helped him narrow his essay topic down to fitness and cooperation as primary aspects of success for a football team.

I read the prose from Student #1’s essay planner into Google Docs to show him what his essay would look like based on his ideas placed after the cohesive devices. The student was then given the result shown in Appendix N.

As can be seen, the student was making progress. It is uncertain what kind of help he was getting from classmates, but as pointed out earlier, success is counted in the fact that the technique employed allowed the student to persist in his writing and follow a process which he might be starting to internalize. It is believed he also benefited from a modicum of success he may not have thought possible, perceiving himself as a “level one student” who had entered the class with no real hope of improving his English.

**Conclusion**

There are many challenges that are encountered in teaching writing skills to students in the context of this study; for example, writing class sizes of 15 to 20 students were too large to allow opportunities for engaging students in frequent writing activities and proper classroom management. Teachers in such contexts need a technique that will enable them to address the initial efforts of all students quickly and draw them out the way that Student #2 was encouraged to make meaningful revisions in his paper, and that student #1 was able to produce possibly his most ambitious and cohesive essay ever. Having students start the writing process on paper usually starts them writing, and putting that into Google Docs gives them something to take to the next level without their having to re-write from scratch.

It was found that the technique described in this article is one effective way of dealing with several classes which collectively produce a large number of short essays in a day. The instructor could usually address the work of a class of up to 20 students in about an hour, and return them with some feedback next class, which can help students move into the next phase of the writing process. The technique seemed to work well with some of the students and seems appropriate to addressing the challenges of teaching writing to poorly motivated students in the academic context reported in this paper.
References


Appendices

Appendix A

Example of Student #1 copying first draft from an iPad in his lap.

You should spend 30 minutes on this task.
Use as much vocabulary as you can from the Level 3 Quiz 1-2 Wordlists →

Describe an EXTREME SPORT that you have done or would like to do.
1. Tell what the sport is about.
2. What equipment do you need?
3. What do you do when you play this sport?
4. Why is it dangerous?
5. How can you prevent accident or injury when doing it?
6. Why do you enjoy it, or why do you do it?

Write at least 100 words.

I like to play football but there is an effect of anxiety of badminton players and its relation to the level of accomplishment. This study aimed to investigate the level of anxiety of the badminton players and its relationship to the level of accomplishment. Also the effect of the professional player in Dubai the level
Appendix B

Example of Student #1 copying a handwritten draft by another student.

FND 3016 – Week 3 - Start writing about an EXTREME SPORT

You should spend 30 minutes on this task.
Use as much vocabulary as you can from the Level 3 Quiz 1-2 Wordlists →

Describe an EXTREME SPORT that you have done or would like to do.
1. Tell what the sport is about.
2. What equipment do you need?
3. What do you do when you play this sport?
4. Why is it dangerous?
5. How can you prevent accident or injury when doing it?
6. Why do you enjoy it, or why do you do it?

Write at least 100 words.

Football is one of the most famous sports in the world and I like to play the football. Countries and organizations attach great importance to the formation of teams for each country to compete in the world and to represent the country in international and annual competitions and conditions, whether annual monthly, weekly or otherwise. This is a very enjoyable sport, as well as a source of income in countries with large teams with high skills that win the world level and gain a strong competitive edge in this field, and I like them because he strong tens and I love it.
Appendix C

A 50-word first draft produced by student #2.

In all my life, the extreme sport which I love, is the earth, and the most popular is soccer. When you go to the goal, you will attack to anyone to come in front of you. But if the ball to other said you will hunt to get it.
Appendix D

Teacher feedback on 50-word first draft produced by student #2 encouraging revision.

```
Student 2

From Sunday September 24
Start writing about extreme sports

In all my life the extreme sport which I love most on earth and which is the most popular is soccer. When you approach the goal you will attack anyone who gets in your way. But if the ball goes to the other side you will hunt to get it.

50 words
50% of 100

Good beginning

The first sentence is a good start to an introduction paragraph. Complete the introduction, telling me about the sport.

Second paragraph - what do you do when you play the sport? Write a good first sentence for this paragraph, then add more details.

Third paragraph

Conclusion
```
Appendix E

Student #2’s response to teacher feedback in which he revised from 50 to 179 words.

From Sunday September 24
Start writing about extreme sports

In all my life the extreme sport which I love most on earth and which is the most popular is soccer. Soccer is a game that is important for all humans. When you approach the goal you will attack anyone who gets in your way. But if the ball goes to the other side you will hunt to get it.

First of all, Football is the world’s most popular ball game in numbers of participants and spectators. There are also many people who are encouraging this game. Before you start playing this game once you begin you should do warm-ups, so as not to get into pain in the joints and tension in the muscles. After warm-ups we will be two teams of friends to play a friendly match. It is always amusing to see errors between the two teams or friends.

Second of all, now I will talk about the ball in general. Approximately 250 million football players and over 1.3 billion people are “interested” in football; in 2010 "a combined television audience of more than 26 billion watched football’s premier tournament, the quadrennial month-long world cup finals." (Britannica.com)
You should cite the quote taken from here
https://www.britannica.com/sports/football-soccer

179 words
You have made good progress on your revision. You wrote 72% of the requested 250 words. I have corrected all your grammar and spelling errors.
Next week you can improve your paper and bring it up to 250 words.

To do this do NOT DELETE what you have done so far. Revise and improve it.

To improve the paper,
1. make sure the introduction paragraph explains what you will write about
2. Add some detail to your paragraphs.
3. Write a conclusion to tell the reader what the essay was about.

Please complete your 250-word essay by the end of our first class period next week.
Appendix F

Student #3’s essay planner showing points to be used in advantages/disadvantages essay.
Appendix G

Page 1 of Student #3's handwritten first draft of his advantages/disadvantages essay

Many people think that iPads can help students learn more effectively, but many students use them to waste time in class. What are the advantages and disadvantages of students having iPads in class, and (in your conclusion) what should be done about the disadvantages?

Write a FIRST DRAFT of 100 words
Write at least 200 words in your REVISED essay

Many people think that iPads can help students learn more effectively, but many students use them to waste time in class. I will write some people advantages and some people disadvantages.

Firstly, some people think the iPad is good and they have some advantages. You can help your self to research some hard things, also students can write many things about their subject and the iPad is more easy for students to use. This is advantages point about the iPad.
Appendix H

Page 2 of Student #3's handwritten first draft of his advantages/disadvantages essay

Secondly, some people have other things about the iPad. Bad and disadvantageous things. So, student will play all the time on iPad, but they will play little star or another game. And students will see video for some funny videos and they will fail in the exam. This is disadvantage things about iPad.

Finally, the iPad have some good things and bad things, but in my opinion I am with some people with an advantage. Bad because iPad have more good things and example you can help yourself and can research some hard things after that, you will pass in the exams.

(words)
Appendix I

Teacher-voiced rendition of Student #3’s first draft of his advantages/disadvantages essay

October 9, 2017

Try to begin with different words from those given on the exam script

Many people think that iPads can help students learn more effectively, but many students to use them to waste time in class. I will write what some people think are advantages and disadvantages of having iPads in class.

First, some people think that iPads are good and they have some advantageous points. For example, you can help yourself to research about hard things. Also students can write many things about their subject and iPad is easy for students to use. This is one advantage about the iPad.

However, some people have other opinions about the iPad’s bad disadvantages. For example, students will play all the time on their iPad and they will play Lodestar or other games. And many students will watch movies or some funny videos and they will fail in the exam. These are some disadvantages of iPad.

Finally, the iPad has both good and bad aspects, but in my opinion I agree with people who think the iPad has more advantages, because iPad has many good features. For example you can help yourself and you can research hard things and after that you will pass your exams.

168 original words.
Appendix J

Final draft of Student #3's advantages/disadvantages essay, as submitted in Google Docs

October 10, 2017

Try to begin with different words from those given on the exam script
The words in red below are not part of your word count.

Many people think that iPads can help students learn more effectively, but many students to use them to waste time in class. I will write what some people think are advantages and disadvantages of having iPads in class.

First, some people think that iPads are good and they have some advantageous points. For example, you can help yourself to research about hard things. Also students can write many things about their subject and iPad is easy for students to use. This is one advantage about the iPad, and another advantage about the iPad is that it is better because the students can see many answers for many questions about any subject.

However, some people have other opinions about the iPad's bad disadvantages. For example, students will play all the time on their iPad and they will play Lodestar or other games. And many students will watch movies or some funny videos and they will fail in the exam. These are some disadvantages of iPad and another disadvantage about the iPad is that it is not good for eyes and if you use it all of the time your eyes will broken and you body will become fat, which is another disadvantages about the ipad.

Finally, the iPad has both good and bad aspects, but in my opinion I agree with people who think the iPad has more advantages, because iPad has many good features. For example you can help yourself and you can research hard things and after that you will pass your exams.

233 original words
This is 100% of the required 200 words
Appendix K

Student #1’s successful attempt at producing an original first draft, after 2 submissions that were copied from Internet resources.

My name is ___ and my favorite sport is football and I like it because when I am children I play when my friend and when my brothers and my favorite club is and the football is the good sport because he make the equipment and we make it and will be sport man and will be fast and when play football while another team you will win because you sport man and I like clap because these the good team and I want to be good player and I when play with.
Appendix L

Student #1's successful first draft spoken into Google Docs by the teacher, with feedback

**Student 1**

September 28, you wrote an original first draft in class

My name is ___ and my favorite sport is football. I like it because when I was a child I played with my friends and with my brothers. and the

Football is a good sport because when someone makes an accident, we make fight and we will be sportsmen. And you will be fast and when you play football with another team you will win because you are a sportsman

My favorite club is ___ I like to clap for ___ because these are good teams. And I want to be a good player and I want to play with the ___ Clap!

106 words

Well done on your first draft.
I have corrected all your grammar and spelling errors.
Now improve your paper and bring it up to 250 words in a SECOND DRAFT in Word

To do this do NOT DELETE what you have done so far. Revise and improve it.

You have made good points about football. You have these main ideas
1. You have written about your experience playing football
2. You have a paragraph about why football is a good sport
3. You have a paragraph about clubs in

To improve the paper, you need to write 100 more words
1. make the introduction paragraph explain what you will write about
2. Add some detail to the other paragraphs.
3. In your conclusion tell the reader what the essay was about.

I have put your essay into the Word document you shared with me.
Note that it shifts right to left because your language setting is for Arabic.
Please correct this, and complete your 250-word essay in that document
Or on the paper I give you Sunday Oct 1
Appendix M

Student #1’s completed essay planner to help him organize the ideas in his first draft

ID Name: STUDENT 1 Section: Date: 

Now put your essay on Extreme Sports into this Great Essay Template (on paper or WORD app)

My favorite extreme sport is football. This is a sport where fitness looks and running are very important.

In this essay, I will write about two things: about fitness and the best team in terms of team success.

First, I’ll write about fitness. If you want to play football, you must have a good body and muscles and high fitness. And you will eat good food like healthy food such as vegetables.

Next, I’ll tell you about the best team in terms of team success. If the team wants to be successful, you should work with one hand and cooperate with each other. And you must do good exercise.

In conclusion, I hope everyone loves playing sports and practicing sports and he love fitness.

In this essay, I’ve explained briefly about football and its benefits and the rheumatism.
Appendix N

Student #1’s essay generated from the essay planner he had completed with his own ideas

Section 10 writing from Mon Oct 2, 2017

My favorite sport is football. This is a sport where fitness, focus, and running are very important. In this essay, I will write about two things. First I’ll write about fitness and then I’ll write about the best team in terms of team success.

The first thing I’ll write about is fitness. If you want to play football you must have a good body and strong muscles and a high degree of fitness. And you should eat good, healthy food such as vegetables.

Next, I will give you my opinion about the best team in terms of team success. If the team wants to be successful they should work with one hand and cooperate with each other, and they must do good exercise.

In conclusion, I hope everyone loves playing sports and practicing sports, especially if they love fitness. In this essay, I’ve explained briefly about football and its benefits and … (something… rheumatis?? I don’t understand this word).

152 words
Chapter 3

Flipping the Classroom towards Learner Autonomy in an EFL Writing Class

Yahya Ashour Alkhoudary
Buraimi University College, Oman

Abstract

This study aims to explore the effect of flipped classroom on EFL students as an important strategy recently used at Buraimi University College. Basically, students need to have out-of-class instructional materials to read, prepare, complete tasks, and review independently. A mixed approach was used to collect the data. The participants, consisting of 50 students, were divided into two groups of 25 each: the experimental group and a control group. Also, ten EFL teachers were selected to participate in this study. Pre- and post-tests were administered to both groups before integrating flipped classroom strategies as a model of blended learning. Interviews involved both teachers and experimental group students who learnt writing through flipped classrooms. The control group students were taught writing using the current traditional approach employed by most teachers in the institution’s classrooms. Finally, a questionnaire was distributed to students in the treatment group. The findings of the study revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-tests. Moreover, the experimental group showed positive attitudes towards flipping as an effective learning strategy. The study demonstrates that a flipped classroom strategy can improve writing quality in colleges and universities since it is a shift from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness, among other reasons.

1. Introduction and Theoretical Background

Traditional classroom teaching has been heavily criticized for its negative effects on EFL/ESL learners in the long run. The potential that technology offers has urged educators to re-check their pedagogical approach. The flipped classroom (FC) is a platform that allows students to do home assignments in and out of class. Muldrow (2013) believes that FC offers possible solutions in terms of effective learning in EFL/ESL classes. As teachers focus on student-centered education, technology can be integrated to facilitate teaching and create a successful interactive classroom via Internet and social media since new technology can encourage learners to work independently.
Kurt and Atay (2007) maintain that it is difficult to teach writing due to students’ accumulated previous weakness. Alsamdani (2010) asserts that writing is a challenge since it deals with different phases, for example, content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, mechanics and spelling. The current approach used in teaching writing is still conventional because most teachers are reluctant to use new techniques to overcome the problems students suffer from in all the learning stages.

It has been found that flipping may enhance learners’ performance not only in writing but also in all language skills. The fast development of modern technology paves the way to integrate devices in education. Many teachers in the USA have successfully implemented flipped strategies (Green, 2012). They flipped their classrooms by using available materials, creating videos, recording lessons and posting them on Google classroom or Moodle. Mazur, Brown, & Jacobsen (2015), state that FC requires that students first gain exposure to new material outside of class by reading prescribed materials or watching videos, then exploit class time in achieving the harder work of assimilating that knowledge through discussion. Similarly, Berrett (2012) argues that flipping is arranged to give learners enough opportunity to enhance thinking skills outside the classroom.

As it has been noted, the traditional approach is currently employed in the majority of EFL classrooms in Omani schools. While visiting and interviewing EFL teachers at two secondary schools in Oman, the schools’ principals and supervisors stated that students are receivers of information and teachers are the source of knowledge. FC model can therefore be adopted and tailored to meet students’ needs and level. Instead of listening to teachers in the class and doing assignments at home, FC will enable students to read materials, view videos, and listen to teachers’ recorded materials before coming to class.

2. Literature Review

Second-language writing may be considered the most difficult skill to teach. Therefore, researchers never stop looking for new solutions to overcome difficulties. This study seeks to offer a solution among other studies.

Researchers in the field of teaching ESL/EFL have given suggestions to educators in order to reduce the role of traditional teachers (Alkhoudary, 2015; Bergmann & Sams, 2012, 2013; Berret, 2012). Flipping paves the way for autonomous learning. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) propose that FC provides an opportunity for students to gain language exposure prior to the class and offers teachers a mechanism to assess learners while at the same time focusing on higher cognitive activities. Li (2013) claims that FC affects learners and teachers as well since learners create materials and invest class time to deepen learning. Additionally, the integration of technology in education as a pedagogical strategy compiles the
traditional face-to-face teaching and learning context via using technology (Bonk & Graham, 2006, p. 3). According to Lage, Platt and Treglia (2000), FC is a pedagogical model that changes the conventional instruction most teachers use to accomplish the proposed course learning outcomes effectively.

The idea of reversing teaching and learning activities emerges from the students’ needs and levels (Bergmann & Sams, 2012, p. 5). The term “flip” relates to the organization of teaching and learning activities. It makes significant changes in the role of learners and instructors (Educause, 2012). Further, a flipping strategy creates an atmosphere where students are given opportunities to participate effectively as there is enough time and room for revising and preparing lessons (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Pedroni and Meyer (2006) assert that flipping is fruitful since most learners who are involved in writing prefer FC to traditional, lecture-based classrooms.

The flipped model allows learners to work at their own pace — to pause, process, and work on. To be successful, students need to be trained in how to deal with the recorded materials. It helps teachers to reflect on the effectiveness of their strategies and avoid a boring daily teaching routine.

Not all are convinced of the efficacy of FC, however. Atteberry (2013), for example, argues that FC is vastly overrated; it is just a fad that does not contribute to improving student performance. Indeed, integrating educational technology in schools is inadequate if instructors do not use the tools appropriately (AlKhoudary, 2018; Akarawang, Kidrakran, & Nuangchalerm, 2015). However, flipping is a beneficial method as it is different from spoon-feeding where the learners’ role is passive (Fraga & Harmon, 2014; Street, Gilliland, McNeil & Royal, 2015).

Benson (2011) maintains that FC enables students to have control over the assigned teaching materials which increases motivation towards learning. Moreover, Bakar, Latiff, and Hamat (2013) argue that asynchronous learning encourages students to build confidence in developing their language skills since they are granted flexibility in reviewing materials. Educause (2012) further explains that students interact more in FCs where class time can be invested more flexibly and efficiently since the role of teachers is to guide and advise students in face-to-face teaching.

3. Study Aims

This paper intends to explore the feasibility of integrating FC in the EFL classroom to check its effectiveness in terms of students’ writing. It also attempts to discuss the challenges that impede using FC at university level. This paper examines to what extent digital learning with outside materials, when mixed with face-to-face classroom activities, can strengthen learner autonomy. Thus, the objectives of the study are to analyze the applicability of FC in writing classrooms, investigate the
effectiveness of using FC on writing quality, and examine the impact of using FC on students’ learning output. Bloom’s taxonomy of knowledge and social constructivism is referred to as a model (Brame, 2013, p. 12).

4. Methodology

To achieve the intended aims, an experimental study was used to explore the impact of integrating FC in teaching writing. A mixed approach was employed to ensure accurate data. The population of this study consisted of 50 students who were selected randomly and divided into two groups: experimental (25) and control (25). The Omani students taking an introductory writing course in their first year of university. Also included were ten EFL teachers who had experience in teaching writing. The participants were asked to do both online and offline writing activities using the recorded material to watch at home on Google Classroom. They were also given guided compositions to follow online, using pictures and related vocabulary. The experimental group students were trained in writing, following a process approach. Flipped strategies were followed where participants performed assignments at their own pace.

A writing pre-test was administered to both groups to check the effect of employing FC on the EFL writing classroom. A questionnaire was also distributed to the experimental group after using FC to determine its effect on the participants’ writing quality and to measure their attitude towards FC. Also, interviews were conducted with the experimental group and teachers after application. The participants in the study were given orientation and training on using Google Classroom to prepare for the virtual writing, following teachers’ guidelines, watching videos, listening to recorded materials, filling in guided writing, checking and using active vocabulary on Google Classroom, and using the downloaded Pictionary.

5. Findings and Discussion

As mentioned above, the subjects of the study were 50 undergraduate students who were taking General English at Buraimi University College (BUC) in Oman. The participants were not English majors and belonged to the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels as indicated by a placement test. Their ages ranged between 18 and 19. The study data were collected from writing pre- and post-tests, a questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews. Thus, a mixed approach was adopted, and the data were analyzed using SPSS and a thematic method.

To ensure that the samples were equivalent in their previous writing achievement, the researcher conducted a pre-test. Participants’ results were recorded and statistically analyzed using independent sample T-test. Table 1 presents the data, including mean, standard deviation, t value, p-value and significant level of each group in the English language writing test, showing that both groups are
homogeneous. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the questionnaire is (0.912); a high coefficient rate indicating that the questionnaire is highly reliable as displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

**Statistical data for experimental and control group in pre-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.54</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.891</td>
<td>No. Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** t, critical value at df 98 and sig level 0.01=2.626
** t, critical value at df 98 sig level 0.05=1.984

The computed (T) value is lower than the critical (T) value. This result means that there is no significant difference at (α ≤ 0.05) between the mean scores of the two groups in the level of writing achievement.

Commenting on the pre- and post-test conducted for experimental group students, the results confirm that there are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental group students in relation to the pre- and post-tests. The researcher used paired sample T-test to calculate the differences between the mean scores of the experimental group in the pre- and post-test. It demonstrates that the experimental group students improved as indicated in Table 2 below.

Table 2

**Statistical data for experimental group in pre-test and post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Pre.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.54</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>9.831</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** t, critical value at df 49 and sig level 0.01=2.756
* t, critical value at df 49 sig level 0.05=2.045

Table 2 shows that the computed (T) value is higher than the critical (T) value sig. level (0.01). This result means that there is a statistically significant difference at (α ≤ 0.05) in the level of writing between the mean scores of the experimental group in the pre- and post-tests in favor of the post-test. This demonstrates that using FC improved the experimental group’s writing quality.

The researcher used independent sample T-test to determine the differences between the mean scores of the two groups in relation to the post-test, as shown in Table 3.
Table 3

Statistical data for experimental and control group in post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>T.V</th>
<th>PV</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.66</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** t, critical value at df 98 and sig level 0.01=2.626

* t, critical value at df 98 sig level 0.05=1.984

Table 3 demonstrates that the computed (T) value is higher than the critical (T) value at df 98 and sig. level 0.01 of post-test. This result means that there is a statistically significant difference at (α ≤ 0.05) in the level of writing between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group.

To determine the effectiveness of flipped classrooms in developing experimental group’s writing, $\eta^2$ was calculated as shown in Table 4. As can be seen, Table 4 indicates that $\eta^2 = 0.66$ which means that using FC in ESL classes had a positive effect on developing subjects’ writing.

Table 4

Eta Square coefficients of the effect size of using social media in writing skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
<th>(df)</th>
<th>H$^2$</th>
<th>Effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>9.831</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned previously, a questionnaire was used to gain awareness of students’ attitudes towards FC. To examine the impact of using technology on students’ attitudes towards FC, the mean, standard deviation, and proportional mean were calculated. Table 5 presents the results.
## Table 5

*Mean, standard deviation, and proportional mean of experimental group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Proportional mean</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>FC encouraged me to work individually.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>88.80</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Recorded materials help me to write neat writing.</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>91.20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>FC gives me enough time to revise my writing.</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>89.60</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Handouts on Google Forms helped to organize my ideas.</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>91.20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>FC made learning more appealing.</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>This strategy reduced my grammatical mistakes when writing.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>75.60</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Teacher’s videos and handouts motivated me to revise drafts.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>82.00</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Listening to audios reminds me of instruction.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>78.40</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mini Pictionary highly motivated me to diverse vocabulary.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>FC encourages me to review assigned topics for the next lesson.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>75.20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Recorded guidelines promoted my writing quality.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>70.40</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>FC created interesting writing classes.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>67.60</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>This style helped me to be an independent achiever.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>70.40</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Some teachers lack training in using technology.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>74.40</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Teacher spent enough time in giving feedback on writing.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>My teacher became a companion in the learning process.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>69.20</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>FC created an interactive atmosphere in writing.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>70.40</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Teacher’s communication improves my writing.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>72.00</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>FC doesn’t contribute to improving my writing.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>73.20</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Lack of technology at home doesn’t help.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>65.60</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>77.06</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 reveals that the proportional mean of the total score of the experimental group is high (77.06). This result shows that FC had a high impact on the
experimental group. Statements 2 and 4 had the highest proportional means, while statements 12 and 20 had the lowest proportional means. The majority of responses indicate that students had a positive attitude towards integrating FC strategies in writing classrooms.

As mentioned earlier, the researcher conducted interviews with the experimental group students. The aim of the interview was to verify the collected data since qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed. The majority of students had positive interactions with teacher and peers. Also, they indicated that they had positive attitudes towards using FC since they were asked to prepare assignments through watching videos and practice guided writing provided by the teacher. Below are extracts from two student participants’ responses.

*FC would be a good way for me to learn better. We experienced positive interaction with teachers and peers during the class time. Learning English has become more active since positive interaction has increased with teachers and classmates.*

*...we had more access to course materials. Listening to teacher’s guides at home was beneficial. We learnt to write better after watching guidelines and videos. Teacher guides us throughout the course providing one-to-one mentoring by providing feedback on assignment online. FC give us enough opportunity to think and act on our own.*

As far as teachers’ responses are concerned, they were also positive in different ways. Below are extracts from male and female teachers’ interviews:

*The flipped method is a good way to enhance students’ writing except for some students who do not respond to teachers’ guidelines. It is possible to extend flipped classroom among our students through using applications to invest class-time. This technique has the potential for learning growth.*

*Flipped class gave a chance to learners to prepare the prescribed materials, we would likely promise to use flipping in our classes next semester. Preloaded materials on Web save time. They also disclose that asynchronous learning increases collaborative environment that influences students’ learning. Students’ weakness in language skills depends on students’ level, otherwise flipped classroom is fad.*

*We are interested in adopting this modern method of teaching because it gives all learners an opportunity to immerse in learning process, but the majority of students are accustomed to spoon-feeding. FC seems a method of teaching that has been imposed on students and teachers despite not being efficient.*
Performance and attitude requires time to be shifted to the new strategy. Flipped classroom helps students to choose their learning style; students have become more independent and motivated towards learning English. It is a good idea to use flipped class to avoid boring instruction; class-time can be invested, and all students have enough chance to involve in learning process.

...flipping will enhance the in-class experience in some way, making it more dynamic because there will be less teacher fronted instruction and more student-centered activity during the actual class period. I also believe that “flipping” will somehow reduce prep time for the teacher.

I have never used flipped learning with my students since it is ineffective in BUC classrooms even though it saves class-time. If students are well-guided in class it works. The videos, screen-casts and other instructional support materials that will be used by students remotely (or online) must be well thought out, designed and prepared well in advance of the start of a semester.

...videos to reinforce the instructor's engagement and commitment to the class and its curriculum and materials. There is palpable sense that much of the material presented to students (online) need to be reviewed, reiterated or re-presented in-class. Students seemed to crave or need the direct, “live” teacher regardless of the quality or depth of the information presented to students from remote platforms.

As portrayed above, teachers’ responses show that their attitudes towards FC are generally positive. According to them, FC gave students sufficient opportunities to immerse themselves in the writing process regularly. FC helped students to have self-esteem and confidence when brainstorming, organizing ideas, revising, and editing. Moreover, FC save time since students do most of the work at home, and class time is invested in giving feedback and rewriting the final copy. A number of female teachers, however, felt that FC was unsuccessful in some classes because it is a demanding strategy.

Taken in sum, the findings show that most experimental group students made outstanding progress in writing. FC offered learners ample time to review and prepare materials beforehand and work independently to do tasks online and reinforce what they learnt via Google Classroom. The class time was invested in using teaching materials in virtual classroom situations. Students practiced brainstorming, organizing, drafting, and revising including evaluation, thinking, and analyzing the given information face-to-face in class and online as well. Additionally, both students and teachers had positive attitude toward FC methodology.
6. Conclusion

This paper intended to explore the feasibility of integrating FC in the ESL classroom to check its effectiveness in terms of students’ writing performance. The findings demonstrate that FC enhanced writing since the majority of the students were motivated to be autonomous learners. Flipping techniques, however, may be unwelcomed by inexperienced teachers since flipping techniques require time, effort, and practice. Further, this study proves that FC strategies are applicable in language classrooms, but there are some obstacles due to teachers’ persistence among others. Producing content is not easy since it requires skillful teachers who can prepare well-organized and interesting audios and videos. Difficulty in watching videos and Internet breakdown are other reasons why FC may not always function effectively. Teachers wishing to flip their classes should start by flipping a small group of the class, prepare teaching videos and online teaching materials before the class starts, and post the material on Edmodo, Google Class, Moodle, etc. The prepared instructional materials should be tailored according to learners’ levels and needs. Once students feel comfortable using FC, teachers can gradually increase the amount of flipped materials.
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Section Two:
Professional Development
Chapter 4

Leadership in Publishing Research: Nurturing and Training Young Researchers

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Abstract

Today, publishing research is vital in virtually all universities and research centers around the world. However, high quality publishing continues to be a real challenge for many researchers and practitioners, in particular novice researchers and research students. The main purpose of this chapter is to suggest five instructive and practical ways for nurturing and training beginning researchers and research students and providing leadership in publishing research. These include: 1) providing leadership in the form of holding workshops and seminars; 2) providing leadership in the form of mentoring novice researchers and research students; 3) providing leadership in the form of editors’ and reviewers’ guidance; 4) providing leadership in the form of co-authoring and co-presenting with junior faculty and research students; and 5) providing leadership by creating research groups within and among institutions. The ultimate goal of this chapter is to enable novice researchers and research students get published, join the publishing community, and contribute to the body of knowledge of their respective disciplines.

1. Introduction

With the increasing emphasis on research productivity in recent years, the need to publish in high quality journals and with academic professional publishers is now a top priority for many universities, research centers, and colleges around the world. Indeed, nowadays we increasingly hear of research-intensive universities, research-based education, research and the impact factor, research and citation metrics, research collaboration, research
A number of considerations can be identified for the need to publish. These include both theoretical considerations and practical considerations. Theoretical considerations include (Lussier, 2010; Hyland, 2015):

- Contributing to the body of knowledge
- Expanding the knowledge base/adding to the literature
- Publishing as an act of creativity/developing full talents
- Developing critical thinking skills
- Publishing as an act of curiosity and personal interest.

The practical considerations for publishing include the following (Lussier, 2010; Hyland, 2015):

- Expanding the relationship of research to practice (e.g., research-led education)
- Publishing for personal/professional development
- Publishing for employment (hiring, reappointment, renewal, and promotion)
- Publishing as a degree (MA, PhD) requirement.

However, high quality publishing continues to be a real challenge for many researchers and practitioners, in particular beginning researchers and research students (see for example, Adamson & Nunn, 2012; Brown & Coombe, 2015; Cargill & O’Connor, 2013). Using my long and extensive experience as a published author, reviewer and editor, and based on a review of the related literature, I will identify in this chapter five instructive and practical ways for nurturing and training beginning researchers and research students. I will conclude the chapter with the relevance of these suggestions for encouraging and spreading research in the United Arab Emirates (UAE).

2.1 Workshops and Seminars

The first and a major way to provide leadership in publishing research is by holding workshops and seminars on the topic. Such workshops, typically led by senior and published faculty, cover the main issues, steps and pitfalls to consider in publishing. These include:

1) Why to publish: The workshop/seminar leader(s) identify and discuss various considerations for publishing (mentioned above).

2) What to publish: The workshop/seminar leader(s) identify and discuss the various types of publishing, including full-length articles (journals); brief reports and summaries (journals); forum articles
(journals, magazines); feature articles (journals, magazines); networking/report articles (magazines, newsletters); and book reviews (journals, magazines, newsletters).

3) Where to publish: Here the workshop/seminar leader(s) identify the various outlets or venues for publishing. These include research-oriented journals; practice-oriented journals; local, regional, international journals; magazines; newsletters; forums, as well as edited collections and conference proceedings.

4) How to publish (the process): Finally, and importantly, the workshop/seminar leader(s) describe and discuss the publishing process from start to finish. For instance, the workshop/seminar leader(s) might discuss and demonstrate with real examples the basic issues to consider in a submission like organization and writing style (surface issues) and content and conceptualization (substance issues). They might also discuss ways of familiarizing oneself with the various stages of the reviewing process: editors’ initial screening of the manuscript; reviewers’ in-depth, more detailed reviewing; reviewers’ recommendations; and editors’ decisions. Finally, the leader(s) might identify and discuss potential pitfalls to avoid in a submission, such as: purpose of the study assumed, not explicitly stated; research questions not grounded in theory or past studies; inadequate description and/or justification of research methodology; unsupported assumptions and claims; exaggerated or over-generalized findings; inaccurate citations; too many secondary references (for more details on these and other related issues, see Lussier, 2010; Shehadeh, 2015).

Such workshops and seminars provide early-career researchers with an opportunity to acquaint themselves with the nuts and bolts of the publishing process. At the same time, they constitute an excellent opportunity for beginning researchers to ask questions, seek clarifications, and discuss issues and challenges that face them—or are likely to face them—in their attempt to publish. Based on my personal experience as a leader or co-leader of several such workshops and seminars in the last 15 years or so, the interest in these events and the benefits obtained from them by the novice researchers and research students were outstanding.

2.2 Mentoring/Supervision

The second way to provide leadership in publishing research is by mentoring novice researchers. It is possible to identify two types of mentoring: mentoring in the workplace and journal mentoring schemes.

Mentoring junior faculty and research students in the workplace can take several forms and shapes, but typically this is done (formally or informally)
by reviewing the work (one draft or multiple drafts) of the beginning researcher and research student and providing specific and tailored feedback on the work. Such feedback can relate to any aspect of the work including, but not limited to, the following:

- Purpose and focus
- Rationale and justification
- Contextualization
- Review of relevant literature
- Validity of the hypotheses and research questions
- Clarity
- Research methodology
- Findings and discussion of findings
- Originality and contribution
- Conceptualization, organization and presentation of the study.

Such mentoring provides junior faculty with an excellent opportunity to see the points of strength and weaknesses of their work, what needs to be done to improve it, and how it can be improved in order to meet the required standards of the publication requirements.

Mentoring can also take place at the various stages of the research and writing process. For instance, it can be at the stage of conceptualizing the study, the stage of purpose and focus of the study, the stage of rationale and justification of the study, the stage of reviewing the related literature, the stage of formulating the hypotheses and research questions for the study, and so on.

This type of mentoring can be done between faculty/staff members on a one-on-one informal basis, or better, be formalized by the institution as an established and institutionalized mentoring scheme (see also, Hyland, 2015; Matarese, 2013).

On the other hand, research journals can create their own mentoring schemes as part of the reviewing process. This is typically done by having an editorial board member or experienced reviewer work closely with authors, in particular beginning researchers and research students, providing them with advice on revising their work in response to the reviewers’ and/or editors’ reports and recommendations.

Some research journals have in fact installed such mentoring schemes. For instance, during my tenure at *TESOL Quarterly* as Co-Editor of the Brief Reports and Summaries section and Member of the Editorial Board (2007-2012), a Mentoring Committee was established solely for this purpose. Below
is a description of the committee, its responsibilities and scope of jurisdiction (TESOL Quarterly homepage).

The committee mentored several novice authors, and as a consequence their papers were successfully revised and accepted by TESOL Quarterly for publication. However, this mentoring scheme ceased in 2009 due to a policy change. Nonetheless, any research journal might consider developing and installing its own mentoring scheme.

Indeed, with the multiplicity of graduate programs in the last 10-15 years at many universities and researcher centers around the worldwide, coupled with the need to publish in refereed journals and with professional publishers, such mentoring programs are now a priority. Local, regional, or international journals and academic publishers, for instance, might join forces with colleges of graduate studies and research centers to create mentoring programs that suit the needs of graduate students and beginning researchers and provide them with the suitable assistance and guidance thought-out all stages of the publishing process.
2.3 Editors’ and Reviewers’ Guidance

Third, where there is no journal mentoring scheme, journal editors, associate editors, members of the editorial board, and reviewers can provide novice researchers with good nurturing opportunities by providing them with detailed, constructive, and informative feedback on their submitted work with respect to what needs to be done and how it should be done.

In their reports, external reviewers in particular can provide invaluable help to the novice researcher by pointing out what exactly needs to be done in order to address their (i.e., the reviewers’) points of concern and the weaknesses in the submission (e.g., better contextualization in the relevant, up-to-date literature; stronger rationale and justification of the study; stronger justification of the research methodology used; deeper and more thorough discussion and interpretation of the findings; etc.). They can also direct the early-career researcher to ways these concerns might be addressed satisfactorily (e.g., suggesting specific references, suggesting stronger ways of grounding the research hypotheses and questions in the relevant literature, recommending a different way of interpreting the findings of the study, etc.). This is especially helpful and relevant when reviewers recommend revision and resubmission.

Journal editors, associate editors and members of the editorial board can also provide helpful assistance to beginning researchers, for instance, by highlighting the key issues and concerns with the submission that these authors need to address, based on the external reviewers’ reports and recommendations.

The point being made here, in brief, is that clearly signposting the issues of concern with the submission, and explicitly directing beginning researchers to respond to these concerns in a specific manner (e.g., citing a certain reference, adding a specific point, elaborating, addressing a particular issue, etc.) makes a real difference to these authors. I have experienced this myself and appreciated it tremendously when I was a novice researcher years ago; now as an editor and reviewer, I see its impact on novice researchers and the appreciation voiced by these researchers.

2.4 Co-Authoring and Co-Presenting

The fourth way to provide leadership in publishing research is by co-authoring and co-presenting with junior faculty and research students.

Co-authoring is an excellent opportunity for nurturing and training young researchers for publishing:

- It provides beginning researchers with first-hand knowledge and practical experience of the A-Z matters of the publishing process including the basic steps, stages, and requirements of publishing as
well as issues of dealing with editors’ decisions, reviewers’ reports, and revising.

- Co-authoring with senior faculty is more likely to end with successful publishing of the research, which constitutes a motivational base for the junior faculty and research students for further successful publishing, individually and/or jointly.

Similarly, presenting and co-presenting with novice researchers and research students specific successful (or even unsuccessful) publishing cases at local, regional and international conferences is another way of nurturing and training young researchers for publishing (e.g., Wei, Xiaoming, Canagarajah, Lee, & Leung, 2006). Such presentations acquaint the novice co-presenters and the audience, in particular novice researchers and research students, with the required knowledge for successful publishing, such as:

- The main issues to consider in a submission.
- How to deal with the editors’ decisions, reviewers’ reports, revisions, etc.
- How to avoid the main pitfalls that authors usually fall in in their first and/or revised submissions.

It is not hard to find numerous co-authoring and co-presenting success stories illustrating such senior faculty-beginning researcher (junior faculty or research students) collaboration.

For instance, Wei et al. (2006) led a symposium at the 2006 TESOL Convention in Tampa, Florida, USA, in which they presented a case study illustrating the challenges facing beginning scholars publishing in professional journals, and ways in which these challenges were addressed and successfully overcome. Using their own success story as a case study, the co-presenters (a senior faculty member and four research students) took the audience along the journey of the whole process: from initial submission through revision processes, responding to the reviewers’ reports and editor’s letters, to the acceptance stage. The well-attended symposium was received enthusiastically by the audience, in particular beginning and young researchers. No doubt, co-authoring and co-presenting will continue to be two of the best and most successful mentoring schemes for nurturing and training young and beginning researchers.
2.5 Research Groups

Finally, leadership can be achieved by creating research groups within and among institutions. Beginning researchers and research students might consider creating a research group within their institution whereby they pool knowledge, share experiences, and provide each other with feedback and assistance on any aspect of the publishing process or the work itself. This can be done on a one-on-one basis or as a group effort, both face-to-face or online via a discussion board or other platforms.

Similarly, such research group work might be expanded and extended to include other research groups at other institutions or research centers, whereby a larger pool of knowledge and more experiences about the various aspects of the publishing process are created and utilized. This small discourse community (Flowerdew, 2000) will likely provide these novice researchers and research students with even more valuable feedback on their research and the publishing process as a whole and enable them to join the wider Community of Practice (COP) of the academic publishing world.

Alternatively, research groups within the same discipline, in the same institution or across institutions, might work together in Team Research Writing (Matarese, 2013, pp. 224-225) to produce joint, co-authored research. Here the novice researchers and research students themselves have the added value of closely working and collaborating with each other on their own joint research, which is one more path to getting published and joining the COP of the academic publishing world.

For instance, Carol June Maker, senior faculty in the Department of Disability and Psychoeducational Studies, University of Arizona, USA, presented an excellent example of a research group at her workplace (Maker, 2018). The group consists of a number of research students who work closely together throughout all stages of the writing and submission processes, from conceptualizing, through drafting, revising and final manuscript writing, to submitting the work for consideration of publication. Maker cited as evidence several successful publications in refereed journals based on the collaboration of this research group, as well as testimonies of some members of the group on their experience. No doubt, successful research groups exist elsewhere which can serve as exemplars to be followed or adapted in other places and institutions.
3. Conclusion

As we can see from the world of academia in the last 20-30 years, publishing in high impact journals and with international academic and professional publishers is increasingly becoming a top priority for many higher institutions, research centers, and colleges around the world. As the old and conventional wisdom in the world of publishing, “Publish or perish” is optimistically becoming “Publish don’t perish” (Lussier, 2010), I have suggested in this chapter five practical ways for nurturing and training beginning researchers and research students and providing leadership in publishing research.

It must be emphasized, however, that this is not an exhaustive list. The ways suggested here are based on my own long and extensive experience as a published author, reviewer and editor as well as on a review of the related literature. Similarly, these five ways are complementary in nature rather than mutually exclusive. That is, the more opportunities for providing leadership and/or nurturing along one or more of these five ways, the more benefits beginning researchers and research students will get in their endeavor to get published, join the academic publishing community, and contribute to the knowledge base of their respective disciplines.

Finally, and importantly, it is worth concluding this chapter with the relevance of the suggestions made here for research in the UAE context. During the last 10-12 years the UAE government and the higher education institutions in the country, such as the United Arab Emirates University, Zayed University, Higher Colleges of Technology, American University of Sharjah, New York University Abu Dhabi, and Khalifa University, amongst others, are all placing emphasis on research on a large scale and in an unprecedented manner. Laws and regulations are being enacted for encouraging and spreading the research culture and research productivity in the country; large research grants are being constantly allocated and announced at all levels; research-active faculty are being rewarded and given release time and/or teaching reduction; dozens of graduate programs (MA and doctoral) and research centers are being opened on a regular basis; research-active faculty are being hired, retained and honored; and research conferences including postgraduate research conferences are being held annually and semi-annually, just to mention a few. For instance, the UAEU is now officially recognized as a “Research-Intensive University” and “University of the Future.” The UAEU’s vision states that the university provides “Leadership and innovation in higher education, research and community service at national and international levels.” Similarly, the mission of the university states: "UAEU will continue its positive contribution to the
advancement of UAE by delivering undergraduate and graduate education that meets international standards, engaging effectively with the community and the world to foster knowledge creation and dissemination, and enhancing the research capacity of the country" (United Arab Emirates University homepage).

Most of the other higher education institutions in the country, indeed, have similar visions and missions, in particular with respect to research. Given this emphasis on research in the UAE, and given the wide array of existing and new graduate programs, the need for nurturing and training young researchers in this country along the lines suggested in this chapter cannot be overemphasized.
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Chapter 5

EdTech + EdTeach:
Exploring the Integration of Educational Technology Through Teacher Education
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Abstract

Education is transforming more rapidly than ever, and so must professional development (PD), which is an essential component to fostering informed and effective integration of technology in the classroom. There was a time when PD mostly meant attending workshops hosted by colleagues, but today there is a much wider variety of learning resources available for educators. This persuasive paper will present an array of alternative avenues for PD, with a focus on integrating educational technology. Online courses that offer digital badges, credentials, or certificates for mastering skills utilizing educational technology will be explored as potential resources to autonomously customize PD opportunities according to the educator's needs and context. Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) research will be discussed as a central strategy to encourage interdisciplinary collaboration while determining whether technology integration and PD programs that support it are resulting in improved outcomes for learners.

1. Introduction

The changes that technology has introduced to the students’ educational experience, from what they spend their time doing in the classroom, to how they communicate with one another, and even to how their progress is assessed, are vast and profound. These rapid changes mean that teachers’ professional development (PD) needs are evolving faster than ever before as well, with conventional models of PD becoming somewhat outmoded. Traditionally, educators relied on leadership at their institutions to assess their needs and provide opportunities to develop professionally. Those PD events were usually workshops or lectures that involved a speaker visiting their institution. All too often, however, even the most motivated instructor can become dissatisfied with the limitations of these types of PD experiences. According to a Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation study (2014), “Large majorities of teachers do not believe that professional development is helping them prepare for the changing nature of their jobs,” especially regarding using digital tools, analyzing student data from those tools, and meeting the standards for their context (p. 3).
Instructors defined the ideal professional development experience as “relevant, interactive, delivered by someone who understands [their] experience, sustained over time, and treats teachers as professionals” (p. 4).

As institutions transform their courses to integrate technology, teachers can see an acute need for PD to develop their skills on how to use specific technology tools, but many also seek to redesign classroom tasks and courses in order to reflect the new possibilities that emerge when technology is used in the classroom. The adoption of technology in education also means that PD can take a variety of different forms, such as Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) and training programs from technology companies. The challenge today is for institutions to recognize external courses as quality PD activities. Online courses, taken at an educator’s own pace and chosen for an individual’s needs, could be more effective than traditional models of PD (Shaha & Ellsworth, 2013; Shaha, Glassett, & Copas, 2015; Shaha, Glassett, & Ellsworth, 2015) in providing the theory and practice needed to create a more dynamic learning environment and enhance student achievement. Ultimately however, it is essential to evaluate the efficacy of the educational technology being integrated into the classroom.

Although the debate about the effectiveness of using technology in the classroom continues, in reality, technology in education is not a choice anymore. An excellent example of this arose in the late spring of 2012, when the UAE’s Ministry of Education equipped the preparatory students and the instructors of the three federal higher education institutions with iPads for use in the classroom, with effect the following fall semester (Gitsaki, Robby, Priest, Hamdan, & Ben-Chabane, 2013). The pedagogical implications of such an initiative meant that many instructors were almost instantly expected to explore the best utility of such technology, learn and troubleshoot applications on the device, and adjust their lesson designs to engage their now mobile-equipped 21st century learners. This scenario, or one like it, could play out at any institution deploying a new device or seeking to integrate new forms of technology into its curriculum.

This paper seeks to investigate how to integrate educational technology through teacher education. Focus is made on issues such as technology companies’ influences, professional development courses and programs, and scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) projects. The paper concludes with several points for readers to consider.

2. Technology Companies’ Influence

In the past, teaching degrees and certificates were sufficient proof that teachers understood pedagogy and content, yet today, a need for teachers to quantify their proficiency with educational technology has emerged. Some educators have looked toward certification programs offered by the most important technology companies
in the world. Technology giants, such as Google, Microsoft, and Apple, as well as many smaller startups like EdPuzzle, Quizlet, Nearpod, Kahoot, and more are creating professional development certifications for teachers. The pedagogy in these certification programs is molded around the use of the company’s particular platform; however, instructors, not “big tech,” should be leading the way in creating high-quality and transferrable PD opportunities.

This is not to say that these programs do not have great advantages for educators. They offer users of their tools external qualifications in valuable skills and pedagogical knowledge needed to efficiently utilize technology in the classroom. Furthermore, the training programs offer valuable input on how to create engaging learning experiences, and the programs can give teachers a sense of pride and confidence that their skills have been recognized by an important technology organization. However, there is a concern that technology companies are using PD programs to co-opt teachers and use them to reach greater audiences of educators and administrators to expand the use of their products and services (Singer, 2017). Moreover, when company-certified teachers and trainers speak or train at events, their peers may mistake them for agents of technology companies and disregard their ideas, skills, and experience.

How can teachers quantify their technology skills without inadvertently becoming the instrument of a for-profit enterprise? It might be helpful for teachers to seek a credential from more than one technology company. This would indicate that the educator is not beholden to any single external entity. Alternatively, one might look to MOOCs, like those offered by EdX, Coursera, and FutureLearn. They can be richly informative, but unfortunately, one can complete a course and earn a certificate without their technology skills being tested. The same holds true with other training platforms such as Lynda.com. While teachers can find informative, relevant content that suits their needs directly, a certificate from such a platform indicates that the course participant completed the course, but it does not prove that the course-taker can perform the skills set out in the course.

3. Professional Development: Points to Consider

Institutions can evaluate their own needs and create their own professional development certificate courses. The advantage is that this directly addresses the needs of a particular context; however, it might not be recognized or relevant outside of the institution, and for this reason may be considered less valuable than other options.

One way educational organizations are addressing this issue is by creating opportunities for instructors that are personalized to a particular context, but also associated with earning university credits, which is a transferable currency that most schools, if not all, understand the value of. Many higher education institutions in the
United States are offering online certification programs to both students and employees. One of the co-authors of this paper, Alliya Anderson, completed one such certification program offered at Merritt College in California, USA, over the 2013-2014 academic year while working as an adjunct instructor. The program was a 17-unit educational technology certificate in Proficiency in Online Teaching. The program addressed the pedagogy of teaching online and hybrid courses, curriculum for online courses, multimedia tools, and online student support. All the courses were delivered using the district LMS (Moodle), so instructors got the perspective of using the platform as a student, while learning about the best pedagogy and tools to help their particular student population. It also put the participants in touch with a community of interested practitioners to share materials and troubleshoot issues. While anyone who was a student could enroll in the program, the certificate was offered free to instructors working in the district. Instructors from a wide range of disciplines were able to learn and apply this knowledge in model course shells or in courses they were actively teaching and get feedback from an educational technology specialist. The result was a relevant, specialized, and transferable PD experience.

One of the issues with the variety of professional development options available is also the variety of the quality of those learning experiences. Who is responsible for validating the quality of PD? One way to address this issue is micro-credentials, which could potentially validate instructors’ learning experiences. Educational organizations such as Bloomboard or Digital Promise ask instructors to demonstrate competency in a specific area of interest. There are typically several stages in demonstrating competency – some version of analyzing, designing, implementing and evaluating – and instructors are required to produce artifacts for each stage. This means that the instructor is demonstrating their knowledge and expertise, showing how they apply that knowledge in class, and then reflecting on the application of the knowledge. These artifacts are then evaluated by an assessor connected with the issuing organization. Instructors get timely feedback on instructional tools that are actually being used in their class. If the issuing organization is a higher education institution, then the instructor receives a digital badge and units for completing the micro-credential.

For instructors, choosing the most effective tool for the job essentially equates to a diverse PD portfolio – conferences, educator certifications, MOOCs, in-house workshops, accredited certificate programs, and micro-credentials – all serving to develop one’s professional practice to improve their teaching effectiveness utilizing technology, as well as the learning experiences of their students. However, educators approach educational technology with various levels of interest, competency, and confidence in its potential to impact learning. The availability of learning resources (especially free resources) for the educator interested in incorporating technology to improve teaching and learning into their classroom is not the issue – rather, it is the time. It can take a significant amount of time to learn what the technology tools do,
how they can best be used as learning tools, where they can be best realized in an upcoming lesson or project, and finally piloted in the classroom. Educators’ time is already an incredibly scarce resource, and while significant enthusiasm for integrating educational technology tools into the classroom is a commendable attitude, the reality is that the time invested to train and learn, initiate, troubleshoot, and teach with educational technology should ultimately pay off in improved learning outcomes for the students. Therefore, it is proposed that instructors combine the activities of exploring new educational technology tools or pedagogical styles with the realization of new pedagogy and skills in the classroom.

4. Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL)

SoTL is the classroom-oriented scholarly pursuit of pedagogical knowledge. The primary objective of SoTL is to establish and implement evidence-based teaching and learning. Rather than being driven by established theories or hypotheses, SoTL projects are focused on what the instructor considers to be problems in the learning process in order to understand more broadly “not only disciplinary knowledge or skill development, but also the cultivation of attitudes or habits that connect to learning” (Felten, 2013, p. 122). A practical, contextually-significant SoTL project is another valuable avenue for professional development and can inform the thoughtful and deliberate implementation of new technology in the classroom.

The work of Albers, Davison, and Johnson (2017) offers interesting insight into the practical application of a scholarly study of technology usage for teaching and learning. The participating students of this study were tasked with an inquiry-based learning (IBL) group project which required a fair amount of communication and collaboration between group members, both inside and outside the classroom. The authors utilized a mixed-methods research approach to investigate which technology tool their students chose to satisfy their communication needs, as well as their subsequent satisfaction with that choice. Data obtained from three separate surveys disseminated to more than one hundred students, accompanied by rich data collection from student-lead focus groups, poster presentations, and group reports, showed that their students preferred communicating for academic purposes using WhatsApp, rather than Instagram, Twitter, and Kik. These findings not only serve to inform educators of the mobile technology tool that their students prefer – which is a key element in ensuring students’ comfort and efficiency with a task – but also, the authors were able to generate tangible evidence of the utility of mobile technology for communicative learning activities. Such information is made more valuable by sharing findings with the wider community of practice in a peer-reviewed journal. As a SoTL project, this example checks all the boxes: the authors framed questions of enquiry to determine factors that could offer new insights in the classroom, they gathered and explored evidence, and they shared what they had learned in a way that would invite the community to build on it (Fisher, Repice, Dufault, Leonard, & Frey, 2014).
Based on our experience, the best place for educators who are interested in establishing a structured, long-term, professional pursuit toward the mindful incorporation of technology in the classroom is to start with their local center for teaching and learning or research center. These centers are excellent resources that can provide guidance and information on any formal learning opportunities that are available, such as workshops or in-house certificate programs, as well as mentors who can help in designing and implementing a SoTL project. We also suggest a two-year timeline. This will give even the busiest instructor time to not only become comfortable with a SoTL style of research focus but also allow time to develop a robust, publishable study that incorporates many methods of data collection to strengthen the findings. Finally, we highly advise that tech-savvy and research-focused educators establish a network of peers with members of their department, institution, or across a variety of institutions. This might include colleagues, fellow educators (perhaps those they met at the ALLT conference), or peers from alternative disciplines. Such a community will ensure that the development and implementation of a SoTL project does not feel like an isolated venture.

5. Conclusion

Unfortunately, not all educational institutions recognize the diversity of PD options, and there is no guarantee that PD will hold as much value at a different school or university. Therefore, the question remains: How do teachers quantify their classroom technology skills? Furthermore, when instructors look outside of their institutions to develop their professional practice, will their workplace recognize their efforts? Nevertheless, educators must continue to search for new ways to enhance their skills, and to seek new forms of PD that their institutions are not offering. Meanwhile, educators and administrators alike need to consider SoTL for answers as to whether PD and other initiatives are having a positive impact on students’ learning experiences.

Bell and Bolam (2010) assert, “The essence of professional development for educators must surely involve the learning of an independent, evidence-informed and constructively critical approach to practice within a public framework of professional values and accountability” (pp. 98-99). Educational institutions have to rethink the PD they offer and what they will recognize as acceptable external PD initiatives. Instructors should be pioneering their personal journeys toward the integration of educational technology by customizing the training and strategies relevant to their individual teaching contexts. Institutions must support this by both acknowledging and supporting research projects that assess and validate the successful integration of technology in the classroom using a scholarly, evidence-based approach to teaching and learning.

On a final note, there is a huge opportunity for higher education institutions in the MENA region to partner with proactive instructors in order to define the qualities that make an excellent teacher for their particular context. Rather than looking to technology companies’ standards to dictate pedagogy or platform, they can use those
PD tools to fit the particular needs of their students and districts. Additionally, MENA instructors would have a tangible, transferrable currency for their skill set that has been vetted by a regional educational institution.

References


Chapter 6

Continuous Professional Development Opportunities for Private School Teachers in Pakistan

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Abstract

The current paper explores continuous professional development (CPD) opportunities offered to teachers vis-à-vis improving the teaching-learning practices. For in-service teachers, the goal of constant learning can be accomplished through CPD among other means. The author provides an account of an inquiry into the CPD opportunities provided to teachers working at a private school in Karachi. The data collection tools involved semi-structured interviews with selected teachers. The qualitative data gathered was then coded to identify themes. The findings of the inquiry showed that the school was heavily reliant on the training model of CPD. This is not surprising, for in Pakistan, professional development is often thought to be a synonym of training. However, CPD is a multidimensional and complex process, which cannot be achieved through one model alone. The paper, therefore, proceeds to identify some deficiencies in the current model and then suggests a number of ways in which the deficiencies may be handled and solved.

1. Introduction and Theoretical Background

Teaching is a dynamic profession that requires continuous learning. In a constantly-demanding and technologically-driven world, teachers are expected to diligently prepare students in terms of all the necessary skills to encounter current challenges. In order to do so, it is vital for teachers to be lifelong learners themselves. Kapur (2007) states that “Great teachers are as much learners as students are” (p. 124). CPD is a multidimensional field which includes broad domains such as leadership practices, motivational levels and job satisfaction among others (Earley & Bubb, 2004).
For in-service teachers, sustainable learning and improvement can be accomplished through continuous professional development (CPD) among other means and procedures. CPD is a multidimensional and complex process, whose activities can contribute to school improvement and foster collaborative work among teachers and schools (Earley & Bubb, 2004). Teacher development is a widely-researched field and is commonly considered one of the determining factors in teachers’ job satisfaction. Dayoub and Bashiruddin (2012) carried out a study on teachers’ professional development and concluded that successful schools implemented effective CPD policies. Speaking in general terms, CPD emphasizes commitment and to a great extent, helps keep teacher turnover low. This alone emphasizes the importance of establishing effective systems of in-service teacher training.

This paper focuses on the dimension of enhancing teaching and learning processes through CPD. In Pakistan, teachers’ professional development is neither standardized nor based on acceptable professional standards (Ministry of Education, 2009). Teachers are mostly untrained and possess minimum academic qualifications. The situation may be a bit better for private schools where there are resources to invest in teacher training.

2. Purpose of the Study

The focus of this paper was on gaining adequate understanding of the prevailing practices in teachers’ CPD and investigating the range and kinds of structural support provided to teachers within CPD’s frame of activities. The current study explored the CPD activities performed at a private school in Karachi. The primary purpose of this research study was to enhance understanding of the provision of professional development for teachers within the context of private schools in Karachi, Pakistan. Though locally-oriented, this study and its recommendations can be taken into account by teaching practitioners from around the globe.

Considering the nature of the study and time constraints, the main research question which the author addressed is: What is the framework of continuous professional development for teachers working at private schools in Pakistan?

3. Study Methodology

The study was designed as a qualitative case research type. A qualitative approach is more conducive when detailed analyses of the substance or quality of human experience and descriptions are required. It ensures an exhaustive understanding of the topic of research.

The setting chosen for this study was a private, English-medium, higher secondary school in Karachi, Pakistan. The school was one of the branches of a renowned foundation that runs a chain of schools and colleges throughout the country. The
school mostly catered to students belonging to the middle class and had adequate infrastructure in terms of library and computer as well as science lab facilities.

The study was conducted in November 2013 and was implemented for three days. The data collection tools involved semi-structured interviews with five selected teachers (see Appendix), the school coordinator and students, unstructured lesson observations, and a PowerPoint presentation delivered by the principal of the school. The interviews were conducted based on the availability of the interviewees rather than on any specific selection criteria. Handwritten notes were taken to note the responses; audiotaping was avoided to put the interviewees at ease. The interviews were conducted bilingually in Urdu and English and lasted 20-30 minutes each.

The qualitative data gathered was analyzed qualitatively to identify themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994) for the framework of CPD. After the data from each collection tool were coded separately, the codes were compared to identify similarities and differences. This generated themes that helped identify recurring patterns. The data were repeatedly reviewed to be distilled in order to identify major themes. Triangulation was adopted to double-check the interpretation of the data and ensure validity. All ethical codes were observed while conducting the study.

4. Findings

The framework of CPD of teachers observed in the given school setting was found to be based on the traditional training model. This is most frequently the trend of private schools in Pakistan. During the course of the study’s implementation in 2013, teachers participated in a total of ten training sessions, half of which took place in the month of June. This indicates that teachers were requested to attend training sessions when there was a lighter teaching load. Additionally, the training timing was chosen to make sure that the training sessions would not affect the school schedule and the teachers would not have to miss classes. At many private schools in Pakistan, CPD is linked to teachers’ annual increments and performance appraisals; however, in the case of this particular school, it was reported that the CPD was not linked to teachers’ performance appraisal. The training sessions held by this school were categorized as in-house or off-site and were directed in a top-down manner. The sections below provide further details on both categories.

As far as in-house training is concerned, a total of four in-house sessions were organized for the teachers during the year prior to this study. The training sessions were mostly imparted by representatives of the head office of the school’s foundation, who visited the campus on a regular basis. Teachers’ lesson plans as well as teaching delivery were both reviewed. After that, training sessions were organized on generic topics such as creating learning spaces at schools and improving teaching faculty’s English skills. The training was conducted during sessions after school and were mandatory for all teachers to attend. Sometimes professionals were hired from
outside the school to impart training sessions. Due to time constraints, the researcher could not gather any data about the qualifications of trainers.

In addition, a year prior to the conduct of this study, different teachers were sent to a total of six off-site training sessions. The exposure to such training sessions varied from one teacher to another. The specific criteria for nomination of teachers for undertaking training could not be discerned within the limited amount of time for conducting this study. As was the case with in-house training, the researcher could not gather any data about the qualifications of trainers.

The coordinator acknowledged that the biggest challenge she was facing was that of teacher retention. Teachers often left the school after teaching for a couple of months and the Coordinator would be left with the hard task of finding their replacements. Relating the discussion to researchers’ views, Livingston and Robertson (2001) assert, “Undoubtedly, some teachers perceive engagement in continuous development as a pathway to career advancement” (p. 186). Hence, if the school invests in teacher CPD, perhaps the teachers would feel some sort of kinship with the school and be less likely to leave it. Furthermore, the framework of CPD observed within the study school’s setting was narrow in scope. There was evidence that the CPD was approached in a manner which resulted in its being less effective than required. The major reasons for this may be due to 1) lack of catering for individual needs, 2) unfamiliarity with the concept of reflection, and 3) lack of collaboration among teachers.

The in-house training sessions were organized on broad topics and were mandatory. This approach raises questions about the consideration of particular needs of the teachers. A training session which is directed towards all teachers is less likely to accommodate all their individual needs. For example, a newly-inducted teacher might need more support in fulfilling the day-to-day demands of teaching, whereas an experienced teacher might wish to address deeper concerns like student autonomy. A combined training for both novice and experienced teachers cannot fully serve the needs of either category.

Reflection is deemed the heart of CPD (McArdle & Coutts, 2010). Reflection on practice is used as a context for learning and as a way of challenging teachers to redefine and enrich profession-related skills. It is also used as a way for teachers to articulate the teaching philosophies that frame their teaching practices. The teachers in this study demonstrated ignorance of the notion of reflection. Some of them confused it with the evaluation of students, which they were required to do at the end of each class. As a result, teachers seemed not to self-evaluate their teaching practices. In one of the interviews, a teacher who had been newly appointed mentioned that she had never had any sort of “failures” in her lessons. She claimed that all her lessons had been successfully delivered – a feat that even quite experienced teachers may find difficult to accomplish. This absence of perceived
problems is worrisome and might indicate that little change was being attempted or that change was being avoided since it would somehow give a negative impression of the teachers. As a result, the quality of teaching might be negatively influenced.

Commenting on collaboration among teachers, it emerged through interviews that teachers mostly worked in isolation. For example, when planning lessons, teachers were basically left to their own devices. Even teachers who might be teaching different sections of the same grade (especially in higher grades) had different lesson plans and needed to come up with their own ideas for teaching a particular topic.

5. Recommendations

In addition to training, Kennedy (2005) identifies eight models which can be utilized for professional development purposes, namely, award-bearing, deficit, cascade, standards-based, coaching/mentoring, community of practice, action research, and transformative. Harmer (2007), on the other hand, proposes a number of ways in which teachers can seek to develop their skills: being a reflective teacher, keeping a teaching log or journal, observing peers’ teaching, recording themselves to watch (or listen to) and reflect on later, engaging with professional literature, through professional organizations, and carrying out action research in the classroom.

Out of these, an action research model could be an appropriate and feasible option for the school: “A great deal of research points to the effectiveness of CPD that is collaborative, classroom based, experimental and research-informed” (Pedder, Opfer, McCormick, & Storey, 2010, p. 368). The action research model has all these characteristics. The primary benefit of this model is that it has the potential to generate collaborative and more long-term CPD as compared to a one-off training session. Therefore, teachers need to be encouraged to carry out action research projects in collaboration with each other. The findings and recommendations could be beneficial to the school or wider education community as a whole. However, the school would need to invest some resources in order to enhance teachers’ awareness.

A system also needs to be put in place to accommodate the individual needs of the teachers. Training should be based first and foremost on perceptions of trainee needs. Livingston and Robertson (2001) argue that “the nature and method of CPD should be decided in partnership between all the agents concerned and that it should leave the teacher feeling empowered by the process” (p. 183). Moreover, delivering lectures cannot be passed off in the name of “training.” A workshop style could be more suited to provide participants hands-on experience. There should be frequent discussion opportunities incorporated into the design of the trainings to establish as many links as possible between the training content and the understanding of trainees. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the school administration improves both the design and delivery of the trainings.
Technology has tremendous potential in the area of teacher development since it goes beyond the traditional models of teacher training. It is unfortunate that even in a metropolis like Karachi, it is not utilized as a source of professional development. There is a plethora of online resources, such as tutorials, webinars, podcasts, teaching materials, and professional communities that can be explored, unfettered by the constraints of time, money, or geography. Teachers can access online resources at home on their own in their after-school hours, or the school can let teachers use the school computer lab.

Teachers should be introduced to reflective practices in the training programs to familiarize them with its process and the benefits of this practice. Reflection could then be encouraged through various means like reflective journals, conversations, or portfolios. By going through this process of critical self-evaluation, teachers can demonstrate their commitment to lifelong learning and identify their own professional development needs.

The central feature of contemporary professional practice is now its collective rather than individual nature (McArdle & Coutts, 2010). By working collaboratively, the teachers might align their strategies towards achieving their shared goal of increasing students’ learning. Danielson (2006) asserts:

Most teachers don’t have frequent opportunities to interact with their colleagues; they have many demands on their time and extensive preparation for the next day’s classes to complete. It therefore requires considerable discipline to make time for meaningful professional collaboration and inquiry. But it is much more than an issue of time; it is a question of values. Teachers must have the inclination to collaborate and learn from colleagues, and the culture must be sufficiently safe to permit the inevitable risk taking inherent in such conversations. (p. 55)

Shareef (2010) outlines the steps she employed to promote “a learning environment where teachers, acting as critical friends, started visiting and observing each other’s classes” (p. 53). The school administration may wish to follow the same steps. In addition, increased collaboration can also enhance reflective skills and generate valuable insights. Hence, the two objectives might be met simultaneously, reinforcing each other. “A growing body of literature indicates that professional development experiences are particularly effective when situated in a collegial learning environment, where teachers work collaboratively to inquire and reflect on their teaching” (Whitcomb, Borko, & Liston, 2009, p. 210). Furthermore, if the action research model of CPD is adopted, then reflection and collaboration might be integrated with it.
Last but not least, it is fundamental that the target trainees attend appropriate training sessions. Moreover, the methodology of training needs to be examined closely so that it is activity-based rather than lecture-oriented.

6. Conclusion

This paper provides an account of an inquiry into the CPD opportunities allocated to teachers at a private school in Karachi, Pakistan. Research suggests that teachers have a direct influence on students’ learning as compared to leaders (Robinson & Timperley, 2007). Thus, it is important to investigate the factors that motivate teachers and enable them to become lifelong learners. CPD is one of the essential points that can realize this goal.

The findings of the study confirm that the school was heavily reliant on the training model of CPD. This situation often exists at private schools in Pakistan, where professional development may be thought to be a synonym of training. However, CPD is a multidimensional and complex process which cannot be achieved through one model alone. This paper seeks to identify some deficiencies in the current model and to suggest some possible remedies for the problems. Generally speaking, schools need to devote attention to CPD opportunities provided to the teachers and increase the efficacy of the model adopted for this purpose.

To end, this study offered the researcher an opportunity to get a glimpse inside the working conditions of teachers working at private schools. It was interesting to observe how teachers with limited professional development opportunities tried to meet their day-to-day challenges of teaching.

References


Appendix

**Semi-structured Interview Questions for Teachers**

1. How do you give feedback to students?
2. What opportunities for professional development (training/mentoring/coaching/reflection) are given to teachers at your school?
3. Do you plan on your own or collaborate with teachers/administrators?
4. What are your daily duties?
5. How did you decide to join this profession?
Section Three: Young Learners
Chapter 7

Verb Production Assessment Test for Emirati Arabic Children

Alexandra Marquis
United Arab Emirates University, United Arab Emirates

Abstract

The current study investigated morphological awareness using production of templatic root forms and verb-subject gender agreement of Arabic verbs in children. Forty-three 6-year-old, typically developing, Emirati Arabic children were evaluated. Using our iPad virtual storybook, perfect tense productions of 24 Arabic verbs were elicited for bi-consonantal template root forms (e.g., تَفَطَّحُ تَفَطَّحَ “fall”) and tri-consonantal template root forms (e.g., كَتَبَ كَتَبَ “write”), half agreeing with feminine subjects and half agreeing with masculine subjects. Participants’ answers were audio recorded then transcribed. Analyses reveal a significant effect of template root form and a marginal effect of subject agreement, in favor of non-default, less frequent and more complex morphological verb processes, indicating that by six years of age, Emirati Arabic children begin mastering difficult linguistic processes involved in Arabic verb conjugation. The current data add insight to research on Arabic language acquisition.

1. Introduction and Theoretical Background

Morphological awareness is the capacity to divide words into smaller meaningful units (e.g., calling = call + -ing) and the ability to realize the existing links between morphologically related words (e.g., call-called-calling). Studies have shown that children do use their morphological awareness skills when learning to write (Bourassa, Treiman, & Kessler, 2006; Pacton & Deacon, 2008; Wolter, Wood, & D’zatko, 2009). Other studies demonstrated that interventions that targeted morphological awareness resulted in improvements in children’s writing skills (Arnbak & Elbro, 2000). Desrochers, Manolitsis, Gaudreau, & Georgiou (2018) compared children speaking English, French, or Greek attending grade two and found that morphological awareness significantly predicted spelling and reading comprehension skills in all three languages, while reading accuracy and reading fluency were predicted by morphological awareness in only one or two of the languages, respectively. A study in Kuwaiti Arabic (Mahfoudhi, Elbeheri, Al-Rashidi, & Everatt, 2010) found that morphological awareness impacted reading
comprehension in typically developing children, while these effects were not found in the learning disabled group.

Arabic is a Semitic language. Words in Arabic are made of a broken (or discontinuous), consonantal root morpheme (e.g., *k-t-b* “write”) with a fixed syllabic mold, generally called a template (e.g., CVCVCV *kataba*, “he wrote”) (Al Kaabi, 2015; Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001; McCarthy, 1981). Arabic template verb roots generally have two (e.g., *ṭaḥ* “fall”) or three (e.g., *kataba* “write”) root consonants, the latter being more frequent (McCarthy, 1981; Al Kaabi, 2015).

Emirati Arabic (EA) is the Arabic dialect spoken in the United Arab Emirates. Verbal forms in EA (Table 1) differ slightly from those in Modern Standard Arabic (Table 2) in form and meaning.

**Table 1**

*Verbal Forms in Emirati Arabic (Adapted from Al Kaabi, 2015)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>faʕal</td>
<td>Factive/Causative/Inchoative</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>tfaaʕal</td>
<td>Reflexive/Reciprocal/Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>faʕʕal</td>
<td>Causative</td>
<td>VII</td>
<td>nfoʕal</td>
<td>Passive/Factive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>faʕʕal</td>
<td>Applicative</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>ftaʕal</td>
<td>Reflexive/Middle/Factive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td></td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>fʕall</td>
<td>Colors/Defects/Inchoative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>tfaʕʕal</td>
<td>Reflexive/Middle</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>(stafʕal)</td>
<td>Reflexive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Emirati Arabic uses the same written form as Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).

**Table 2**

*Verbal forms in Modern Standard Arabic (Adapted from Al Kaabi, 2015)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Template</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>faʕal</td>
<td>فعل Transitive/Intransitive</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>tafaʕal</td>
<td>تفاعل Reciprocal/Reflexive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>faʕʕal</td>
<td>فعل Extensive action</td>
<td>VII</td>
<td>(?i)nfaʕal</td>
<td>فعل Reflexive passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>faʕʕal</td>
<td>فعل Reciprocal</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>(?i)ftaʕal</td>
<td>فعل Reflexive/Reciprocal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>faʕʕal</td>
<td>فعل Causative</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>(?i)fʕall</td>
<td>فعل Colors/Defects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>tafaʕʕal</td>
<td>فعل Reflexive/Passive</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>(?i)stafʕal</td>
<td>فعل Reflexive/Benefactive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to person and number agreement, Arabic verbs also agree in gender with a masculine (e.g., *katab* كتب write-PERF.3SG.M) or feminine (e.g., *katabat* كتبت write-PERF.3SG.F) subject (Table 3). Masculine agreement is considered the default form and appears less complex morphologically than the feminine agreement (Alkuhlani & Habash, 2011; Benmamoun, 2000; Mohammad, 1990). Emirati Arabic
speaking children begin producing verbs as early as twenty months of age, but reliable gender verb agreement occurs much later (Ntelitheos & Idrissi, 2017).

Table 3

*Example of Perfect Tense Verb Conjugation and Agreement of the Verb “to Write” in Arabic*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>katab + tu</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>katab + naa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; F</td>
<td>katab + ti</td>
<td>katab + tuma</td>
<td>katab + tunna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; M</td>
<td>katab + ta</td>
<td>katab + tuma</td>
<td>katab + tum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; F</td>
<td>katab + at</td>
<td>katab + ataa</td>
<td>katab + na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; M</td>
<td>katab + a</td>
<td>katab + aa</td>
<td>katab + uu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Dual forms are not used in Emirati Arabic.

2. **Current Study: Purpose and Hypotheses**

The current research addresses Arabic perfect tense verb production in Emirati Arabic children, with a particular interest in gender agreement in verb conjugation. The main goals of the current study were to investigate whether *templatic* root forms (i.e., bi-consonantal versus tri-consonantal roots) and subject gender agreement (i.e., masculine versus feminine) of Arabic verbs pose problems for children prior to explicit teaching in school.

Two hypotheses were formulated. First, children would be more successful at producing tri-consonantal template root forms (e.g., رفع ra'af “raise”) than bi-consonantal template root forms (e.g., طاح taah “fall”) because the former are both the default forms and are more frequent in Arabic (McCarthy, 1981, for Modern Standard Arabic; Al Kaabi, 2015, for Emirati Arabic). Frequency is a well-known impacting factor in language acquisition by children. Numerous studies on children language acquisition have argued or shown that the more frequent a linguistic element is in the language, the earlier it is acquired (De Villiers, 1985; Diessel, 2007; Ellis, 2002; Lieven, 2010). Second, regarding verb-subject gender agreement, children would perform better at masculine subject agreement (e.g., *katab* كتب write-PERF.3SG.M) over feminine subject agreement (e.g., *katabat* كتبت write-PERF.3SG.F) since masculine agreement is the default form in addition to being less complex morphologically (Alkuhlani & Habash, 2011; Benmamoun, 2000; Mohammad, 1990). In English, previous studies showed better child performances
on default and simple morphological processes (Marcus, 1996). Studies in Arabic, on the other hand, have shown that Arabic speakers typically acquire number and gender morphology by age three (Aljenaie, 2000, for Kuwaiti Arabic). However, children’s verb production in the perfect/past tense in Aljenaie (2000) reveal that her study’s participants performed better on verbs with a third person feminine subject (89% and 82% of correct use) versus verbs with a third person masculine subject (38% and 62% of correct use).

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

Forty-three typically developing (TD) Emirati Arabic speaking participants attending first grade ($SD = .35$; $Range = 6;2 - 7;5$) were evaluated (10 girls and 33 boys). Five language impaired (LI) children were also assessed, but their data are not reported here. All participants lived in Al Ain, United Arab Emirates, at the moment of testing. According to parents’ reports, all children spoke Emirati Arabic at home, were educated in Arabic, and none of them had been diagnosed with any language or hearing deficits.

3.2 Stimuli

A verb elicitation task for Emirati Arabic was created. The task was adapted from French (Marquis, Royle, Gonnerman, & Rvachew, 2012) and developed as part of the LATFA project (Language Acquisition Test for Arabic: an assessment tool for evaluating oral skills in Arabic-speaking children, Marquis, 2016-2018). The target stimuli used in this experiment were 24 Arabic perfect tense verb forms, 10 with bi-consonantal template root forms (e.g., $tˤaah$ طَأَه “to fall”) and 14 with tri-consonantal template root forms (e.g., $kataba$ كَتَب “to write”). The uneven number of verbs for each category is representative of the total number of verbs found in children’s productions from the EMALAC corpus of Emirati Arabic database (Ntelitheos & Idrissi, 2017). Four additional verbs were presented as practice items to introduce the task to the children. Half of the verbs, including the practice items, had to agree with a feminine subject (e.g., $ʃarəbət$ شَرِيبَت “she drank”), and the other half had to agree with a masculine subject (e.g., $saag$ سَايَق “he drove”). All verbs were frequent and known by younger children (i.e., by age three to four) based on the EMALAC corpus (Ntelitheos & Idrissi, 2017). Verbs were presented along with an image depicting the actions. The images were created by a professional artist with respect to the local culture (see Figure 1). The elicitation task included a testing script in which, for each stimulus, two verb tokens were presented as exemplars, followed by a question aiming at eliciting the target perfect tense (see Figure 1). In order to ensure consistency of testing across all participants, stimuli were audio recorded by a native female Emirati Arabic speaker.
1. IsActiveFatma bətəʃəb əlmaaj
فاطمة بتشرب الماي

“Fatma will drink water.”

2. IsActiveFatma daajiman əʃəb əlmaaj
فاطمة دايمًا تشرب الماي

“Fatma always drinks water.”

3. IsActiveʃuu sawwət əʃəm
؟شو سوت فاطمة أمس

“What did Fatma do yesterday?”

**Expected target response:**

IsActiveʃəbət əlmaaj
شربت الماي

“Fatma/she drank water.”
3.3 Procedure

Children were evaluated individually in a quiet room in their school during class hours. Testing lasted approximately 20 minutes and included three other linguistic tasks not discussed here. An iPad was used to present the visual and auditory stimuli of the verbs to be elicited as a virtual storybook where the child had to complete short stories by answering the questions (see the example given in Figure 1). Although past tense acquisition has traditionally been tested using children’s spontaneous speech productions (Kuczaj, 1977; Marcus et al., 1992), spontaneous productions do not allow researchers to have control over linguistic elements of interest such as type frequency, token frequency, phonological constraints, or agreement.

To conduct the test, an iPad was positioned on a table in front of the child, who then would look and touch the images as desired. This task is an adaptation from French (Marquis et al., 2012), using two verb token exemplars (see Figure 1). The experiment began with four practice trials introducing the task to the child. For the practice items only, if the child responded with a wrong answer or if no answer was given, the correct target form of the verb was given as feedback by the experimenter. For the test trials, the experimenter would skip to the next item if no answer was given. Regardless of response accuracy, the child was encouraged and praised for his or her efforts. All participants’ responses were audio recorded, then phonetically transcribed by a trained research assistant and later verified by a second research assistant. Participants’ data for the practice trials were not entered nor analyzed.

Data collection was carried out at the school of the participating children as part of a larger project that included three additional linguistic tasks not presented here. Research protocols were approved by the ethics committee from United Arab Emirates University. Permission to recruit and test the children in the school was given by the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC). Prior to testing the children, parents signed a consent form allowing their children to participate in the study. Parents and children were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time and for any reasons without prejudice. In addition to the data presented here, demographic, literacy, health, and language information were gathered via a phone interview with the parents.

4. Findings and Discussion

For target response analyses, paired-sample tests of subjects were performed on children’s percentage scores on template root form (bi-consonantal versus tri-consonantal) and gender agreement (feminine versus masculine). An alpha value of .05 as significant level for all analyses was used. Our analyses reveal a significant effect of template root form $t(1, 42) = 3.069, p = .004$ and a marginally significant effect of gender agreement $t(1, 42) = 1.968, p = .056$. Overall, children were better at
producing verbs with feminine subject agreement ($M = 59.109, \ SE = 5.517$) than at producing verbs with masculine subject agreement ($M = 52.907, \ SE = 5.743$), and better at producing bi-consonantal template root forms ($M = 60.233, \ SE = 5.473$) than at producing tri-consonantal template root forms ($M = 52.990, \ SE = 5.571$) (see Figure 2).

![Figure 2](image-url)

*Figure 2.* Percentage of correct participants’ responses by template root form (bi-consonantal vs tri-consonantal) and gender agreement (feminine vs masculine)

In addition to correct target responses for the expected perfect tense, children produced various non-target responses that included several patterns. These non-target patterns were grouped into six error types: 1) gender agreement error, 2) present tense error, 3) future tense error, 4) imperfect error, 5) other verb error, and 6) other response error (see Table 4). Non-parametric analyses on the frequency of error response types (not performed here) should be performed in order to shed light on the linguistic production strategies used by children and to further inform us about children’s acquisition of verb templates in Arabic.
Table 4

*Examples of Children’s Responses for Correct Target Response and the Six Non-Target Error Types*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Production</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>شربت /ʃarəbət/</td>
<td>شربت /ʃarəbət/</td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td>drink-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“She drank”</td>
<td>“She drank”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قفل /gəfəl/</td>
<td>قفل /gəfəl/</td>
<td>Error type 1: Incorrect gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td>close-PERF.3SG.M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“She closed”</td>
<td>“He closed”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قرأ /ɡəra/</td>
<td>يقرأ /jəgra/</td>
<td>Error type 2: Incorrect tense, present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read-PERF.3SG.M</td>
<td>read-PRES.3SG.M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“He read”</td>
<td>“He reads”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ردت /raddət/</td>
<td>بترد /batarəd/</td>
<td>Error type 3: Incorrect tense, future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td>return-FUT.3SG.F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“She returned”</td>
<td>“She will return”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>خوز /xawwəj/</td>
<td>كان يخوز /kaanjəxawəj/ move-AUX.IMPERF.3SG.M</td>
<td>Error type 4: Incorrect tense, imperfect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A closer inspection of children’s accuracy’s rates reveals that on average, children performed at rather low accuracy levels, yet still above chance (i.e., between 52.9% and 60.2% on average). Overall, low accuracy rates in children may be due to a number of reasons. For instance, it is possible that even though perfect verb forms are spontaneously produced by younger Emirati Arabic children (Ntelitheos & Idrissi, 2017), the older children evaluated here are still in the course of mastering these morphological processes. Generally, speakers tend to spontaneously produce the forms they know, while in an experimental setting of elicitation production, speakers must produce forms they may or may not know. For instance, some verb elicitation studies have demonstrated various accuracy levels depending on the regularity, involving complexity and frequency of the verb morphological processes (Marquis & Royle, 2019). Nevertheless, children learning more morphologically complex languages appear to master highly complex verb processes as young as four years of age (for the Polish language, see for example Smoczynska, 1985; and for the French language, see for example Royle, 2007). The data here reveal that the morphological processes involved in the Arabic perfect tense are not yet mastered at six years of age. It thus appears necessary in the future to evaluate older children to see when higher success rates, and ultimately mastery, are revealed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Production</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>move-PERF.3SG.M</td>
<td>“He was moving”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“He moved”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غسلت /yasalat/</td>
<td>نظفت /naδafət/</td>
<td>Error type 5: Other verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wash-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td>clean-PERF.3SG.F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“She washed”</td>
<td>“She cleaned”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>علم /ʕallam/</td>
<td>رياضيات /риja difíc/</td>
<td>Error type 6: Other response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach-PERF.3SG.M</td>
<td>mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“He taught”</td>
<td>“mathematics”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Along with the behavioral data presented here, demographic, literacy, health, and language information were also gathered via a phone interview with the parents. These should be analyzed in order to determine whether correlations can be found between children’s performances and these measures. For instance, research on verb production in French has demonstrated that there is a link between parental education and children’s performances (St-Denis, Marquis, & Royle, 2016).

Concerning exposure to the language, even though the situation in the United Arab Emirates is not unusual in regard to bilingual language exposition and acquisition, the bilingual status of the participants in the present study could be further examined in order to verify whether it could have had effects on their performance in the task.

5. Conclusion

The present study investigated Arabic perfect tense verb production in six-year-old Emirati Arabic children, using an elicitation task. The stimuli used were bi-consonantal and tri-consonantal templatic root forms that agreed with masculine and feminine subjects. Contrary to our initial expectations, children were better at producing the non-default, less frequent, bi-consonantal template root forms than at producing the default, frequent, tri-consonantal template root forms, indicating that both the frequency and default status play minor roles in perfect verb acquisition for Emirati Arabic children at this age. In addition, children in the current study tended to perform better at non-default, feminine subject agreement than at verbs with default masculine subject agreement. This finding is in harmony with Aljenaie’s (2000) study of Kuwaiti Arabic, suggesting that more complex, non-default morphological verb processes do not impede subject gender agreement acquisition in Arabic.

This study provides important understanding of impacting factors for verb acquisition in Arabic. Given the scarcity of existing research in Arabic studies within this area, and more specifically in Emirati Arabic dialect studies, additional research is still required in order to depict a more complete picture for Arabic language acquisition in children with typical as well as non-typical development.

Acknowledgements

This study was funded by a start-up grant from United Arab Emirates University (Marquis, 2016-2018). Special thanks are due to the children and their parents, as well as to the school and teachers who agreed to participate in the study. Many thanks are also due to Akeela Fatheen Abdul Gafoor, Al Yazia Al Mansoori, Wadha Ayed Al Otaibi, and Sarah Falah Al Qahtani for research assistance.
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Chapter 8

Raising Children’s Cultural Awareness: A Task-Based Approach

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Abstract

Learning through tasks has always been known for its effectiveness in providing learners with the ability to apply and practically benefit from knowledge in their future academic endeavors. The more challenging task for teachers is to integrate the task-based approach into education, keeping in mind the diversity in student types. In most cases, preschools include mixed age groups which encourages every child to accept involvement in a group. This study focuses on exploring the effect of a task-based approach in raising children’s cultural awareness. It aims at proving that a task-based approach may offer children the opportunity to experiment and use a foreign language more naturally, thus raising and reciprocating their cultural awareness of the target language. The research method is qualitative, and the analysis is descriptive. The sample is composed of 275 learners in KG3 classrooms in an Islamic educational institution. The results yielded positive outcomes concerning raising the children’s cultural awareness.

1. Introduction

Learning through tasks has always been known for its effectiveness in providing learners with the ability to apply and practically benefit from knowledge in their future academic endeavors. According to Vygotsky, experiences are essential to construct knowledge, hence his theory, constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978). In this theory of knowledge, he argued that humans generate knowledge and meaning through interaction with their environment. Furthermore, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), task-based language teaching uses tasks as the central unit of the teaching-learning process. This method has three main principles: activities that involve real communication that are essential for language learning, activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning, and language skills that are meaningful to the learner and which support the learning process. As the activities of the above-mentioned methods prevail, they are all targeting learning the language, whether it is through activities that entail efficient communication or through activities that reflect meaning in order to learn the
language contextually. All these activities are tasks of a linguistic nature, where they aid and guide the learning process per se.

2. Literature Review on Task-Based Learning (TBL)

In defining the term “task,” findings suggest that teachers understood the notion of task differently. Some viewed it as including goal-oriented activities or self-created games, while others regarded it as the exercises listed in the textbook and the teacher’s manual. Some other teachers understood tasks as activities that served real life purposes. Nunan (2005) stated that language related tasks could include completing bingo games after a contrastive analysis, grammar-translation based presentation, etc. With the types of tasks that set the boundaries of language, Nunan defined tasks as being language related; in addition, he stated that tasks can also be fun and highly student-centered “when borrowing on effective games and other such activities though tasks is not a substitute word for games” (Nunan, 2005, p. 25). With this definition, the tendencies and inclinations of the teacher come into play, where he or she chooses whether the class should be fun or serious to some extent. After all, children always associate games with non-learning activities. So, it is up to the teacher to embed the learning objective in the learners’ minds without them knowing that they have actually learned something from the “serious” book, which was substituted for by task-based activities.

In spite of having multiple definitions for TBL, the most relevant to the study at hand was that of the Common European Framework of Reference for Language Learning (CEFR) framework (Council of Europe, n. d.) which defined task-based as a feature of everyday life in the personal, public, educational, or occupational domains. Task accomplishment by an individual involves the strategic activation of specific competences in order to carry out a set of purposeful actions in a particular domain with a clearly defined goal and a specific outcome (Ellis, 2003). Tasks can be extremely varied in nature and may involve language activities to a greater or lesser extent, for example creative (drawing, story writing), skills based (repairing or assembling something), problem solving (jigsaw, crossword), routine transactions, interpreting a role in a play, taking part in a discussion, giving a presentation, or planning a course of action.

The more challenging task for teachers is to integrate the task-based approach into education, keeping in mind the diversity in student types. In most cases, preschools include mixed-age groups which encourage every child to accept being involved in a group. The qualified preschools give learners plenty of hands-on opportunities to explore their world (Bowen, 2010). However, there are a lot of discussions about the early language learning that starts at home before the child enters school. One way to implement this child-rearing and child-preparatory phase is TBL, which is very important in improving early language education (Seedhouse, 2005). Seedhouse (2005) also mentioned that this type of teaching-learning is divided into
three parts. The first part is the pre-task where the whole class activities are under the supervision of the teacher. The second is the task itself which requires the learner to work as an individual. After that, the post-task is the evaluation process at the end.

Foster and Skehan (1994) distinguished three stages for a task-based methodology (see Figure 1); pre-emptive or pre-task phase, through-task phase, and post-task phase. The major aim of the pre-emptive phase is to stimulate restructuring, either through the introduction of new elements or through the rearrangement of already existing ones (i.e., consciousness raising or practice). This can be ascertained in either of two ways: setting up the relevant target language for the task, by giving the learners a pre-task to perform and simultaneously providing them with the language they need for it (Prabhu, 1987; Willis & Willis, 1988); or by easing the processing load that learners will encounter when actually doing a task (Van Patten, 1994). A number of techniques have been proposed for the pre-task phase. The major ones among them are:

- Observation of tasks being completed on video; listening to or reading transcripts of comparable tasks (Willis & Willis, 1988);
- Doing pre-tasks (e.g., conventional or parallel tasks) to activate relevant schemas before attempting real tasks (Prabhu, 1987).

Figure 1. Approaching task-based activities

The second phase of task implementation (i.e., the through-task phase) aims at mediating accuracy and fluency through the selection of the right kind of tasks. This implies that tasks should be of the right level of difficulty/complexity; in other words, task selection should proceed in such a way as to minimize learners’ reliance on ellipsis, context, and/or lexicalization; also, the tasks should not be too easy to demand any processing. Right before the task, teachers can be explicit as to what they consider most important in the task and what is to be stressed by learners. In spite of the later information being a bit outdated, and as far as code complexity is concerned, this might mean that teachers should tell learners whether they value accuracy or conformity in structure choice (Willis, 1993); as far as cognitive...
complexity is concerned, teachers should use scaffolding techniques to tailor the task to the right level of complexity. Such support techniques may, for example, include:

- Using visual support to make tasks easier (e.g. maps, pictures, cards);
- Using surprise elements that run counter to learners’ expectations to make the task more difficult (e.g., conflicting/additional evidence in a ‘judge’ task).

TBL plays a vital role in both research and language education (Seedhouse, 2005). The process of TBL could be a vital combination for young learners’ development in the language classroom as they are at a stage where they are not yet as autonomous as older students are. Furthermore, another attribute that educators aspire for is cognitive complexity, which is not an easy attribute to attain. The most proposed method to allow learners to reach the required level of critical thinking is the task-based approach to teaching and learning. The following section proposes some samples of task-based implementation in an actual classroom, where language is the means of transferring culture from one generation to another as well as from one nation to another (Torky, 2006).

After mentioning all the above techniques in TBL, I believe that the tendency in recent teaching approaches is to interconnect the various language activities to enhance the four competences. Such competences in the language classroom serve many valuable purposes, as they give learners scaffolded support, opportunities to create, contexts in which to use the language for exchanges of real information, evidence of their own ability (proof of learning) and, most important, confidence.

Furthermore, TBL is seen as a social dynamic activity that can encourage students to become active participants in their language development through games, solving a problem, and sharing information or experience, which can all be considered as relevant and authentic tasks. This approach could give young learners the confidence they need, as noted in the above section, to develop as language learners and to use the foreign language without fearing the consequences of making mistakes since TBL encourages classroom communication and cooperation. Through TBL, young language learners are given the chance to become involved in the negotiation of meaning which is the nucleus of human interaction (Giannikas, n.d.).

How will educators know that the learners have acquired the skill or the meaning through the tasks provided? This can be done through an assessment procedure, eliciting the apprehended function of the tasks. A sample assessment is provided in Appendix A, showing the levels of apprehension, participation, and engagement in the task, and thus telling the educator more about the student’s critical and practical skills. With this skillful use of the assessment tools, the teacher/educator will be able to initiate measurement of competencies, abilities, attitudes, personality traits, and educational achievement.
2.1 TBL and culture

After having summarized the goal-oriented nature of TBL, the next step is to relate this nature to what serves culture best. Almost all schools in a local region seek to relate foreign language material to social contexts, thinking that it will make language learning easier. To what extent is this theory true? The purpose of this paper is to point out how effective language learning is in the presence of socially and culturally contradicting norms and principles. Educators target teaching both languages to students where there is no contradiction in cultural values. As Liddicoat (2008, p. 278) pointed out, “Every message a human being communicates through language is communicated in a cultural context; cultures shape the ways language is structured and the ways in which language is used.” Therefore, the major concern of educators is to link languages through culture, knowing that “culture and language are inseparable” (Liddicoat, 2008, p. 279).

Unconsciously, culture determines how we think, believe, and behave and these, in turn, affect how we teach and learn. Bruner (1986, p. 4) stated that, “learning and thinking are always situated in a cultural setting and always dependent upon the utilization of cultural resources.” In other words, culture provides the tools to pursue the search for meaning and to convey our understanding of others. Consequently, communication cannot exist without culture, culture cannot be known without communication, and teaching cannot occur without communication and culture. In this study, the term culture is used in a broad sense to include issues related to social class, language, curriculum, and behavior. Culture can be defined as what we create beyond our biology.

In his book Teaching and Learning in a Diverse World, Ramsey (1998) discussed two levels of cultures: the “explicit culture” which includes the cultural expressions and symbols, such as clothes, food, tools, holidays, rituals, crafts, artifacts, and music and the “implicit culture” which embodies the values, meanings, and philosophies that underlie the overt symbols (Ramsey, 1998, p. 59). Consequently, culture incorporates the scope of human diversity and ways of being. This means that, as educators, we need to think about our own values, beliefs, and attitudes related to diversity, difference, and acknowledge and to address any bias that we may hold.

What is fundamental for the researcher, in this study, is to realize that culture is a constantly changing pattern of customs, beliefs, values, and behaviors, which are socially acquired and transmitted through symbols, rituals, and events and which convey widely shared meanings among its members. When encountering other cultures, children start to question how they see the world and other people (Diamond, Grob, & Reitzes, 2015). Through those inquiries, they will reach to the understanding of the familiarities and differences among societies — which is the type of culture that the researcher will focus on in this study to raise the students’ cultural awareness. In this study, culture knowledge is used to measure the ability of the child to accept notions and people other than those in his/her environment. Not to
mention, some variables were found to have a high impact on success in English as a foreign language (EFL) learning and consequently on the child’s cultural awareness in the language classroom. In this case, task-based is the approach that will be implemented in the classroom using a culturally familiar celebration to track children’s comprehension of culture and acceptance of differences.

The final product of most teaching aspires for a culturally aware child with the learning capabilities allowing him or her to adapt to any lesson in any known language, be it Arabic or English. As English was the foreign language in this study, strategies were employed by teachers to support the language development of preschool children in an EFL context to see how this support could be translated into tasks in EFL classrooms. The outcome of these observations will be discussed in later sections to answer the research question.

3. Methodology

The study was conducted in a private, co-educational Lebanese Anglophone K-12 school system. It has been working persistently to fulfill the educational needs of the middle-class community under the supervision of the Directorate of Educational Affairs. They are a community of more than 1400 learners and 120 teachers and administrators. The school provides a balanced quality education within a rich academic environment that empowers learners to acquire scientific and tech-savvy skills while demonstrating their commitment to Islamic, national, as well as humanitarian core principles and values.

The study will show the role of task-based approach in raising the child’s cultural awareness. The research question is: How does task-based learning lead the child to acquire the skills of cultural comparisons and contrasts using L2?

Having conducted this research in several distinct contexts (e.g., school and field trips), qualitative measurement tools were chosen for this study (observing children and documenting their reactions and behavior) to validate the data collection to better serve the purpose of the question at hand and answer it. In this study, the qualitative approach will prove reliable in studying behavior, which is paralleled with using common sense realism and pragmatic views of the world (Gay & Airasian, 2000).

The researcher used qualitative research in order to validate the researcher’s question. It studies the implementation of task-based approach intensely over an extended period of time to record the personal views or behavior of subjects. In this study, the researcher used several activities to observe children’s behavior for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect.

275 kindergarten learners (120 boys and 155 girls at KG3) ranging from four to six years of age in three private schools participated in this study. These target samples
(which belong to the same social status / monocultural) were observed during the academic year 2014/2015 (October through May), and Journeys textbook published by Houghton Mifflin Harcourt was used.

An assessment sheet (Appendix B) was used after the celebration of Independence Day of Lebanon. The items in the sheet were chosen by the researcher/teacher to assess how the children comprehended the concept of independence and their distinction between what is different and what is similar.

The design of a task-based lesson involves consideration of the stages or components of a lesson that has a task as its principal component. Various designs have been proposed (Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Ellis, 2003; Prabhu 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). However, they all have in common three principal phases which are shown in Table 1. These phases reflect the chronology of a task-based lesson. Thus, as shown in Table below, the first phase is ‘pre-task’ and concerns the various activities that teachers and learners can undertake before they start the task. The second phase, the ‘during task’ phase, centers around the task itself and affords various instructional options. The final phase is ‘post-task’ and involves procedures for following-up on the task performance and participating in the assessment phase.

Table 1
A framework for designing task-based lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Examples of Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-task</td>
<td>Framing the activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doing a similar activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During Task</td>
<td>Carrying out the task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-task</td>
<td>Assessing the task</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first version of the two-step measurement tool is the teacher’s version, which are the questions that the teacher asked her students:

1. How does Lebanon celebrate its independence?
2. How does Egypt celebrate its independence?
3. Did you like the Egyptian ceremony?
4. What can you say about the two ceremonies? Are they different or alike?
5. How were they different? Were they different through:
   • People?
   • Flag?

Above are the questions that the teacher asks and students answer using the colored assessment sheet shown in Appendix B. In this assessment the survey items were adopted from International School Award (ISA) Teacher Activity Evaluation Form for the history of case studies, that is, examples of good international activities done
with international partner schools on one of the global themes about global citizenship.

According to the implementation of the task-based approach, I employed the activity of celebrating Independence Day of Lebanon. This celebration was on the ISA program (see Appendix C) for the academic year 2014/2015. Therefore, the researcher found this time of year appropriate for data collection. This task was conducted in December. To perform such a task, the teacher followed three stages or phases that reflect the chronology of this task-based lesson following the framework that was mentioned earlier.

The first phase is the pre-task phase and concerns the various activities that teachers and learners can undertake before they start the original task. The three schools decided on the topic of independence and prepared it in a task-based way. The schools were signed up in an ISA program managed by the British Council. The program is a supportive and motivational framework that guides schools through their international work embedding it within the school’s culture. Within this program the researcher implemented several tasks with the 275 learners in order to achieve the understanding of their country’s independence and why we celebrate such a day. During this phase teachers started to brainstorm about the event and explain the meaning of independence to children.

The second phase is the during-task phase or task cycle. It centers on the task itself and affords various instructional options. This phase includes the rehearsals for the ceremony that was planned to be performed by the children on stage on the 22nd of December (the date of Lebanon’s independence). Children memorized folk songs in English and Arabic and decorated the Lebanese flag during art classes. In addition, while decorating the flag, the teacher explained the meaning of each color: red represents the blood of our martyrs, white represents purity, and the green tree represents Lebanon cedars. The task included field trips during November: to the Martyr Statue downtown where students offered flowers; to the House of Independence; and to a military base.

During those trips, teachers answered many of the learners’ curious questions, such as:

- What are these weapons for?
- Why are they rusty?
- Who are these people in the photos?
- Don’t they have computers or iPads?
- Why are these papers portrayed?
- Is this related to our army?
- Were there any other citizens living in our country?
- How did we fight back?
- Where were we?
- Why are these people, in the pictures, not colored?
The purpose behind this questioning is to evaluate the level of the children’s involvement about the trip. This section serves as a clarification to how learners enjoyed such trips, and whether they are willing to participate in future ones. They also showed how curious the children were about their own cultural practices and that of other cultures, highlighting their acceptance to perceive aspects in the different celebrations in the ISA program. The learners showed signs of curiosity through body movement and facial expressions.

It should be noted that it required two weeks to take the 275 children to visit these sites. Their teachers were with them explaining the importance of their country’s independence and its history. All of these activities were documented to be presented in a slide show during the Independence Day celebration. Furthermore, parents were invited to attend the ceremony, which took place in each school’s theatre.

As for the post-task, and after conducting those series of activities for the Independence Day within the ISA program, a global partnership was assigned by the British Council to share photos and the way the two countries celebrate their Independence Day. In this case, the three schools that were participating in the study partnered with an Egyptian school as they celebrated their own Independence Day and documented it with photos which were shared with the learners in the study. After that an assessment sheet (see Appendix B) was distributed where the teachers asked questions and the learners answered with what they found relevant to them, without any interference from any teacher. Table 2 shows the tasks implemented adopting the task-based approach stages.

Table 2

| Task-Based Approach Implementation Procedure |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Pre-task Phase** | **During-task Phase** | **Post-task Phase** |
| • Signing up for ISA | • Art work (decorating Lebanese flags) | • Sharing pictures with the partner school |
| • Teacher brainstorm about Independence Day and explain what it stands for to children | • Going on field trips: 1. Martyr statue 2. House of Independence 3. Military base | • Completing an assessment sheet adopted from the ISA criteria for assessing activities with cultural dimension |
|                 | • Rehearsing for ceremony: 1. Reciting folk songs in English and Arabic 2. Dancing drills 3. Conducting the ceremony on stage | |

Table 2

*Task-Based Approach Implementation Procedure*
4. Findings and Discussion

According to the implementation of the task-based approach, the researcher employed the activity of celebrating the Independence Day of Lebanon. The following interpretations are the results of the assessment sheet that was answered by the children after the implementation of the three task-based stages. The following figures show the number of learners who answered differently to the questions posed by their teachers that the researcher used to draw conclusions with the aid of the observation process.

After exposing the children to multiple pictures about Independence Day, the researcher’s observation yielded the following (Figure 2): 75% of the learners related to the picture of the cheering crowd, and 10% considered the picnic/park as a venue for independence celebration. Another 10% viewed the Kaaba (a small stone building in the court of the Great Mosque at Mecca that contains a sacred black stone and is the goal of Islamic pilgrimage and the point toward which Muslims turn in praying) as a cultural aspect to be celebrating with, and 5% related to the picture of the birthday as the occasion where their country is expected to celebrate Independence Day. With these figures, it is apparent that the majority have previously observed crowds on this cultural occasion (Independence Day). As for the rest, 25% of the learners did not have previous experience watching or attending such a gathering.

When making cultural comparisons, the students were asked to identify how another country, Egypt, celebrates its independence (Figure 3). The observations of the learners yielded the following: 60% of the learners could distinguish the flag/soldier from what they see in their homeland. As for the rest and due to lack of knowledge

![Figure 2: Children’s opinions about how the Lebanese people celebrate their independence](image-url)
or exposure to other cultures, they reported the Kabaa (15%), picnic/park (22%), and the birthday (3%) as means of celebration in a different country than their own (Egypt).

As can be seen in Figure 4, 97% of the learners liked the Egyptian Independence Day ceremony, while 3% did not like it. The reason for that might be their differentiation of the similarities this ceremony has with their country’s own. After all, all festive occasions are the most appealing to young ones.

After exposing children to the two ceremonies of different cultures, a high percentage (62%) of the learners could not perceive similarities in cultural activities
(Figure 5), showing poor differential perceptions in cultures. However, this portrays a kind of acceptance as opposed to rejection of other cultures. As for the remaining 38%, they found these ceremonies different, meaning they were observing tangible and relatable items in the photos.

**Figure 5: Children’s perceptions about the two ceremonies (Lebanon and Egypt)**

Furthermore, it was not surprising that 94% of the learners chose the more distinctive feature to be the flag (Figure 6) and not the people (Figure 7). Learners in this age group cannot easily differentiate ethnicity. They rely on more obvious interpretations to differences, the most obvious of which is the flag.
Figure 6: Children’s feedback when asked about their observation concerning the two ceremonies (differences and similarities)

Figure 7: Children’s feedback when asked about their observation concerning the two ceremonies (differences and similarities)

Figure 8 summarizes the entire study and the procedures of TBL implementation throughout the study.

Figure 8: TBL and cultural awareness
The findings above (Figures 2-7) showed that children develop a sense of accepting both celebrations as the same, noticing difference in the flag only and not the people. This shows that with the proper methodology and through meaningful classroom learning experiences, learners can transfer their knowledge to understand the sociocultural phenomena authentically.

The study showed that the use of authentic materials and tasks would help children to be culturally aware and accept the notion of the “other” that is implemented in awareness of observing the physical and cultural characteristics of people from an early age. The assessment sheet that was completed by the learners to record their feedback showed that learners were not able to distinguish the difference of the two countries through people but rather only through the flag. This showed some kind of acceptance of other cultures and people that belong to a different background. Afterall, it is the role of the teacher to create an environment that is suitable for learners in order to understand, respect, and accept differences. The study helped establish an environment where learners not only acknowledge the other culture, but also develop a sense of curiosity to know more about the other.

In order for children to maximize learning, they should be less anxious and worried about their performance. According to Rodrigeuz-Bonces (2010) and Jee (2014), with the task-based approach, children are less anxious and more focused on goal-oriented activities that maximize the retention aspect of the learning process. Throughout the implementation of TBL, they were observed to be very keen to learn more about Independence Day. The retention of the information was observably high (as reported by the teachers), especially when the learners started asking questions. The task-based approach proved to be effective and fruitful, increasing academic and cultural awareness in the children.

5. Conclusion

Based on the data gathered after the implementation of a task-based approach through celebrating Independence Day, the research question was answered, asserting the significance of task-based learning that leads to children’s cultural awareness. Data showed that a high percentage (62%, Figure 5) of learners could perceive similarities in cultural activities, showing poor differential perceptions in cultures. However, this portrays a kind of acceptance as opposed to rejection of other cultures. In other words, and after implementing a task-based approach, the study showed the importance of employing this approach in raising children’s cultural awareness within the medium of culturally-related activities.

The teachers noticed that learners were cooperative when they went out on field trips and were exposed to storytelling. The most fun activity was the time they visited the entertainment center, where they absorbed the cultural experience to the maximum.
(In this case, “absorption” means what the learners perceived about their culture and roles in society.)

Teachers are recommended to engage in more student-centered activities. Real-life simulation of activities is the best inclusion in the curriculum of a culturally-oriented school. Teachers will notice that their learners are more excited, interested, and most importantly, aware of cultural diversity. Hence, the teachers will be helping in raising the child’s cultural awareness. They might not feel at ease due to unfamiliarity at first, but in due time, the ice will break, and the outcomes of such innovative teaching methods will prevail.

References


### Assessment Sample for Task Based Learning: Rubric for a Lesson about Celebration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Beginning 0-1</strong></th>
<th><strong>Developing 2</strong></th>
<th><strong>Accomplished 3</strong></th>
<th><strong>Exemplary 4</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>VISUAL - ART</strong></td>
<td>Sloppy, used pencil/pen. Hard to see and/or read. Not very creative or appealing.</td>
<td>Project is somewhat neat, but needs work. Words are not easily read and more color is needed to catch the eye of the reader.</td>
<td>Project is very neat, but the organization is not as good as it could be. Words were readable and neat. Project is mostly creative and appealing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TASK DESIGN</strong></td>
<td>Students did not plan any celebration.</td>
<td>Students are still planning their celebration.</td>
<td>Students planned most of the aspects of the celebration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COVERAGE OF TOPIC</strong></td>
<td>Includes few or none of the required aspects</td>
<td>Includes many of the required aspects</td>
<td>Includes most of the required aspects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(invitation card, newspaper article, party decor)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CLASS TIME</strong></td>
<td>Did not use time to focus on the project or often distracted</td>
<td>Used some of the time well. There was some focus but occasionally distracted.</td>
<td>Used time well. Usually focused on project and never distracted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PARTICIPATION AND PREPARATION</strong></td>
<td>There is not any activity prepared.</td>
<td>Only a few members of the group participated. It was somewhat prepared, organized and creative.</td>
<td>Most of the students were involved. It was very organized, creative and prepared.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Learner Assessment Sheet (Independence Day)

Teacher’s Questions

1. How does Lebanon celebrate its independence?
2. How does Egypt celebrate its independence?
3. Did you like the Egyptian ceremony?
4. What can you say about the two ceremonies; are they different or alike?
5. How where they different? Were they different through People? Flag?
Appendix C

International School Award (ISA)

What is International School Award (ISA)?

ISA is a yearly award given to participating schools. Applications from interested schools are called in every year in April/May, and schools are selected on the basis of their application. The British Council offers the ISA as an accreditation framework for schools to record and evaluate their international work and embed it into the curriculum. ISA acts as a benchmark that ascertains schools as having an outstanding level of support for:

- Nurturing global citizenship in young people
- Enriching teaching and learning

The ISA approach to school development is holistic and mirrors the curriculum based-project work approach to encourage the teachers to use with their students. It is a rigorous and evidence-based process. It encourages the leaders to foster teambuilding, innovation, and project management. The schools need to put together an action plan and portfolio of evidence that encourages collaboration and critical thinking. ISA is content-free, and schools are encouraged to embed it within their own curriculum. ISA gives context to practice new skills in information and communications technology (ICT) and pedagogy in a safe and structured manner. Participating in briefings and workshops, an online community, and the award ceremony brings together a large number of schools across the country fostering rich exchange of ideas and creating a vibrant community of education professionals.

The researcher’s description of the activity that was submitted to ISA:

Describe the activity in more detail (Max 200 words).

Independence Day is a patriotic occasion that is celebrated at our school every year. This year the preschool division will celebrate this occasion in a special ceremony where all children, as well as teachers, will be involved. The activity will be documented before and during the occasion. Viewers will get the chance to watch the children preparing and then performing musical activities related to Independence Day. The preparatory stage is always fun for children. Children will be engaged in art projects, musical rehearsals, and literacy activities. On the day of the celebration a musical show will be displayed and around 200 preschoolers will participate in performing military parade wearing the official Lebanese military uniforms, singing the Lebanese National Anthem, and acting out patriotic songs.
What impact will this activity have?
During the implementation of this activity, children will gain background information about the holiday, such as recognizing what does our flag and its colors resemble and general information about our history, as well as, developing their social skills. Throughout such a celebration, children will gain appreciation for equality and diverse which raises in them, indirectly, the sense of belonging and of accepting “the other.” In fact, they will be exposed to different experiences that would convey to them the true and real meaning of Independence Day.
Section Four:
Teaching, Learning, and Pedagogy
Chapter 9

Argue to Learn:
Cultivating Argumentation Skills in an EFL Context

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Abstract

Student written arguments are social-cultural and rhetorical-linguistic acts produced in a communicative classroom context for the purpose of persuading an imagined reader by making a case, defending a position, setting the basis for (dis)agreement, or proposing a solution for a difference of opinion. The present study aims to address how training English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in argumentation can enhance their critical thinking by promoting their ability to engage in reasoned dialogue, using evidence as well as critique, and identifying flaws in arguments put forward by their peers. The suggested dialogic approach to teaching argumentation not only requires a shift in the desired student learning goals, but it also invites teachers to take on new and different roles. In this sense, argumentation is not a mere goal for EFL literacy; more interestingly, it is integral to civic responsibility and citizenship education in democratic societies.

1. Introduction

Argumentative writing is a complex reflective activity that requires much time and effort from both the student and the teacher. It is a process of iterative refinement that involves brainstorming, drafting, redrafting, reasoning, perspective-taking, and metacognitive reflection. It is essentially a cooperatively developed and facilitated set of skills. Therefore, teaching argumentative writing is a challenging task because it requires a supportive learning environment to empower teachers to deal with lingering writing anxiety in their students’ behavior. This emotional strain in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom can be the result of many pedagogical factors, such as students not being allowed to choose writing topics that appeal to their interests. Students also may not be exposed to sufficient practice in creative and critical thinking in the classroom. In addition, the assigning of inauthentic writing tasks and lack of authentic teaching materials can contribute to students’ lack of proficiency in oral and written argumentative discourse. Lack of
effective use of technology in the classroom to cater for varying learning styles and preferences might also be another reason why students fail to engage with what they learn.

2. Study Purpose and Rationale

Argumentation can be seen as a form of collaborative inquiry and problem-solving. It is by implication a means of learning in that the critical thinking skills fostered in a collaborative argumentation process reinforce deep engagement with ideational content. Therefore, teaching argumentation is very crucial for the acquisition of 21st-century multi-literacy skills for the following reasons.

A. In our globally connected (but fragmented and conflict-ridden) world, quality communication and meaning negotiation have never been more important, nor harder to promote and sustain. Therefore, students are required to learn to argue effectively to be able to communicate as responsible global citizens.
B. Argumentation skills are crucial for good quality writing. Argumentation engages higher order critical thinking skills that can be transferred across the curriculum. The ability to engage in reasoned argumentation is also necessary for any scientific inquiry.
C. Argumentation is important for civic life readiness. The ability to reason, think critically, understand, and present arguments in a rational way is a desirable outcome of education.

The present study is an attempt to address the importance of fostering argumentative activities in EFL learning environments in a way that trains our students to reason rationally. To achieve the intended aim, a number of strategies for teaching argumentative writing are highlighted, followed by some suggestions as to how we can ensure a critical language pedagogy curriculum.

3. Strategies for Teaching Argumentative Writing

A definition of argumentation within the context of this study is worthwhile. Following the pragma-dialectical theory of argumentation, we can define argumentation as:

[A] communicative speech acts complex, whose intrinsic perlocutionary goal is to maximise opportunities for critical examination of competing arguments in a way that cultivates the exploration of alternative standpoints and guarantees a rational resolution of a difference of opinion based solely on the merits of the arguments made. (Sahlane, 2015, p. 1)
In most of our ELT classrooms in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region today, however, argumentative writing tasks seem to occur in a rhetorical vacuum, lacking authentic purpose and real audience. While some teachers help students to analyse argumentation components and provide structured opportunities for practice, others are content with merely assigning “safe” topics (less likely to promote reasoned dialogue) within the traditional classroom context, where writing is merely a reinforcing activity to display that students have mastered previously taught grammatical and vocabulary items. In other words, writing conducted in traditional classroom contexts seems to serve as a service activity rather than an end in itself. As Raimes (1983) points out:

We teach a discrete item of grammar in class and test it in a writing exercise. If the students get it right, we feel we have taught something, and we offer praise to the students who have learned. We respond to the piece of writing as item checkers, not as readers. (p. 260)

The main reason for students’ failure to write effective argumentative essays in Moroccan contexts, for example, could be that secondary education teachers generally conceive of composition writing as a “one shot” attempt to produce a written text. This is “more of a testing than a teaching orientation” (Pennington & Cheung, 1995, p. 20). Other factors that contribute to this unhealthy state of affairs include crowded classrooms, rigid school bureaucracies, heavy teaching loads, prescribed obsolete textbooks, lack of continuous in-service training, and teacher’s lack of pedagogical knowledge. However, motivated and creative individual (action-researcher) teachers have always sought to employ innovative approaches to writing instruction in their own classrooms, by adopting, for example, a communicative approach that promotes learner autonomy, learner-centeredness, and process-focused composition instruction. Therefore, not all teachers would see these innovative teaching styles as challenging to their existing teaching methods.

Argumentative writing assignments most often take the form of pro/con argument schema (e.g., “Arranged child marriages should be banned in Morocco. Do you agree or disagree? Give justifications for your position.”) wherein the student is invited to take sides. To activate the schema of child brides, teachers generally conduct brainstorming activities in class. However, when writing assignments are given as homework, many problems might arise. For example, the very wording of the writing assignment might lack any prompts as to what the student is supposed to do, in relation to message, audience, and purpose. To illustrate this point, an example of a student’s response to a classroom writing assignment (“Marriage is a trap. Discuss.”) is given below. The writing outcome is of poor quality, as shown in the extract below.
The marriage is a trap because the person was free and has a friend to discuss their problem and he always like to play [...].

If he married, all the day of his life passed like in hell. He is always unhappy ...and his wife insults him and she talks to him to bring the milk and the bread [...].

The persons dislike to get married if they have a good condition for live (house and car) because they have always the problem with their family to choose the husband, all the time the family chooses the women for him and they find the problem to discuss with her and in the end he gives her their letter.

The student’s composition above is full of reference conjunction errors. Furthermore, in the first paragraph, the student seems to overuse the additive conjunctive (and) to hold the reader’s attention to the topic without necessarily developing it further. In the second paragraph, the use of causal connexity (because) is correct, but the problem is that “our interpretations of causal relations” are based on our “(culturally relative) schemata for making such interpretations” (Schiffrin, 1987, pp. 211-212). In other words, the student relies too heavily on implicit coherence, with too much inferential work left for the reader to do in order to decipher the text’s message correctly. Using Toulmin’s model (1958), some critical questions can be used to dialogise the arguments put forward in students’ written work (Sahlane, 2019, p. 205).

Poor assessment of the reader’s shared knowledge results in reader-inconsiderate propositional content. To understand the student’s argument about arranged marriage, cultural background is necessary to guide the (universal) reader to comprehend the inferential meaning presupposed in the text. As Blakemore (1987) puts it:

[T]he propositional content of an utterance may be under-determined by its linguistic content not only in the sense that contextual information is required for the assignment of reference and for disambiguation, but also in the sense that the meanings of the words uttered may determine a proposition too under-specified to be taken as the one the speaker could have intended. (p. 115)

Therefore, as they compose, students should be sensitized to invoke their own vision of the reader, which they create based on their own experiences and expectations as readers. The central task of the writer, thus, with such conception of audience-as-invoked is:
…not to analyze an audience and adapt discourse to meet its needs. Rather, the writer uses the semantic and syntactic resources of language to provide cues for the reader – cues which help to define the role or roles the writer wishes the reader to adopt in responding to the text. (Tate, Corbett, & Myers, 1994, p. 248)

One way to compensate for the absence of a shared immediate pragmatic context of communication is to provide cohesive clues to the intended textual relations in text, and hence help orient the reader to domains of schematic knowledge, wherein ideational content could be sought (Sahlane, 2019, p. 222). In this sense, cohesive markers can have an important disambiguating function. To avoid problems related to reader-orientation, question prompts encouraging students to engage in authentic dialogue with their imagined audience can be provided.

Before students start writing their first drafts, the teacher should use a brainstorming activity in class to have an idea about knowledge gaps that the students might have concerning the topic of discussion. For example, the teacher can present powerful statements that provoke critical argumentation, such as, “Do you know that…?” Then the teacher can invite students to reflect on a previewing question (e.g., “At what age should a girl be married? Why?”). Students can be encouraged to watch a video on the topic and take notes. Next, they can be helped to reconstruct the reasons for/against the issue being discussed. Argument mapping software can also provide a useful pedagogical tool to illustrate the “reflection either based on the regularity of certain critical observations that results from rule-driven argument representation, or by enabling [students] to identify certain weaknesses or gaps in [their] reasoning” (Hoffmann, 2016, p. 388). For instance, the argument that the benefits of child marriages far outweigh its costs can be refuted because it is based on a fallacious utilitarian argument that violates the child’s human rights (argument from legal/ethical commitment).

Dialogic argumentation trains students to assume their dialectical obligations of collaboratively managing disagreement by putting forward reasonable arguments and engaging critically and constructively with the counter-claims provided by their classmates. Engaging students in debates that echo the controversies in their daily lives, the workplace, the media, and the political sphere can help students produce reader-focused arguments. The teacher should first determine what issues matter most to his/her students (e.g., child brides) by encouraging them to choose topics that suit their interests. Then, he/she can invite them to fill in an issue analysis form (Appendix A). After that, students should be encouraged to immerse themselves in collaborative argumentation wherein all language skills are integrated by using the following steps.
**Problem definition:** Students define the controversial issue after reading/watching the selected (opinion/editorial) articles/videos (mentor texts).

**Evidence gathering:** Students evaluate the two sides of the conflict of opinion (using a graphic organizer, Appendix B). They take notes in small groups while viewing/reading.

**Argument structure analysis:** Students identify the premises and determine whether the connections between the premises and conclusions or claims are sound. The teacher can encourage them to infer claims based on the data or information in the text. Students can also analyze the texts’ rhetorical strategies (ethos, pathos, logos).

**Critical thinking:** Students pose questions that problematize the selected texts/videos (e.g., How is your understanding of the text shaped by your social-cultural background? How does the text position you as a reader? How does the use of language construct social actors in the text? Whose values and perspectives does the text (re)present? Which voices are silenced? What assumptions / presumptions about values and beliefs does the text make? Whose interests are served by the text?).

**Perspective taking:** Students take an initial position on the issue (in small groups). They then create supporting arguments for their own stances. Next, they discuss at least three reasons why others might disagree with their positions, and why those reasons are wrong (rebuttal). They summarise opposing views and fairly refute them by showing why these views are logically flawed, inadequately supported, or based on erroneous presumptions (fallacies). The teacher can also invite students to acknowledge shortcomings in their own claims by allowing their own point of view to be informed by the other party’s perspectives. Students revise their arguments based on what they have learned from other groups. Research has shown that skilled student arguers are more likely to rebut their arguments, while unpracticed students tend to exhibit “myside” (confirmation) bias (Sahlane, 2019, p. 220). In other words, when students get to understand the divergence of views on an issue, they might still be willing to accommodate counterarguments, even if their positions are ingrained in their cultural beliefs. This can be done by using qualifiers to mitigate the strength of previously held positions. Hence, “reflecting on one’s own arguments is crucial to stimulate changes of perspective” (Hoffmann, 2016, p. 392).

**Socratic circle discussions:** Students rethink their own standpoints through dialogue. The teacher can encourage students to engage in scaffolded collaborative argumentation in the classroom by encouraging Socratic circle discussions, wherein he/she can detect the quality of student oral discursive strategies in the performance of dialectical moves (e.g., if the arguers can extend or elaborate on the other party’s arguments, question, request clarification, paraphrase, rebut, (dis)agree). In this sense, the teacher creates a learning environment that fosters the acquisition of dialogical skills and encourages spontaneous student-created argumentation.
**Final writing production:** The teacher should make sure that students’ arguments address an authentic audience by encouraging them to publish their work in school/university journals or blogs read by classmates.

### 4. Towards a Critical Language Pedagogy Curriculum

Raising students’ consciousness of social injustices is the first step towards a critical language pedagogy. Critical pedagogy seeks to enable students to become aware of the subtle ideological biases imparted in multimodal texts by empowering them to conceive of texts as potential ideological constructions of a perceived social reality. Looking at language as a powerful tool for manipulating others rather than just conveying information will enable students to develop active roles vis-à-vis texts and social practices. Therefore, to cultivate effective argumentation skills in class, the students should be trained to “deconstruct the societal ideology affecting them in their everyday lives, see how it inhibits attainment of their interests, and visualize possible societal changes that could better serve their interests” (Hansen, 2008, p. 408). In other words, teaching should incorporate a critical pedagogy in which the role of teachers is to “educate students to become active citizens” by extending their concerns for justice and equality through the “repoliticization of pedagogy” (Sholle, 1994, p. 21). Students should be encouraged to raise controversial moral/social issues, and decode, deconstruct, and demystify taken-for-granted narratives and metaphors that guide the creation of polarized social/cultural identities and solidarities. Learners should regard knowledge as relative and contextual in that ethical codes are based on cultural constructs that are open to critique through rational argumentation. This might help students to challenge existing inequitable social power structures that disempower marginalized communities in our increasingly reified world.

Teachers should also train students to focus on communicative interaction, which would facilitate their potential move from individualistic instrumental rationality towards rational dialogue. Parents themselves can initiate this process by involving their children in critical discussion practices. They can help their children develop argumentative competencies by fostering an egalitarian discussion climate at home and by involving them actively in family decision-making. Parents who use dialogue with their children in disciplinary situations facilitate the development of their communication skills (Kline, 1998, pp. 371-372). Likewise, when children participate equally with their peers in resolving conflicts of opinion, these communicative interactions promote development of moral reasoning because they involve mutual respect, mutual control, and collaborative action between equals.

Adopting an issue-centered perspective in the teaching of argumentative writing in the language classroom aims at promoting critical thinking and participatory citizenship by encouraging students to examine different aspects of the social construction of knowledge. The role of the teacher is to involve students in debating
real-life issues (and not safe topics) by giving fair hearing to different viewpoints on controversial issues, and helping students unpack their ideological positionality with regards to the content they are learning. By recognizing divergent opinions, students will start to problematize their own preconceived biases and resist “being totally shaped by debilitating social patterns, interpretations, and roles” passed across generations (Crick and Joldersma, 2007, p. 86). Hence, this deserialization process can help students to unlearn stereotypical representations of ethnic and cultural others by celebrating differences and replacing prejudiced portrayals by historically and culturally verifiable versions of self and others. In this sense, critical (media) pedagogy entails guiding students to “expose,...demystify...[and] demythologize some of the truths that we have been taught to take for granted” by subjecting them to critical evaluation (Nieto, 1999, p. 17; as cited in Godley & Minnici, 2008, p. 322). However, “[s]ince media culture is often part and parcel of students’ identity and most powerful cultural experience, teachers must be sensitive in criticizing artifacts and perceptions that students hold dear” (Kellner, 2001, p. 71). By engaging students in critical reflection and encouraging them to critically assess (media) content, they will be prepared to become more thoughtful decision makers about public life.

The materials selected and the pedagogical choices made by teachers certainly affects how students experience controversial content. Developing critical media literacy and pedagogy enables the teacher to transform the new cyberspaces and forums into learning opportunities for his/her students by “perceiving how media like film or video can also be used positively to teach a wide range of topics, like multicultural understanding and education” (Kellner, 2001, p. 70). For example, teachers can assign collaborative research projects by helping students to create their own websites, which they update as they research a chosen topic. On a final note, the curriculum for critical pedagogy is one that “represents a site of struggle, structured around silenced and omitted voices; struggles over competing versions of the past, present and future” (Sholle, 1994, p. 15). Critical media literacy can empower our students to resist media manipulation if they are trained to use media as a tool for social communication and change.

5. Conclusion

Process-based teaching of argumentation skills implies procedural facilitation aiming at a systematic scaffolding of argumentation skills. Students should be trained to reflect on the different goals of argumentation and the functions of arguments in different communicative situations. Furthermore, writing with an audience in mind is crucial for effective argumentative writing. Students should be made aware that if the reader is not given a clear pathway through the mess of ideational relations created in a text (content schemata), or if the reader is misled up the garden path (formal schemata), then the produced text will be mere nonsense. Teachers should encourage collaborative argumentation in class that involves authentic, spontaneous,
real-life, and genuine communicative purposes. More interestingly, teaching should promote critical pedagogy by training students to approach multimodal texts more critically (Kellner, 2001, p. 70).

Democratic and participative instructional programs make use of critical pedagogy in that educators are committed to dealing explicitly with issues of race, class, gender, and sexuality as a concern for social justice by connecting curriculum with the social realities of students and creating links with the wider community (Vibert, Portelli, Shields, & Larocque, 2002, p. 95). Schools should attend to emancipatory concerns and not only to strategic and prudential goals. Teaching should shift from the “currently dominant discourse of accountability” (Crick and Joldersma, 2007, p. 77) wherein teachers teach to the test and emphasis is put on performativity and marketable skills. While the goal of schooling is principally to acquire work skills and “ensure the transmission of consensual cultural formation,” education mainly caters for the development of the student as a responsible and active citizen (Sholle, 1994, p. 11). Pedagogy should be concerned “not simply about curriculum design, teaching techniques and evaluation methods; it is also and fundamentally about how knowledge is constructed in relations of power – how things got to be the way they are and how they might be transformed” (Sholle, 1994, pp. 13-14). Resisting the dynamics of domination and exploitation can be done through the demythologization of dominant ideologies, reflected and constructed through language.

References


Appendix A

Issue Analysis Form

Name: __________________________
Topic: __________________________
Date: __________________________

What do I already know about forced ‘child marriage’?

- Motivation:
  a) Parental desire to control the child’s sexuality; money (dowry).
  b) Society forces girls to marry their rapists.

What do I not know about this issue?

- Child marriage is in all cultures.
  - Laws in 27 US states do not specify an age below which a child cannot marry.
  - Teen pregnancy
  - Spousal age difference (rape)

Who is affected by this issue? How might they be affected?

- Negative effects on the girl’s health, education and economic opportunities.
- Domestic violence

What is the solution to this issue?

- Legislators should introduce a bill to end child marriage.

For more details visit
http://www.middleschooldebate.com/teachers/
Appendix B

Graphic Organizer

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Claim/argument/thesis</strong>: Have your clearly stated your position vis-à-vis the debated issue? Is your thesis arguable? Have you responded properly to the assignment task? Have you considered your audience and purpose?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Evidence/data</strong>: What are you trying to prove? Does your evidence support your claim(s)? Does it include ethical/emotional appeals, facts, statistics, expert opinion? [Avoid fallacies: appeal to pity, populist logic, hasty generalisation, ad hominem argument, and so on].</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Warrant</strong>: Does the warrant explain how the evidence logically and reasonably supports your claim(s)? [can be stated; but it is usually implicit and assumed]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Counter-argument</strong>: Have you acknowledged perspectives that disagree with your views? Point out weaknesses/fallacies in counterarguments to refute their acceptability / reasonableness. This strengthens your position / argument.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Rebuttal</strong>: Does your rebuttal contain data and analysis that discredit or prove the counterclaim(s) is/are weak.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Conclusion</strong>: Conclude with a coherent restatement of main arguments. End your discussion by calling for action. Does the last sentence leave readers with a strong final impression?</td>
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Abstract

A popular assumption, and one widely held by both language learners and instructors, is that certain people have been naturally endowed with a high degree of language-learning aptitude, or, simply put, they have a “knack” for learning foreign languages. Although this may be true for certain fortunate individuals, research in the field of psycholinguistics has provided an extensive, theoretical foundation from which language instructors can develop and modify teaching practices that can help foster successful second (or subsequent) language acquisition (SLA) among their students. With reference to some of the most seminal writings in recent decades, this paper will discuss four psycholinguistic variables: individual learning styles; language ego and risk taking; motivation and attitudes towards the target language (TL), and empathy. The author will also offer practical pedagogical suggestions for enhancing positive and reducing negative psycholinguistic affect for each.

Introduction

Oftentimes, a person’s proficiency in a second or additional language is attributed to his or her “knack” for languages. But what exactly is this knack, and, more importantly, how does one go about getting it? While it may be true that some language learners have a greater capacity to “pick up” languages than others, is not the fact that everyone acquires a first language proof that all people have language learning ability? Moreover, within the field of applied linguistics, research has shown that this aptitude is not as monolithic as once commonly assumed. Resulting from his 3-year study of Greek students’ aptitude in learning English, Alexiou (2009) concluded that language learning is a distinct and separate ability that is comprised of clearly identifiable, general cognitive skills, such as memory, which may not be fixed, especially at early ages of acquisition. Consequently, developing these cognitive sub-skills will have an influence on a language learner’s acquisition potential, but prior to or simultaneously with adopting a particular pedagogical approach, one must also take into account the role of psycholinguistic affect in second language acquisition (SLA). For if aptitude is the only determining factor in
SLA, then why is it that some learners with advanced knowledge of the language are never able to achieve a corresponding high level of communicative ability while some students with a limited or inaccurate understanding are (Snow & Shapira, 1985)?

Anyone who has been teaching language classes for an extended period of time has certainly come across a student who has a thorough knowledge of grammar and performs well on tests but has difficulty communicating orally or the opposite – a student who has frequent inaccuracies but is very fluent in conversation. However, to begin to understand the depth and complexity of the relationship between instructors’ academic expectations of their students and the learners’ performance outcomes, commonly held assumptions, like those once also held by the author, are no longer theoretically sound or pedagogically justifiable. With reference to the theoretical findings of applied linguists in recent decades, particularly with regard to the manner in which four affective variables – individual learning styles; language ego and risk taking; motivation and attitudes towards the target language (TL); and empathy – influence learners’ interlanguage (IL) development, practical pedagogical suggestions will be offered on how language instructors can motivate their learners to succeed with their SLA comprehension and also enhance reluctant speakers’ active participation in the communicative language classroom.

**Individual Learning Styles**

Although people have different learning preferences with regard to how they best process new information, either visually, auditorily or tacitly, whenever the human mind is exposed to something unfamiliar, one has an innate tendency to reference subconsciously all previous knowledge or schemata in an attempt to understand and try to make sense of it simultaneously. Consequently, when learning an additional language in a typical classroom environment, the learner relates the unfamiliar grammatical patterns or utterances of the TL to known aspects of his or her native language and processes the new information in one of two cognitive styles: field-dependently or field-independently. A field-independent person utilizes a bottom-up method and approaches language learning in a step by step or sequential way, whereas a field-dependent person employs a top-down method and approaches language learning in a holistic way, “preferring to get the ‘big picture’ rather than the details” (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005).

There are distinct advantages and disadvantages to both learning styles in SLA, and many learners often utilize both. However, as the examples in the introduction illustrated, some learners rely mostly on one, and, should an instructor adopt a teaching style that gives precedence to only one style, this could create unnecessary and undesirable learning obstacles for such learners. For example, in the traditional language classroom with its emphasis on grammatical pattern drills and discrete type testing, a person with a field-independent cognitive style is likely to be more
successful than a person with a field-dependent style, while, conversely, a learner with field-dependent style is more likely to succeed in a student-centered, communicative classroom that focuses on improving fluency.

However, as previously mentioned, both approaches have their pros and cons. For instance, too much field-dependence can result in cognitive “tunnel vision;” the language learner sees only the parts and not their relationship to the whole (Brown, 2000). This tunnel vision can seriously impede a language learner’s ability to communicate effectively because he or she will constantly be thinking of the correct grammatical forms when engaged in a conversation; by taking long and unnatural pauses before speaking, he or she will certainly try the patience of the interlocutor. In contrast, on the examiner rubrics for many language proficiency tests, accuracy on certain grammatical items is often a determining cut-off criterion between scores (i.e., complex sentences on IELTs exams), and if learners have not been adequately prepared with these items, their score will be negatively affected (and, consequently, so too may their chances for admission in an English language curriculum university or promotion within an international company).

Therefore, it is suggested that SLA instructors take into consideration both styles when preparing lessons and maintain a balance between traditional, grammar-translation activities and more modern, communicative approaches. Although not currently fashionable and perhaps not even enjoyable for language learners, old-school drilling of grammatical items for accuracy still has a place in SLA classrooms and needs to be implemented. For field-independent leaning students, in order to correct their undesirable inclination to always focus on form, the learner must learn how to utilize his or her conscious linguistic knowledge in careful speech, but to shut it out or ignore it in casual conversation. Similar to Krashen’s concept of a monitor in which learnt or formal knowledge of an additional language is used consciously to edit incorrect utterances, the language learner has to learn to edit his or her subsequent language output only when it does not interfere with communication (Krashen, 1981).

In order to help students avoid developing this habit and provide them with an opportunity to enhance their communicative abilities, it is imperative that the language teacher also incorporates field-dependent or top-down methods in the language classroom. This can be achieved best by integrating activities that require the students to focus more on understanding the whole or gist of a series of utterances than on the individual utterances themselves. For example, when checking reading comprehension, instead of having students read through the passage at their own pace and look up unknown lexical items in their dictionaries, the instructor can ask the students to read the passage quickly within a certain time-limit and without the use of a dictionary. Likewise, when doing speaking or pronunciation activities, rather than have the students simply repeat a dialogue by rote, the teacher could have students improvise variations on a memorized dialogue, or, for more advanced
learners, have the students role-play the parts in their own words (Stevick, 1976). Lastly, and perhaps most challengingly, instructors need to challenge the traditional classroom set-up and corresponding pedagogical practices and investigate ways in which the aforementioned different learning preferences, such as kinesthetic, can be accommodated in SLA. However, such drastic alternative instructional practices might be more welcomed with younger or less conservative learners.

**Language Ego and Risk Taking**

On a deeper psychological level, a language learner’s tendency to over-monitor his or her speech may be a result the discomfort he or she feels when communicating in a second language. When communicating in their native language, people are not as inhibited in their ability to make themselves understood, and as a result, their linguistic self-confidence or language ego is not seriously threatened. However, when speaking in a second language, some people, especially adults, can become extremely self-conscious about making an utterance because of a fear of being misunderstood or even sounding childish; their language ego is inflexible and unable to adapt to communicating effectively in a new language (Celce-Murcia, Britton, & Goodwin, 2005). A negative consequence of an inhibited language ego is that it prevents the language learner from taking risks or guessing, which is an extremely important strategy in SLA (Brown, 2000). Before attaining complete fluency in another language, the learner will constantly encounter numerous grammatical patterns or lexical items to which he or she has not yet been exposed, and must learn how to either infer what the speaker is trying to communicate or guess what grammatical pattern or utterance to use when communicating to someone else. In short, one always learns from one’s mistakes, and on the path to linguistic proficiency, one must make innumerable mistakes along the way.

In order to make students feel comfortable in the using the TL and thereby more willing to make guesses, the teacher should design lesson plans that instill linguistic confidence and provide opportunities for risk taking. Should the teacher have proficiency in a second language (particularly in the students’ language in an EFL situation), he or she could share with the students a personal anecdote about embarrassing linguistic moments. If the students are self-conscious about their accents, the teacher can design lessons that show non-native pronunciation in a positive light by playing video or audio footage of internationally famous people who work in English but do so with distinctively non-native accents (Cook, 1999). In order to provide an opportunity to practice risk taking in conversation, the teacher could design activities that make use of circumlocution. For example, when introducing relative clauses, the teacher could have the students come up with clauses to describe common nouns – i.e., “the thing you wear on your head” instead of “hat.” This type of exercise will be useful in a real conversation when the student has forgotten or do not know a word he or she wants to communicate (Rubin, 1981). Similarly, in order to develop students’ listening skills, the teacher can refrain from
adjusting his or her speech to the students’ level and utilize Krashen’s input hypothesis by speaking at a level just far enough beyond the students’ competence that they can understand most of it, but still be challenged and need to guess at times (Krashen, 1981).

However, it is important to consider the input level when conducting lessons or deciding whether to implement any classroom language policies, such as requiring learners to use only English with beginning level learners. For instance, advocates of the “English only” axiom argue that “teaching entirely through the TL makes the language real, allows learners to experience unpredictability, and develops the learners’ own in-built language system (Macaro, 2001, p. 531), while use of the students’ L1 deprives “learners of valuable input in the L2” (Ellis, as cited in Duff & Polio, 1990, p. 154).

Granted, English-only classroom policies could force learners to take more risks on the one hand, but if the linguistic input greatly exceeds the learners’ comprehension, then they may experience unwanted second language anxiety which will detrimentally affect their performance and even classroom participation, for the acceptance and use of students’ L1 in the classroom during the early stages of IL development are also considered to help reduce affective barriers, such as language anxiety (Auerbach, 1993). Consequently, numerous applied linguists who are opposed to the complete exclusion of the students’ L1 in the foreign language classroom assert that the L1 is a valuable cognitive tool which facilitates successful SLA and that the compartmentalization of L1 and TL promote coordinate rather than compound bilingualism (Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, 2001; Fairclough, 2006; Holliday, 2005; Jenkins, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; McKay, 2003; Nault, 2006; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992; Ruecker, 2011). Moreover, theoretical arguments aside, strict exclusion of students’ L1 in EFL communicative language classrooms exposes a double standard between the expectations of native English-speaking EFL instructors who adopt this axiom towards their non-native EFL learners and the manner in which native English-speaking students commonly learn foreign languages; various case studies examining the teaching practices of foreign language teachers in English speaking countries have shown that, to varying degrees, the use of English is not only tolerated but also encouraged (Duff & Polio, 1990; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 2001).

**Attitude and Motivation towards the TL**

Other important personality factors that have a tremendous affect on SLA are the learners’ motivation for studying the TL and attitudes towards the culture(s) to which the language belongs. In his seminal work on motivation, Robert Gardner (1985) argued that a person’s motivation for learning an additional language can be either integrative or instrumental. A person who is integratively motivated has a keen interest in the TL and culture and is open-minded and willing enough to become a
member of that linguistic group. An instrumentally motivated person, on the other hand, is someone who desires social recognition or economic gain by knowing a foreign language, and, as a result, has little interest in the culture of the TL or even the language itself. Since fluency in a second language also requires a high level of discourse competence and an understanding of prosodic language (Harmer, 2001), and because integratively oriented learners have a greater desire to interact with native speakers and thereby be exposed to these suprasegmental aspects of language, integrative motivation is considered to be more conducive to successful SLA (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Elaborating on Gardner’s theory, Dörnyei (2002) has pointed out that either type of motivation is not stable and static but is in a continuous process of change that has at least three distinct phases: first, motivation needs to be generated; second, the generated motivation then needs to be actively maintained and protected; and the final phase, motivational retrospection, is when a person’s evaluation of past experiences affects future motivation.

Perhaps the best way for a teacher to encourage his or her students to be more integratively motivated is to expose them to the culture and people of the target language. In an ESL situation this can be achieved by designing field assignments that require students to communicate with native speakers in their community. In an EFL learning environment, the teacher could set up a monitored message or chat group on a social media application like WhatsApp with people from a country where English is widely spoken. Another way to include TL culture is to assign homework that introduces aspects of popular culture through DVDs, CDs, novels and comics, etc. To enhance students’ interest in these assignments, the teacher, time permitting, could first provide the students with a questionnaire inquiring about their hobbies and interests and then individually pick suitable materials for each student. And lastly, since instrumentally motivated students would be more likely to study for an exam, the teacher could incorporate proficiency-type tests as well as the standard achievement tests into the syllabus; this inclusion would also test students’ guessing abilities since it would contain items that have not been covered in the course.

Although this advice may be helpful for students who have a potential interest in becoming more integratively motivated, the instructor must use discretion when using materials associated with the TL culture so as not to alienate learners who are strongly instrumentally motivated (learning only for academic or professional reasons) and thereby be accused of native-speakerism or promoting cultural imperialism. Although these terms are usually discussed in highly socio-political contexts, which are beyond the scope of this paper, they are relevant to psycholinguistic affect due to the manner in which they can potentially influence linguistic self-confidence (LSC), and, consequently, motivation.

Based upon the research results of Bailey (1983) and Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), which illustrated how learners could also be positively or negatively affected by classroom activities, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) surmised that LSC by
extension could also be related to learning processes chosen by the teacher. This redefinition of circumstances under which motivation can be affected resulted in a social constructivist view, which maintains that LSC is affected externally through the learners’ lived experiences (Peirce, 1995; Norton, 1997, 2001; Norton & Gao, 2008; Xu, 2011). In short, learners’ LSC and subsequent motivation are affected by not only how they feel internally about the TL and culture, but also how they perceive external (their instructor, workplace or society at large) expectations of their own TL performance. For example, Hodgson (2014) has shown that many instrumentally motivated learners who valorize native speaker norms of linguistic competence (students who feel that they must attain native-speaker proficiency levels to meet external expectations) have a greater susceptibility to have their LSC negatively affected, and, consequently, their motivation to succeed decreased.

**Empathy**

Perhaps one of the most important factors affecting SLA over which teachers can have a profound influence is the degree to which they can relate to, and establish a good rapport with, their students. The best way to gain the respect and confidence of one’s students (and to avoid being seen as ethnocentric when implementing the previous suggestions for incorporating cultural topics to foster integrative motivation) is to go through the process of learning a second or subsequent language fluently oneself. Especially in EFL contexts, it can have a significant positive affect for instructors to learn their students’ L1 and “get into the skin of the foreign learner rather than that of the ‘native speaker’” (Jenkins, 2000, p. 221). Aside from the obvious advantage of enabling oneself to communicate more effectively and respectfully in the community in which one is living, it can also have very positive pedagogical effects, such as being able to conduct contrastive analysis and thereby design materials or adopt teaching methods that make the learning outcomes more intelligible for students. Although there are fewer professional and personal advantages to learn a subsequent language for instructors working in ESL environments with linguistically diverse students, the effort can still provide an experience that is essential for building successful empathetic relationships with students, especially if the TL is from a different language family and therefore more challenging. For teaching a subsequent language is not simply the mechanical transfer of grammatical knowledge from one person to another, but a psychological process that is either positively or negatively influenced by numerous inter-related, affective variables. And only by having gone through the “laborious process” of acquiring a subsequent language can language instructors “have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of their learners” (Phillipson, 1992, p. 195), anticipate and prevent language difficulties (Medgyes, 1994) and enhance the motivation of their students by providing a good model of a successful language learner (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001). Furthermore, since time has a tendency to negatively affect memory, it is suggested that instructors make a continuous effort to learn a new language every time they have achieved a high level of proficiency in another; just
as adults, when disciplining children, often forget how they felt in their childhood, successful SLA users are also susceptible of forgetting the feelings they had when they were beginners.

**Conclusion**

Failure is not a desirable ambition, and one would assume that whoever engages in the field of education would have enough empathy to not wish such a negative result for any of his or her students after weeks or months in a language classroom. One would also conjecture that professionals in this field would do everything they could to assist their learners in accomplishing their linguistic goals. Therefore, when conducting diagnostic testing at the beginning of a course to determine students’ knowledge of and proficiency in the TL, it is suggested that one also take into consideration the potential psycholinguistic variables of the participants for remedial pedagogical purposes through the use of questionnaires, interviews or continuous observation. Granted, this may not be a practical suggestion for all instructors, especially those with numerous and/or large classes. However, awareness and acknowledgement of these affective factors can help assist instructors to meet their pedagogical goals; rather than dismiss a failing students’ efforts due to negative behavioral traits such as academic lethargy (or perhaps for simply not having “the knack”), an instructor can consider some of the psycholinguistic variables discussed in this paper and then adopt a different approach towards that student.

The successful acquisition of an additional language is a time-consuming and often emotionally stressful process that requires not only strict self-discipline on behalf of the language learner but also positive encouragement and understanding from the language instructor. Granted, a teacher can only teach effectively if his or her students have the will and desire to learn. But, if this is true, then one must also assert that a student can only learn successfully if his or her teacher is willing and able to take the time to consider all of the affective variables that may potentially influence student progress. Student attitudes about their linguistic abilities and their views towards the TL at the beginning of a foreign language course are not necessarily the same as the ones with which they finish it. Whether or not these views turn positive or negative is, in large part, greatly affected by the teaching styles and methods of the language teacher. Although he or she cannot control the various experiences that students will have outside of the language classroom, by considering the learning styles and personality traits outlined in this paper, the language teacher can have a profound effect on how students feel about the TL, and, more importantly, themselves.
References


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Chapter 11

Trainee Teachers’ Perceptions Towards Using Constructivist Pedagogy to Foster Deep Learning Approaches to the Study of Literature at Lower Secondary

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Abstract

This case study investigates trainee teachers’ perceptions towards using constructivist pedagogy to encourage deep learning approaches in their prospective students to study English literature during the first three years of secondary school based upon their own experience of constructivism in the literature teaching methodology module of their teacher education course. Methodologically, reflexive journals, lesson plans, and a focus group discussion have been used as qualitative data collection tools. Findings revealed that the constructivist approach used in the EFL/ESL literature teaching methodology module motivated trainee teachers to adopt deep approaches to learning which helped to develop their teacher-efficacy. Findings further highlighted that trainee teachers perceive constructivism to be in line with the changed position and role of literature in the reformed National Curriculum Framework which focuses on the study of literature. The findings also indicated that trainee teachers perceived constructivism as an appropriate pedagogy to enhance deep learning approaches to studying literature at lower secondary where the focus is on appreciation, critical thinking, and creativity.

1. Introduction

The change in the educational system in Mauritius following the implementation of the NYBCE: Nine Year Continuous Basic Education (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Tertiary Education and Scientific Research, 2016) has had a ripple effect in the form of a top-down policy where macro decisions have had implications at both meso and micro levels in terms of curricular change, teacher training and teaching and learning at school level. As a foundational pillar in the NYBCE, curricular change is clearly exemplified in the revisions of the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) and Teaching and Learning (T & L) Syllabi for subjects across primary and lower secondary levels of education (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Tertiary Education and Scientific Research, 2016).
The shift from teacher-centred and exam-oriented pedagogies to constructivist pedagogies illustrates the operationalisation of another foundational pillar of the NYBCE which is that of innovative pedagogies within the Mauritian context (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Tertiary Education and Scientific Research, 2016). In line with the policy changes at macro-level, at meso-level, the Mauritius Institute of Education (MIE) under the aegis of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources (MoEHR) is responsible to implement andragogic changes at teacher training level. The aim is to ensure that prospective teachers are equipped with the appropriate pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to use inductive learner-centred and process-oriented approaches at grass root level.

The educational reform of the NYBCE in the form of curricular change has influenced the revised National Curriculum Framework (NCF) for English at lower secondary (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017). The integration of English and literature in the revised NCF caters for the holistic development of learners in terms of communicative proficiency and cultural emancipation as there is a need to make English more accessible, meaningful, and useful for Mauritian learners.

In a bid to understand the context, it is fundamental to cast a cursory glance at the position and role of English within Mauritius. The teaching and learning of English is a complex affair which can be attributed to the ambivalent position that English holds within the Mauritian context as it is deemed to be the official language of the country as well as the medium of instruction. Yet only 0.4% of the population consider English as a first language (Mahadeo-Doorgakant, 2016), while the majority of Mauritians consider English to be a foreign language. In a nutshell, the ambiguous position and role of English is a legacy of a myriad of historical, sociolinguistic, and economic factors: double colonization by the French and British, problematic language-in-education policies, and the status of Mauritius as a Small Island Developing State (SIDS), serving as a luxurious tourist destination and a hub for foreign investment where English remains an international lingua franca.

In the revised NCF (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017), the position of literature has changed dramatically in contrast to the previous NCF for English (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Tertiary Education and Scientific Research, 2009). Although a skills-based communicative curriculum is still foregrounded, unlike the previous NCF, literature is no longer relegated to the periphery. On the contrary, with a subsection devoted to the importance of Literature within the revised NCF (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017), it is clear that Literature is an integral part of this revised curriculum. In line with international trends on the integrated curriculum for English and Literature in the EFL/ESL contexts (Bloemert, Jansen, & van de Grift, 2016; Nguyen, 2016), the revised NCF focuses on developing and enhancing learners’ knowledge of literature which is predominantly a skills-based approach to literature as opposed to knowledge about literature which is a content-based approach to the subject (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017). Literature as
per the revised NCF is espoused as a subject that harnesses the development of higher order transferable skills such as critical thinking and creativity in addition to being advocated as a resource to develop language skills and hailed as a powerful means to cater for the holistic emancipation of learners (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017).

Due to the marked change in the position and role of literature, literature teaching methodology modules at teacher training level at the MIE have been aligned to expose teacher trainees to skills-based constructivist pedagogies to teach literature in EFL/ESL contexts as per the requirements of the reformed NCF at lower secondary. The didactic modules are also designed to motivate trainees to adopt deep approaches to learning in terms of the relevance of the content to their profession, the choice of assessment tasks, and the panoply of teaching strategies, tools and resources used within the course.

According to Entwistle and Peterson (2004), learning approaches and processes vary as a result of learning contexts. Learners adopt surface or deep approaches to learning based on their learning environment which is influenced by a myriad of factors (Oogarah-Pratap, 2009). Deep approaches to learning are characterised by an accentuated degree of personal and professional commitment to learning and genuine appreciation and interest in the area of study. Learners adopting deep approaches to learning make the most of their cognitive ability where the learning process is deemed meaningful (Howie & Bagnall, 2013). As learners, they become intrinsically motivated to understand, conceptualise and reflect upon the subject and develop interdisciplinary associations with other subjects (Mazlum, Cheraghi, & Dasta, 2015). In contrast, surface approaches to learning are both exam-oriented and product-oriented. Learners do not optimise their cognitive ability and rely on memorisation and other superficial learning strategies (Biggs & Tang, 2007). They are neither motivated to draw from prior knowledge nor build upon their metacognitive skills, and their level of knowledge and understanding of the subject remains at a superficial level.

Research on tutors’ epistemological beliefs about teaching and learning has shown to have an impact on the choice of approaches to learning by learners. Oogarah-Pratap (2009) clarifies that tutors who embrace a transmissive understanding of teaching and learning have a preference for the use of surface teaching strategies which favour passive learning and encourage superficial learning strategies such as memorisation and rote learning, leading to a surface approach to learning. Contrarily, tutors who embrace a constructivist approach to teaching will use a plethora of active and collaborative teaching strategies to not only build on prior knowledge of the learners, but to challenge them to use problem-solving and inquiry-based techniques to question and further understand and reflect on what they are learning which ultimately motivates learners to adopt a deep approach to learning.
The use of a constructivist approach at andragogic level in the literature teaching methodology module inclusive of strategies and resources such as dialogic discussion, case studies, creative/reflective projects and independent research is two-pronged. On the first level, these have been deployed in a bid to motivate trainee teachers to adopt deep approaches to learning so that they can reflect on the benefit of using such approaches first hand. This is in line with the work of Felder and Brent (2005) who emphasise that one of the key goals of instruction is to push learners to adopt deep approaches to learning for both professional and personal emancipation. Anecdotal evidence from trainee teachers such as dialogic discussions and informal chats have highlighted that as former learners at secondary level, they previously adopted a surface approach to learning for the study about literature for several pertinent reasons: a content-based approach to literature and the use of exam-oriented, information-based, and teacher-centred pedagogies by their teachers.

On a second level, given that trainee teachers have a pivotal role to play in ensuring that inductive pedagogies are implemented at grass root level within the Mauritian context, constructivism has been used to further build the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) of the trainees inductively. Within the literature teaching methodology module, trainees have not only been exposed to constructivist strategies and resources to build their PCK, but they have been encouraged to focus on the use of constructivist pedagogy in the preparation of their literature classes for lower secondary level so that they are better equipped to transfer and adapt this approach in their prospective classes.

In the following sections, this paper gives a bird’s eye overview of the literature on deep and surface approaches to learning before proceeding to a description of the methodological design for this empirical study.

2. Literature Review

The prevalent literature on deep approaches and surface approaches to learning has been an area of interest since the 1970s (Mazlum et al., 2015). Extant literature has predominantly concentrated on learners’ deep and surface approaches to learning at tertiary level. It may be argued that research in this area has been catalytic in regards to improvements in higher education and teacher training institutions as well as curriculum and syllabus development (Howie & Bagnall, 2013). Although a review of the existing literature points to empirical studies on deep and surface approaches to learning at secondary level, this area is not as prevalent. In regards to EFL/ESL contexts, empirical research on deep and surface approaches to learning is still in its embryonic stage, and the existing literature essentially focuses on developing learning approaches to language skills (Chen & Dhillon, 2012) as opposed to literature.
The existing research consists of several conceptual papers which focus on the various frameworks of deep approaches to learning such as the 3P model (Biggs, Kember, & Leung, 2001). There are other papers which concentrate on the different instruments to measure deep and surface approaches to learning such as the revised two-factor study process questionnaire (Biggs et al., 2001), the approaches to study inventory (ASI) (Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983), and the Lancaster approaches to studying questionnaire (LASQ) (Ramsden, 1983). Empirical research focuses on the implementation of the plethora of instruments to measure learning approaches. Existent literature also delves into the factors that affect learning approaches, and there are critiques of the two learning approaches.

In regards to the conceptualisation of approaches to learning, Biggs (2003) propounds that learning approaches vary in accordance to a complex ecosystem which consists of several variables. A key variable is the broad category of learning environment which can be defined as the psychological, pedagogical, and social sub-contexts that enable learning to take place and which has an influence on the learners’ approaches to learning.

A fundamental variable within this complex ecosystem is the self-efficacy of teachers. Teachers’ self-efficacy is the way that teachers structure and deliver their teaching and it relates to their choice of teaching activities, commitment and behaviour (Mazlum et al., 2015). Howie and Bagnall (2013) explicate that teaching factors such as how teachers solicit active participation, provide feedback for assessment, and organise the underlying structure of a course to make it meaningful for the learners will influence the learning approach. According to empirical studies, teachers with high self-efficacy are more willing and able to use innovative strategies and activities in their teaching (Mazlum et al., 2015).

From the review of the literature, there is scant empirical research conducted on deep and surface learning approaches to literature teaching under curricular reform where an EFL/ESL integrated curriculum is offered at secondary level. This empirical study adds to the existing literature as it not only focuses on the trainees’ perceptions of using deep learning approaches following the use of constructive strategies, activities, and resources within their literature teaching methodology module, but it also investigates whether these trainees are propelled to adopt similar constructivist pedagogy in the future to motivate their prospective students to adopt deep learning approaches to the study of literature at lower secondary level.
3. Methodology

3.1 Overarching research question

How do trainee teachers perceive constructivism as part of an appropriate pedagogy to foster deep learning approaches to the study of literature at lower secondary level in Mauritius, based on their own experience of a constructivist approach as trainee teachers in their Literature Teaching Methodology module?

3.2 Sub research questions

To what extent are trainee teachers motivated to adopt deep learning approaches in their literature teaching methodology module following the use of constructivist approach at andragogic level?

How far do trainee teachers perceive constructivism as an appropriate pedagogy to motivate their future students to adopt a deep learning approach to the study of literature at lower secondary?

What type of constructivist strategies and activities do trainee teachers propose to foster deep learning approaches at lower secondary?

3.3 Design of qualitative case study

This qualitative case study is an intersection of socio-constructivist and transformative paradigms. The dynamics of the transformative paradigm are operational as the status quo of power, privilege, and marginal positionalities are challenged as a group of trainee teachers are given the onus to become agents of their own knowledge capacity. In this empirical study, trainees are given opportunities to change their learning approaches and further develop their PCK and curricular knowledge in a bid to move away from traditional teacher-centred pedagogies. The socio-constructivist paradigm is also embedded as the active participation of the selected sample is vital in capturing and analysing emerging data that focuses on the perspectives, feelings, and beliefs of the participants not only as complex individuals but as a socially interactive community.

3.4 Duration of the study and class demographics

Multifarious constructivist strategies, activities, and resources were used during the 45-hour module during the second semester of the final year of the post-graduate certificate in education (PGCE) course. The class consisted of a diverse group of 12 teacher trainees between 22-29 years of age. All the trainees had an undergraduate degree in English inclusive of Literature from the University of Mauritius with results ranging from 1st class honours to 2nd Class Honours second division.
3.5 Purposive sample

The purposive sample selected for this study was neither extreme nor atypical. The sample was based on three criteria: character profile, attendance at different schools as secondary students, and lastly, 80% attendance during the literature teaching methodology module to ensure that they were present and exposed to the range of constructivist strategies used during the module.

Three participants were chosen. One was an extrovert who enjoyed participating in class discussions and activities, whereas another was an introvert who was more reticent. The third participant was representative of the typical student: a balance between an extrovert and introvert.

The three participants had previously attended different secondary schools. The first participant came from a state secondary school, the second from a private college, and the third from a confessional secondary school. When gathering anecdotal evidence, the three participants revealed that they had adopted a surface learning approach to the study of literature at both secondary and tertiary levels. All three had 100% attendance for the literature teaching methodology module.

Each participant was given an informed consent letter which explained the aim and duration of the project as well as their voluntary role in the study. It also stated that they could withdraw from the study at any given time without violating their statutory rights. The letter accentuated that confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained throughout the research.

3.6 Data collection tools

Reflexive journals, lesson plans, and a focus group discussion were the three data collection tools used to collect data for this study. Whilst the lesson plans were collected during the running of the module, the reflexive journals were collected during the last week of the module. Throughout the module, the trainees were given time to write in the journals. The focus group discussion was conducted at the end of the module. Triangulation of the data from the multiple qualitative sources allowed for the internal validation of data.

Reflexive journals: Reflexive journaling was the first data collection tool as it allowed participants to take cognizance of their experience of being recipients of constructivist strategies, activities, and resources in the literature teaching methodology module. It gave the participants the opportunity to reflect on the extent this had impacted upon their choice of learning approach. Trainee teachers also had to reflect on how they perceived the use of constructive strategies as a trigger to motivate students at lower secondary to use deep approaches to learning literature.
Lesson plans: A lesson plan per participant was used as the second data collection tool during the twelfth week of the module to capture whether the trainee teachers had adopted and/or adapted constructivist strategies, activities, and resources for the teaching of literature at lower secondary.

Focus group discussion: The third data collection tool was a focus group discussion which was organised at the end of the module. The focus group discussion was deliberately chosen to further probe teacher trainees as well as to triangulate the data from the reflexive journals and lesson plans.

4. Findings

Collation of the salient findings from the three data collection tools was subsequently categorised under the following themes represented in Table 1.

Table 1

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**Theme: Prior knowledge and experience, research, additional readings, case study analysis, group work, discussion, and presentations motivated trainees to develop their own understanding and interpretation which fostered a deep learning approach.**

A recurrent theme to emerge from both the reflexive journals and focus group interview was that prior knowledge and experience, research, additional readings, case study analysis, group work, discussion, and presentations motivated trainees to further develop their own understanding and interpretation of literature teaching which simultaneously motivated them to adopt a deep learning approach. Several participants specified that this enabled them to further develop their own understanding and interpretation of the position of literature within the revised NCF (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017). A broader and deeper curricular understanding of their subject helped to foster a deeper learning approach in the participants as they could better understand the importance of a skills-based curriculum and what it entailed to be a teacher of literature.

Two participants elaborated on how the presentation on the comparative analysis of the previous NCF to the revised NCF was a useful and meaningful activity, as it enabled them to trace the changes in the role and position of literature and make their own conclusions of why literature has been given more prominence. In a journal entry for one of the participants, it is written that: “What I really appreciated on the 24th of July was that we were all given the opportunity to rethink and frame our own conceptualisation of literatures of English.” Another participant reported that “by revisiting the performative dimension of literature in the NCF (2017) and the language competencies in the Teaching and Learning Syllabus, I realized how the different types of speaking skills could be enhanced.”
Similar types of entries emphasise the keenness of participants to extend their own understanding of literature within the skills-based NCF (Mauritius Institute of Education, 2017) and question their own initial preconceptions and misconceptions of literature. This view is further corroborated in the focus group discussion where the participants asserted how building from their own experience and knowledge empowered them to read, analyse, and critique the revised NCF and subsequently discuss their impressions in small groups, which in turn, allowed them to question their own initial underlying conceptions/misconceptions about the role and position of literature in the Mauritian context.

In both the reflexive journals and in the focus group interview, subjects mentioned how additional independent readings, group work and class room discussions motivated them to engage more in the module especially in regard to the various literature approaches.

Theme: Creative group project work, case study analysis, and role play were enjoyable, and when used as assessment, trainees felt motivated to adopt a deep learning approach to learning.

In line with deep approaches to learning, another recurrent theme to emerge was how teacher trainees not only found the constructive strategies, activities and resources different and interesting, but how their experience of being recipients of these were described as enjoyable and further motivated them to try their best in terms of active learning and participation.

One of the participants succinctly wrote in the last entry for the reflexive journal that, “At the end of this module, I feel more passionate about the teaching profession.” Prior to this entry, she enthused about creating authentic resources such as puppets and a magic box for a lesson plan on poetry. She elaborated that even though she was not very good at arts and crafts, she wanted to ensure that the magic box was presented in the most creative way possible and devoted much time to research and design the resource. Another participant also described how much she liked the 10-minute literary debates and how she was motivated to practise at home so that she could win. Playing the devil’s advocate was another activity that was much appreciated and one which the participants eagerly anticipated.

In the focus group interview, one participant enthusiastically described how her group would listen very carefully to other groups’ discussions just to deconstruct their arguments. Likewise, all participants in the focus group interview mentioned that they enjoyed the group project where they had to create their own anthology for a particular grade at lower secondary based on their understanding of the revised NCF and justify their choices in the form of a group presentation. Emanating from the discussion was how the participants found the constructivist strategy of inquiry-
based learning in the form of an anthology coupled with the collaborative nature of the task to be enjoyable and highly motivating.

From a different angle, the lesson plans further mirrored how teacher trainees attempted to make their lessons more enjoyable in a bid to engage and interest secondary school learners. The quality of the lesson plans inclusive of adapted and adopted constructivist strategies accentuates their deep motives and deep learning approach to the methodology module, and this resonates with a journal entry from one of the participants who reported that, “According to me, a successful literature educator is not one who only motivates her/his students approach literature but s/he should also be someone who remains motivated through his/her love and commitment to the subject…Like me, I want my prospective secondary school students to value and ‘live’ literature.”

Theme: Constructivism is an effective pedagogical approach that should be used to enhance secondary school learners to adopt a deep approach to learning for the study of literature.

All three participants firmly asserted that they believed that constructivism would motivate secondary school students to engage in the study of literature. A journal entry by one of the participants encapsulates this belief: “I learnt how an eclectic constructivist approach can be used to teach literature. Whether it is in the shape of an image, a song, an audio or just little poem or just a discussion on what students already experience or know, students can learn to embrace literature not merely as a taught subject but as their passion as well.”

This is later substantiated by a second journal entry where the participant showed reflect-for-action by writing the following: “I believe that through simple efforts and the exposure to constructivist strategies, I can render my literature classes more vibrant for my learners which I am planning to do and which will motivate them to take the subject seriously.” From this it can be inferred that the participant is already thinking of how to use constructive strategies so secondary students can adopt a deep approach to learning. This is further corroborated by the reflection of another participant who wrote, “I ask myself the ‘what’ question: what can I do as a prospective literature educator to make my students feel connected to literature… I have come to understand that through the use of various activities like role-play and project work, literature can be an engaging subject that students can relate to and take an interest in. ….Today’s class has made me reflect on my role as an educator and the extent to which I can have agency in the type of lesson plans that I can create which will influence the learning of my learners… It will be interesting to ‘experiment’ to see whether these approaches and strategies work in practice, within a real classroom setup with real students.”
The same participant during the focus group discussion elaborated on how she believes that constructivism will effectively engage the participation of learners who have previously been exposed to teacher-centred and information-based pedagogies, where they were required to rote learn information from guides, and who as a result had an aversion to literature. Participants further discussed how during the literature teaching methodology module, they were challenged to rethink about their own role in increasing the level of engagement and interest of their students. Interestingly, one of the participants accentuated how important it was for them to be clear about the various constructivist strategies that could be used to ensure that learners would feel encouraged to try their best in studying literature that they would find meaningful.

Theme: Evidence of a range of constructivist strategies, activities and resources.

Analysis of the three lesson plans by the participants in week 12 corroborates the findings from the reflective journals and the focus group discussion which indicate that the participants perceived constructivist pedagogies as appropriate for secondary school students to adopt a deep approach to learning for the study of literature. One participant designed a lesson where the learners had to reconstruct a poem based on their understanding of coherence and cohesion, whilst another designed a lesson where different groups had to create questions which another group would use to analyse a poem. The third participant designed a lesson where readers’ theatre would be used for a specific text to draw on the performative aspect of literature which would build on the confidence of the learners. In their justifications, the participants asserted how they thought their choice of learning outcomes, strategies, and activities were in line with the requirements of the NCF and would spark the interest of the learners and develop a deep approach to learning for literature. It is clear from the above analysis that the trainee teachers were engaging in reflection-for-action as prospective teachers at secondary level. Evidenced in the participants’ three lesson plans were the use of a range of questions and games to build upon prior knowledge and experience of their prospective students as well as group work, discussion, and project work. Paraphrastic and information-based pedagogies were clearly missing, and a more inductive approach was embraced.

Theme: Evidence of alternative assessment tasks such as role play and creative projects.

Evidenced in two of the lesson plans were alternative assessment tasks in line with those of inductive pedagogies and similar to those used in the methodology module. One participant included a creative group project where students had to create the ending of a poem and then present it to the class in the form of a slam. The other participant included a research assessment piece where students had to create a video of an interview with Shakespeare. The two examples illustrate that a more creative angle had been taken into account to motivate adolescent learners to embrace a deep approach to learning.
An interesting theme that emanated from the raw data was that the three participants initially found the use of constructivist strategies and approaches to be challenging, and that it took them several weeks to adjust and get accustomed to the module. During the focus group discussion, when probed further, participants discussed how they felt overwhelmed during the first few weeks because their initial expectation of the literature teaching methodology module was to have lectures and reading material that they would need to learn in order to pass the course. This could explain why there were minimum entries at the beginning of the module and why the entries were mostly descriptive in contrast with subsequent reflective journal entries.

In the focus group interview, they were particularly keen to highlight that the dialogic discussions at the beginning where the tutor took the role of a participant were challenging because they were not used to discussing and challenging the tutor. However, in varying degrees, teacher trainees also iterated how the tutor’s attitude towards them made it easier for them to actively participate in the activities and strategies as they were encouraged to participate in class without inhibitions. One participant elaborates that once she got used to the activities and strategies and was clear about what was required in terms of class participation and assessment, she was more comfortable and gradually became enthusiastic to participate in class and embrace the constructivist activities and prepare beforehand.

5. Discussion

The salient findings from this case study reveal that although the three participants found the array of constructivist strategies challenging at the beginning of the module, they gradually became motivated to embrace deep approaches to learning when they saw the purpose of the course, understood the assessment requirements, enjoyed the constructivist strategies, and became more comfortable and confident towards the tutor. The fact that the trainees were able to change their learning approach due to several variables in the learning environment substantiates previous research (Entwistle & Peterson, 2004), which shows that the learning approach of learners is far from being fixed and is also influenced by various factors in the learning environment.

In line with previous research (Mazlum et al., 2015), the degree of the tutor’s self-efficacy empowered the participants to adopt a deep approach to learning. Interestingly, self-efficacy in terms of behaviour, attitude, assessment tasks, and teaching strategies triggered episodes of high cognitive ability in terms of reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, and reflection-for-action from the participants, which in turn helped develop their self-efficacy. The findings reflect their increased...
confidence in making independent decisions on how to enhance their literature teaching pedagogy as well as change their attitude towards the subject.

In line with existing research on the impact of the tutor’s epistemological beliefs on the learning approaches of learners (Oogarah-Pratap, 2009), this study corroborates that the constructivist philosophy of the tutor impacted positively on trainee teachers’ adopting a deep approach to learning for the module. Interestingly, the findings from this study also extend this point in the sense that the epistemological beliefs of the tutor also influenced the epistemological beliefs of the trainee teachers who embraced the constructivist approach and were eager to use this at secondary level to further change the learning approach of their students.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this case study was to investigate to what extent constructivism motivated trainee teachers to adopt a deep learning approach in their literature teaching methodology and whether they would adopt a similar pedagogy for the teaching of literature at lower secondary to foster a deep learning approach in their students. The findings indicate that constructivist strategies, activities, and resources made studying for this module more meaningful for the trainee teachers, and they adopted a deep learning approach to their module. The findings also reveal that the trainee teachers were enthusiastic to use constructivist pedagogy to teach literature at lower secondary as it was perceived to be in line with the curricular reform as proposed in the integrated NCF for English, and that they wanted their students to not only enjoy the subject but study it in a more meaningful manner. However, additional empirical research is required to investigate whether constructivism actually motivates secondary school EFL/ESL learners to adopt a deep approach to learning for the study of literature at lower secondary at grass root level.
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Chapter 12

“Englishing” the L1: Reconsidering the Use of the Mother Tongue EFL Classroom

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Abstract

A standing tradition in EFL has emphasized that for effective learning to occur, classroom practices should be conducted solely in the target language. Whilst this view has been prevalent for a long time, a better understanding of the role of the mother tongue has motivated practitioners to re-consider traditional practices in favour of more inclusive and encompassing ones. This short-scale study focuses on mature learners of EFL at an ab-initio level in compulsory education to negotiate basic communication in English. This is what we refer to as “Englishing,” or the successful use of existing linguistic knowledge in L1 to solve communicative problems in English through metacognition. Although it is not possible to generalize results, the experience showed that the L1 becomes an effective tool enabling mature learners to transfer expertise between languages, whilst helping them to develop learning autonomy through shared cognition.

1. Introduction

The perception that the use of the mother tongue or first language (L1) when learning a second or additional language (L2) hinders learning has prevailed for a long time in the field of second and foreign language didactics. A quick look at teacher training manuals produced between the 1980s and early 1990s (Asher, 1986; Halliwell & Jones, 1991) shows that the advice given to trainee teachers at the time encouraged an intransigent attitude towards the L1 to the point of viewing this as the root of all evils in the language classroom. These views emerged largely as a result of the popularity of the audio-lingual method whose theoretical framework was underpinned by the principles of behaviorism. The “scientific” dimension attached to this method — it was the first time that a teaching approach was sustained from tenets coming from psychology and linguistics — gave it a special status and credibility that remained unchallenged for over five decades. For
behaviorists, learning an additional language resembled the acquisition of the L1, which was basically seen as a habit based on oral input and repetition for accurate output. In the L2 classroom, learning was facilitated and encouraged by long language drills with the aim of developing grammatical and phonemic accuracy at the expense of fluency (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Needless to say, errors were not tolerated as they were seen as undesirable habits that needed to be eradicated as soon as they occurred to avoid language fossilization (Lado, 1957).

It is undeniable that the above position enjoyed — and in some countries still does — some considerable reputation to the point of shaping teaching and learning practices and setting important precedents for pre- and in-service teachers’ (dis-)beliefs and attitudes. At some point in my professional development, as it was the status quo of the time, I followed the theoretical perspectives of the audio-lingual method to the letter. This included banning my students from using their L1 whilst insisting, time and time again, on the exclusive use of English in the classroom. This was even the case when my common sense would indicate that this insistence was pointless as the students at that time in their learning experience were not able to utter a word in English. In fact, my continuous insistence on “English only” often resulted in students’ feeling frustrated and disengaged, contributing to long-term absences whilst increasing their apprehension of speaking publicly for fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed by their peers. It was very clear to me that the “English only” policy did not contribute to create a positive learning atmosphere but, on the contrary, it promoted high levels of anxiety, trepidation and disengagement. With some years of experience upon my shoulders, I can now see that should I have taken a more lenient approach in relation to the use of the L1, I would have been able to capitalize on my learners’ existing linguistic knowledge and skills in their mother tongues as a tool to scaffold their learning of English. The theoretical framework underpinning this study, therefore, is based on the role of the mother tongue in the learning of an additional language, in particular English as a foreign language (EFL). One of the purposes guiding this small-scale project is to explore the role of the language learning strategies, fundamentally those involving the L1 within instructed L2.

2. Literature Review on the Use of L1 in L2 Teaching and Learning

Different views and approaches have developed over time rejecting and, more recently, advocating for the use of the mother tongue when learning another language. From the point of view of a traditional pedagogy, some authors such as Lado (1957), Krashen and Terrell (1983) and Pennycook (1994), indicate that in order for an effective acquisition of an L2 to take place, it is necessary to do away with the mother tongue to minimize instances of negative transfer, which can result in the development of different types of errors (Pacek, 2003). The tradition of excluding the L1 when learning an L2 has been widely criticized by Cook (2001) and Jiang (2002) as they are of the idea that the use of the L1 enables new
knowledge in L2 to be strengthened, a position also shared by Auerbach (1993), Mitchell (1988), Phillipson (1992), Schweers (1999), and Wells (1999).

The objections to the traditional perspective are formulated from varied positions but more notably from the perspective of pure linguistics and psycholinguistics as well as other disciplines such as socio-cultural theory, ethnolinguistics, and critical theory. In principle, if we accept the hypothesis of the affective filter as proposed by Krashen (1987), we need to acknowledge that positive emotions enable learning. The inherent limitations of monolingual speakers when using the L2 in situations where they may well use their common language (L1) tend to increase anxiety whilst significantly decreasing motivation and self-confidence, as argued by Agustín (2007). Other perspectives are more radical and critical and see language in direct relationship with the speakers’ identity and subjectivity. Within these critical positions, we find those that emphasize the construction of identity, a dynamic process which is carried out with and through the mother tongue (Schweers, 1999; Brown, 2000). Overall, these positions argue that the imposition of an L2 as the only means of communication in a group of monolingual speakers restrain individual and collective identities (Ricento, 2005), negatively affect the development of the self (Norton, 2000), strip individuals of their subjectivities (Weddon, 1987/1997), and deny their linguistic and cultural capitals (Bourdieu, 1980; Loos, 2000).

The above views, although largely debatable, provide two interesting possibilities: on one hand, they invite us to reflect upon teaching and learning practices based solely on the exclusive use of an L2, and on the other, they also prompt us to reconsider the role of the mother tongue when learning another language. In this sense, unlike traditional pedagogy, the advantages of using the mother tongue in the context of EFL becomes a tool for scaffolding L2 learning and for facilitating metacognition, allowing learners to identify and transfer different strategies to the new language. The role of L1 in learning an L2, therefore, enables students not only to produce new linguistic knowledge (Martín Martín, 2000), but also adds to the process of development and negotiation of their individual identities thus contributing to the construction of individual subjectivities (Erdocia & Ruiz, 2016) whilst adding symbolic value to their linguistic and cultural capital (Noguera, 1996).

In this context, the present study aims to reconcile the aforementioned perspectives by focusing on a model of instruction based on the strategic learning of languages, a research topic that has been widely investigated from the point of view of cognitive science (Chamot, 2004; Oxford, 2011) and systematized by Chamot (2004). The design of Chamot’s model consists of three stages planned by the teacher, namely: (a) the identification of the strategies to be used in the lessons following an assessment of learners’ linguistic needs which is carried out a priori, (b) the facilitation of opportunities to use key language strategies, and (c) the
design of tasks for the consolidation of learning. According to Chamot (2004),
language strategies can be taught, and this model is based on a mental dimension
that considers language to be the product of cognition. Whilst such a position holds
some truth, it is important to consider language as a social and cultural product that
is not developed in the mind of the speakers regardless of the context in which it is
used, but quite the opposite: language is shaped by a socio-cultural dimension and,
as such, it is a cultural instrument with a mediational function (Vygotsky, 1978).
Therefore, we argue that Chamot’s instruction model needs to be revised and
adapted to reflect the above position more accurately.

In principle, we need to consider that my learners were inserted in a learning
community where novices (or less experts) learned from the more experienced ones
(i.e., the teacher or more advanced peers). Learning communities are akin to
communities of practice, which Wenger (1999) defines as social groups generated
to develop specialized knowledge (in this case language learning), where
individuals are engaged in a reflection of their own learning experiences with the
aim of strengthening their interactions as well as the practices they are involved in.
Learning, therefore, results from the relationships that take place within a group
whereby the less experienced members progressively abandons the periphery to
align themselves to the practice of the professional community. Consequently, it is
necessary to highlight the collaborative aspect and the social dimension of learning
as one of the defining features of these communities. Additionally, as the focus
moves away from the cognitivist perspective, the “new” angle to consider is the
mediating role of language that is used to activate previous knowledge. This is
useful in so far as it allows the members of the community to reflect and identify
future learning opportunities that are negotiated and agreed by the members.

Communities of practice have been defined as social groups that produce
specialized knowledge because of shared reflection (i.e., metacognition or located
cognition) of the practical experiences that the participants are involved in (Lave &
Wenger, 1991). These experiences make sense in that they enable individuals to
build and reproduce knowledge (Wenger, 1999). In the context of this study, I
adhere to Wenger, McDermott and Snyder’s (2002) definition who explain that a
community of practice is a “group of people who share an interest, a set of
problems, or a passion on a subject, that serve to deepen knowledge and experience
in a given area through the continuous interaction of the participants that also
contribute to strengthen their relationships” (p. 18). One of the fundamental aspects
of a community of practice is the ability of its members to reflect on learning or
“learning to learn” (metacognition) (Garrison & Akyol, 2013). According to this
view, learning takes place in and through continuous interaction amongst
participants that involves a reciprocal process of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner &
Ross, 1976). Within this study, I conceived my class as a learning community
characterized by the social practices of teaching and learning EFL where, at times,
the more experienced members (me and more advanced learners) cooperated with
the less experienced ones, supporting one another through the L1 as a tool for scaffolding and metacognition.

3. Methodology

The study aimed to determine the degree of certainty of the following assumptions:

- The use of L1 strategies can be transferred to learn a L2.
- The linguistic capital acquired in L1 helps regulate learning and enables learners to use a wide range of mechanisms to assimilate and put the L2 knowledge into practice.
- The learning community (community of practice) encourages the development of collaboratively learning of an L2.

To verify these assumptions, the study set out to identify the role of L1 learning strategies in order to facilitate the use of an L2 at a beginner level (A1), using Chamot’s (2004) model as a starting point. The study followed a case study methodology framed within the model of practitioner research (Menter, Elliot, Hulme, Lewin, & Lowden, 2011). This variant is characterized by a participatory nature and professional praxis. By professional praxis, we understand the use of reflective practice (Schön, 1987) in an attempt to develop and enhance teachers’ professional competences (Freire, 1970; Allwright, 2005). The project followed an interpretive approach as the aim was to understand the learners’ ideas and beliefs about the role of their L1 when learning English rather than quantifying instances of use of the L1 in the classroom. Had the latter approach been used in this study, a wider set of data collected over a much longer time frame would have been necessary to obtain statistically reliable results. Additionally, a completely different design should have been necessary to employ altogether. However, the purposes of the current project, as previously explained, its small-scale nature, and the context where it took place, justify the use of an interpretive approach. The participants were chosen randomly using a probabilistic sample consisting of 32 individuals who shared the same features in terms of age (over 21 years old), purposes for studying English (as a foreign language), and prior experiences with it (limited exposure).

Information was collected using the following techniques:

(a) Students’ portfolio of activities. The learners indicated samples of their work where they used the L1 to complete tasks thus allowing the identification of strategies and skills in L2 that emerged through the mediation of L1.

(b) Participant observations of group tasks or pair work. These random opportunistic observations focused on the use of L1 to identify when and how this was used and assess impact on L2 learning. In total 32 observations were recorded on paper and notes were made under three headings: description of task(s) – students’ responses – interpretation.
Semi-structured group interviews. There were three sets of interviews taking place at the beginning and one at the end of the course with another one occurring at the end of the mid-term. The aim of the interview was to prompt students’ thinking about the use of the L1 with to establish the extent to which the latter contributed or hindered L2 learning.

Given that the focus of this project was on collaborative learning in the context of a community of practice, all the learning tasks required the students to interact in pairs or in small groups to complete activities designed to develop productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing), with listening and reading being used in an ancillary manner. It is important to indicate that the students were encouraged to use English all the time; however, when they found communicative barriers, they used compensatory strategies not to break a message. Such a use of compensatory strategies mediated by L1 allowed students to negotiate meanings with other peers in the way explained below:

Situation: talking about future intentions using “going to + verb”

Aman: I’m going to market buy apples (.)[kall, kall]

Omesh: [kall nu] day after today (...) tomorrow

Aman: yes tomorrow I’m going to market and buy apples

In this situation the learners are talking about plans for the future using simple structures and vocabulary. Aman stops mid-sentence as he needs to use the adverbial item tomorrow, which he cannot remember. Attempting to overcome the gap, he uses body language to convey the meaning and utters an equivalent expression in his mother tongue. These clues are picked up by Omesh, who interprets the message in L1 as “the day after today,” and supplies Aman with the lexical item he needs to finish off his sentence (i.e., tomorrow). Immediately, Aman recovers the information and incorporates the word into his utterance to complete the meaning, and, despite grammatical inaccuracies, Aman successfully communicates his intention. Since the purpose of the task was to develop fluency rather than accuracy, the mistakes were reviewed at a later stage, including delayed feedback, to avoid interrupting the learner whilst he was communicating his ideas. The exchange illustrates the use of compensatory strategies and the L1 for the negotiation of meaning between peers as a form of scaffolding, allowing learners an opportunity to become engaged in thinking together about the target language to monitor production. Although some skeptics may argue that the above example shows nothing but an instance of one learner using direct translation, it is only when an exploration of the mental processes involved in the minds of the two learners is carried out that it is possible to understand the intertwined processes of shared cognition that characterize the exchange in the example.
4. Findings and Discussion

In principle, the learners were asked to indicate each time they employed the L1 in their portfolios. This served the identification of the type of learning instances where the mother tongue provided learners with some assistance and support for the development of English. Understandably, all the portfolios showed that the number of instances of L1 use was far greater at the beginning of the course, where learners tended to transliterate pronunciation or make annotations in L1 in almost all the learning tasks. However, the number of occurrences of L1 varied significantly towards the end of the course with a few instances where no L1 use was recorded at all; nonetheless, these cases were isolated and, as such, were not representative of the whole group. Notwithstanding, all the instances of L1, as illustrated in Table 1, were linked to the following practices:

(a) Checking instructions by underlining key words
(b) Highlighting key vocabulary and structures by making lists
(c) Identifying cognates and semi-cognates
(d) Identifying examples of L2 to model production
(e) Anticipating vocabulary according to topics
(f) Using the L1 for cues and organization of information
(g) Understanding complex grammar information

These occurrences did not take place in isolation, but most of the time they were closely interlinked and, for instance, occurred in this fashion: checking instructions by underlining key words to understand complex grammar information or anticipating key vocabulary by identifying cognates and semi-cognates. Using Oxford’s (2011) taxonomy of language learning strategies, the occurrences identified in the students’ portfolios correspond to the cognitive and memory categories, respectively. Cognitive strategies are skills that involve the manipulation or direct transformation of the language by mechanisms such as reasoning, analysis, note taking, and the functional practice of the L2 in natural environments as well as the formal practice of structures and sounds (Oxford, 2011). Memory strategies, on the other hand, are techniques designed to aid the learners to store new information so that they can retrieve it easily at a later stage. It is not surprising, therefore, to acknowledge that an active combination of these two types of language learning strategies contributed to increase the learners’ cognitive demands to which they responded by employing the L1 to bridge gaps, link experiences and prior knowledge, and hypothesize and predict lexicogrammatical features and uses of the L2. From this evidence, it was plausible to infer that the use of the L1 activated prior linguistic knowledge, predisposed learners to become more receptive of the L2 input and encouraged them to experiment more actively with English using the parameters of L1, thus increasing fluency. Although this latter was achieved at the expense of accuracy, it is important to acknowledge that active experimentation naturally involves making
mistakes; however, in the context of this study, these were not seen as negative occurrences; on the contrary, they determined the “hidden curriculum” (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985) of the course.

The observations followed an unstructured approach and were carried out at different moments of lessons to record how the learners engaged with language tasks in English. These instances were thought of as opportunities to understand when and how the L1 was used and determine the extent to which this facilitated or affected L2 output. The observation focused on random exchanges between two and five minutes long and were analysed according to the language learning strategies employed by the learners following Oxford’s (2011) taxonomy. Whilst I do not speak any of the mother tongues of the learners to be able to understand what they were talking whilst I was observing their language behaviors, the aim of the observations was simply to see what the students were doing with their L1 without passing any judgement on the observed phenomena. To illustrate this point, I recall a project where learners had to work in small groups to practice the function of making suggestions. The brief was to plan a holiday package within an allocated budget that included a variety of recreational activities. The learners, once they had agreed on a way forward, were to pitch their plans to another group of peers using the structures and vocabulary familiar to them. The criteria to choose the best package included affordability, variety of activities, and clarity of the presentation. This is exemplified in Table 1 below where letters in brackets (in bold) have been used to exemplify different strategies.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of task(s)</th>
<th>Student response(s)</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Project: Planning and selling a holiday package. | ...about 8 minutes into the task. A group of three students are brainstorming ideas in L1 (a). One of them is writing down words in English on a piece of paper. Learners are using ‘how much...?’ and ‘how many...?’; I can hear one of them using ‘how long...?’.
As they search the Internet, they write sentences which they | The learners have already discussed the task and have allocated roles (one of them is the scribe, the other one surfs the Internet and the last one holds a coursebook which he uses to seek key words) (b).
They are in the process of identifying key words and structures to draft the script for their presentation. While one |
**Description of task(s)**

Present holiday packages to peers.

**Student response(s)**

then are read out. They re-write the sentences to correct mistakes or improve meaning **(d)**.

**Interpretation**

of them reads out information, the other two provide peer feedback by suggesting amendments and correcting pronunciation **(c) (e)**.

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By looking closely at the interpretation of the event, it is possible to see that, in this particular case, the L1 was used to:

(a) Make sense of the task and establish a plan of action.
(b) Negotiate strategies to complete the task efficiently.
(c) Suggest, accept or reject others’ ideas.
(d) Monitor and adjust progress through peer feedback.
(e) Keep everyone engaged and on task.

In the above example, it is also possible to notice the use of a combination of language learning strategies, such as:

- **Brainstorming** – cognitive strategy
- **Using ‘how much...? How many...? How long...?’** – memory strategy
- **Reading out sentences** – communication strategy
- **Redrafting script; providing and receiving feedback** – metacognitive strategy
- **Working in a small group** – social and affective strategies

Notably, most of the strategies in the observations corresponded to the categories of cognition and memory followed by compensatory, communicative, and metacognitive strategies, in this order. From this analysis, it seems reasonable to speculate that the role of the L1 in group work enabled learners to mentally organize a task whilst encouraging role distribution, engagement, and constant monitoring of progress. These are enabling conditions as they pave the way for L2 learning to take place, creating a positive environment and generating affordances for learning whilst predisposing learners to become more receptive and actively engaged.

Finally, following 18 hours of recorded interviews gathered at three different points during the course involving nine randomly-chosen learners, a considerable
amount of information was produced. The interviews, which are available online\(^1\), were transcribed using the same categories corresponding to language learning strategies applied in the analysis of the observations according to Oxford (2011). The analysis is illustrated in the excerpt below where learner C recounts her experiences of using Urdu, her mother tongue, when learning English (lines are numbered for reference):

1. If I use Urdu when I am studying English, I can understand more because in my mind I can make links between English and words in Urdu. I don’t translate every single word from Urdu to English,
2. but I know key words, and this is all I need to understand a message or to say something. If I have
3. to speak in English all the time, I feel mentally tired and after 20 minutes or so my brain cannot cope with too much information in English and I lose my concentration. However, by alternating
4. between English and Urdu I can focus for a much longer time and when I leave the classroom, I feel
5. that I have achieved something: I have learned new words or new ways of saying something.
6. Besides, it is good to work with my peers who also speak Urdu because we can help each other, and
7. we are not afraid of mistakes because we can correct ourselves and also learn one from the other.
   (Learner C, 04/03, 0:01)

The interviews provided an opportunity to contrast the findings emerging from the analysis of the portfolios and the observations against those coming from the inquiry of the learners’ beliefs and opinions as told in the interviews. Whilst the portfolios and the observations pointed towards a considerable use of cognitive and memory strategies followed by compensatory, communicative, and metacognitive ones, the evidence collected in the interviews suggested that the use of L1 did not follow suit. For example, in the above excerpt, Learner C indicates that the use of English alone results in cognitive overload (lines 4 and 5) which limits her amount of learning and receptiveness. This is the only indication of the use of cognitive or memory strategies; however, the use of words such as *understand, concentration,*

\(^{1}\) A copy of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) can be found at https://richarddpetty.files.wordpress.com/2010/03/sill-english.pdf
achieve, peers, and help, amongst similar others, refer to metacognitive, social, and affective strategies, which Oxford (2004) calls “indirect.” According to Oxford (2004), metacognitive strategies are behaviors used to reinforce, organize and evaluate learning; they go beyond the cognitive domain and are used to develop an executive control of the learning process. The affective strategies, in turn, are techniques such as self-reinforcement and internal dialogue that help learners better control their emotions, attitudes, and motivations whereas social strategies are actions that involve other people in the learning experience. Cooperating with peers is an example of a social strategy.

Having applied a word frequency analysis to the transcriptions of all the interviews, it was possible to identify that the main concepts that featured more frequently were focus, closely followed by able and learn. A summary of the key concepts is provided in Figure 1. The results in the figure are displayed in terms of the relationship between the size of the font denoting a concept and its place in the figure: the more often a concept is mentioned, the bigger the font in the center position. The results emerging from the number of times the above concepts featured in the transcripts indicated that the use of the L1 enabled learners to maintain their focus during the learning experience.

By focus, we can understand “interest,” “engagement,” “active involvement,” and “participation,” amongst other synonyms used by the learners in the interviews. It can be argued, therefore, that the focus enabled students (“[be] able”) to learn
English by establishing “links” with their mother tongue and develop “speaking” skills, which allowed them to “achieve” their learning goals successfully. These views are framed with an understanding of the regulatory role of the affective strategies that appeared to have contributed to balance the cognitive overload experienced by some individual learners, as signposted by learner C in the excerpt above. Whilst this is one possible interpretation out of many, some further inquiry is necessary to determine with greater accuracy the extent of the influence of the L1 in the development and use of indirect language learning strategies to sustain focus in L2. Nonetheless, the findings of this study suggest that the use of the L1:

- helped learners to identify and distinguish a range of strategies in L1 which were used as scaffolding tools to learn an L2;
- allowed learners to develop a greater awareness of the mechanisms involved in L2 learning. As such, it was possible to notice the development of individual and collective metacognition enabling a reflection on their own performance in L2;
- facilitated the linguistic and meta-linguistic reflection through exploratory talk. The learners showed instances of use of the grammatical and pragmatic competences when analyzing and producing contents in L2 using their innate knowledge of their mother tongue/s;
- created opportunities to develop and sustain peer learning through collaboration whereby the learners negotiated such opportunities by receiving and providing feedback to one another;
- promoted the development and use of indirect language learning strategies enabling the learners to identify potential linguistic barriers of different sorts, whilst equipping them with a series of mechanisms to overcome them. These indirect strategies generated positive attitudes toward learning and allowed the learners to regulate learning stress and anxiety.

5. Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to ascertain whether the use of the L1 facilitated or hindered the development of communicative skills in English in a group of adult learners who shared a common mother tongue or, in some cases, more than one. We set out to explore the following postulates: (a) the use of the L1 strategies can be transferred to learn an L2; (b) the linguistic capital acquired in L1 helps regulate learning and enables learners to use a wide range of mechanisms to assimilate and put the L2 knowledge into practice, and (c) the learning community encourages the development of collaborative learning of an L2. The results emerging from the data analysis provided some interesting insights into the role of the L1 when learning English. Having reviewed those results, it is pertinent to say that the L1 was used as a language learning strategy which enabled learners to activate schemata allowing them to link learning situations in English with previous linguistic experiences in L1. Similarly, the examples discussed in this paper show that L1 use allowed the learners to develop a greater awareness of the mechanisms involved in the learning process.
This is, perhaps, the most salient feature of the L1 as it was clear that its use prompted both individual and collective reflection on performance through the constant monitoring of L2 output. Therefore, the use of the L1 became a tool to encourage metacognition and generated opportunities to develop and sustain peer learning through collaboration, scaffolding, and peer feedback. In this respect, the learners were actively engaged in interaction, using exploratory discussion to negotiate language use and skills. Additionally, the L1 promoted the development and use of indirect language learning strategies that helped remove learning barriers by encouraging positive attitudes to overcome stress, insecurities and anxiety. Whilst one of the criticisms to the use of L1 is the tendency to depend on translation, this was not seen as a distinctive feature in the study, and when this was deemed necessary, a communicative approach was followed thus encouraging shared cognition.

Since the scope of this study was limited to one teaching group, the outcomes cannot be generalized; however, it is hoped that the results reported here will motivate instructors to reconsider their views on the use of the L1 as when this is judiciously allowed in the classroom, the conditions for L2 learning tend to improve.

References


Chapter 13

Concepts for the CLIL EFL Classroom

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Abstract

This paper shares cutting edge research from the fields of quantum physics and the Law of Attraction, which has the potential to empower people to achieve their goals, linguistic or otherwise. The concept of “the Four Steps to Learning” from unconscious incompetence through to unconscious competence is also described. These steps are a key element in the process of absorbing any new information or data and are foundational for both students and teachers alike. Another concept to be examined is the “Teachability Index,” which enables learners to evaluate their level of motivation. This motivational element underscores the adage that if you want things in your life to change, you have to change things in your life. Finally, a brief overview of material is given, which if adopted in Content Learning and Integrated Language (CLIL) classrooms, could possibly aid students with their discernment skills as well as empower them. By fostering in learners the necessary skills for fluent communication and motivation, the positive implications are self-evident.

1. Introduction

Content Learning and Integrated Language teaching (CLIL) is becoming increasingly widespread at tertiary institutions across the globe. The objective of this paper is to review a variety of concepts from multiple international fields that could be considered controversial global topics, and yet warrant investigation and research since evidence supporting their conclusions is overwhelmingly strong. In view of the tremendous amount of information available from various digital avenues, it is essential for teachers to lead students to develop critical thinking skills and discernment. This paper discusses leading edge research from quantum physics and universal laws which, when conveyed to learners, integrated, and utilized, can help them to raise their linguistic competencies and gain greater confidence in their beliefs about their language ability and critical thinking skills. It also has the added benefit of raising the recipient’s vibration which means they take more responsibility for their life and empower themselves even further. It is a spiral upward. The reader needs to use discernment when analyzing this paper since a rather controversial issue will be discussed, viz the Law of Attraction. Finally, the Law of Attraction will be defined and illustrated. This law has the potential to empower people to achieve their goals, linguistic or otherwise. Integration of this material from a pedagogic
standpoint will be presented in the form of a brief overview of certain controversial global issues. Firstly, however, the concept that will be examined is the “Teachability Index” (Trudeau, 1995), which enables learners to evaluate their level of motivation. This motivational element underscores the adage that if you want things in your life to change, you have to change things in your life. Secondly, the concept of “the Four Steps to Learning” (Maltz, 2001) from unconscious incompetence through to unconscious competence will be described. These steps are a key element in the process of absorbing any new information or data, and are foundational for both students and teachers alike.

2. Discernment

In view of the tremendous amount of information available from various digital avenues, it is essential for teachers to lead students to develop critical thinking skills and discernment. By fostering in learners the necessary skills for fluent communication, the positive implications are self-evident. The material presented here can develop in learners and teachers alike greater use of discernment, and can potentially make a profound difference to their lives, especially when approaching any new data, be it online or elsewhere. The question we should ask is not how much we know, but how much we do not know. In other words, how teachable are we? How can we help students reflect on and measure their motivation levels?

3. Teachability Index

Before looking at any controversial material that students (and instructors) may be introduced to for a CLIL-based course, consideration of a few points is required. Firstly is the spirit or attitude with which one approaches such material, and this applies to both instructors and learners, and secondly, what has been termed as students’ “Teachability Index.” Everyone has this rating or index, and it shows how easily we can be taught anything. It has two variables: willingness to learn, and willingness to accept change (Trudeau, 1995).

You measure each variable on a scale of 0-10. To get the overall rating, you multiply these two variables together so that the score can be anywhere from 0-100. When people invest time and money in books and classes, they are usually very willing to learn. So it can be claimed that most students enrolled in elective CLIL courses get a 10 for willingness to learn.

However, what is the person’s willingness to accept change? All of the controversial material described later in this article is generally not covered by mainstream media and might be new information. If the person is willing to accept new possibilities and ideas, then the willingness to change is 10, and as such the Teachability Index is closer to 100. If the person is unwilling to change or approach new ideas with an open mind, then his/her score could be zero, and zero multiplied by 10 equals zero (0
So, even if the person gets 10 on the willingness to learn part, if the willingness to change scale is a zero, the person ends up with a zero in Teachability.

Willingness to change also applies to what the person is prepared to give up. If a person loves golf, for example, how willing is the person to put the clubs in the closet for a year in order to learn a new language? If one loves TV, can that person live without the tube so as to achieve their goal, whatever it may be? This is also part of one’s willingness to accept change. This index can be applied to all undertakings and if adopted, can be highly beneficial to the individual.

Some of the material may well be new and different, but if learners keep open minds and are positive, then their overall Teachability Index should be high. This concept is essentially a tool to help learners monitor their motivation levels. The ideas presented in this paper can be likened to Neo in the movie The Matrix (Silver and Bros, 1999) when he took the red pill and “woke up” to speak. If that happens to your learners, then they may enjoy the ride. It must be said though that if learners are to grasp any new aspect or undertaking, it is hoped that they maintain high teachability levels. Again, this notion is applicable to any area of life or endeavor, whether it be learning a new language, a musical instrument, cooking, a new sport, or any other kind of mental or physical pursuit. So, how does one actually learn anything anyway?

4. The Four Steps to Learning

Another important point to consider is that information is really only useful when it has been truly internalized. There is a phrase that “knowledge is power,” but that is only half true. In fact, knowledge is only power if it is remembered and used. The four stages (Maltz, 2001) that anyone goes through when learning any new type of information, such as some of the material presented here, are as follow:

1. Unconscious incompetence: this is the phase where you do not know that you do not know. For example, a child who does not even know about shoelaces is at the unconscious incompetence level when it comes to tying their shoes.

2. Conscious incompetence: this is the stage where you know that you do not know. For example, the same child again now knows what shoelaces are but knows they cannot tie them up.

3. Conscious competence: this is the stage where you know that you know, but you have to consciously think about it whilst doing it. For instance, that child again is now making a conscious effort to tie their shoelaces, and they are practicing and thinking about it while performing the task. They are mentally applying the process. And the old saying that “practice makes perfect” is actually incomplete. The correct saying should be “perfect practice makes perfect.” This is because if you are practicing something incorrectly, you will never perfect it. Practicing it perfectly on a consistent basis propels one to the final and fourth stage of integrating the knowledge or piece of data.
4. Unconscious competence: this is the final phase when the activity, or whatever it is, has become second nature. The information has been internalized and is a part of your inner being and core. For example, that young boy or girl who had been tying their shoelaces for so long can now do it without even thinking about it (just as we all do as adults). It is like knowing your own name. That process has become automatic. This is the stage that we want our students to arrive at with regards to acquiring new words, new grammar points, and ultimately any new data. When it has been assimilated and integrated, one is unconsciously competent.

These steps are the learning process of any new activity, be it tying one’s shoes, playing the piano, or learning a new language or any kind of new information. The philosophy mirrors the idea of “monkey see, monkey do.” Babies learn to crawl and then walk by observing others do it, and then by trying it themselves. It is how we learn everything in life and possibly become creative in our own ways. Maltz (2001) suggests “creative performance is spontaneous and natural, as opposed to self-conscious and studied” (p. 106). So, how can we help our students speak naturally and spontaneously, and how can they use universal laws to help them get to unconscious competence in whatever it is they aim for? The rest of the paper will seek to shed light on these essential points.

5. The Law of Attraction

According to Hicks and Hicks (2004), the Law of Attraction states “that which is like unto itself, is drawn” (p. 29). This concept has been echoed throughout the ages and is encapsulated in phrases such as “what one sows, one reaps,” and “ask and it is given.” Modern quantum physicists are now showing that these ideas are actually truths that can be shown scientifically and empirically (Arntz et al., 2005). Essentially, if we understand that everything is energy vibrating at a different frequency, and that includes our brains and our thoughts (which are things), then as Nightingale (1969) points out, the strangest secret is that “we become what we think about most of the time” (audio). Thus, if one desires a goal that is not yet achieved, were that person to want it hard enough and believe that they have already attained it, then it follows that it will manifest at some point in this physical space-time reality. The only block to prevent it from manifesting is the lack of belief, or resistance, one holds to it.

Hence, according to this universal law, were learners to clearly define their linguistic goals, and get a burning desire to achieve them, they would surely materialize. Learning a language and acquiring its intricacies is a process which does not happen overnight and it evidently involves much effort on the part of the student. However, if that desire is strong enough, the effort will actually feel like pleasure and results will be compounded. As educators, one of our responsibilities is to inculcate a desire
and belief in our students that they can raise their proficiency and become communicatively competent. This would automatically lead to a heightened level of motivation. Consequently, no matter the stage of acquisition in the foreign language of our students, it would seem to be a propitious step to share the basic premise of the Law of Attraction in class if it helps them to realize their responsibility in the learning process as well as increase their understanding that they and they alone create their own reality with their thoughts.

What material is currently available that discusses such ideas whilst helping learners use discernment? Instructors need to be selective in choosing authentic material and adapting it for their CLIL courses, and this applies to the Law of Attraction.

6. A Controversial Global Issues Textbook

The goal of exposing students to such topics is twofold: firstly, to raise students’ linguistic competencies in relation to the four language skills and to help them be more confident in their beliefs about their language ability and practical English usage. Secondly, to raise awareness of the issues surrounding the New World Order (NWO), which has been likened to a controlling global elite class, whilst developing students’ critical thinking abilities; that is, it is hoped the material will open learners’ minds and eyes to the reality of the NWO and their one world government plans, whilst simultaneously allowing them to look at the world in a new and critical light. The subsidiary goals are self-evident: by elevating people’s notions of the world and reality, and by fostering in learners the necessary skills for fluent communication, the positive implications will be profound in that it is a step towards creating harmony in the world by generating compassion, and by empowering people with an alternative version of the truth through providing information that is otherwise suppressed or censored. Learners will also take direct action in improving their proficiency, thus impacting their lives in a beneficial and practical sense.

7. Structure of the Material

The content suggested here consists of 14 controversial topics that focus on issues generally not found in the mainstream media (9-11 Truth, Man-made global warming myth, and Codex Alimentarius, to name but some). However, the themes are prevalent in alternative media. Initially, the student is exposed to a reading passage introducing the theme followed by other scaffolded activities that work as a trigger to give learners an opportunity to consider the issue closely, carefully, and independently (See Appendix for a sample activity). These readings call for discernment, which is a key element in any form of learning. We learn new information by evaluating it for ourselves. When we regurgitate that information and make it our own through the creative process, we are then in a position to say we know it.
Following a path of pragmatic eclecticism can be the best road to travel along. That is, by combining the elements of notional, structural, task-based and communicative approaches to name but a few, students can be exposed to a variety of proven methodologies. Alone, these approaches remain isolated and incomplete, but integrated, they offer a comprehensive curriculum.

Critical thinking skills and strategies that promote reading and speaking competencies should be developed through support with vocabulary comprehension and various discussion and debating activities. Throughout the teaching-learning journey, we should follow Foreman's dictum (2002) “to take the word 'impossible' out of our vocabulary” (audio). We then can prove anything is possible.

8. Debating Ethics

If you have read this far and said to yourself, what is all this Law of Attraction and NWO stuff? — it sounds like nonsense to me — please remember your Teachability Index and perhaps even think about using them as topics for debate in class. Naturally, there is a certain amount of sensitivity that instructors must adopt when discussing any issues in class, but this universal law and semblance of it is evident in practically all of the mainstream religious texts. If you want to develop discernment in your students and empower them simultaneously, a debate or presentation project on this topic may work well. All debate is about expressing opinions, and opinions are largely subjective. We can support views and opinions with many data and facts, but even these can be subjective. As such, we should treat debate not as a competition but more of a game. It is important to use discernment and to always respect the opinion of the other side. When integrity and honesty are considered, everyone wins. Ultimately, debating is about sharing information. If the other team agrees or disagrees with you, either way it is perfectly acceptable. This is because perception is reality and each of us has unique and individual perspectives with our own internal filters. For example, chemtrails, which is euphemistically known as geo-engineering by mainstream media (Tree, 2010; Jha, 2008), has several sides to the issue: pro/against, believe/disbelieve, and all parts view their side as being one of truth. When we accept that everyone’s truth is true to them, and respect their right to express their ideas, then there is no argument to be lost. Carnegie (1981) encapsulates the idea most succinctly by suggesting that no argument is worth entering into. Thus, it is palpable that although the controversial nature of the material referred to earlier may cause strong emotions and deep passions on both sides of the debate, and although it lends itself to argumentative stances, it would be wise to heed the advice that “there is only one way … to get the best of an argument—and that is to avoid it. Avoid it as you would avoid rattle-snakes and earthquakes” (Carnegie, 1981, p. 116).

9. Conclusion
This paper touches on a number of points, and outlines how universal laws, and primarily the Law of Attraction which has been substantiated by modern quantum physicists, have the power to show learners that their language goals can be achieved as well as goals in every other facet of their lives. Furthermore, some key concepts are introduced such as the Teachability Index which is a motivational gauge, and the Four Steps to Learning process which is the system we move through when learning anything in life, from, for example, a single lexeme in a language to a whole language system.

There are a number of theories, which are becoming increasingly reported upon in both alternative and mainstream media, and they are indeed very controversial and may evoke passionate feelings and emotions on both sides of the argument. It is the students’ job to determine for themselves what they consider to be the most accurate. In order to achieve this, they will be required to resort to an array of critical thinking applications, to skilfully conceptualize, analyse, evaluate, reflect, and reason. They must, ultimately and literally, decide for themselves.

The primary purpose of the critical-thinking material that has been highlighted here is not to learn what the fact or idea is regarding a topic in each theme-based CLIL class, but to look at this often radically alternative new data through critical glasses, observe it and evaluate it, through a process of synthesis and discernment to either reject it or accept it. The twin goal is firstly, to enhance students’ linguistic competencies, and secondly, to raise self-responsibility whilst developing their critical thinking abilities, and ultimately to empower them by fostering in them the confidence and belief that they can be, do, or have anything and everything they want. The material presented and referred to in this paper is radical and can be either dismissed as nonsense or embraced as life changing depending on your perspective. When the student is ready, the teacher will appear.

If you are ready to look at the world from another reality, please step onward. The rabbit hole is deep indeed. So sit back, buckle in, and enjoy the ride.
References


Appendix

Sample activity based on the theme of Aspartame (The Soft Drink Plague)

6A. Reading: Pair Work  Partner B: Following page

Dictate questions 1-5 to your partner. Then, read the news article. Finally, ask the questions again.
1. What does aspartame suppress? The intellect
2. Who drink soft drinks most? Children
3. What percentage of complaints are about aspartame? Seventy-five percent (75%)
4. Is bad eyesight one symptom of consuming aspartame? Yes
5. What do some studies show? It is linked to cancer and brain Tumors.

There is a war on the human brain and immune system. This comes from drugs, vaccines, and food additives that we consume daily. One of the weapons is aspartame. This suppresses the intellect. It is now used in thousands of foodstuffs and almost every soft drink. And who are the biggest consumers of soft drinks? Children. They want to get the kids as early as possible and turn them into unthinking, unquestioning, clones for life. Aspartame is an “artificial sweetener”. It is known under the trade names of NutraSweet, Equal, and Spoonful. 75% of complaints about reactions to the FDA have been about aspartame. These complaints include headaches, dizziness, attention difficulties, memory loss, slurred speech and vision problems, and other problems of the nervous system. Some studies show that there is a link between aspartame and brain tumors, and even cancer. It is also addictive.

Now, listen to your partner dictate questions 6-10. Write them down.

6. _______________________________?
7. _______________________________?
8. _______________________________?
9. _______________________________?
10. _______________________________?
6B. Reading: Pair Work  Partner A: Previous page

Listen to your partner dictate questions 1-5. Write them down.

1. ___________________________________________________________________________?

2. ___________________________________________________________________________?

3. ___________________________________________________________________________?

4. ___________________________________________________________________________?

5. ___________________________________________________________________________?

Now, listen to your partner read the news article. Take notes. Finally, answer your partner's questions.

Now, dictate questions 6-10 to your partner. Then, read the news article. Finally, ask the questions again.

1. How does Dr. Deagle describe aspartame? A chemical poison

2. When did Coca-Cola try to stop aspartame being put into soft drinks? (July 5th) 1985

3. What is formaldehyde? A toxin

4. Why did diet coke sales increase so much? (because) aspartame is addictive

5. Why do people get fatter when they drink diet soda? (because) it makes them eat more (carbohydrates).
Aspartame is a chemical poison so deadly that Dr. Bill Deagle, a famous Virologist once said it was worse than depleted uranium because it is found everywhere in food.

Another medical doctor, Dr. H.J. Roberts, said in one of his books that you have to consider aspartame with killing children. He said this drug changes brain chemistry. Today children are medicated instead of educated.

Coca-Cola knew of the dangers of aspartame because, as a member of the National Soft Drink Association, it opposed the approval by the FDA. Its objections were published in the Congressional Record of July 5th, 1985. It said that aspartame was inherently unstable and breaks down in the can, decomposing into formaldehyde and other toxins. So what is aspartame now doing in Diet Coke, the sales of which soared when it was added because it is so addictive? And “Diet” Coke is not “diet” at all. People who drink it get fatter, as with all aspartame products, because it increases the craving for carbohydrates. Would you like a soda?
Chapter 14

Using Eye Tracking to Analyze Grammatical Errors of L2 Learners in Japanese Causative Alternations

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Abstract

This study demonstrates the utilization of an eye-tracking device to analyze second language (L2) learners’ grammatical errors. Eye tracking was used to detect learners’ eye movements and gaze points. We then analyzed the exact spot they were paying attention to while choosing the correct sentence. We examined how L2 learners of the Japanese language differentiated correct and incorrect sentences through our real-time recognition test. We focused on transitive and intransitive constructions and compared fixation duration on key-point areas, such as verbs and particles in a sentence, between correct and incorrect answers. Based on results that showed commonalities and differences in tendencies of eye movements, we concluded that the learners’ errors were due to a poor retention of grammatical knowledge and that the learners needed to undergo several phases to recognize a correct sentence.

1. Introduction

Recent studies have demonstrated the necessity for a second language (L2) research method that captures real-time interpretation of the target language. Eye tracking is a sensor technology in which a device is used to determine exactly where someone’s eyes are focusing and how they are moving. Eye-tracking technology shows how people recognize a visual target.

Gathered information from eye tracking can be used to gain deep insights for second language acquisition (SLA) research. The major advantage of this eye movement analysis technique is that researchers can obtain evidence about what happens during the comprehension of words and sentences. For example, by using an eye-tracking device in reading, we can analyze how language learners read sentences and determine which parts they need to focus on more. Additionally, we can compare them with native speakers' eye movements and analyze the differences. The most
studied topic is the link between eye movements and language in the process of reading, and it is investigated in terms of L2 readers’ tendencies. However, the use of eye movement recording to examine factors in L2 learners’ grammatical errors has been lacking. For instance, when L2 learners try to find the correct sentence from several choices, where do they focus, and how do they choose the answer? Analysis of learners’ eye movements when choosing correct and incorrect answers enables us to determine the differences and investigate the factors associated with language learners’ errors.

In this paper, we introduce the eye-tracking methodology for SLA research and propose utilizing an eye-tracking device to analyze L2 learners’ grammatical errors. It is important to discuss how grammatical errors are related to real-time comprehension of the target language. We, therefore, attempted to identify L2 learners’ most common grammatical pitfalls.

2. Literature Review

Eye tracking has many advantages in SLA research, and nowadays, L2 researchers are using eye tracking to investigate real-time comprehension processes of the target languages. Some techniques are used for researching eye movements in reading (Rayner, 1998), and some techniques are used for focusing on grammatical processing (Foucart & Frenck-Mestre, 2012; Frenck-Mestre & Pynte, 1997; Keating, 2009).

The features of eye movements during reading are positions or duration of gaze points. During reading, rapid eye movements are made from one location to another. These movements are called saccades. In between saccades, the eyes remain stationary for about as long as needed to recognize a word. Such stops are called fixations. Analyses of fixations, including numbers and durations, offer valuable information with respect to the features of the text being processed. For instance, the eyes rest in fixation for approximately 225 milliseconds during context reading, and mean saccade length is about eight letters in English (Rayner, 1998). Eye-tracking techniques can also provide the order of fixation points or the direction of saccades. This is a useful method to reveal the language processing. However, we have not found a study that addressed eye movements for grammatical judgments, such as finding the correct sentence from several choices or binary grammaticality judgments. Additionally, we could find only limited research pertaining to the Japanese language.

Our targets are L2 learners of the Japanese language, focusing on the phenomenon of causative alternation, which has various features depending on the language. To put it simply, causative alternation is related to the choice of transitive or intransitive construction. The difference between these constructions can be found in the subject and object of a sentence, as in example (1). In English, transitive and intransitive
verbs are usually isomorphic, like break, open, melt, and so on. However, in Japanese, the forms of the verbs and the types of case-marking particles are distinguished from these constructions, as in example (2).

(1) a. He broke the window.
   b. The window broke.

(2) a. Kare-ga mado-o wat-ta.
   He-SUB window-OBJ break(transitive verb)-past
   b. Mado-ga ware-ta
   Window-SUB break(intransitive verb)-past

In the Japanese language, (2a) uses the transitive verb *wa-ru*, and (2b) uses the intransitive verb *ware-ru*. The forms are different, but the meaning is the same: break. The Japanese language has around 300 morphological transitivity pairs. For example, the Japanese transitivity pairs *ake-ru* (transitive) and *ak-u* (intransitive), correspond to the verb “open” in English. Moreover, the Japanese language has a more complex structure concerning case-marking particles that define dependent-noun phrases as subject or object. As can be seen in example (2), it is necessary to put the subjective case marker (SUB) -ga with the subject, and the objective case marker (OBJ) -o with the object.

These complexities cause grammatical errors among learners of Japanese. Previous studies have pointed out the difficulty of learning the use of transitive and intransitive constructions in Japanese (Kobayashi, 1996; Moriya, 1994). What remains unsolved is how these complexities relate to the difficulty of recognizing grammatically correct and incorrect sentences. With this in mind, we decided to find out the weaknesses of the learners. Is it in memorization involved in grammatical knowledge or in their real-time comprehension processes? As a starting point, we ought to investigate their recognition processing by using eye-tracking in an attempt to reveal their weaknesses in relation to deducing the answers.

In this study, we attempted to capture the L2 learners’ real-time comprehension processes of the target language during uninterrupted processing of the input by using eye tracking. We focused on examining the eye movement of Japanese language learners when recognizing causative alternation. We also attempted to apply the eye-tracking method to investigate factors in their grammatical errors. To do this, we compared their eye movements when choosing correct and incorrect
sentences. Using eye tracking may help us examine whether L2 learners can notice the errors in the transitive and intransitive constructions given.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The recognition test was conducted with 14 Japanese language learners and administered via laptop computers. The participants were Hungarian undergraduate students who had been learning Japanese as a second language for several years at their respective universities. Each participant's language abilities were evaluated based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). This guideline illustrates the achievements of foreign language learners across Europe. Upon evaluation by their language professors, participants were classified to be in the intermediate level, corresponding to B1 of CEFR. It is worth mentioning that the participants were selected primarily because of the similarities between the Japanese and Hungarian languages. Hungarian and Japanese also have similar morphological transitivity pairs and case-marking systems.

3.2 Materials and procedures

We first gave each participant instructions on how to perform the experiment and explained how we would measure their eye movement by using the Tobii X2-30 eye tracker. For the eye tracker to work as accurately as possible, participants were taken through a calibration procedure before eye-tracking recording was started. This calibration was done by asking the participants to follow a dot that moved across the screen of the laptop.

After giving the instructions, we started the recognition test on the screen while simultaneously recording participants’ eye movements and voices. Participants were initially asked to read the test instructions out loud so that they could clearly understand what they had to do in this task, and so we could note if they read the Japanese text correctly. The instructions stated, “You will see three sentences, A, B, and C, on the next slide. Please choose the correct sentence among them.” Then the researcher changed the screen to show a total of seventeen tasks, and the participants were required to choose the one sentence that was grammatically correct in each task and read it aloud.

Each task had three choices, as in example (3). The correct answer is (3B), and it means “(I) break the glass.” (In Japanese, the subject can be omitted in the transitive construction.) Incorrect sentences had wrong combinations of transitive or intransitive verbs and particles, as in (*3A) and (*3C). The two incorrect sentences
should be changed like (3B) or to “Garasu-ga wareru. ‘The glass breaks,’” as an intransitive construction.

(3)  
A. Garasu-o ware-ru.  
Glass-OBJ break (intransitive)-present  
B. Garasu-o wa-ru.  
Glass-OBJ break (transitive)-present  
C. Garasu-ga wa-ru.  
Glass-SUB break (transitive)-present

3.3 Points of analysis

Figure 1 presents an example of our real-time data of eye movements. The red line shows the gaze movements, and the red circle represents fixation points. Its size changes depending on its fixation duration. In this way, we can find where the gaze fell and how long the eye stayed there. This is the eye movement during reading.

Figure 1. Real-time data of eye movements

To analyze which area was more focused on when the Japanese language learners chose the correct sentence among the three choices, the area of each grammatical part of speech in the sentence was identified. An area of interest, also referred to as AOI, is a tool to select sub-regions of visual stimuli and to extract metrics specifically for these regions. As Figure 2 shows, we drew separate AOIs for three parts: subjects or objects (i.e., garasu ‘glass’), particles (-o as object marker), and verbs (wareru ‘break [intransitive]’). To reveal which sentences or which areas were paid more attention, we analyzed the fixation duration of each AOI; specifically, we analyzed how many times and how long the eye stayed in each AOI.
We can predict that fixation durations in the particle AOI are shorter and less frequent than in other areas. One of the reasons is the length of those AOIs. Particles are represented by a single character such as ga or o; however, verbs have two to four Japanese characters like wa-ru or ko-bo-re-ru. There seems to be a higher chance for the gaze to stay and cover a wider area. Another reason is the difference between content and function words. The chance that an individual word will be fixated on varies depending on whether it is a content word (85%) or a function word (35%) (Carpenter & Just, 1983). In the analysis of fixation duration, therefore, the tendency of eye movement in errors was highlighted. However, as for the comparison between subject/objects’ and verbs’ AOIs, we took into account size as a possible factor for some items to investigate the propensity of eye movement in a sentence.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Analyzed data

In this study, five selected items from 17 tasks were analyzed, considering some factors. Firstly, since one task was an error due to the fact that it had two correct options, we omitted it from our analysis. Secondly, the remaining sixteen tasks were divided into two groups in terms of syntactical complexity: a simple predicate group and a complex predicate group. Verbs of the former group consisted of only one verb, such as ware-ru and kowasimasi-ta in example (4), though there were some cases that had present and past tense markers. In contrast, verbs of the latter group were combined with subsidiary verbs like -te arimasu. Moreover, the combination of verb types and case-marking particle was different, as in example (5) where mado is the object, but the subjective case marker -ga must be placed in this construction involving subsidiary verbs like -te arimasu.
When we investigated the difficulty of each task by calculating the percentage of correct answers, the averages were different (eight tasks in the simple predicate group averaged 84.7% whereas eight tasks in the complex predicate group averaged 66.3%). The difference in difficulty is not because of transitivity pairs but because of the syntactical complexities. Therefore, of the 16 tasks, we chose to omit eight due to their grammatical complexity, which left us with only eight tasks in the simple predicate group. We also chose to focus on only five of these in which the correct answers were transitive constructions. This is because there were no big differences between the average of correct answer percentage of transitive and intransitive sentence cases (transitive sentences averaged 83.3%, while intransitive sentences averaged 85.7%).

Accordingly, we selected the data from five tasks in which the correct answers were simple transitive sentences. Table 1 shows the contents of each item and the percentage of correct answers. These items are divided into three groups as follows: Perfect (1), Easy (2 & 3), and Hard (4 & 5). The Perfect task shows that all participants were able to choose the correct sentence from the three options. The Easy tasks reveal that most of the participants were able to choose the correct sentence, and the Hard tasks convey a relatively low percentage of correct answers. In the analysis of the result, we compared the cases where 14 participants chose the correct sentence to the other cases where some participants chose incorrect sentences, and we attempted to reveal the tendencies of eye movement between correct and incorrect answers.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Verb options (transitive/intransitive) in Japanese and the meaning of each correct sentence</th>
<th>Correct answer percentage (number of correct/incorrect answers)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Otosu/Ochiru “(You) dropped your wallet.”</td>
<td>100% (14/0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Glass-SUB break(intransitive)-present

b. Isu-o kowa-simasi-ta.

Chair-OBJ break(transitive)-polite-past


Window-SUB close(transitive)-CONJ-be-polite-present
Proceedings of the 1st Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching (ALLT) Conference

Verb options (transitive/intransitive) in Japanese and the meaning of each correct sentence Correct answer percentage (number of correct/incorrect answers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Verb options (transitive/intransitive) in Japanese and the meaning of each correct sentence</th>
<th>Correct answer percentage (number of correct/incorrect answers)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tukeru/Tuku “(I) turn on the light.”</td>
<td>92.9% (13/1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Akeru/Aku “(I) open the door.”</td>
<td>85.7% (12/2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kowasu/Kowareru “(I) broke the chair.”</td>
<td>71.4% (10/4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kowasu/Kowareru “(I) break the glass.”</td>
<td>57.1% (8/6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Eye movements in a sentence

Eye movement for grammatical parts of speech in each sentence was analyzed to examine where participants paid the most attention when choosing correct sentences. The focus was on the fixation duration of each AOI. Each task, except for the Perfect task, was divided into two cases, whether the correct sentence was chosen or not. Table 2 summarizes the mean duration of fixation for each AOI of each task. As it indicates, fixation duration in the AOIs of verbs was the longest among the three AOIs in any case. As mentioned previously, AOI length was different between particles and verbs or objects. It is natural that fixation duration in the particle area was shorter than in others. It should be noted that fixation duration in verb AOIs was always longer than that in object AOIs under the same conditions.

Table 2

Mean Duration (in Seconds) of Fixation of Each AOI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task (Groups)</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Answers (number of participants)</th>
<th>AOIs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (Perfect)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct (14)</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (Easy)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct (13)</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect (1)</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (Easy)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct (12)</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect (2)</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (Hard)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct (10)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect (4)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (Hard)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct (8)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect (6)</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to previous studies, there are systematic relationships between fixation durations and the characteristics of the fixated words during reading, and readers spend more time fixating on harder and more important words than on easier words (Ehrlich & Rayner, 1981; Just & Carpenter, 1980; Rayner, 1983). This study’s findings clearly indicate that participants paid attention to verbs, and that they considered the importance of verb form in choosing the correct sentence. Moreover, it provides sufficient evidence to say that participants always fixated on verbs even when some of them chose incorrect sentences. It became clear that the verb is more important in choosing the correct sentence in causative alternation constructions. Moreover, it should be noted that this propensity of eye movement was observed whether the correct sentence was chosen or not.

4.3 Eye movements between correct and incorrect sentences

We examined the eye movement between the three choices and focused on the particle and verb AOIs since particles and verbs are the keys to differentiating transitive and intransitive constructions in the Japanese language. First, we describe the result of the eye movement for the Perfect task, in which the correct answer percentage was 100%. The result should indicate the tendency of eye movement for choosing the correct answer. Table 3 presents the mean duration of fixation of each AOI in the Perfect task. (The underlined letter in the Options row indicates the correct sentence.)

Table 3

Mean Duration (in Seconds) of Fixation of Each AOI in the Perfect Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Task 1 (Perfect)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AOIs</td>
<td>Options</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct (14)</td>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The longest mean duration of fixation in both particle and verb AOIs are shown in option A, which was the correct sentence. It became clear that participants paid longer attention to the correct sentences while choosing the correct sentence from three choices. A similar propensity of eye movement was observed in the results of the Easy tasks but only when correct options were chosen. Table 4 shows the mean duration of fixation for each AOI in the easy tasks.
Table 4

*Mean duration (in seconds) of fixation of each AOI in Easy tasks*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Task 2 (Easy)</th>
<th>Task 3 (Easy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AOIs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct (13)</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect (1)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correct sentence of Task 2 was option B, and Task 3’s correct answer was option C. In the correct sentences of Tasks 2 and 3, the longest mean duration of fixation in the verb AOI occurred in both tasks, and fixation duration in the particle AOI was longest in Task 3. In contrast, when incorrect options were chosen, the longest fixation durations were not on the correct options. Since these results were only observed from one or two participants, we further examined eye movement for the Hard tasks where more participants chose incorrect options, as indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

*Mean Duration (in Seconds) of Fixation of Each AOI in Hard Tasks*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Task 4 (Hard)</th>
<th>Task 5 (Hard)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AOIs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct (10)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect (4)</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Task 4 (Hard)</th>
<th>Task 5 (Hard)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AOIs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct (8)</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The correct sentence in Task 4 was option C, and Task 5’s was option B. We found that the longest duration was in the AOIs of verbs and particles. This tendency shows more similarity to the results of the Perfect task than to the results of the Easy tasks. As for the incorrect cases, the longest duration in both AOIs was not in the correct options, such as in the Easy tasks.

4.4 Discussion

The results of our experiment revealed that there are both common and different tendencies in eye movement regarding the choice of correct and incorrect answers. The commonality was observed in the location of fixation in a sentence. From fixation duration data for each AOI, we found that participants paid the most attention to the verb area, regardless of whether they chose correct or incorrect sentences. It is evident that L2 learners of the Japanese language were able to understand the key points of differentiating transitive/intransitive constructions.

The difference was observed in eye movements when choosing correct or incorrect options. When the participants chose the correct sentence, they focused more on the correct sentence. However, when they selected the incorrect option, they paid the most attention to the incorrect sentence. The fact that the participants who chose correct sentences did not spend much time on incorrect options proved that they could recognize the correct sentence; they had already memorized Japanese transitive and intransitive verbs and their combinations with particles. In contrast, those participants who chose incorrect answers misunderstood Japanese causative alternation which may be due to a problem with retaining grammatical knowledge.

These two propensities suggest the possibility that Japanese language learners undergo several phases of the learning process to understand Japanese causative alternation construction. In the first stage, learners get to recognize which grammatical parts of speech are important to differentiate transitive and intransitive constructions. The Japanese language has different forms of transitive and intransitive verbs, and the causative constructions need the combination with particle such as subject and object markers. Therefore, learners pay more attention to the areas of verb and particle.

Before proceeding to the next stage, learners need to memorize grammatical rules such as transitive/intransitive verb forms and the combination of verbs and particles. They may choose the correct sentence since they can recognize the distinction of
transitive/intransitive construction by referring to and utilizing their retained grammatical knowledge. Until the final stage where they can choose correct sentences perfectly, there must be several phases. For instance, in one phase, learners memorize verb forms only, and in another phase they understand the combination of particles and verbs. The advanced stage is when learners can apply this knowledge in cognitive processing. As explained earlier, recognition of correct sentences and memorization of grammatical rules are interrelated. Learners’ errors at this stage, therefore, may be due to poor retention of grammatical knowledge.

5. Conclusion

Based on this study’s findings, it can be concluded that L2 learners of the Japanese language chose incorrect sentences because they failed to retain grammatical knowledge about Japanese causative alternation. This study could not identify whether the difficulty was related to types of particles or verbs. According to Moriya (1994), it is difficult for L2 Japanese learners to decode the intransitive construction. As far as the results of correct answer percentages are concerned, the study could not locate any differences between tasks with transitive and intransitive constructions. Therefore, we did not analyze the eye movement in the cases where the correct options were intransitive constructions. This requires further investigation to examine whether the eye movement is different or not depending on the types of constructions. A continuous examination of first language influence would clarify the features of L2 learners’ recognition processing.

In conclusion, it is worth mentioning again that the participants of this experimental study were Hungarian native speakers who were selected because the Hungarian and the Japanese languages have similar patterns of causative alternation. If this study had collected Hungarian data by conducting the same recognition test in a Hungarian version, it would have been possible to analyze common and different subjects’ eye movements. This is recommended for further study.
References


Section Five:
Language Teaching and Attitude
Chapter 15

Exploring Emirati Police Cadets' Motivation for Learning English Language

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Abstract

This research aims at exploring police cadets' motivation for learning the English language. The current study is conducted on 30 cadets from a police academy. A two-part questionnaire was developed to explore the level and type of English language motivation of the police cadets: instrumental (the desire to learn a language for the practical benefits it brings) or integrative (to become familiar with a language so as to cooperate and interact with native speaker easily). The descriptive data from the returned questionnaire were reported using the SPSS program. The results of the study showed that the police cadets are highly motivated revealing slightly more integrative motivation factors in learning the English language (M=4.02) than instrumental factors (M=3.94). Concerning cadets’ motivation behind learning a second language, they considered English the major language of communication worldwide (M=4.57) and the dominant language in work fields (M=4.83).

1. Introduction

One of the most important tools implemented to define and clarify differences among language learners is motivation. It is an important initiative that helps us attain objectives. It is an important factor in reaching targets in general and in learning languages in particular. Thus, it plays an important role in reinforcing a sense of achievement that everyone enjoys, and which is essential for success. Gardner (2001) states that a motivated individual endeavors to carry out tasks allotted to him or her and persists to realize goals in a successful and confident manner by using well-organized plans. Hence, motivation can be regarded as goal-directed behavior.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) focus on both integrative and instrumental motivation in second language learning. Students with high integrative motivation enjoy studying a foreign language as a means of socializing with native speakers, especially when they are abroad. They care about the cultural background which is
art and parcel of their learning experience as well. They look forward to making use of that new language at work and for education in general and are also test-oriented and very careful about their expertise and accomplishments.

The importance of motivation in learning and acquiring a language has been the focal point of many studies. These researchers observed and stressed its importance in learning a second language. It has been concluded that motivation is vital especially in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006). However, there are a few studies focusing on the importance of motivation of police cadets. This paper fills the gap as it explores police cadets’ motivation behind learning a second language.

2. Review of the Literature and Previous Studies on Motivation

This section presents relevant literature to investigate the importance of motivation factors on foreign language learning. Specifically, it reports on some relevant studies which explored different types of motivation in learning the English language.

2.1 Types of motivation

Scholars state that motivation is one of the essential tools needed to acquire a second language and speak it fluently. Therefore, many studies have been carried out to examine it carefully (Alkaabi, 2016). Zoltan Dörnyei (2001) is one of the most important and key researchers in the field of motivation. He mentioned that motivation is a dynamically changing, cumulative stimulus in a person that inducts, directs, integrates, correlates, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out. This means that motivation has a strong relationship with individuals' preferences, stamina to carry out an action, and their attempts to achieve a goal. There are various phenomena that are used to measure individuals' behavior: the reason behind people's decision to act out something, the duration estimated for them to keep on doing a certain action, and how seriously they conduct their hard work (Dörnyei, 2001).

According to McDonough (2007), motivation is the power that encourages learners to work, be educated, gain experience, attain knowledge, and transfer what they learn to others. He mentions four components of motivation. These are the aims and objectives they have to learn, the force of their aspiration from learning, their personality, and our assumption of the learning requirements. Conventionally, a couple of constructs are suggested as a clarification of motivation: 1) instrumental and integrative motivation, which are proposed by Gardner (1985); and 2) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, by Deci and Ryan (1985).

On the other hand, Richards (2003) identifies two sets of motivation as follows: instrumental motivation refers to the desire to learn a language for the practical
benefits it brings, while integrative motivation refers to wanting to learn a language in order to interact with and become similar to valued members of the target language community. Cook (2000) further explains that integrative and instrumental motivation, suggested by Gardner (1985), are essential in acquiring a second language. Comparing and contrasting both kinds of motivation, Ellis (1994) states that integrative motivation is much more useful. That is because motivation depends on specific activities and techniques which enhance a controlled learning and teaching process. Learners who lack instrumental or integrative motivation are expected to struggle learning a second language, especially in classes, and learning a language will be difficult for them in general (Cook, 2000).

There is also another concept in the field of motivation introduced by Ryan and Deci (2000), which is self-determination theory. Ryan and Deci (2000) state that self-determination theory categorizes and distinguishes varied kinds of motivation according to various grounds, reasons for learning, and objectives desired from the learning experience. In proportion to this theory, the most central variance is between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the enthusiasm and curiosity to carry out certain tasks only because the learner finds them enjoyable and attractive. Students who have intrinsic motivation enjoy the time they spend solving complex problems that need a high level of concentration and require learning through trial and error (Walker, Greene, & Mansell, 2006). Furthermore, intrinsic motivation is vital for the amalgamation procedure through which rudiments of one’s interior consciousness and data are adjusted or sorted with new information. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the tendency to participate in tasks only for aims that are not related to the task itself. It can be due to the learner's desire to evade punishment or get a certain reward or bonus, for instance, getting high grades.

To be more specific, intrinsic motivation is directly related to the task. In fact, individuals who are intrinsically motivated carry out the tasks because they enjoy them and find them pleasant. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is related to a target or objective to achieve. Those who are extrinsically motivated do and learn something to attain a direct benefit from it; that can be in the form of praise from a tutor, an award, or even avoiding a punishment (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

2.2 Motivation in the ESP context
ESP has been an important branch in the many English language teaching and learning contexts since the 1960s. Unlike English for general purposes, ESP perceives language learners as mature individuals who learn a language for a purpose that they are fully aware of (Robinson, 1991); therefore, they take into consideration the language skills and what they need to motivate them in their learning procedure so as to be fruitful. Therefore, these courses are tailored with communicative tasks as a means to aid learners in performing various roles they would be exposed to in different settings and workplaces, such as banks, airports,
and police stations. This means that the role of motivation cannot be disregarded in such courses.

In settings where English is commonly used in the community, as is the case of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), it is significant to study the authentic connotation of the term “integrative.” Salem (2006) proposes integrative motivation in EFL instruction as a learners' desire to master two languages and know two cultures. This entails adding a new perspective and dimension to a learner's identity. The cadets studying English at police academies usually have many chances to use the target (L2) language in daily verbal exchanges because of the multinational population in the UAE. In the police academies’ EFL setting, the term “integrative motivation” mostly refers to the desire of the learners to become fluent and to be able to contact foreign police personnel in an effective manner and carry out their tasks efficiently.

2.3 Studies related to the motivation in ESP context

Concerning ESP instruction, a small number of studies explored the role of ESP learners' motivations toward English language learning (e.g., Alhuqbani, 2014; Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2008; Kurum, 2011; Alkaabi, 2016; Makrami, 2010; Degang, 2010; and Tsao, 2008). These studies were based on the supposition that since ESP learners need English to meet their study requirements, or they desire to communicate well with native speakers outside their classes, then they are instrumentally and integratively motivated to learn it. For example, Alhuqbani (2014) investigated the English language motivation of a sample of 223 police cadets studying at King Fahd Security College. The analysis of the questionnaire results showed a statistically significant correlation between almost all the instrumental and integrative variables provided evidence to the integration of the two types of motivation which demonstrates the potential of instrumental and integrative motivation in English learning. In another study, Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2008) examined the motivation of 81 petroleum engineering students toward English learning. The researchers used a questionnaire and interviews to collect data. The results indicated that the students were instrumentally motivated to learn English.

Kurum (2011) investigated the effect of motivational factors on the foreign language success of students at the Turkish Military Academy (TMA). The results of the questionnaires they used indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between overall motivation and the foreign language success of the TMA cadets. Similarly, Alkaabi (2016) developed a questionnaire to collect data from 181 Saudi Arabian students, seven of whom were selected to participate in a follow-up interview. The results of the questionnaire and the interview showed that the majority of the participants had a high extrinsic motivation to learn English, positive attitudes toward learning English, positive attitudes toward the native English speakers in the U.S., and a high willingness to learn English.

On the other hand, Makrami (2010) correlated the motivation and attitude of two Saudi university's groups of learners: an English for general purposes (EGP) group
and an ESP group. He used a translated version of the International Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (IAMTB), which is based on Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). Over 500 male and female students at Jazan University participated in this study. The results revealed that the EGP group was more instrumentally and integratively motivated than the ESP group. There were no statistically significant differences in the attitudes of both groups at the beginning of their study, but the ESP group's attitude ended up significantly lower than the attitude of the EGP group. Makrami attributed the lower motivation and attitudes of the ESP group to the ESP program at Jazan University which he described as inappropriate to the students' needs. Furthermore, Degang (2010) investigated the level and type of English language learning motivation, instrumental or integrative, of 50 students majoring in business English. To collect data, a survey on motivation was conducted. The results showed that these students were highly motivated.

Similarly, Tsao (2008) explored technological university students' motivation in learning English. A total of 576 students and 25 English teachers from a technological university in southern Taiwan participated in the study. The instruments consisted of a questionnaire addressed to the students and another one to the teachers. Statistical analyses showed a medium-high motivational orientation and medium-low motivational intensity in the students. The results also displayed a close relationship of motivational intensity to learning channels, to motivational orientation, and to English proficiency. Major results led to the conclusion that students with stronger motivational intensity tended to have higher index scores in motivational orientation, developed more independent learning, and attained better English proficiency.

As shown, few studies explored the role of motivational factors in ESP context despite their importance to enhance learners' English language skills and their positive perceptions toward learning English for specific purposes. Also, ESP studies concentrate on investigating the learners' motivation and attitudes to learn English without endeavoring to examine how they may associate and add to language learning. Therefore, the reason for this study is to explore the integrative and instrumental motivational factors of police cadets to learn a second language in ESP courses.

3. Methodology

This study explores the Emirati police cadets’ motivation behind learning a second language. The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What is the instrumental and integrative motivation levels of the police cadets in the UAE?
2. What is the motivation of the police cadets in the UAE to learn a second language?

3.1 Participants
The subjects of this study were 30 Emirati police cadets in the fourth year of their study. All of the participants were males between 20 and 22 years old and had B1 English proficiency level. The research was conducted in the second semester of the academic year 2017-2018.

3.2 Instrumentation
To answer the two research questions of this study, a five-point Likert scale questionnaire was developed to investigate the police cadets' instrumental and integrative motivation as well as their motivation to learn a second language. The items of the two-part questionnaire were adapted from Alhuqbani's (2014) and Gardner’s (1985) questionnaires with some modifications that are necessary to meet the purpose of this study (Appendix A).

3.3 Validity and reliability of the instrument
To make sure that the content of the questionnaire was valid, the draft questionnaire items were checked for content validity by a panel of five experts in teaching EFL. Based on the panel’s review and feedback, modifications were made to suit the purposes of the study. Some items were deleted and others were added. Concerning the reliability, the researcher used Cronbach Alpha; the obtained value was (0.96). The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale where the participants selected the response they deemed appropriate.

3.4 Procedure of the study
Before administering the questionnaire, ethical clearance was considered. The participants were assured that the information would be strictly confidential and used for research purposes only. The data collection process took place at a Police Science Academy (PSA) in the UAE, during the second semester in the academic year 2017-2018. The questionnaire was distributed to participants during class time. The participants were allowed to fully think about each item in the questionnaire, and they answered the questionnaire in about 30 minutes.

3.5 Data analysis
For analysis of the data, SPSS was used to obtain the descriptive statistics about the mean scores for the instrumental and integrative factors of motivation. The scale in Table 1 was adopted from Degang (2010) to interpret the level of motivation of the participants considering that the higher the score, the higher the motivation level is in the overall questionnaire or in its individual items.
Table 1
Interpretation of mean score of motivation levels (adapted from Degang, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean Range</th>
<th>Motivational Level</th>
<th>Score Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Highest</td>
<td>4.50 – 5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.50 – 4.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>2.50 – 3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1.50 – 2.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td>1.00 – 1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

In order to answer the first research question, the mean scores of the instrumental and integrative motivation items are provided in Table 2 and Table 3. The interpretation of these tables in detail will reveal the answer to the second research question about the factors that motivate second language learners among the participants.

Table 2
Mean scores of instrumental motivation items and their motivational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Instrumental Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Motivational Level*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I basically concentrate on learning English for class assignments and tests.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It is one of the most important subjects in the curriculum.</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>English language mostly used in work fields.</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It helps me in the promotion to a higher police rank.</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I need English language in my postgraduate studies after graduation from PSA.</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Learning English is very important for traveling abroad to continue my studies in English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Learning English is very important for making me a more educated person.</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It helps me pass training courses.</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Instrumental Motivation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Motivational Level*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Learning English increases my knowledge in my security work and in my academic study.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>English language helps me read texts on English websites.</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Interpretation adapted from Degang (2010)*

Table 2 indicates that the overall mean scores (M=3.94) of Emirati police cadets are high which means that they are highly instrumentally motivated toward learning English. Two statements under instrumental motivation category show similar mean scores of 4.83, which are the highest scores of the questionnaire results. These are statements 3 and 8, namely, “English language mostly used in work fields” and “It helps me pass training courses.” Statement 1, “I basically concentrate on learning English for class assignments and tests,” reaches a mean score of 4.21, which is high. On the other hand, statement 2, "It is one of the most important subjects in the curriculum," has an average mean score of 2.63. This statement falls under the category of moderate, implying that the participants do not know if English is important as the other subjects or not. However, statements 4, 6, and 9 receive very high mean scores. These statements reveal that English language is very important to be promoted to a higher police rank (M=4.52), for travelling abroad to continue studies in English-speaking countries due to wealth and the facilities that the UAE offered (M=4.65), and for increasing knowledge in their security work and academic study (M=4.51). Similarly, statement 5 shows that the participants understand the importance of English to their academic studies after graduating from PSA (M=4.47). Statements numbers 7 and 10, “Learning English is very important for making me a more educated person,” and “English language helps me read texts on English websites,” achieve the same lowest average mean score (M=2.41); they fall under the category of low motivational level. This indicates that the participants do not learn English for the particular purpose of reading texts in English or as one way to be more educated, despite their belief about its importance in studying at the academy and in attaining their degrees. Overall, the results in Table 2 revealed that cadets are instrumentally motivated to learn the English language due to a future career, promotion, and education.

Table 3
Mean scores of integrative motivation items and their motivational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Integrative Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Motivational Level*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English enables me to understand English books, stories, movies…etc.</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It enables me to think and behave like those</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Integrative Motivation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Motivational Level*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who speak it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to meet and communicate with those who speak it.</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It enables me to recognize the people who speak it and their traditions.</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to transfer my knowledge to other people, for example, giving directions to a tourist.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It facilitates the process of acquiring friends among English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to speak like native speakers: e.g. accent, tone and using English expressions.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It is the major language of communication among people of the world.</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to be an open-minded and sociable person.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to achieve maximum proficiency.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Overall mean scores</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.02</strong></td>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Interpretation adapted from Degang (2010).

For the integrative type of motivation, Table 3 above shows that the overall mean scores of the Emirati police cadets is $M=4.02$ (high) which suggests that they are integratively motivated to learn English. Cadets are aware of the importance of English as the main tool of communication. They are also willing to study English due to the nature of their country which is the residence of more than 200 nationalities and receives millions of tourists every year of different nationalities; their future career in security departments requires a high English level to interact and communicate with these different nationalities. Statements 3 and 6 regarding the importance of English in communication receive the same mean scores which are the highest scores ($M=4.55$). These mean scores indicate that English is the major language of communication among people worldwide and there is a potential role of the English language to facilitate acquiring English-speaking friends. On the contrary, statements 2 and 7, “It enables me to think and behave like those who speak it,” and “Studying English enables me to speak like native speakers: e.g. accent, tone and using English expressions,” achieve the lowest average mean scores ($M=3.35$) and ($M=3.28$), respectively; they fall under the category of moderate motivational level. This indicates that the participants in this study prioritize using English worldwide for communication over targeting native-like accents or pronunciation. The overall mean scores of instrumental motivation in Table 2...
(M=3.94) and the integrative motivation in Table 3 (M=4.02) show that Emirati police cadets are slightly more integratively motivated than instrumentally.

In order to identify the level of motivation among Emirati police cadets to learn English, the overall mean scores of the two types of motivations is provided Table 4 below, showing that the overall mean score is 3.98, which is interpreted as a high motivational level to learn the English language.

Table 4
Overall mean score for instrumental and integrative motivational types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Scores for the Two Types of Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Motivational Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average mean score for instrumental motivation</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average mean score for integrative motivation</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean score</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion

As shown above, ESP is supported by PSA cadets' motivation as they are motivated to learn English both instrumentally and integratively. This finding is consistent with previous studies by Alhuqbani (2014), Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2008), Kurum, (2011), Alkaabi (2016), Makrami, (2010), Degang (2010) and Tsao (2008).

The overall mean scores of the instrumental and integrative variables contribute evidence to the interrelationship and integration of the two types of motivations. These high scores confirm the importance of both types in the learning of English and that they are not isolated entities but rather complement each other. Although they are not yet on the job, the cadets seem to be conscious of the instrumentality of their English learning in relation to their police work (Alhuqbani, 2014). This could be seen in the highest scores assigned to instrumental motivation with statements 3, “English language mostly used in work fields,” and 8, “It helps me pass training courses” (Table 2). Although the respondents were highly instrumentally motivated to learn English, they showed more interest in learning English to communicate with people than to read texts or expand their knowledge through reading. This may be due to the nature of the education system at the PSA that requires studying many policing and legal subjects in the Arabic language. It might too be due to the exercises of communicating with people in the UAE community where, in the cases that Arabic cannot be used, English can be used since it is widely spoken by residents who come from almost 200 countries and speak many different languages, with English being one of the more common ones.
One more significant finding is that the police cadets' overall mean scores of integrative motivation (M=4.02) is higher than the overall mean scores of instrumental motivation (M=3.94). However, their instrumental motivation is also classified as high, according to Degang’s (2010) interpretation. Also, the dominance of integrative motivation among Emirati police cadets may be attributed to the country’s particular profile with such a large number of different nationalities living in it. The numerous nationalities in the UAE require police officers that can speak and write in English to meet community needs (Alsabbagh, 2018). Consequently, police cadets are aware of the importance of the English language as a medium of communication in their country. Such findings confirm Degang’s (2010) study in which Thai students majoring in English were found to be almost equally motivated instrumentally and integratively to learn English while their integrative motivation was superior. On the other hand, this result contradicts with other researchers who indicated that their ESP participants were learning English instrumentally (Alhuqbani, 2014; Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2008; Kurum, 2011; Alkaabi, 2016; Makrami, 2010; Tsao, 2008).

6. Conclusion: Implications and Recommendations

According to data analysis and the findings of the study, it is evident that the Emirati police cadets are equally motivated instrumentally and integratively to learn the English language. Thus, in order to maintain the police cadets’ motivation to learn English and at the end improve their language proficiency, it may be beneficial for institutions to develop ESP textbooks and activities that are focused on the cadets’ learning needs and objectives. Furthermore, English instructors should integrate efficient teaching and learning strategies to enhance cadets’ motivation. In order to encourage cadets to become self-motivated and have positive perceptions, English teachers should design effective course contents and create a good atmosphere. Consequently, learners’ instrumental motivation can be enhanced. In order to make more a credible generalization, this study should be replicated with additional statistical analysis and involving a larger sample or participants over a longer period of time.

References


### Appendix A

#### Cadets' Motivation Questionnaire

Instructions: Please indicate your answer with an (X) in the appropriate box.

Strongly agree = 5      agree = 4        neutral = 3    disagree = 2    strongly disagree = 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Instrumental Motivation</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I basically concentrate on learning English for class assignments and tests.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It is one of the most important subjects in the curriculum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>English language mostly used in work fields.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It helps me in the promotion to a higher police rank.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>I need English language in my postgraduate studies after graduation from PSA.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Learning English is very important for travelling abroad to continue my studies in English-speaking countries.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Learning English is very important for making me a more educated person.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It helps me pass training courses.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Learning English increases my knowledge in my security work and in my academic study.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>English language helps me read texts on English websites.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Integrative Motivation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English enables me to understand English books, stories, movies…etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It enables me to think and behave like those who speak it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to meet and communicate with those who speak it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It enables me to recognize the people who speak it and their traditions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to transfer my knowledge to other people, for example, giving directions to a tourist.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It facilitates the process of acquiring friends among English-speaking countries.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to speak like native speakers: e.g. accent, tone and using English expressions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It is the major language of communication among people of the world.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to be an open-minded and sociable person.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Studying English enables me to achieve maximum proficiency.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 16

Sketching the Profile of the Interculturally Competent Teacher: Greek Teachers’ Beliefs and Perceptions in Intercultural Junior High Schools

Kiose Eirini, Alexiou Thomai, and Iliopoulou Konstadina
Aristotle University, Thessaloniki, Greece

Abstract

The aim of the present study was to examine Greek teachers’ beliefs with regard to certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills comprising the profile of an interculturally competent teacher. A questionnaire was administered to 59 teachers working in six Greek intercultural junior high schools. The results of this quantitative study revealed that the participants’ beliefs were broadly similar, demonstrating their agreement and even a tendency to strongly agree with certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills of an interculturally competent teacher. Furthermore, gender, age, and level of education as well as additional training seemed to have an effect on the teachers’ level of agreement on the above-mentioned attitudes, knowledge, and skills of an interculturally competent teacher as these are envisaged in Deardorff’s intercultural model. However, the findings did not support the expectation that previous general as well as intercultural teaching experience may make a marked impact on the beliefs expressed by the aforementioned teachers.

1. Introduction

On account of the current cultural, political, and economic composition of societies throughout the world, formal education is supposed to play a crucial role in supporting both the social cohesion and the successful coexistence of individuals. Furthermore, intercultural education aims at promoting understanding, respect as well as interaction among people with diverse cultural affiliations (Siassiakos, Theodosopoulou, & Tsamadías, 2007; UNESCO, 2006), recognizing among other things that people’s behaviour as well as attitudes are an intrinsic part of their culture (Polavieja, 2015; Sewell, 2005).

Given the presence of multiculturalism, today more than ever, along with being knowledgeable and skillful, teachers need to consider the complex notion of
intercultural competence as a teaching as well as a learning objective (Deardorff, 2009a). It is noteworthy that throughout literature, both researchers and theoreticians have tried not only to define (Barrett, Huber, & Reynolds, 2014; Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006; Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003; Sinicrope, Norris, & Watanabe, 2007) but also assess intercultural competence (Fantini, 2000), providing teachers with a useful basis to understand as well as improve both their and their students’ intercultural competencies.

Towards the prevailing versatility of cultures in Greece, 26 schools (13 primary and 13 secondary) all over the country have been designated as intercultural, applying special curricula and courses so as to meet the cultural and social needs of all learners (Maniatis, 2012; Markou, 1993). The objective of the present study is to investigate the beliefs and perceptions on the part of the teachers working in Greek intercultural education with regard to the traits and qualities of an interculturally competent teacher. More specifically, this study aims to sketch the profile of an interculturally competent teacher according to Deardorff’s (2006) intercultural competence model, a proposal for the assessment of intercultural competence linked to certain attitudes, knowledge, and skills of an interculturally competent teacher. The authors hope to demonstrate the extent to which the participating teachers are flexible, adaptable, empathetic, and able to view the world from others’ perspectives, and thus exhibit an effective as well as appropriate behaviour in a culturally diverse context.

2. Intercultural Education

Cultural diversity in intercultural education refers to other things besides ethnicity and race. In fact, gender, class, and religion, among others, are also regarded as being different aspects of cultural diversity. Consequently, we could consider nearly all classrooms as culturally diverse (Holm & Zilliacus, 2009).

Therefore, students are expected to rise to the challenge of functioning in different cultural environments at the risk of experiencing stress and alienation. It is critically important that intercultural education should be a dynamic and continuous process, inclusive in nature, which has to spread through the whole educational system (Valeeva & Valeeva, 2017). What is more, intercultural education is supposed to facilitate individuals to function effectively in the new cultural context (Albert & Triandis, 1985; Portera, 2008) and create new pathways for the students to think and act (Lanas, 2014).

Based on the existing literature, we could conclude that the implementation of intercultural education aims at not only the acceptance but also the understanding and appreciation of the otherness, emphasizing the similarities rather than the differences that individuals from different cultural backgrounds have (Mpezati &
Theodosopoulou, 2010). Finally, not only is intercultural education the passive coexistence of different cultures, which accept or at least tolerate each other, that should be achieved by means of education, but it is also the understanding, the respect, the interaction, and the marked impact which take place among them (Siassiakos et al., 2007; UNESCO, 2006).

2.1 Conceptualising intercultural competence as a key characteristic of teachers

There seems to be a consensus among researchers that intercultural competence is a lifelong developmental process which is hardly ever complete and can continuously be enriched through a range of intercultural experiences along with intercultural education (Barrett et al., 2014; Deardorff, 2009a; Salgur & Gursoy, 2015). Deardorff suggested that intercultural competence can be defined as “effective and appropriate behaviour and communication in intercultural situations” (Deardorff, 2009b, p. 33). However, she also stressed that intercultural competence, albeit measurable, should not be evaluated holistically but in its separate components instead. An inventory alone would not be a sufficient measurement of the concept. Taking into consideration that, just like culture, intercultural competence is a dynamic process and thus constantly changing over time, both definition as well as assessment methods need reassessment on an on-going basis (Deardorff, 2006).

Deardorff (2006) devised a process model, which involves behavioural, cognitive, and attitudinal dimensions, viewing intercultural competence as a lifelong process and therefore suggesting that there is no point at which an individual could be completely interculturally competent. This leads to the conclusion that it is the developmental process, i.e., how an individual acquires those necessary attitudes, skills, and knowledge, that matters the most. Consequently, critical reflection should be regarded as being an important tool in the process of intercultural competence development.

More specifically, Deardorff (2006) points out that attitudes such as respect, openness, curiosity, and discovery are the basis of this framework which influences all the other elements of intercultural competence. Knowledge has to do primarily with the significance of understanding the world not only from one’s own perspective but also from others. Skills such as observation, evaluating, analyzing, interpreting, and relating, on the other hand, refer to the acquisition and processing of the necessary knowledge. These elements lead to internal outcomes which refer to the individual’s capability of being adaptable, flexible, empathetic, having an ethnorelative view, all of which are reflected in one’s observable behaviour and communication styles (external outcome). This behaviour is viewed as the visible evidence that a person is or learning to be interculturally competent.

In a nutshell, Deardorff proposed an open, circular model which implies that intercultural competence is a ceaseless process in which individuals are free to enter
at any point and move from one category to another or even go back to probe into concepts previously encountered. It seems that teachers, along with families, are the ones who are likely to influence both their students’ thinking and actions (2006). Hence, it is essential for a teacher to not only acquire specific knowledge and skills but also constantly improve and develop them so as to become interculturally competent (Salgur & Gursoy, 2015).

For most educators, intercultural competence appears to be a lifelong condition which presupposes continuous reflection, openness, and willingness for learning from each other, as well as an aim for enhancing cultural awareness, mutual understanding, cooperation, and interaction between diverse populations. Also, being a broad worldview, intercultural competence should be regarded as a prerequisite to be able to provide students with those tools necessary to analyse global phenomena (Jokikokko, 2010). Certain skills, knowledge, and qualities such as awareness of one’s culture and that of others, effective verbal and non-verbal communication skills, sensitivity to intercultural differences, flexibility, perceptiveness, and adaptability are also considered to be the route to teachers’ intercultural competence (McCalman, 2007).

Given the utmost importance of a culturally responsive classroom, teachers should follow certain guidelines, especially in inclusive settings, in order to promote all students’ academic, social, and behavioural skills. In brief, ongoing and systematic assessment, regarding the teachers’ relationship with their students and understanding of others’ cultures, as well as the students’ abilities, attitudes, and social skills, are critical. Furthermore, culturally sensitive instructional methods and materials, along with an interactive learning classroom environment which also respects all individuals and their cultures, are believed to be crucial in order for a teacher to be culturally responsive (Montgomery, 2001).

In an attempt to describe what an interculturally competent teacher looks like, Deardorff (2009a) suggested that three key attitudes (openness, respect, and curiosity) are the foundation of teachers’ intercultural competence. The claim is that once these attitudes are in place as a starting point, teachers are capable of honing their knowledge and skills. Concerning knowledge, the most important components, which are necessary to help develop a more interculturally competent teacher, are cultural self-awareness and culture-specific information. With regard to the skills a teacher ought to have in order to be interculturally competent, the most valuable ones, according to Deardorff (2009a), are listening and observing. Needless to say, knowing how to relate and evaluate the already obtained knowledge is seen as significant while engaging in active reflection should also be a priority. When the above-mentioned requisite attitudes, knowledge, and skills are acquired and used, teachers become flexible, adaptable, empathetic, and able to see the world beyond their own way which results in effective as well as appropriate behaviour and communication in interactions with people from different cultures.
As regards the development of interculturally competent teachers, there is evidence that teachers could benefit from intercultural learning opportunities such as experiencing other cultures in order to understand and explain similarities and differences between people with diverse cultural affiliations (Deardorff, 2006), travelling and teaching abroad (Walters, Garri, & Walters, 2009), and attending specially designed educational programmes to improve a range of specific skills and competences (Dejaeghere & Cao, 2009; Sercu, 2006). Regarding spending time abroad, however, it has been suggested that it is the degree of one’s involvement in a foreign everyday life that should probably be taken into consideration. As far as intercultural training is concerned, the expected disparity among different kinds of training might play a key role (Salazar & Agüero, 2016). Further, there seems to be a general concurrence among several scholars that even when teachers are being exposed to the aforementioned experiences, they can hardly become interculturally competent without self-reflective processes and the willingness to critically assess their own position (Deardorff, 2009a; Deardorff & Jones, 2012; Rissanen, Kuusisto, & Kuusisto, 2016).

In essence, intercultural competence does not and cannot occur accidentally to teachers, and thus it needs to be intentionally addressed through education. The more interculturally competent teachers become, the more likely they are to foster the development of intercultural competence in their students (Malazonia, Maglakelidze, Chiaabrishvili, & Gakheladze, 2017). Once teachers are adequately prepared, they are capable of taking the lead in developing interculturally competent citizens of the world (Deardorff, 2009a).

Borg (2003) uses the term “teachers’ cognition” to refer to what teachers know, believe, and think (p. 81), pointing out that it is closely related to teachers’ past experiences, educational background, knowledge, and perception as well as various environmental factors. Gender has also proved to be a crucial variable which influences teachers’ beliefs (Estalkhi, Mohammadi, Bakshiri, & Kamali, 2011; Nisbet & Warren, 2000). Intercultural as well as educational experiences appear to be likely to cause changes (Garmon, 2004). There is clear evidence, however, that personal intercultural experiences, staying abroad, and experiencing diverse cultural environments may be more influential compared to traditional education (Lázár, 2003). Bennett (1986; 2011, as cited in Leutwyler & Mantel, 2015) on the other hand, claims that teachers’ beliefs vary depending on the level of their intercultural sensitivity.

Nevertheless, it could be argued that since research aiming at understanding the context-specific nature of teachers’ beliefs seems to be scarce (Leutwyler & Mantel, 2015; Pajares, 1992), there is a resounding call for further understanding of teachers’ beliefs on intercultural competence in order to help educators deal effectively with different cultural settings.
2.2 The Greek context

Due to considerable demographic, economic, and socio-political changes, Greece has been transformed from an emigration country to an immigration one. Consequently, the unprecedented wave of immigration has significantly changed the country’s composition of resident population (Maniatis, 2012; Markou, 1993).

A turn in Greek educational policy took place in 1996, which was a milestone year, as the last article of law 2413/96 was a sign of acknowledgement of the multicultural aspect of the country. A new way of perceiving educational policy was introduced, enabling schools with a large number of foreign students to apply special curricula and courses to meet the cultural and social needs of their learners and thus converting mainstream schools to intercultural ones. However, in practical terms, it could be argued that there has been no policy of intercultural orientation since the law did not specify either the actual curricula or the specific courses (Maniatis, 2012).

Today 26 intercultural state schools (13 primary and 13 secondary) are spread all over Greece, aiming at managing the versatility of cultures in the Greek context. However, the very limited number of native students in the schools along with the absence of intercultural schools in certain regions, such as Peloponnese, raise questions on both the way intercultural education is implemented and the extent to which it is systematic and well organized (Tsaliki, 2017).

As far as Greek teachers’ initial education and in-service training are concerned, intercultural education has become a part of them both since it has been incorporated into certain university courses addressed to primary and secondary pre-service teachers. Additionally, agents of the Ministry of Education in Greece have organized training seminars of long duration on either a mandatory or an optional basis (Spinthourakis & Karatzia-Stavlioti, 2006).

In a nutshell, more emphasis should be placed on the fact that the limited number of intercultural schools in Greece along with the tendency of a large number of foreign students to attend mainstream schools may hinder the systematic and well-organised provision of intercultural education. It seems indisputable that an intercultural approach has to infuse the entire Greek educational system for each and every student rather than be confined to those state schools designated as intercultural. Furthermore, the need for adequately educated teachers with regard to intercultural issues and teaching practices should not be neglected (Palaiologou & Faas, 2012).
3. The Present Study

This study sought broad and comprehensive understanding of the complex phenomenon of teachers’ beliefs pertaining to the attitudes, knowledge, and skills of an interculturally competent teacher as defined by consensus in the abovementioned study by Deardorff. Exploring any possible influences of demographic factors on teachers’ beliefs was another concern of the present study. Therefore, the research questions were formulated as follows:

1. What are the teachers' views on the attitudes, skills, and knowledge, as those are envisaged in Deardorff's model, which an interculturally competent teacher should have?
2. Do teachers' beliefs differ in terms of: a) gender, b) age, c) level of education, d) additional intercultural training, e) past teaching experience, and f) past intercultural teaching experience?

3.1 The research context

The research study took place in six intercultural junior high schools in Greece: in Athens, Thessaloniki, Kozani, Pentalofos (Ioannina), Iasmos (Komotini), and Irakleon (Crete). The research context was based on several reasons. Firstly, the particular state schools provide compulsory lower level secondary education and thus are supposed to play a key role in students’ education especially for those who decide not to further their studies. Secondly, the student population is comprised of adolescents who are considered to be a challenging as well as demanding group of individuals in terms of teacher competencies and skills. What is more, students at this age have already developed their cultural identity which teachers need to show consideration for when attempting to approach them. This constitutes a crucial intercultural skill for an interculturally competent teacher. Therefore, studying the perceptions of teachers working in such a context seemed challenging as well as extremely useful in terms of pedagogical understanding.

The research sample consisted of 59 Greek teachers (39 female, 20 male) who teach in all six intercultural junior high schools with multicultural students in Greece. All the participants, aged from 22 to over 50 years old, held academic degrees including bachelor’s, master’s, and PhDs, and had already been provided with additional intercultural training via undergraduate courses, seminars, and/or conferences on intercultural issues. Regarding foreign languages, all participating teachers spoke at least one, whereas some claimed B1 proficiency in more than one foreign language. The vast majority of the teachers (96%) were experienced and had been working in state schools, including intercultural ones, for more than five years.
3.2 Data collection and analysis

This study is a piece of quantitative research analysing data collected through a questionnaire which was devised in Greek and piloted in Thessaloniki. A five-point Likert-type scale was used, with five options ranging from 1) strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) neither agree nor disagree, 4) agree, to 5) strongly agree depending on their most likely reaction. The questionnaire had 64 questions and was divided into 4 sections. The first section included demographic questions to form the teacher’s profile and had eight question items. The second section included 22 statements related to teachers’ intercultural attitudes (e.g., “An interculturally competent teacher should believe that he/she should teach his/her students that diversity is an opportunity for personal knowledge and development”). The third section had 18 statements investigating teachers’ intercultural knowledge (e.g., “An interculturally competent teacher should know how to interpret his/her students’ verbal as well as non-verbal behaviour depending on their cultural background”). Finally, the fourth section had 16 statements on intercultural skills (e.g., “An interculturally competent teacher should be able to provide solutions to problems caused due to diversity and ambiguity through an intercultural lens”) (see Appendix A).

Concerning the first research question, the results are demonstrated with overall mean value (measure of central tendency) and standard deviation (measure of dispersion) for all the 5-point Likert scale measured factors: a) attitudes, b) knowledge, and c) skills. Further statistical analyses were performed to explore the impact of the participants’ gender, age, level of education, additional intercultural training, and past teaching experience either in intercultural education or in any other educational field on their responses in order to investigate the second research question.

One-way ANOVA and t-tests were used to verify any statistical significance for the mean values. All statistical calculations were performed using SPSS (version 17). In an attempt to keep the chance of committing a type I error as small as possible, a 5% statistical significance level has been considered for all statistical tests (Bland & Altman, 1995; Muijs, 2010).

4. Results and Discussion

Research question 1: What are the teachers’ views on the attitudes, skills, and knowledge, as those are envisaged in Deardorff’s model, which an interculturally competent teacher should have?

With respect to the statements describing interculturally competent teachers’ attitudes, the results (see Table 1) demonstrated that the participants provided an overall mean score that was 4.11. Since the agree point on the Likert scale was scored as 4, the findings revealed that the participants were all in agreement with this
fundamental component of intercultural competence. More specifically, the participants seemed to hold similar views with regard to the requisite attitudes, which consist of respect (valuing others and their cultures), openness (to cultural diversity, withholding judgment, intercultural learning) and curiosity as well as discovery (tolerance towards ambiguity and uncertainty).

Similarly, regarding intercultural knowledge, which refers mainly to cultural self-awareness and the knowledge of others, the overall mean score was 4.17. This score is slightly higher compared to the one on attitudes but still indicates agreement with the statements referring to the knowledge an interculturally competent teacher needs to have.

Lastly, it was estimated that for intercultural skills, which are based on observation, evaluating, analyzing, interpreting, and relating, the overall mean score was 4.20, showing not only the participants’ agreement but even a slight tendency to strongly agree with the statements focusing on these intercultural skills as a critical characteristic of interculturally competent teachers.

Table 1

The participants’ level of agreement on factor items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum Score</th>
<th>Maximum Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge (N=18 items)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills (N=16 items)</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows examples of factor items and the corresponding percentages which indicate the participants’ level of agreement. More specifically, confirming Deardorff’s reference to openness as a key attitude, the vast majority of the participants strongly agreed that interculturally competent teachers should not make quick assumptions but should withhold judgment concerning their students’ attitudes and behaviour. Also, it is worth mentioning that there was an apparent uniformity of the teachers’ beliefs concerning the development of students’ intercultural thinking. This is consistent with the notion that one of the critical goals of intercultural education is to create new pathways for students to think and act (Lanas, 2014). What is more, the particular finding is in line with the results obtained by Jokikokko
(2010), which suggested that an interculturally competent teacher should teach students to analyse global phenomena.

The degree of agreement was broadly similar with regard to the knowledge necessary to interpret the students’ verbal and non-verbal behaviour as this is defined by their cultural background. Such a finding is congruent with the view of verbal and non-verbal communication skills as the route to intercultural competence (McCalman, 2007). Furthermore, knowing how to adapt teaching materials in order to meet student needs defined by globalisation and diversity as well as incorporate their different attitudes and beliefs into the teaching practice were both considered as key knowledge of an interculturally competent teacher.

As for the essential skills of an interculturally competent teacher, most participants appeared to agree on the importance of evaluating interactions and situations in the classroom based on both their as well as others’ culture. On average, teachers also expressed agreement on the significance of realizing the similarities and differences between their culture and that of others. In fact, the majority of the participants agreed or even strongly agreed on the need for interculturally competent teachers to understand these similarities and differences.

Table 2

Examples of factor items and the participants’ level of agreement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree Or Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An interculturally competent teacher should believe that…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she should not avoid quick assumptions and prejudging the students’ attitudes and behaviour</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>30,5%</td>
<td>69,5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she should mentor his/her students in developing intercultural thinking</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree Or Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An Interculturally Competent Teacher Should Know…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how to interpret his/her students’ verbal as well as non-verbal behaviour depending on their cultural background</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>42,4%</td>
<td>57,6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how to adapt his/her teaching materials so that they meet the students’ needs which have been defined by globalisation and diversity</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>44,1%</td>
<td>55,9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To conclude, in line with what Deardorff (2006) suggested as critical qualities of an interculturally competent teacher in terms of attitudes, knowledge, and skills, the participants who seemed to either agree or strongly agree with the statements comprising our questionnaire were in the majority. With regard to the very few inconsistencies, it could be said that, since according to literature (Barrett et al., 2014; Deardorff, 2009a; Salgur & Gursoy, 2015) teachers’ intercultural competence is a lifelong, ceaseless process which is hardly ever complete, uncertainty with respect to teachers’ beliefs is presupposed and expected as well.

Research Question 2: Do teachers' beliefs differ in terms of: a) gender, b) age, c) level of education, d) additional intercultural training, e) past teaching experience, f) past intercultural teaching experience?

In order to investigate whether there was a discrepancy between the participants’ gender and their level of agreement regarding the three sets of question items on intercultural attitudes, knowledge, and skills, as those were defined in Deardorff’s model, independent samples t test was used, the output of which is illustrated in Table 3.

There was clear evidence that there was a significant effect by gender on the participants’ responses to statements describing intercultural skills such as the ability on the part of the teacher to observe, evaluate, analyse, interpret, and relate. More precisely, not only did females appear to agree with the particular items, but they also gave a significantly higher score (M = 4,27; SD = 0,22) compared to males (M = 4,09; SD = 0,21). The difference in scores with regard to the participants’ gender is also illustrated in Figure 1. This finding is in line with previous studies (Estalkhi et al., 2011; Nisbet & Warren, 2000) and could lead to the conclusion that females, possibly due to social reasons, are likely to consider the ability to observe, analyse, evaluate, relate, and interpret as critical skills for a teacher to be interculturally competent.
Table 3

**Impact of the participants’ gender on the dependent variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t score</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-0.441</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Skills</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>-3.057</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4.27*</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1: Impact of the participants’ gender on the dependent variables*

The results from the one-way ANOVA test demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between the respondents’ age and the level of their agreement concerning the statements indicating certain intercultural skills which could enhance one’s understanding and respect for people who have different cultural affiliations (Table 4). More specifically, even though all the participants scored higher than the agree point, those who were 51 or more years old gave responses for which the mean value was even higher (M = 4.28; SD = 0.22) showing a clearer tendency towards strong agreement with the particular statements. For participants aged 41-50 years, the mean scores were M = 4.24; SD = 0.21. Lastly, the
participants who were younger than 40 provided the lowest mean score (M = 4.07; SD = 0.22), and therefore seemed to be more skeptical and less willing to express their strong agreement compared to their older colleagues. It could be inferred that since intercultural competence is believed to be continuously enriched by intercultural experiences as well as education (Barrett et al., 2014; Deardorff, 2009b; Salgur & Gursoy, 2015), the younger the participants, the less interculturally aware they may be. Figure 2 depicts this discrepancy clearly.

Table 4
Impact of the participants’ level of education on the dependent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Age (n)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minim.</th>
<th>Maxim.</th>
<th>F(2,56)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;40 (16)</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.543</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>41-50 (22)</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51+ (21)</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>&lt;40 (16)</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50 (22)</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51+ (21)</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>&lt;40 (16)</td>
<td>4.07*</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.851</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50 (22)</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51+ (21)</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In an attempt to investigate the impact of the participants’ level of education on their responses, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. As depicted in Figure 3, a significant difference was found regarding the statements related to intercultural attitudes. Specifically, the participants holding a bachelor’s degree showed a greater tendency to strongly agree, giving a higher mean score (M = 4.23; SD = 0.26) compared to the ones provided by the participants who had already furthered their studies either in intercultural or other fields of education (see Table 5). A possible explanation could be that, despite having no post-graduate degree, the particular participants might have experienced diverse cultural environments which are believed to be more influential compared to traditional education (Lázár, 2003). What is more, we can assume that the participants who had furthered their studies might have been better informed on intercultural issues and therefore more cautious as well as hesitant to express their strong agreement on the particular items.

*Figure 2: Impact of the participants’ age on the dependent variables*
Figure 3: Impact of the participants’ level of education on the dependent variables

Table 5: Impact of the participants’ level of education on the dependent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Educational Level (n)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviat.</th>
<th>Minim.</th>
<th>F(2,56)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>Post grad IE (24)</td>
<td>4,07</td>
<td>0,12</td>
<td>3,82</td>
<td>5,535</td>
<td>0,006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post grad other (16)</td>
<td>4,03</td>
<td>0,20</td>
<td>3,64</td>
<td>4,41</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA (19)</td>
<td>4,23</td>
<td>0,26</td>
<td>3,73</td>
<td>4,68</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Post grad IE (24)</td>
<td>4,12</td>
<td>0,14</td>
<td>3,89</td>
<td>4,44</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post grad other (16)</td>
<td>4,16</td>
<td>0,20</td>
<td>3,83</td>
<td>4,72</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA (19)</td>
<td>4,24</td>
<td>0,25</td>
<td>3,94</td>
<td>4,78</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4,17</td>
<td>0,20</td>
<td>3,83</td>
<td>4,78</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Post grad IE (24)</td>
<td>4,20</td>
<td>0,24</td>
<td>3,75</td>
<td>4,56</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post grad other (16)</td>
<td>4,13</td>
<td>0,21</td>
<td>3,69</td>
<td>4,44</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA (19)</td>
<td>4,28</td>
<td>0,21</td>
<td>3,94</td>
<td>4,69</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4,21</td>
<td>0,23</td>
<td>3,69</td>
<td>4,69</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One-way ANOVA was used as a statistical method of analysis to look into the impact of additional training, via undergraduate courses, seminars, and/or conferences, on the participants’ beliefs about the attitudes, knowledge and skills of an interculturally competent teacher. It is worth mentioning that the sample of the present study was grouped based on the number of types of vocational training relevant to intercultural issues they had previously been provided with. As shown in Table 6 the results revealed the following.

All mean scores were above the agree point (4). Surprisingly, as far as the statements focusing on intercultural attitudes are concerned, the participants who had attended only one of the aforementioned types of training gave the highest mean score (M = 4.34; SD = 0.48) compared to those who had attended two (M = 4.16; SD = 0.19) and all three types of additional training (under-graduate courses, seminars, conferences). The differences regarding the scores given by the three groups were found marginally significant (p = .60). However, the reliability of such findings might be questionable since the number of participants with the highest score was extremely small (only two teachers).

It was also found that for intercultural knowledge, the two participants who had attended one of the types of additional training provided mean values which were higher (M = 4.44; SD = 0.39) than those of participants who reported having attended two (M = 4.19; SD = 0.20) or the ones who had attended all three types of vocational training (M = 4.14; SD = 0.18). The results once more showed a marginal difference (p = .087). The findings are in line with Salazar & Agüero, (2016) suggesting that it is the kind rather than the number of types of training that might have an impact on the participants’ intercultural profile.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Number of types of training</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minim.</th>
<th>Maxim.</th>
<th>F(2,56)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2.967</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>2.557</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The number of years of the participants’ teaching experience in either intercultural or other field of education seemed to have no impact on their level of agreement to all statements in our questionnaire. Other factors such as the context specific nature of the participants’ beliefs may have played a role. It should be stressed, however, that as shown in Tables 7 and 8, all the teachers who participated in this study expressed a similar level of agreement and in some cases a tendency to strongly agree with the attitudes, knowledge, and skills suggested in Deardorff’s model since they provided mean scores higher than 4 which was the agree point on the Likert-scale.

Table 7

Impact of the years of the participants’ teaching experience on the dependent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Years (n)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minim.</th>
<th>Maxim.</th>
<th>F(2,56)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>1-10 (12)</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (21)</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;15 (26)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>1-10 (12)</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (21)</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;15 (26)</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>1-10 (12)</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>2.217</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (21)</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;15 (26)</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.217</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8

Impact of the years of the participants’ intercultural teaching experience on the dependent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Years (n)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minim.</th>
<th>Maxim.</th>
<th>F(2,56)</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>1 – 10</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.676</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (14)</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 15 (16)</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>1 – 10</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (14)</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 15 (16)</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>1 – 10</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 (14)</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 15 (16)</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (59)</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusion

The results of the present study revealed a general agreement among the participants who seemed to acknowledge certain intercultural attitudes, knowledge, and skills as critical qualities for a teacher to be interculturally competent. Both gender and age had no significant effect on the participants’ level of agreement with respect to the statements relating to either intercultural attitudes or knowledge. A statistical difference, however, was found between the participants’ gender as well as age and the scores given regarding intercultural skills. Moreover, the participants’ level of education was found to impact on their level of agreement regarding intercultural attitudes only, but not knowledge and skills. Also, there was a statistically marginal difference between the number of types of additional training on the part of the participants and their responses to the statements focusing on intercultural attitudes and knowledge. No effect was found with regard to intercultural skills. Lastly, contrary to our expectations, the participants’ previous teaching experience in intercultural or other domains appeared to have no effect on their beliefs. Overall, this research indicates a necessity to further investigate teachers’ beliefs concerning intercultural competence in order to improve, elaborate, and even reinforce the results found serving as a contribution to promote intercultural education in interests of both universalism and cultural pluralism.
References


Appendix A

Intercultural Teachers’ Questionnaire

Please, put a “✔” or a “+” in the box that corresponds to your answer

.DEMOGRAPHIC AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Gender
   [ ] Male [ ] Female

2. Age
   [ ] 22 – 30 [ ] 31-40 [ ] 41-50 [ ] 51 +

3. Specialty
   [ ] Philologist [ ] Teacher of Art
   [ ] Teacher of foreign languages [ ] Teacher of religion
   [ ] Teacher of maths/Science [ ] Teacher of ICT
   [ ] Teacher of Physical Education
   [ ] Other

4. Highest Educational level completed
   4.1 Studies in Intercultural Education
   [ ] Master Degree [ ] Doctorate Degree
   Studies in other fields of education
   [ ] Master Degree [ ] Doctorate Degree

   4.2 Courses-Seminars-Conferences:
   [ ] Undergraduate courses in Intercultural Education
   [ ] Seminars on Intercultural Education issues
   [ ] Conferences on Intercultural Education
   [ ] None of the above

   If yes, please clarify:
   [ ] 1-10 hours [ ] 11-20 hours [ ] 21-30 hours [ ] 31-40 hours [ ] More

4.3 Foreign Languages (Level B1).
   [ ] One [ ] More than one [ ] None

5. Teaching Experience

5.1 Number of years teaching in state, private schools or/and tutorial classes
   [ ] 1-5 [ ] 6-10 [ ] 11-15
   [ ] More than 15

5.2 Number of years teaching in Intercultural schools or/and ethnically diverse classes with a large number of immigrants, refugees or foreigners.
   [ ] 1-5 [ ] 6-10 [ ] 11-15
   [ ] More than 15
Now please tick the appropriate box on the next page indicating the degree you agree or disagree with the following statements

6. In your point of view, an Interculturally Competent teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>should believe …</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree/ Nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 that he/she should not forbid others to be different.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 that he/she should be eager to learn about new cultures, new customs and traditions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 that dealing with the characteristics of different cultures is as important as dealing with the subject content itself.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 that school pays a key role in the students’ acquisition of intercultural skills.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 that it is necessary to promote the understanding of each and every student’s culture and civilisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 that he/she should not make quick assumptions, and prejudge the students’ attitudes and behaviour.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 does not need to deviate from his/her own teaching style and practices and remain firm instead..</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 that he/she has to adapt the way he/she communicates with his/her students, taking into consideration their diversity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 that he/she needs to constantly try to reduce his/her internal conflicts, overcome estrangement and accept cultural difference.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 that he/she should not have a negative attitude and opinion towards cultural differences and otherness.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 that it is necessary to realise the strength and value of cultural diversity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 that his/her students’ attitudes and behaviour are based on their culturally-conditioned background.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 that he/she should not focus only on the subject content but deploy diversity as a tool for learning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 that his/her culture is one of the many cultures which coexist in the classroom setting.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 that he/she should not measure his/her students’ behaviour based on other than his/her culturally-conditioned expectations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 that he/she should value and appreciate his/her students’ different background even if he/she may disagree with their beliefs and opinions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that he/she should be constantly eager and make an effort to learn about his/her students’ civilisation and culture.

that one of his/her roles is to help his/her students treat diversity with respect

that he/she should teach his/her students that diversity is an opportunity for personal knowledge and development.

that he/she should mentor his/her students in developing intercultural thinking.

that people share common needs, interests and goals in life which are more important than their cultural differences.

that he/she should acknowledge the fact that his/her students’ behaviour and attitudes are an inherent part of their civilisation and culture.

7. In your point of view, an Interculturally Competent teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Should know ....</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree/ Nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>how to adapt his/her teaching materials so that it meets the students’ needs which have been defined by globalisation and diversity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his/her students’ worldviews differ depending on their ideals and values.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his/her beliefs have been influenced by his/her own culture and civilisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how to interpret his/her students’ verbal as well as non-verbal behaviour depending on their cultural background.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that he/she should adapt his/her verbal and non-verbal behaviour depending on the students’ cultural background.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that he/she should fully understand the way the students’ culture and civilisation have defined their personal identity and worldview.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the importance of constant theoretical feedback with the knowledge and skills necessary for intercultural education.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how to provide his/her students with information about the history, geography etc of different nations and civilisations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
his/her own culture while at the same time is eager to know others’ culture as well.

which particular cultural values of his/her own influence and eventually define the way he/she behaves and communicates with his/her students.

his/her own worldview.

how to be aware of the differences between his/her worldviews and his/her students’ worldviews.

that there is always more knowledge to acquire in order to understand his/her students’ background.

ways to incorporate the students’ different attitudes and beliefs into his/her teaching practice.

which perceptions are promoted through his/her teaching materials.

how to make his/her teaching materials representative of his/her class’s different cultural characteristics.

that his/her role and responsibility is to meet nothing else but his/her students’ learning needs.

that he/she should fully accept the way his/her students’ culture and civilisation has impacted on their personal identity and worldview as well.

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Thank you indeed for your time!!

Chapter 17

The Cultural Content of English Language Textbooks: The Target, the Local, or the Third Place Culture

Laure Roumi Salem
University of Balamand, Lebanon

Abstract

This paper discusses the perceived disengagement and disinterest of students in English language learning within a specific university context in Lebanon. It argues that the reason behind this phenomenon is the gap between what is happening in the English language classroom and students’ culture. Students’ apparent disengagement raises questions concerning the culture portrayed in their EFL textbooks. In the field of book publishing, the local culture is absent from books produced in the USA or the UK, where most EFL textbooks are published. The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of the cultural components of English language textbooks, to address local stakeholders’ fear of the domination of the culture of the English-speaking countries, and to look at ways of engaging students in the process of teaching and learning. This paper proposes points of congruence between the local culture of English learners, the culture of the USA and the UK whose native language is widely referred to as the world lingua franca, and an intercultural approach to create a third place culture or non-essentialism stances in the cultural context of English language textbooks.

1. Introduction

English has become the world’s lingua franca and a primary foreign language to be learnt in an increasingly global society. Most people who want to keep up with the modern global village need to have good communicative competence in English.
In this global village, Lebanon is a multicultural and multilingual society due to its position as a gateway between the east and west. Lebanon has now moved from being a bilingual to a trilingual country as English has gained in status as one of the main second languages. Students learn English to better communicate with others from different cultures. More specifically, most students in Lebanon receive a minimum of six years of English instruction in public and private schools as well as in higher education. This is due to the government’s concern about preparing citizens who will have to interact with other citizens in the new world economy.

English Language Teaching (ELT) has become a vast industry in Lebanon. Textbooks are used extensively in English language education and have a primary function as instructional guides, determining the themes of materials and sequencing of teaching points. Shaaban (2005) reports that private schools usually prefer imported textbooks for their appropriateness. Accordingly, the import of English textbooks from the USA and the UK is flourishing.

A large number of the English language students in the Lebanese context often show disengagement and lack of interest in learning English although they are aware of its importance in their future careers (Shaaban, 2005; Salem, 2013). This is partly a result of the focus of the textbooks on the target culture; some textbooks reflect the authors’ way of looking at the world. These textbooks are usually written from the perspective of the writers for learners in general, not in a specific context, ignoring the multiple realities of students’ need for functional and communicative proficiency. This could be what leads most of them to declare that they study English because it is a requirement in the syllabus.

Many publishers and writers of English language textbooks also ignore the fact that English is a tool for developing intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communicative competence, according to Byram (2009), consists of knowledge, skills, understanding, and attitudes that enable people to be engaged in successful communication in the diverse, multicultural world we inhabit.

According to Alptekin (1993, p. 139), textbook writers are consciously or unconsciously influenced by their own cultural background in their writing. Hence, learners may, unavoidably, acquire cultural knowledge of the target language or the mores of the writers’ English-speaking societies—British or American—when using such textbooks. To further complicate the situation, many English textbook writers, students, and academics prefer relying exclusively on information that is specific to their own or local culture. A consequence of this preference is that it will be difficult, if not impossible, for the learners to develop intercultural communicative competence and thus to avoid essentialism and culturalism.
Essentialism considers that “there is a universal essence, homogeneity and unity in a particular culture” (Holliday, Hyde, & Kullman, 2004, p. 2). However, people belong to different cultures; there is no one nation, one language, one identity and one culture that could justify the need for intercultural competence (Holliday et al., 2004, p. 144).

English language should be taught in a manner consistent with the local culture expectations and sensitive to the local cultural context. Accordingly, the use of western cultural content in ELT texts in Lebanon or other non-western countries needs to be re-examined in order to avoid essentialism and culturalism, and to inspire more engagement. There should be a shift from western essentialist attitudes in the production of English textbooks that look at culture as a set of facts and divide the world into “us” and “them” to a global stance or a third place where there will not be dichotomies (Liddicoat, Scarino, Papademetre, & Kholer, 2003). The focus is that existing approaches to the production of English language textbooks should be revised and refined, to help raise awareness of the role of intercultural competence in fostering both understanding and acceptance of differences (Salem, 2013).

The above issues have given rise to some questions concerning the effect of the culture portrayed of ELT textbook on students. This leads to other related questions: Is there a fear among some groups of people such as learners, academics and policy makers that one culture, the culture of the target language, might overwhelm the local culture or the learners’ culture, or even eliminate it? How does one deal with this fear?

This paper will address these questions and try to provide answers. It will first outline the term culture in relation to English language teaching (ELT), discussing essentialist and non-essentialist views of culture. Next, it will investigate the use of the target culture and the importance of the inclusion of local culture in ELT materials. Finally, the paper will conclude with an advantageous third place or a non-essentialist stance, trying to find a space for intercultural competence in our English language textbooks.

2. Culture and English Language Textbooks

Over the past decades, much has been written on the role of culture in language learning and on the inseparable relationship between ELT textbooks and the culture of the speakers of the target language (Kramsch, 1993; Seelye, 1993). Being aware that the English language shapes the world we see, and that language cannot be separated from the social reality or culture of the learners, writers such as Kramsch (1993) and Nelson (1995) place culture learning at the core of language education. Accordingly, the new focus in ELT textbooks is on the integration of linguistic knowledge and communicative skills, which would demonstrate understanding of language usage in its cultural context.
Acknowledging its importance in ELT, writers examine and define “culture” from different perspectives. Weaver (1986) likens culture to an iceberg; a small percentage of what makes up culture is visible while most of it is under the water and beyond consciousness. Above the waterline are such things as fine arts, music, literature, cooking, and dress. Below the waterline are all those elements of culture that monitor and determine our daily behaviour, thinking, and emotions, but are not primarily conscious and might be sources of miscommunication. From these standpoints, several scholars and textbook writers, as noted below, see only the above the waterline concepts of culture, which leads to essentialism and culturalism. Holliday et al. (2004, p. 3) introduce cultural essentialism as a barrier to teaching and learning English as a foreign language. They claim that essentialism leads to “otherisation” where the individual is imagined as an alien which does not belong to ordinary and civilised group.

Regarding the cultural content of English language textbooks, essentialists see culture as an invariable and static entity. They believe that culture is knowing about sets of information or facts. This view focuses on the tip of the cultural iceberg. In other words, it is about a country or people, their lives, their history, their institutions, or their customs and artefacts that can be learnt and memorized. However, non-essentialists refute the notion of culture as a set of given attributes. Liddicoat et al. (2003) indicate that culture is not static or about memorising information, but it is changing and about action and understanding. As it is a process, Seelye (1993, p. 22) maintains that the act of learning is an engagement with practices, beliefs, and attitudes that make up cultures. The implications of this perspective may be a need for a balanced view of culture when designing textbooks or curricula.

Regarding behaviour, textbook writers have adopted essentialist views of culture. More specifically, they neglect the learners’ culture of learning, which is inherent in the educational and cultural tradition in which the process of learning takes place. For example, Chinese Confucianism, or Confucian culture of learning, is based on memorization; it is vocabulary and grammar oriented, and teacher centred, while the western culture of learning concentrates more on creativity and is task-based oriented and student-centred. Writers focus on the culture of learning of the target culture, believing that the western communicative method is the best method for ELT. Several writers, such as Liddicoat et al. (2003) and McKay (2003), have challenged the western culture of learning, advising textbook writers to go beyond the static notion of culture and calling for culturally sensitive methods.

3. Target Culture Portrayed in ELT Materials

Most of the textbooks adopted in teaching the English language in Lebanese schools and universities are produced by USA or UK publishers (Shaaban, 2005). Most of them are based on the target culture, which is the culture of these two societies.
Cortazzi and Jin (1999) stress the importance of teaching the culture of the speakers of the target language. They assume that it helps to develop cultural awareness and knowledge, which are key components in communicative competence. Risager (1991) asserts that cultural awareness has a crucial role in influencing both “cultural insight and attitude and identity development” in ELT (p. 160). Nelson (1995) assumes that with the acquisition of communicative competence, students will be more proficient in the process of language learning. Similarly, the author proposes that cultural competence — a combination of beliefs, knowledge, feelings, attitudes, and behaviour — helps students to become communicatively competent.

Majdzadeh (2002) studied the effect of neglecting the culture of the speakers of the target language. He investigated the disconnection between the English language and the culture of the language embodied in Iranian English textbooks used in public schools. These books are written with respect to the Islamic tradition, neglecting the cultural aspect of the target language. The author concluded that the lack of cultural knowledge among Iranian students in public schools affected their language use in context, which created a need to attend private language classes to increase their intercultural knowledge.

The culture content of English language textbooks produced in the target culture is one-sided, reflecting the culture of its writers, that is, the USA or UK culture. Arabs are great consumers of English language textbooks, but their exclusion is obvious in the materials produced in the USA or UK. Garcia (2005) examined the representation of culture in the English language textbooks series used in Spain (De Bachilleratto). The study showed that the focus in the series is on the culture of one of the English-speaking countries — the UK or the USA.

A number of English textbooks are also culture-specific, neglecting the below-the-waterline aspects of culture. They do not include materials that enhance the learning of cultural competence. Bennett (2005, p. 58) claims that the predictability and standardization of several textbooks’ content and their focus on one aspect of culture (i.e., the visible part of the cultural iceberg) invade the learners’ everyday life, robbing them of their ability for critical thought and transforming them into cultural dupes. Starkey (1991, p. 218) points out that today, publishers are convinced that ELT textbooks should go beyond boring issues. For instance, imaginary and stereotypical middle-class families leading very unproblematic lives, apart from the occasional car breakdown, serve to illustrate their supposed home country. Such above-the-waterline topics limit the worldview of the learner, for example, students learning a language are learning little about its culture.

4. ELT Textbooks and the Logic of Capitalism

As discussed in the previous section, authors go beyond the production of English textbooks for cultural competence. Bennett (2005) indicates that the logic of
capitalism is prevalent in ELT textbooks and symbolises the nature and ownership of power and control. Adorno and Horkheimer (as cited in Bennett, 2005, p. 16) claim that the production of books is under the control of powerful interest groups. Accordingly, books are offshoots of their economic exploitation; textbooks are reduced to a commodity (Bennett, 2005, p. 15). The commodification of ELT textbooks, without taking into consideration the wider socio-cultural context, can hinder the process of teaching and learning and trigger disengagement.

Thomas’s (1999) case study of educational change in Slovakia (as cited in Block and Cameron, 2002, p. 156), indicates that ELT publishers penetrated one East European country and replaced the communist-era course books with books that are inconsistent with local cultural and educational value and practice. Thomas reiterates that these best-selling ELT coursebooks are prevalent there not because of their suitability, but because of their commercial interests and their inability to achieve the desired turnover elsewhere. In this case, books reflect a worldview or cultural system that might be imposed on learners constructing their worldviews.

Focusing on the target culture with its specific aspects — reflecting the culture of the English-speaking countries’ culture and embodying capitalist logic — may cause learners to disengage and could make it difficult for them to make the best of their learning experience; it could also justify the fear among some people that one culture might overwhelm or crowd out the another.

Put differently, imposing values and norms on English learners through textbooks produced in the English-speaking countries has created fear among stakeholders of the domination of the western view of the world. To deal with this fear, therefore, several writers advise inclusion of local culture.

5. English Language Textbooks and the Local Culture

In the field of book publishing, the familiar or the local culture is usually absent from books produced in the USA and UK. Bennett (2005, p. 67) indicates that globalization has implications for the cultural content of ELT textbooks. He points out that the concept of the local culture is complicated by the process of globalisation, which is flattening out local cultures that are subsumed by a uniform global culture. Bennett proceeds to emphasise that there should be inclusion of local materials in English language textbooks in order to avoid local culture dilution (2005, p. 68).

Similarly, Nelson (1995) believes that the cultural content of English textbooks should be modified or adapted to suit local laws and cultures, stressing the importance of recognising and respecting non-native student cultures. He justifies his stance by drawing on schema theory in language learning. A schema is the stored background knowledge that the reader uses when he interacts with a text. According
to schema theory, comprehension involves an interaction between the (textual) input and the comprehender’s existing knowledge; successful understanding depends on the availability and activation of relevant schemata (Semino, 2000, p. 525). Semino adds, “differences in available background knowledge can result in differences and/or failures in comprehension” (2000, p. 527). Similarly, Nelson (1995) finds that students recall more if the text is related to their culture.

McKay (2003) highlights the importance of including materials related to the students’ culture. She states that writers should go beyond the native speaker in language teaching for projecting essentialist views of culture, i.e. neglecting the learner’s culture. McKay (2003) concludes that “each country in which EIL [English as an International Language] is being taught must take ownership of the language, selecting teaching content and methods that are appropriate to the local context” (p. 145).

McKay (2003) also suggests that a choice of intercultural content could imply that the teaching aims are better served by teaching English as an international language (EIL). However, the choice of which variety of English to teach is linked to issues of cultural content. Standard British (UK) or Standard American (USA) varieties would be consistent with exclusively the target cultural content. Strevens (1980) also indicates that the teaching of English means “the English of non-native speakers treated in its own right and accepted on a footing of equality” (p. 92). Nevertheless, local variations of English, such as Indian or Singaporean English, raise issues of intelligibility (Strevens, 1980, p. 63).

It is important to mention that this paper does not advocate the development of EIL that is based on neither the UK nor the USA variety. My position is that English language should be taught in a manner consistent with the local culture’s expectations and sensitive to the local cultural context. Accordingly, the use of western cultural content in ELT texts in Lebanon or other non-western countries needs to be re-examined in order to avoid otherization and to encourage more engagement.

Several writers have valued the local over the target culture or the culture of the English-speaking countries where most of the ELT books are published. They have already re-examined the content of their English language textbooks and focused on materials consistent with their local culture. For example, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) note that the characteristics of the source or local culture are remarkably manifested in textbooks produced in countries such as Venezuela, Turkey, and Saudi Arabia. The authors quoted three textbooks: *El Libro de ingle* (Nuñez, 1988) represents the Venezuelan culture; *Spotlight on English* (Dede & Emre, 1988) reflects the Turkish culture; and *English for Saudi Arabia* (Al-Quraishi, Watson, Hafseth, & Hickman, 1988) mirrors the Saudi Arabian culture. The writers believe that local culture should be strongly manifested in these books for two reasons. First, students want to
become aware of their own cultural identity. Second, students may need to talk about their culture to visitors. Source culture material helps them to maintain a link with their cultural roots (Bennett, 2005) and understand their own culture so they can share such understanding with people from different cultures.

The literature exemplifies the gain from the inclusion of the learner’s culture in the English language textbooks in some countries, such as Kuwait, Morocco and Chile. It shows that the use of authentic materials drawn from the local culture, for example, from local newspapers; magazines and textbooks, has many advantages in terms of language gains (Robinson, 1981). Teaching authentic texts facilitates students’ reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and improves attitudes towards foreign language learning as compared to students taught with textbook-based materials.

However, writers of textbooks focusing solely on the learner’s culture are separating English from culture, and thus falling into the trap of essentialism. They prevent learners from achieving cultural competence; the culture the learner brings becomes a barrier instead of a bridge (Jin and Cortazzi, 1998) which may be a step towards miscommunication. Accordingly, to avoid miscommunication and essentialism, some writers suggest intercultural language teaching e.g. a point of congruence or compatible elements from both cultures to reach a compromise and help learners meet the demand of being a member of the global village.

6. A Shift towards Non-Essentialism

In the production of English language textbooks, Gray (2002) and Kramsch (1993) indicate that there is a need to connect the world of English with the world of the learner. Adaskou, Britten and Fashi (1990), in their essay about the choice of the cultural content of the new English course for Moroccan secondary schools, point out that arriving at “a suitable cultural mix” to meet the needs of Moroccan students might reduce alienation from their own culture (p. 5). English learners need this same cultural mix to use in their lives.

Several writers point out the following ways to avoid essentialism or culturalism and to alleviate the fear of one culture overwhelming another or pushing it out (see, e.g., Feng & Byram, 2002). They advise the combination of compatible elements from both cultures or finding points of congruence. These points of congruence come under the umbrella of cultural synergy and a third place culture. It has been suggested that the focus should be on areas where there is cultural synergy, or as Feng and Byram (2002, p. 61) propose, mutual representations at the cultural level.
7. Cultural Synergy Model

To avoid the problem of essentialism and mono-culturalism, textbook writers should aim to depict culture from both an observer and informant’s perspectives. Jin and Cortazzi (1998, p. 114) suggest a Cultural Synergy Model (CSM) that involves mutual understanding of different cultures, communication styles, and academic cultures. This CSM sees culture in a comparative light and forms a link between different views and positions. To illustrate, the British eat pork; they also consume sherry (a fortified wine) in a dessert called trifle — a mixture of sponge cake, fruit, and sometimes jelly. Islam does not allow the consumption of alcohol or pork. Writers should focus on similarities/differences between the two food traditions. Thinking in terms of religion, Islam cannot be ignored as it is embedded in the Arab culture. CSM entails greater understanding and engagement in cultural similarities/differences regarding Islamic and Christian rituals and practices in English texts, for example, in praying and fasting.

Forming a link between different positions, CSM would mean mutual congruence of cultures of learning. Cortazzi and Jin (1996, pp. 201-202) exemplify the usefulness of this model in their case study research conducted in Britain with British university teachers and international students. Both sides reflected their opinion according to their culture of learning. Students stated that they got the best of both cultures from the culture of learning provided by British teachers; British teachers stated that they had to move towards the Chinese culture of learning.

What I mean here by CSM is its relation to the individual and their identity construction. CSM does not mean fusion of cultures or identities but rather understanding the other culture without losing one’s original cultural identity (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 117). CSM is an adaptation rather than assimilation to another culture. It is different from acculturation, which underlies a culture change due to direct or indirect contact with other cultures, resulting in change in identity, attitudes, and beliefs (Alfred, Byram, & Fleming, 2003, p. 163).

Holliday et al. (2004) point out that identity is derived from the non-essentialist view of culture. Collier and Thomas (as cited in Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 118) assume that cultural identity is mosaic: “[I]dentity is framed, negotiated, modified, confirmed and challenged through communication and contact with others.” Meyer (as cited in Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 117) too, confirms that such a model is likely to “stabilise learner’s self-identity.” The benefit of CSM is the avoidance of cultural imperialism and the fostering of intercultural communication, where students will be socially and educationally effective across cultures. Feng and Byram (2002, p. 61) recommend updating textbooks and propose mutual representations at the cultural level by using materials that suit the target culture and the learners’ own. However, the CSM sees others’ cultures in a comparative light, which might enhance essentialist stereotyping — Arabs riding camels, as an example.
8. A Third Place Culture

Kramsch (1993, p. 257) and Liddicoat et al. (2003) believe that a learner should take into consideration a third place and make it his/her own. Although CSM suggests more of an amalgamation of different cultures, a third place suggests a creation of a cultural identity which is unique to the individual (i.e., my third place would be different to the third place of another person even if we were drawing on the same set of cultures).

Recognizing that each language and its culture are inextricably related, intercultural language teaching fuses language learning and culture, and develops teaching and language learning approaches. Kramsch (1993) posits that language is a social practice and that intercultural learning is possible in the classroom where students move to a third place, construct a third culture that results from interaction of different discourses, and develop an understanding and tolerance of other cultures. Drawing a parallel with food in intercultural learning, when writers set the menu for a fictional British restaurant in an Islamic rural area in north Lebanon, they should take into consideration the local needs as well as the needs of the British restaurant. They should create a third place menu; that is, they should come up with a pork- and alcohol-free menu that meets the needs of both cultures. Thinking in terms of religion, textbook writers should create a third place, focusing on the two religions’ common belief in one God. A practising Muslim would like to talk in English about daily Muslim practices, such as praying, going to the mosque and fasting. Similarly, yet differently, a Christian would like to talk about Christian ways such as going to church, fasting, and so on.

In congruence with the third place view, Holliday et al. (2004) suggest a way out of the issue of culturalism described earlier. They suggest a third place culture that allows English learners to strengthen themselves and maintain their identity, while not reducing the other to an alien but finding the right way for communication. Similarly, in the production of English language textbooks, it is important for writers to make an informed decision when arriving at a third place from which to write books that draw on a range of cultures that enable learners to communicate appropriately and successfully in the global world (Byram, 2009).

Textbook developers in English-speaking countries, particularly the USA and the UK where most of the ELT textbooks are published, should downplay those countries’ culture in their books and avoid essentialist or static views of culture. Static understanding of culture results in stereotypical description and one-dimensional representation in textbooks. Understanding the dynamic view of culture could correct this misconception and facilitate intercultural learning. Lattore (1985), in his response to some criticisms raised against his textbook, *Trabajo y Vida*, claims that authors should remove stereotypes or avoid presenting the other as alien as this perpetuates misunderstanding — for example, the depiction of Arabs riding camels,
the Chinese sitting on the floor, and the Hispanic enjoying bullfighting. He adds that writers should find cultural grounds that may enable learners to develop themselves and others.

Writers should engage students by drawing on intercultural language teaching. Intercultural language teaching aims to equip the learner with the skills required for intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communicative competence is not only learning about another culture and comparing it to one’s own. An ideal textbook needs to be in line with Byram, Gribkova, and Starkey’s (2002) ideals; it can be written from intercultural and critical perspectives, which will help learners not to memorize facts but to argue and negotiate.

Finding a third place in instructional contexts helps learners to acquire or enhance their intercultural competence (Liddicoat et al., 2003). That is, students talk about, value, and understand both their own culture and the target culture. Students also make connections between the home culture and the target culture, developing intercultural understanding. This could be done by including Weaver’s (1986) cultural concepts and avoiding essentialism in English language textbooks.

9. Conclusion

In Lebanon, English as a lingua franca is a need and a vehicle for communication with other users in the global world. This paper argues that the lack of fitting cultural representation in ELT textbooks has been a contributory factor to essentialism and culturalism; textbooks focus mainly on the culture of English-speaking countries — UK or USA — and on the above-the-waterline aspects of culture. Invisibility of local cultures or the culture of English learners in textbooks produced in the UK or USA might create apprehension that the culture of those countries pushes the culture of the English learners out. This paper suggests that there should be a shift in cultural perspectives in ELT textbooks, which would cause publishers and writers to adopt non-essentialist views of culture. Focusing solely on the factual aspect of culture and on the target culture or on the local culture, as discussed above, might lead to students’ disengagement.

Adopting CSM might be beneficial. However, CSM sees culture in a comparative light; it is based on comparing and contrasting the two cultures involved, which might encourage stereotyping (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). This paper recommends intercultural language teaching or a third place approach in what can be referred to as an ideal textbook where there is no single dominant culture. Textbooks, wherever published, should include intercultural materials that can engage English learners and help them to develop intercultural competence, break cultural barriers, and become aware of themselves.
References


Chapter 18

An Examination and Analysis of a Learner’s Errors from the Perspective of a Pedagogical Grammar

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Abstract

Attitudes towards errors in language learning are changing as a result of recent contributions coming from the field of pedagogical grammar, which take into consideration notions of error analysis, contrastive analysis and the study of interlanguage. Errors, we argue, should be considered as opportunities to develop learners’ language awareness to further their learning, and as instances for teachers to design more effective remedial work. Through the analysis of a learner’s written assignment, Corder’s (1967) model of error analysis is applied in order to identify errors leading an understanding of the reasons behind the occurrence of inconsistencies produced by a speaker of Arabic learning English as a foreign language. Whilst the results point to prevalent negative interferences between the two languages, the main outcome of the study is centred on the value of errors as opportunities for both learners and instructors and on the salient role of feedback.

Introduction

It would be difficult to deny that one of the most contentious areas in second language learning is the occurrence of different types of mistakes and errors in the production of the target language (TL). Whilst a new understanding of the role of errors has been developed over the past years, they are an integral part of the experience of learning a new language. It is, however, a fact that there is a widespread view held by both some instructors and, indeed, some students that errors are not a desirable output of the language learning process and that they need to be eradicated at all costs. However, in the light of contemporary research on the role of errors in second language learning and the subsequent literature produced in the field of error analysis (Corder, 1967, 1974, 1981; Richards, 1974; James, 1998), errors are now considered to be a necessary part of second language acquisition (SLA), yet such an acknowledgement comes with the caveat: the notion of error needs to be clarified from the outset as this would enable us to establish a point of reference for the analysis of learner language and for instructors to adopt a more flexible stance. This position uses students’ errors as indicators of the areas that need
to be reinforced in future lessons and, as such, these are seen to form the real language curriculum, a view held by many pedagogical grammars. This paper, therefore, aims to (1) present and discuss the theoretical background on error analysis whilst reflecting on the role of errors in SLA, and (2) identify and analyse the errors taken from a learner’s written work following the framework put forward by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982).

Literature Review

To begin, we acknowledge that there is a difference between “mistakes” and “errors.” This difference is sustained not only from a linguistic perspective, but also from a psychological one. In terms of linguistics, Lennon (1991, p. 182) defines an error as “a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers’ native speaker counterparts.” Although such a definition is essential to form a methodology for the identification of an error, the reference to a native speaker norm is, undoubtedly, problematic in the sense that there exists a wide range of the target language (for instance, regional, dialectal or colloquial varieties). Conversely, Corder (1967, p. 166) argues that a mistake shows a temporary lapse in language use, a “slip of the tongue,” which is usually remedied in no time. These two perspectives enable us to view error as a reflection of what a learner still has not learnt as this reveals a gap in language knowledge; a mistake, on the other hand, is a temporary failure in the use of a language sub-system, resulting from some momentary mental lacunae or twist of the tongue.

The study of learner language and of “incorrect” language usage is usually traced back to the 1950s and 1960s when behaviourist theories of language learning were dominant in the field of linguistics. According to the behaviourist view, learners’ errors were signs of imperfect teaching methods or evidence of failure; they were obstacles to language learning which should be avoided. Traditional language approaches, which fell into the behaviourist model, had a different view of the implications of error than today’s approaches. The audiolingual method was one of these in which error was avoided at all costs, and error correction was considered imperative (Brown, 2007). Although the behaviourist teaching model realised the inevitability of errors, it endeavoured to either avoid them or eliminate them as soon as they had been made. This was because behaviourism saw SLA as a process of habit development by way of repetition (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

The behaviourist theory came under heavy criticism by Noam Chomsky, who maintained that conditioning could not satisfactorily explain the ability of a child to produce or understand an infinite array of utterances (Chomsky, 1972). Chomsky’s universal grammar (UG) theory proposes that, under normal conditions, an innate language faculty exists in children, which enables them to learn to speak their first language easily (1972). Although the role of UG in SLA is still not clear, it has
nonetheless paved the way for linguists and language teachers towards a more cognitive approach. The Chomskyan effect in linguistics soon gave birth to one of the most controversial studies in applied linguistics: contrastive analysis (CA). CA was based on Lado’s (1957, p. 2) assertion that “those elements that are similar to [the learner’s] native language will be simple for him [sic], and those elements that are different will be difficult.” Lado put forward systematic procedures which involved contrasting languages and forecasting certain difficulties learners might encounter. According to the CA hypothesis, the errors that a learner makes in the target language are caused by the interference of the first language and these are mainly because of the negative transfer created by the differences in the two language systems (Lado, 1957). While CA was effective in providing explanations as to why learners make errors in L2, it was not substantially supported by practical evidence, and many of the difficulties (e.g., spelling) foreseen by CA were not actually observed in the performance of the learners (Corder, 1967).

The lack of empirical evidence to uphold CA led researchers to explore different grounds on which to investigate learner errors. In 1967, Corder called for a more systematic alternative to CA, one which could analyse and explain the majority of errors made by learners, “not just those resulting from negative transfer of the native language” (Brown, 2007, p. 259). Corder (1967, p. 162) argued that errors were not merely “annoying, distracting…by-products of the process of learning,” but they could “provide evidence of the system of the language that [a learner] is using at a particular point in the course” (p. 167). He also noted that errors were significant in three ways:

1) They informed the teacher about the progression of the learner in the target language,
2) They provided the researcher with information regarding the methods or strategies the learner used,
3) They were devices employed by the learner in order to discover the nature of the target language.

Corder (1967) laid out the rationale and methodology for what is known as error analysis (EA). EA was an important step in the field of SLA in that it drew attention to the value of errors in the learning process (Corder, 1967). Despite its contributions, EA is not flawless. First of all, determining the actual source of errors is a virtually impossible task, and secondly, EA fails to account for certain communicative strategies such as avoidance (substituting a required form with one that the learner feels comfortable using).

In 1972, Larry Selinker’s seminal paper caught the attention of applied linguists as it described a transitional state called interlanguage, a term adapted from Weinreich’s (1953) term “interlingual,” to refer to “the separateness of a second language learner’s system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the
native and target languages” (Brown, 2007, p. 256). Interlanguage can then be seen as a learner’s progressive and systematic constructions towards the approximation of the target language rather than “pathologies to be eradicated,” as once proclaimed by Richards and Sampson (1974, p. 17). This trial and error phase has shown linguists and researchers that learners are actually testing out the input they receive from their environment in an attempt to reach a target language norm. Furthermore, studying the features of interlanguage may explain the psycholinguistic and cultural underpinnings of SLA.

Methodology

After this brief overview of the theoretical background of error analysis, we now proceed to the identification and analysis of one of the participants’ errors. Participants in the study were Saudi students at beginner level (A1). They had been studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for four months, and at the time of the study, they were attending a two-hour class, five times a week. Living in an EFL environment where Arabic is the official language, they had limited exposure to English outside the classroom. The participant from which the sample is derived was required to write a paragraph using the simple present tense to talk about likes, dislikes, and everyday routine (Appendix A).

Corder (1967) notes that errors are an indication of “how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn” (p. 167). Thus, by analysing the errors a learner makes, it may be possible to achieve an understanding of that learner’s learning strategies and the state of his interlanguage. To do so, Corder (1974) suggests the following consecutive steps in conducting an error analysis: collection, identification, description, explanation, and evaluation of errors. According to this sequence, after collecting a corpus of learner language, the errors therein are specified; however, devising a procedure of error identification is not an easy undertaking because it initially entails distinguishing an error from a mistake. The third step in Corder’s order – the description of errors – involves paying “attention to the surface properties of the learners’ utterances” (Ellis, 1994, p. 54). To this end, a systematic arrangement of errors (generally known as a taxonomy) needs to be established. There are two commonly used taxonomies: (1) a linguistic taxonomy, which primarily uses descriptive grammar as its basis, and (2) a surface structure taxonomy, which takes into account “the ways surface structures are altered” (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 150). It is noteworthy that these two taxonomies are not wholly discrete; Burt and Kiparsky’s The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English (1972) can be considered a successful combination of both, where errors are categorized as global (those which hinder communication) and local (those which cause a minor interference in the overall message).

Traditionally, the next step in an error analysis is explaining why certain errors are made, which is quite possibly the main purpose of the procedure. This stage should
not be understood as merely designating a single source to each error. Rather, it can be viewed as an attempt “to formulate an integrated understanding of the process of second language acquisition” (Brown, 2007, p. 263). One of the most prevalent explanations in terms of the psycholinguistic sources of errors is the distinction between *interlingual* and *intralingual* errors, where the former is basically the result of transfer from L1 (“interference”) and the latter is the effect of (over)generalisation within the target language (Selinker, 1969).

There are, indeed, other distinctions regarding the causes of errors, such as epistemic, sociolinguistic or discoursal. However, the field of SLA is mainly concerned with the psychological aspect of learner errors. As a general rule, it is best to “be extremely cautious when claiming to have identified the cause of any given error type” (Schachter & Celce-Murcia, 1977, p. 448).

**Findings and Discussion**

Table 1 illustrates the errors in the participant’s script (Appendix A). The table identifies inconsistencies whilst providing the correct (desirable) structures and a classification of the errors based on the surface structure taxonomy with the addition of spelling and punctuation errors.

**Table 1**

*Errors found in the participant's script*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner errors</th>
<th>Correct version</th>
<th>Type of error according to Corder (1981)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hello, I *****.</td>
<td>Hello, I’m *****.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – omission of verb to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I speak Arabic but now I learn English.</td>
<td>I speak Arabic but now I’m learning English.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – selection of tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My favourite drink is orange juice.</td>
<td>My favourite drink is orange juice.</td>
<td>1. Lexical error - spelling 2. Lexical error - spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My favourite food is shawerma.</td>
<td>My favourite food is shawerma.</td>
<td>Lexical error - spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*****’s routine</td>
<td>*****’s Routine</td>
<td>Syntactic error – omission of capital letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I start my day in the morning at 7:00.</td>
<td>I start my day at 7:00 in the morning.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually I have breakfast at 7:30.</td>
<td>I usually have breakfast at 7:30.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner errors</td>
<td>Correct version</td>
<td>Type of error according to Corder (1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Then go to the English institute.</em></td>
<td><em>Then</em> I(^1) <em>go to an</em>(^2) <em>English institute.</em></td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – omission of subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – selection of article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I have lunch at 1:00 and always I watch TV after lunch.</em></td>
<td><em>I have lunch at 1:00 and</em> I always <em>watch TV after lunch.</em></td>
<td>Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I listen sometimes to music when clean my home or cook.</em></td>
<td><em>I sometimes</em>(^1) <em>listen to music when I</em>(^2) <em>clean my home or cook.</em></td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – omission of subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>At the evening sometimes with my family I drink arabic coffee and eat cake.</em></td>
<td><em>In</em>(^1) <em>the evening</em>(^2) <em>I sometimes</em>(^3) <em>drink Arabic</em>(^4) <em>coffee and eat cake with my family</em>(^5).*</td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – selection of preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – omission of comma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Syntactic error – omission of capital letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Always I eat dinner early and tow hour later go to bed.</em></td>
<td><em>I always</em>(^1) <em>eat dinner early and two</em>(^2) <em>hours</em>(^3) <em>later I</em>(^4) <em>go to bed.</em></td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Lexical error - spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Syntactic error – omission of plural ‘s’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Syntactic error – omission of subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner errors</td>
<td>Correct version</td>
<td>Type of error according to Corder (1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I go at the weekend my mother home.</em></td>
<td>I go to¹ my mother’s² home at the weekend³.</td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – omission of preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – omission of possessive ’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>She cook for me delicious kabsa.</em></td>
<td>She cooks¹ delicious kabsa for me².</td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – selection of tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>We have fun time together.</em></td>
<td>We have a fun time together.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – omission of indefinite article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Also I go on Saturday to Red Sea Mall to shopping.</em></td>
<td>Also¹ I go to Red Sea Mall to shop² on Saturday³.</td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – omission of comma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – selection of word form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>It is a mall very big.</em></td>
<td>It is a very big mall.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – error of ordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>This my routine.</em></td>
<td>This is my routine.</td>
<td>Syntactic error – omission of verb to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Thank you for you¹ read about my day.</em></td>
<td>Thank you for reading² about my day.</td>
<td>1. Syntactic error – addition of object pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Syntactic error – selection of word form</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A closer look at the sample (Appendix A) shows that errors in syntax add up to 89% of the total number of inconsistencies, whereas only 11% of errors were related to lexical inconsistencies.
For a more comprehensive analysis of the participant’s script, syntactic and lexical errors were sub-categorised as errors of omission, addition, selection, and ordering. These sub-categories allowed for a more systematic analysis. Following Corder’s taxonomy of errors (Corder, 1981), omission errors account for missing elements which are obligatory in a given structure and, therefore, must be present. Addition errors are those where an element which is not needed is present. Selection errors are inconsistencies where an incorrect item is presented instead of the correct one. Ordering errors are, as the name suggests, items that are present and are correct but in the wrong order.

In order to have a better perspective of the types of errors that were accounted for under the syntactic and lexical factors, Figure 1 summarises this information.

**Figure 1: A summary of the participant's errors following Corder's (1981) taxonomy**

With a total of 31%, incorrect word or phrase order represents the most common type of error in the participant’s script. This is followed by inconsistencies in spelling (11%) and errors of omission of subject pronouns (9%). Other inconsistencies such as in selecting the correct tense or word form, omission of commas, of the verb “to be,” and of capital letters, each contribute to 6% of all errors. The least common types of errors include a) omissions of plural and possessive markers, indefinite articles and prepositions; b) errors of choice of articles and prepositions; and c) errors of addition, especially of object pronouns. All of these account for 3% of the total.

Although there are several reasons for the occurrences of different inconsistencies in the participant’s script, it appears that the errors of order, omission, and addition mainly occur as a result of negative transfer (i.e., interference according to Selinker, 1969). Speakers and users of Arabic place the subject after the verb and adjectives
after nouns (Smith, 2001), and the participant’s construction “It is a mall very big” (line 15) to describe a shopping mall is an example of negative interference. According to Krashen (1982), learners use their mother tongue to help them in the production of the TL. Another factor for consideration relates to the right-to-left writing orientation of the Arabic script which can cause Arabic-speaking learners of English to misread letters within words as a result of a different eye movement. This seems to be the case of the spelling mistake in line 12, for instance, where the participant spelt “tow” instead of “two.” Other factors that hinder the accuracy of spelling are mirror shapes such as ‘b’ and ‘d’, the reversed question mark and malformation of individual letters especially in cursive English writing (Smith, 2001). These, however, were not found in the sample.

In order to address the less common errors identified in the script, the following characteristics of the Arabic language, as highlighted by Smith (2001), should be considered. The Arabic language does not have a system of the present verb “to be” or the gerund; hence, errors of omission and/or addition of these items are common. There is also no indefinite article in Arabic, so learners often omit it in English. On the other hand, the definite article has extensive use in the Arabic language causing negative interference in sentence construction, particularly when discussing possession. For example, for an Arabic speaker it is common to say, “The book of teacher” or “This is book the teacher” whereas in English these equate to awkward constructions which can be categorized as developmental errors in Corder’s (1967) taxonomy.

Interest in the analysis and interpretation of learners’ errors has been resurrected in the last two decades as a result of new insights coming from the field of pedagogical grammar. Different authors — including Odlin (1994), Ortega (2003), and Keck and Kim (2014) — argue that this is a hybrid discipline or a cross-fertilization of three broad areas of applied linguistics. Ortega (2013, p. 1) describes pedagogical grammar as being made up of three inter-related areas: (a) linguistic description (data-based accounts of grammar), (b) second language acquisition (research that explores how and when particular systems are acquired by L2 learners), and (c) second language instruction (research that explores the relative effectiveness of different instructional approaches. The analysis of learners’ errors as undertaken in this study illustrates how the above areas are, in fact, closely related. However, such an analysis would be incomplete if the outcomes are not communicated to the learners via feedback that includes developmental information to enable them to improve accuracy. This is what Nunan (1998) calls feedforward. In a study carried out in Australia, Nunan (1998) reports that learners value error correction; consequently, the role of feedback is critical.

Feedback not only highlights issues that need improvement or attention but also identifies exceptional language production to praise students for their success (Harmer, 1998). According to Brookhart (2008), feedback strategies and content can
vary. Effective feedback, therefore, requires good timing, clear content, and focus. Providing students with information about what they produced and the quality of their work can help them to translate feedback into a meaningful context. This part of the process is essential as effective teacher feedback can help learners in the generation of their own cognitive feedback or meta-learning, enabling students to link a task with the actions they carried out to achieve a language outcome. This cognitive feedback serves as an opportunity for learners to assess their own language production and performance and for them to seek ways to improve further (Butler & Winne, 1995). Additionally, meta-learning can help learners to study smarter — not harder — by directing their focus to constructions which have been incorrectly or partially addressed so they are more aware of trouble spots (Brookhart, 2008).

Whilst some instructors tend to focus only on focused marking and feedback (i.e., comments relating to one grammar aspect), the script analysed in this paper (Appendix A) was edited to show every error for the purpose of analysis. The ways in which feedback is given and received appear to be culturally influenced (de Luque & Sommer, 2000). For instance, in Saudi Arabia, learners appreciate and request the correction of every single error, and the use of colours other than red is favoured to reduce the negative connotation of that colour (Baghzou, 2011).

Conclusion

From the analysis of the script in this paper, confirmed by other research (e.g., Smith, 2001), we have noted that speakers of the Arabic language tend to make syntactic errors connected to word order in English sentences. Most of the inconsistencies arise from the manner in which time and adverbial phrases are placed differently in both languages. Errors of omission cause structural errors which the students may not identify independently. This is due to the fact that certain structural elements, such as the verb “to be,” do not exist in Arabic. Having learners exposed to the individual elements that form a grammatically accurate sentence in English, using strategies such as noticing or consciousness-raising, appears to be an effective remedy to improve understanding of word order. Other type of errors, such as those of omission, can be addressed by presenting words in sequences that enable learners to attain a better understanding of sentence structures in English.

To sum up, this article has traced the theoretical background of how errors are viewed in SLA and illustrated the methodology involved in error analysis by conducting a small-scale one based on a learner’s written sample. From a traditional perspective, errors in second language learning are to be avoided; however, more recent approaches emerging from pedagogical grammar and based on contrastive and error analyses highlight the importance of errors in the instructional process. Within the intricacies of language learning, error analysis has been a significant advancement in applied linguistics in that it has provided a glimpse of a learner’s inner constructs and processes by means of their own output whilst also aiding
teachers in the design of remedial work. In fact, Nunan (1998) considers errors to be the “real curriculum,” one that indicates the areas to focus on in future lessons to improve learners’ performance in the TL.

We can say that, once considered undesirable, errors have attained a more respectable status by virtue of new developments in language studies leading to more benign and accepting attitudes. It is true that errors committed while learning a language are quite possibly the most authentic and tangible pieces of evidence teachers or researchers can access. If learners have been rightfully assigned a central role in a learning environment, then the more we know about their trial and error attempts at producing the target language, the better we can adapt ourselves to their needs rather than impose upon them “our preconceptions of how he ought to learn, what they ought to learn and when they he ought to learn it” (Corder, 1967, p. 169).

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Appendix A

Headway Plus BEGINNER Writing Assignment

Name: ____________________________ Date: 8/11/2017

UNIT 6: WRITING

Directions: Write 5 sentences about you. Say where you are from, what languages you speak, what food/drink/sport you like.

Then, write about your day. Use some of these words.
always / sometimes / never
have breakfast/lunch/dinner / get up / stay at home
go to school/work/English institute / listen to music / play/cook/clean

Hello, I'm ______________________. I'm from __________________________. I speak __________________________. My favourite drink is __________________________. My favourite food is __________________________. I love playing __________________________.

My routine

I start my day (in the morning) at 7:00. Usually I have breakfast at 7:30. Then I go to the English institute. I have lunch at 1:00 and always I watch TV after lunch. I listen sometimes to music while I clean my home or cook.

At the evening, sometimes with my family, I drink Arabic coffee and eat cake. Always I eat dinner early and two hours later I go to bed. I go (on the weekend) to my mother’s home. She cooks for me delicious kabsa. We have a fun time together. Also, I go (on Saturdays) to the Red Sea mall to shopping. It is a mall very big. This is my routine.

Thank you for writing about my day.

I enjoyed reading about your day, __________________________.
I like that you separated your answer into two parts. Well done! __________________________.

Note: Remember that adverbs of frequency like ‘always’ and ‘usually’ come before the verb. Also, take care with your spelling.
Contributors’ Notes

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Peter Davidson teaches at Zayed University in Dubai, having previously taught in New Zealand, Japan, the UK, and Turkey. He recently co-edited *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment* (2012, CUP) and *Language Assessment in the Middle East and North Africa* (2017, TESOL Arabia).
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Konstantina Iliopoulou holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics, and a Post Doc in authentic assessment, all from Aristotle University. She is a member of the Laboratory Teaching Staff of Greek language Didactics, at the Department of Philosophy and Pedagogy. Her research interests include teaching Greek as an L2, intercultural education, and assessing writing.

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