THT Journal:

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Patrick Dougherty, Editor

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The THT Journal is a publication of the Teachers Helping Teachers (THT) Special Interest Group of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). It is dedicated to exploring and promoting best practices in language education. All submissions are double-blind peer reviewed.

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THT Journal: the Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers, Volume 5 Fall 2017

Editor: Patrick Dougherty, Akita International University, Japan

The THT Journal is dedicated to the memory of William "Bill" Balsamo (1943 - 2008) the founder of Teachers Helping Teachers.

Foreword

Steve Cornwell
Teachers Helping Teachers Coordinator

It is my pleasure to write the foreword to this year's THT Journal. In putting together this issue, Pat Dougherty has done it again. And it is not an easy task, as we had far more quality submissions than we could publish in one issue. Thank you everyone who submitted an article; we do have some good news for all of you. Due to the popularity of the journal, we are going to consider a second issue in the Spring! Stay tuned!

Ranging from feedback to pronunciation, affect to self-assessment, teacher voices to willingness to communicate, the breadth and depth of the articles in this issue are truly amazing. Contributions range from old stalwarts within the THT family to authors from partner countries; the 10 articles would make our founder Bill Balsamo smile with pride.

We have had a very full year with programs in Bangladesh, Kyrygzstan, Laos, Mynamar, Nepal, and Vietnam. The coming year may bring a return to the Philippines with a new program in Leyte in February. Stay tuned!

As I wrap up this foreword, I thought I would leave you with two poems that capture some of the beauty of what THT is and does:

Some riddles have no final answers.
A few answerless riddles are still worth asking.

They are worth asking not for their answers, since they have none, but for what we do in struggling with them.
(Earl Stevick, Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways)

Slender at first, they quickly gather force

Growing in richness as they run their course;
Once started, they do not turn back again,
River, and years,
and friendships with good people.
(Sanskrit Poem)

Bill always said, we are not just an organization, we are a concept, an idea. I would add that we are the sum total of all who participate or have participated in a THT program.

Here's to a successful 2018! I hope to see many of you at a THT event in this coming year! Enjoy this journal as you reflect on THT and where your next trip will go.

Preface
The 5th Volume of the *THT Journal: The Journal of Teachers Helping Teachers*

Patrick Dougherty
Akita International University
Japan

Welcome to the fifth volume of the *THT Journal*. It consists of ten articles from thirteen researchers that are dedicated to exploring and promoting best practices in language education. These articles were selected for inclusion in this volume because they offer not only evocative theoretical constructs but keep their feet clearly on the ground. They offer seasoned and sage advice to the working educator on how to improve practice and enhance student learning.

About our Authors:

Marian Wang is an Associate Professor at the School of Languages and Communication (SOLAC) at Kobe University. She has taught at Kwansei Gakuin in Japan and the International Trade Institute in Taiwan. She has worked at international organizations including the World Trade Organization in Geneva, UNICEF in Paris, Oxfam America, Catholic Relief Services in Macedonia, and Partners for Democratic Change in New York. She holds an M.A. in Law and Diplomacy from the Fletcher School at Tufts University and an M.A. in TESOL from the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

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Brent A. Jones has been teaching English as a second or foreign language for nearly 30 years, first in Hawaii, and then in Japan and other parts of Asia. He is currently the Director of Language Programs at Konan University, Hirao School of Management, and is working on a doctorate in education through the University of Reading in the U.K. He is currently researching learner engagement in university EFL contexts. Other research interests include content-focused language instruction, instructional design, educational technology, appreciative inquiry and many, many more.

Syed Shahrier Rahman is Professor of Linguistics at the University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. He received his PhD in syntax at the University of Dhaka. He did his M. Phil in Theoretical Linguistics at the University of Tromso, Norway. Before, he was awarded another M. Phil degree in Semiotics at the University of Dhaka. He has been serving the Department of Linguistics for the last thirteen years. His main research interests are phonology, syntax, language acquisition, corpus linguistics and semiotics. He attended several national and international conferences in the last five years and he has had twenty-four research articles published so far in different peer-reviewed journals.

Mithun Banerjee presently works as an Assistant Professor at the Department of Linguistics, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. She completed her Graduation and post-graduation from the same department. She loves to work in the domain of psycholinguistics. Her other research interests are in language acquisition, sociolinguistics, syntax and semiotics. She has completed several small scale research projects and has ten peer-

reviewed research publications.

Patrick McCoy is originally from Seattle, Washington in the US. He has a BA degree in English Literature from the University of Washington and a MA in Secondary Education from Western Washington University. He has been teaching at the university level in Japan for 17 years. Currently he is teaching at Tokyo Woman's Christian University in Tokyo where he teaches literature, writing, linguistics, and communication courses. His research interests include methodology, authentic materials, and Japanese cinema.

Michael Carroll is a professor of English Education at Momoyama Gakuin University in Osaka. He has been teaching since 1990 first in Australia and later in Japan, and has visited many other countries to give workshops and to participate in professional development activities. He is interested in the connection between success in language learning and learners' sense of themselves as active agents in that process. His experiences meeting teachers and students through THT have enlarged his vision of what is possible in language classrooms, and he is constantly and pleasantly surprised by the dedication to improving both language abilities and teaching skills, shown by practitioners in Vietnam and other parts of East Asia. He looks forward to continuing to share ideas and experiences with these colleagues.

Trần Thủy Khánh Quỳnh is a lecturer in the ESP Department at Hue University of Foreign Languages in Hue City, Vietnam. She has a diverse teaching experience, being an online tutor and teaching abroad in Laos. She is currently studying for her master's degree at National Taiwan University of Science and Technology. She has played different roles at THT conferences from 2015 to 2017 as a facilitator, a presenter, and an MC. Her students are mainly non-English- major students some of whom

have lost their motivation to learn English; thus she is extremely keen on motivating her students to become autonomous learners of English. In addition, she is interested in teachers' professional development, ESP curriculum development, CALL and critical thinking.

Jeffrey Stewart Morrow is an Associate Professor of English in the Faculty of Environmental and Symbiotic Sciences at the Prefectural University of Kumamoto in Kumamoto, Japan. Originally from Greensburg, Pennsylvania, he has been teaching at the university level in Japan in various capacities since 1999. He obtained a Ph.D. at Kumamoto Gakuen University, Kumamoto, Japan, where his dissertation topic was the role of English in procuring better employment and income in the Siem Reap, Cambodia tourist industry. Jeffrey has done extensive research on the role of English communication ability in employment and income in developing country tourism, and currently researches English ability in ecotourism. Recent publications include: Creating Effective ESP Programs for Future Employment in Tourism, English Communication Ability in Employment and Income in Siem Reap, Cambodia Tourist Industry, and The Role of English Communication Ability in Kathmandu, Nepal Frontline Ecotourism Employees. After the devastating Kumamoto earthquakes in 2016 Jeff began a new project aimed at creating web technology to enhance English information for disaster information and promotion of ecotourism activities in Aso for tourism revival.

Ngoc Bao Chau Nguyen is currently a lecturer at the English Depart of Hue University of Foreign Languages. Her interests include technology in language teaching and learning, language program evaluation and interlanguage pragmatics. She has co-authored English workbooks at all primary, lower- and upper-secondary levels.

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Contents

WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN DEBATE SETTINGS: CASE STUDY OF A JAPANESE UNIVERSITY STUDENT

Marian Wang and **Emiko Kihara**
Kobe University

ABSTRACT
Willingness to communicate (WTC) is a concept that has been interpreted via motivational theories (Dörnyei, 2003) of how language speakers' perception of their competence in a foreign language and anxiety associated with speaking the target language would impact their output. WTC can be consistent and/or dynamic for an individual depending on linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors (Macintyre & Legatto, 2010). In this study, WTC was analyzed and interpreted in a live debate setting between Japanese students and non-Japanese students. The case study focused on a student who participated in the debate for the first time, yet was able to communicate effectively throughout the debate. The linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors that contributed to the students' WTC were explored to understand how teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) could facilitate students' WTC in debate settings that require students to convey their ideas and negotiate meaning on controversial issues with other students who may or may not share their first language.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Willingness to communicate (WTC) encompasses principles of foreign language competence from the perspective of the language learner and is concerned with the probability of learners to communicate voluntarily (Macintyre, 2007). In a Japanese higher education context, Yashima (2002) investigated the influence of L2 proficiency, attitudes or motivation, target

language communication confidence, and international posture on communicating in English. Japanese university students' WTC was found to be related to their international posture – their attitude towards the international community in which they imagined using a foreign language – which in turn influenced their motivation and confidence in communicating in the target language. Thus, according to Yashima (2009), constructing Japanese learners' international posture through real or even imagined cross-cultural opportunities where they might be motivated to use the target language may enhance their WTC in a foreign language.

In Japanese EFL contexts, students have limited opportunities to develop their international posture and WTC as English has been used to teach about English through teacher-led grammar-translation lessons for students to pass high-stakes college entrance examinations (Humphries & Burns, 2015). Accordingly, influencing Japanese EFL learners' international posture may not be a priority for learners and educators alike until after students begin studying at higher education institutions (HEIs). However, even in higher education settings, Japanese university students stated that they have had limited exposure to contexts where they have had to imagine, construct, or negotiate their identities of themselves using a foreign language (Yashima, 2009). In a mixed method thematic study of Japanese university students (n=217) at a top national university, Morita (2014) surveyed their attitudes towards their imagined selves in international settings. Quotes from open-ended questions in the survey revealed the limitations of curricular changes towards internationalization when the Japanese students tended to disengage from globalization. Similarly, Wang's (2017) qualitative interpretive phenomenological study of Japanese university students' (n=12) attitudes towards becoming global human resources (GHRs) – defined by the Japanese government as individuals who have foreign language skills,

communication skills, an understanding of cultures based on a Japanese identity, and the drive to become global leaders (MEXT, 2015) – demonstrated that top-down policies had minimal impact on student attitudes towards becoming GHRs. Many students felt that such policies were being implemented for "other" students who had a higher international posture and thus were more willing to carry out government policies of GHR development. These studies reveal the challenges of Japanese HEIs to foster students' international posture and WTC in the target language.

If current top-down policies have had limited influence on Japanese students' motivation to raise their international posture, what are other ways in which students can feel motivated to communicate in the target language? Yashima (2002) advocates teachers introducing lessons that raise cultural awareness and interest in international affairs in diverse learning environments. By introducing lessons that engage Japanese and international students in active learning, students would be given opportunities to think critically about their learning process through collaboration, cooperation, and problem solving of global issues (Wang, 2017). WTC emerges when students have the volition to communicate from within themselves (Macintyre, 2007). In learning environments where Japanese university students are being challenged to collectively analyze international problems with a global community of English speakers, there may be a greater chance for students' international posture to be positively affected, thereby raising their WTC.

Cross-cultural debating in English can build Japanese students' critical thinking skills (Wang & Kihara, 2017) and possibly their WTC by analyzing global issues. When debating, students play various roles as key stakeholders, prepare arguments and counter arguments, and negotiate meaning with fellow debaters.

Essentially, debating is a platform in which students can not only raise their international posture but also provides a fertile setting for observing how factors beyond international posture may be affecting debate participants' WTC. WTC depends on the language speakers' perception of their competence in a foreign language and their anxiety associated with speaking the target language (Dörnyei, 2003). In addition to international posture, it may also be necessary to consider how perceived language proficiency and anxiety levels may impact WTC. Finally, because WTC is known to fluctuate depending on linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors (Macintyre & Legatto, 2010), it is essential to examine how WTC can change over time within a given context such as cross-cultural debating where multiple factors may impact students' overall output.

RESEARCH DESIGN

This is a case study of a student who was the most active participant in a cross-cultural debate held in English with eight Japanese students and two non-Japanese students. Two weeks after the live debate session, this student was invited to an interview that lasted approximately 100 minutes. The interview questions (see Appendix) were sent to the student a week in advance because they were written in English and were not translated into Japanese. The interview in Japanese was recorded, transcribed, translated, and later analyzed using a qualitative interpretative methodology that are often utilized for a case description based on case-based themes (Creswell, Hanson, Plano Clark, & Morales, 2007).

The participant is a male Japanese university student in his final year studying business administration. The purpose of this study was to investigate the linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors that may have contributed to his WTC throughout the 90-minute debate. As this was his first time to participate in a cross-cultural debate, it was hypothesized that he would have high

anxiety towards participating in the debate. Furthermore, he had low English proficiency relative to the other participants, which was also presumed to reduce his WTC. One factor that was thought to raise his WTC was that he possessed a high international posture as he attended weekly sessions where he could practice speaking English with international students. Concerning his future, he was hired by a global company where he would be using English with international clients, indicating that he had a high motivation or WTC in English.

Our research questions were the following:

(1) What were the linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors that helped his WTC in the cross-cultural debate?

(2) What were the linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors that hindered his WTC in the cross-cultural debate?

FINDINGS

Linguistic Factors

As previously mentioned, this student had relatively low proficiency in English as evidenced by his Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) score of about 550, which contrasted with the other Japanese participants who averaged above 800. To compensate for his relatively low English skills, he invested more time (20-30 hours) than the other Japanese students (4-5 hours) in preparing for the debate. Although much of his preparation was done researching Japanese websites on the debate topic, he also investigated how to use English more efficiently in communication, especially in settings that would require expressing his opinions. For his stakeholder speech at the beginning of the debate, he highlighted key words in blue and practiced his speech to the extent that he did not have to rely on a script. After the debate, when he reflected on the performance of others, he remarked that he was

surprised that despite their high proficiency in English or even being a native speaker of English, they were not able to convey their speech without reading their scripts. He advised that for future debates, it would be better if students had practiced their speech so that they could speak more fluently and communicate more effectively. He said he was able to give his speech relatively fluently because he had researched how he should communicate by analyzing where to pause, what words to emphasize, and how to make eye contact. Thus, his WTC was positively influenced by his preparation on how to communicate his ideas fluently in English.

This student had an arsenal of contingency plans that he said had facilitated his WTC. First, he not only prepared his argumentative speech including how to present it most effectively but also researched possible weaknesses in the arguments of his opponents as well as his own arguments. Consequently, during the debate, he was most vocal in responding to counterarguments and lodging rebuttals with evidence to support his initial argument. He admitted that his preparation allowed him to anticipate most of what would be discussed during the debate. Second, he was the only participant who used visual aids and other equipment to convey his ideas. He showed handwritten slides that comprised of pictures, flow charts, and pie charts to complement his oral speech. If he needed to explain himself further, he had a small whiteboard for explaining his arguments further. Fortunately, he did not have to take out his small whiteboard because his speech and visual aids in the form of prepared diagrams were sufficient. This second contingency plan illustrates how WTC could be enhanced if there are visual aids that will help in overcoming any problems with verbal communication. Third, knowing that his team members were more fluent in English than him, he asked them prior to the live debate to assist him during the debate when he was at loss for words. He told his team members that if he

needed their help, he would make eye contact with them as an indication that he wanted them to fill in his linguistic gaps. During the debate, he was assisted several times by his team members who at times rephrased his main arguments or clarified the points from his opponents. Finally, he mentioned that if all else failed, he would use Japanese to communicate because he knew that everyone who participated in the debate, including the international students, had sufficient understanding of the Japanese language. In the debate, however, he did not have to rely on using Japanese to convey his ideas.

For this student, although his low English proficiency should have hindered his WTC, his four contingency plans allowed him to participate actively in the debate. Moreover, upon reflection, he came to realize that a high TOEIC score had limited relevance in determining a student's success in communicating in the debate. What was more important was having prepared adequately in order to anticipate the contents of the debate. He acknowledged that rather than emulate native speaker English, he needed to use "Global English" when communicating – English based on frequently-used vocabulary, clear articulation, efficient communication, and flexibility in speech depending on the level of English of the interlocutor. He therefore decided that in international settings where he would have to use English, he would aspire towards becoming a global English speaker who can communicate effectively and efficiently within a global community of English speakers.

Social Factors

The student's upbringing where he often played the role of mediator or negotiator contributed to his WTC. At home, he intervened in family misunderstandings by listening to the viewpoints of his siblings and his parents while devising a workable solution. He learned at a young age that when others were unwilling or unable to act, he needed take the initiative and

act as leader to ensure that something would get done sooner rather than later. His upbringing also turned him into to what he referred to as a "yes man" – to say "yes" even before thinking about the possibility of saying "no". Being a yes man meant saying yes to challenges such as this debating project without any hesitation, thinking about the positive rather than negative outcomes, and being a good follower as well as a leader when leadership was required. During the debate when he felt that at times leadership was lacking, instead of waiting for somebody to fill this void, he was proactive and offered solutions that helped his team members in pushing their arguments further. Hence, social factors that include how he learned how to listen to and appease others and remain positive helped his WTC, not only in this debate but also in other contexts that require communication and leadership skills.

Being a yes man also implied that he was a natural people pleaser who wanted people to feel comfortable when speaking with him and be willing to listen to what he was trying to say. To keep communication channels open, he realized the importance of "being interested and being interesting". When he was listening to others, he showed that he was listening by repeating key words, confirming his understanding with others, rephrasing what others had said, and then asking questions or challenging the arguments of others when necessary. Instead of launching directly into challenging his opponents, he believed that it was first best to gain the other team's trust and understanding. He confirmed his understanding with others to indicate that he respected their ideas and opinions. These communication strategies which demonstrated that he was interested in what the speaker was saying added to his WTC. To be interesting, he realized that he needed to always consider who his audience was, what they were interested in, and be enthusiastic about what he was saying. Being interesting meant communicating in ways that showed passion and interest for the topic and a WTC for the

benefit of his audience. Accordingly, effective communication necessitated that both parties show an interest in being active and interesting communicators.

Cognitive Factors

At times, the student indicated that he was faced with lexical gaps. Instead of being deterred by such gaps, he used the aforementioned communication skills of negotiating meaning with his interlocutors when he could not understand what they were saying. He also relied on his visual aids to clarify his points for the other team as mentioned in the section on his contingency plans. In the excerpt below, when this student (S2) did not understand S1's point, he decided to interrupt S1 to confirm his understanding, then pointed to his visual aids, received assistance from another student on his team (S3) and finally was able to make his point clear. Therefore, when he had cognitive difficulties, he did not wait until all of the cognitive dissonance had built up (Lee, Therriault, & Linderholm, 2012). Rather, he resolved one cognitive dissonance at a time and then persisted with trying to be interested in what others and be interesting when it was his turn to speak:

S1: Yes, I have a question addressing to S2. First of all, I really like your cars and your picture. It was clear. And then yes, about one point, I have a question on…you were stating about the communication problem with the local suppliers which will decrease the…
S2: Local suppliers? [Repeat]
S1: Yes. Right?
S2: So, in factory? [Confirms]
S1: In factory?
S2: Factory. [Repeats]
S1: Factory. Different factories, right? Because Toyota has different parts which….
S2: This point? [Points to his visual aids

S1: Uhhhhh
S3: No the suppliers. [Gets help from other team member]
S1: Ah, the suppliers because Toyota has a lot of different suppliers.
S2: Suppliers. [Repeats]
S1: And when they purchase the products from different suppliers.
S2: Yes. [Confirms understanding]
S1: It would be a problem.
S2: Yeah. [Confirms understanding]
S1: Right? Yes, but what we are debating today is about the Englishnization within the company. So, when you are talking about communicating with the suppliers we are not asking you to talk in English with the suppliers. You can use Japanese but we are talking about Englishnization within the company, which has nothing to do with communicating with the local suppliers. Can you clarify that?
S2: Okay. In Toyota, if become Englishnization, uh so always so goes business in English. So, in Toyota people speak always English and thinking in English, so they become to don't use English uh don't use Japanese, so to communicate with supplier but they must use Japanese. So, they must change English to Japanese. This is hard for them, so only Japanese they can smoothly Japanese carry suppliers to Japanese, so Englishnization will decrease productivity. [Answers question]

Emotional Factors

There were emotional factors related to working in teams that could have possibly deterred his WTC. Although he had prepared weeks in advance for this debate, he was disappointed that he was unable to meet up with his team members earlier than five days before the actual debate. Once he met his team member and consulted with one of the teachers in charge of the debate, he realized that his preparation had not matched what

was required of this debate. For example, he wrote his stakeholder speech in simple English, thinking that would be the best way to communicate his ideas. When he submitted his work to the teacher in charge, he became rather flustered by the feedback he received. If anything, he realized that he should have received feedback earlier in the debate, particularly because this was his first time participating in the debate unlike some of the other debate participants who had already participated four times.

He also felt that the logistics of the debate remained unclear to him. Consequently, he was unsure as to how much "winning" and "losing" was required in the debate. He felt that not knowing the aim of the debate hindered him from exercising his WTC. For future debates, he suggested telling the participants the extent to which the debate would require an aggressive stance towards winning. In the end, he agreed with the actual debate style that tended be closer to a discussion style of debating, especially for Japanese students who may have preferred a more accommodating debating style. If, however, in the future more competitive elements were to be introduced, he advised that it be done with the intention of fostering benevolent competition for the purpose of not necessarily winning debates but creating more opportunities for building critical thinking skills. In Japanese contexts, he believed that it would be preferable if debates do not turn into a "win" or "lose" game by instigating a friendly competitive process in the earlier rather than later stages.

IMPLICATIONS

The linguistic, social, cognitive, and emotional factors that can have a dynamic effect on WTC are interconnected (Macintyre & Legatto). In this case study, the linguistic and cognitive factors were complementary in that linguistic challenges were tied to cognitive communicative strategies that helped the student

overcome lexical gaps. This case study indicates that teaching students communicative strategies for debating may be necessary to raise WTC, especially for students who may have lower English proficiency. Moreover, teachers could suggest to students that having visual aids or other contingency plans might raise their chances to participate actively in debates.

As for social factors, the student's upbringing where he acted as mediator facilitated his WTC. During the debate and even during the interview, he was inclined to offer suggestions and solutions that might make existing situations better. Hence, his feedback for making future debates better reflected his proactive and positive nature that contributed to his strong WTC. The emotional factors revolving around teamwork and information sharing, which he found lacking, hindered his WTC. For future debates therefore, it would be beneficial if students begin working together and in tandem with teachers as early as possible so that anxiety levels can be reduced and WTC can be improved.

The student's willingness to be interested and interesting was a key element that contributed to his WTC. Showing his interest in what others were saying garnered his opponent's trust and being interesting while keeping his audience in mind revealed that for this student, WTC was intertwined with the idea of interest and engagement. In the end, he realized that communication required two interested and interesting parties and he felt responsible for creating a positive atmosphere conductive to communication. In debating, the student's focus on "interest" as it relates to WTC should be investigated in future debates.

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APPENDIX

About English

1. When did you start learning English?
2. How did you learn English over time (example: going to *juku* like ECC, going to normal English classes, going abroad, etc.)?
3. What was/is your main purpose for learning English? Did this change over time?
4. If you feel comfortable telling me, what is your best score on any TOEFL, TOEIC, etc. test?

About the Debate (in July)

Before

1. Why did you agree to participate in this debate?
2. How did you prepare for the debate?
3. How useful was your preparation for the debate? (5 being very useful and 1 being not useful)

During

1. How did you try to get your ideas across during the debate?
2. If you felt at times, you had difficulty getting your points across, what did you do to overcome the difficulty, if anything?
3. What do you think you could have done more in order to communicate more effectively?
4. How did you feel about other members and their ability to get their ideas across? What did they do well? What could they have done better?
5. What do you think is most important to be communicate persuasively within a community of global English speakers?

After

1. What, if anything, did you learn about **yourself** after doing this debate?
2. What, if anything, did you learn about **debating** after doing this debate?

3. If you could do this kind of debate again, how would you use what you learned from this debate to improve your performance in the future?

4. What is your definition of the "Willingness to Communicate"?

THE EMOTIONAL SIDE OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) TEACHING IN JAPAN

Brent A. Jones
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INTRODUCTION

For better or worse, the English language continues to play a central role in the school life of most children in Japan, with formal lessons starting around the third year of elementary school and continuing through junior and senior high school. English is one of the main sections on the national center test for prospective university students as well as most of the individual entrance exams for private and public universities, and companies hiring university graduates place a heavy emphasis on English language proficiency as measured by standardized test, mainly the TOIEC (TOEIC, 2015). Successive governments in Japan have set out plans to develop English language ability among students in Japan, and a current push is to raise communicative competence in English at all levels of education, including university (MEXT, 2015). At the same time, Japan has experienced a significant slide in international competitiveness on standardized tests such as TOEFL (TOEFL, 2015) and IELTS (IELTS, 2015), and this has resulted in much hand wringing by government officials and increased emotional pressure on both students and teachers, including those at the university level. With these trends in mind, an exploratory investigation was undertaken regarding the emotional side of teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in university contexts in Japan. Specifically, I hope to answer the following two questions:

(1) What shared/differing feelings and emotions are experienced

by EFL teachers in Japan?

(2) What feelings or emotions do EFL teachers in Japan perceive in their students?

Answers to the first question should contribute to a richer understanding of the complexities of teaching in this context while identifying measures to promote teacher well-being and avoid teacher burnout. Answers to the second question can hopefully provide some insight into the emotional challenges and needs of learners in this context as well as pedagogical implications.

I am approaching this study from both pragmatic and social constructivist research paradigms. My research participants are a group of busy teachers, and my pragmatic approach includes conducting the study as part of existing professional development structures and remaining flexible in research design and data analysis (Hatch, 2002). At the same time, I believe that the shared and individual experiences of this group of teachers can add to our collective understanding and build on existing knowledge bases. Finally, in designing this study, I have attempted to provide an example of an action research project that can be done collectively or individually to transform the way teachers view and approach their craft.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Interest in the emotional aspects of teaching and learning continues to gain momentum (Day & Leitch, 2001; Uitto, Jokikokko & Estola, 2014), and this interest is finding its way into second language (L2) acquisition settings (Dewaele, 2011; Dewaele, 2013) including EFL in Japan (Imai, 2010). Three constructs that stand out as particularly relevant to the current study are emotional intelligence, emotional geographies, and emotional labor.

Emotional Intelligence

Mayer, DiPaolo and Salovey (1990) are recognized as the originators of the term emotional intelligence, which was defined as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). This definition was refined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as involving "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 10).

In a study of Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong, Chan (2006) investigated the links between emotional intelligence and teacher burnout. Based on the connections they found between the two, they concluded that teacher education could be used to develop and enhance teachers' emotional intelligence to combat burnout, including an eroded sense of excitement in teaching, increased stress and being emotionally drained.

In another study of Chinese school teachers (Yin, Lee, Zhang & Jin, 2013), it was found that teachers' emotional intelligence has a significant impact on teaching satisfaction, while Koçoðlu (2011) identified a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence (EQ) and Turkish EFL pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs.

The concept of emotional intelligence was popularized by Goleman (1995, 1998), who described five basic emotional competences: knowing how to express one's emotions, managing one's moods, empathizing with the emotional states of others, motivating oneself and others, and exercising a wide range of

social skills. These categories provide a useful framework for analyzing our data on the emotions involved in EFL teaching in Japan.

Emotional Geographies

Hargreaves (2000) describes emotional geographies as "the spatial and experiential patterns of closeness and/or distance in human interactions and relationships that help create, configure and color the feelings and emotions we experience about ourselves, our world and each other" (p. 7). This lens seems especially useful in investigating relationships (teacher-student & student-student) in the EFL classroom and will thus guide our analyses of data and theorizing on the emotional side of teaching in this context.

In interviews of primary and secondary teachers in Canada regarding their perceptions of emotional interactions with students, Hargreaves (2000) identified three kinds of emotional geography: professional, political and physical. Findings revealed that "emotional geographies were configured differently between elementary and secondary teachers, and had different effects on the chances of achieving emotional understanding in either case." (p. 824)

In a commentary on EFL in Japan, where policy changes are intensifying, Nagamine (2014) stresses the importance of close relationships with students and sensitivity to learner emotions as a foundation for learning environments where learners' emotional needs and characteristics are taken into account. In his words:

It is possible to define a situation characterized by "bonds in the classroom" as follows: a situation where the social distance is reduced between fellow students and between teacher and students, and where students gain an increasing sense of

belonging, that is, where they feel "I am part of this class." It can also refer to the situation where the individual consciousness of each student and the group consciousness of the class as a whole are raised so as to create a space in which students can learn in a state of calm (as opposed to an abnormal state such as one of anxiety). (p. 5)

Hargreaves (2001) also recognizes emotional geographies as evolving over time and involving teachers in a reciprocal relationship with the context:

Emotional geographies of teaching are . . . active accomplishments by teachers that structure and enculture their work, as much as being structured and encultured by it. Teachers, in other words, make and remake the emotional geographies of their interactions with others but not in circumstances of their own choosing. (p. 1062)

Again, this construct offers a framework for viewing the relationships experienced by participant teachers and their students.

Emotional labor

The concept of emotional labor was elaborated by Hochschild (1983), who recognized that workers sometimes need to suppress or manufacture emotions in order to display socially acceptable or expected outward countenances. Emotional labor was defined in occupational psychology by Morris and Feldman (1996) as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions." (cited in Hosotani & Imai-Matsumura, 2011)

In their narrative study of one teacher's experience with a particularly challenging student, Isenbarger & Zembylas (2006) report that major sources of negative emotional labor involved

suppression of feelings of frustration, sadness, disappointment or guilt, as well as dealing with emotionally charged feelings toward colleagues. Conversely, several excerpts hint at the positive side of emotional labor, which aligns with Hargreaves (2000), who recognized that the skilled exercise of emotional labor is a rewarding side of teaching for many teachers (cited in Taggart, 2011).

Emotional labor thus offers another useful lens through which to view our data, and together with emotional intelligence and emotional geographies comprise a framework for analyzing the reported experiences of participant teachers.

Japan Specific

Although not extensively reported on, it is important to look at studies of emotions that have been conducted in EFL contexts in Japan. Nagamine (2014) laments about the overemphasis on the cognitive side of language learning at the expense of emotions. Recognizing a shift in Japan from predominantly utilitarian or instrumental orientations to learning English (e.g. for academic or career advancement) that focus mainly on cognition, Nagamine (2014) describes attempts and strategies to promote communicative competencies and the emotional side of language learning. Specifically, he describes activities aimed at raising learners' emotional understanding and empathy as listeners in presentation and debate classes.

Looking at emotions experienced by EFL students in Japan, Imai (2010) reports on the intersubjectivity of communicative tasks such as group work. Participants in this study "demonstrated that even emotions supposedly detrimental to an individual's learning, such as boredom and frustration, could become a psychological resource for development" and that the extent of this depended "on how individuals participating in a given learning activity make sense of and appropriate (or ignore) these

emotions interactionally (i.e., whether and of what quality the learners achieve emotional intersubjectivity)" (pg. 288). Findings in Imai (2010) suggest that emotions are not just reactions to the cerebral side of learning English but are "mediators between such demands and subsequent learning behavior that allows or inhibits a learner to participate in a given language learning activity" (pg. 288).

METHODS

To address my research questions, I solicited participants for an action research project involving weekly reflective writing over one 15-week semester, with semi-structured interviews at weeks eight and fifteen. These methods of data collection fit well with the pragmatic worldview described by Creswell (2014), with a concern for "what works" and using "methods, techniques and procedures" that best fit the researcher's needs and purposes. Although not strictly a phenomenological study, I was interested in exploring the lived experiences and perceived understandings of a group of teachers, and thus gravitated toward narrative type research instruments like those used by Bullough (2015) in his investigation of teacher identity, as well as Day and Leitch (2001) in their study of the role of emotions in teaching. Narrative based research also fits well with social constructivist ontologies. Day and Leitch (2001) point out that "the rejection of an absolutist stance and the assertion of the importance of particular contextual influences are fundamental to narrative research" (pg. 405). Many forms of narrative research have appeared in the literature, but the underlying philosophy of all is that people make sense of their lives via story (Hatch, 2002). Citing Goldstein and Lake (2000), Isenbarger and Zemblylas (2006) see the electronic reflective journaling as "a less formal, more spontaneous medium than traditional notebook-style journals, thereby eliminating some of the pressure and drudgery often associated with reflective journal writing" (pg. 125).

A central consideration in designing this study was to minimize any potential burden on participants. Thus, I approached teachers at two universities in western Japan who are members of an inter-collegiate PD group and who expressed interest in action research. Candidates were all active members of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) and/or the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET), and are current or former colleagues of the researcher. Candidates were presented with a detailed Participant Information Sheet and the researcher explained that participants were encouraged (but not obligated) to collaborate on related projects beyond the scope of the initial study.

The participants (7 male & 3 female) had a range of teaching experience, with the two most veteran teachers having taught ESL or EFL for more than twenty-five years and the least experienced having seven years of teaching experience (average for the group = 13.9 years). Nationalities represented were American (5), British (1), Canadian (1), Malaysian (1), Japanese (1) and Japanese-Algerian (1). This group of teachers is fairly representative of the university EFL teaching population in Japan, although Japanese teachers are admittedly underrepresented.

Participants were asked to fill in a short online questionnaire after each class meeting for one of the courses they were teaching, and encouraged to spend approximately fifteen minutes at each sitting. Participants decided themselves which (once or twice-a-week) course they wanted to reflect on, with most teachers opting for a course they were teaching for the first time or one that they were struggling with. The questionnaire (Appendix) included three prompts, one of which directly asked

participants to reflect on emotional aspects of classroom interactions.

Semi-structured interviews lasting between thirty and forty-five minutes were scheduled for the middle (week 8) and end of the semester (week 15). The aim was to get an overall view on how participants were progressing and review their entries for topics or issues that were being reflected on.

The main ethical concerns for the study were related to anonymity and confidentiality. I prepared a participation information sheet and consent form for all potential participants (available upon request), and gained ethical approval from my Advisor Professor Geoff Taggart and the University of Reading. As all of the participants are current or former colleagues, I needed to emphatically assure them that participation in the project was completely voluntary and that raw data or findings would not be shared with anyone or be used for any type of evaluation or appraisal. I fully acknowledge that there are issues associated with conducting insider research (Floyd & Arthur, 2012), but was confident that these participants would willingly and honestly share their experiences and insights.

To make sense of the data, I followed the advice of Creswell (2013) regarding the analysis and interpretation process, and worked with the NVivo software. In analyzing the data, I wanted to gain a balanced view (zooming in on detail and backing out for a wider view) as prescribed by both Richards (2009) and Hatch (2002). My approach was to read through entries or transcripts, coding portions that seemed particularly worthy of further analysis. While coding, I would jot down key words or possible themes from the text and bracket any personal ideas that came to me regarding direction for the project, etc. After all of the journal entries and interview transcripts had been coded in

NVivo, I reviewed my coding decisions with a view toward consolidation and consistency. My preliminary interpretations were presented to participants as a means of validation, and I was able to gather some added insight regarding the two research questions as well as overall research design.

FINDINGS

Although I was reviewing the data during the collection process, I did not attempt any coding but instead began creating memos in NVivo regarding topics or issues that seemed of interest. Directly related to the current study, I made memos about some of the sources of teacher emotions such as frustration (e.g. disappointed expectations) as well as student emotions or classroom atmosphere.

I began coding the data after the end of the semester when the participants had completed their last entries and I had uploaded all of the journal entries and transcripts from the first (eight week) interviews. My first time through the data, I coded emotions-related entries at five nodes: teacher emotions - positive and negative, student emotions - positive and negative, and classroom atmosphere. My second full-scale reading of the data was after the final interviews were transcribed and uploaded into NVivo. Again, my aim here was consolidation and consistency, and I also coded comments related to the three lenses of emotional intelligence, emotional geographies, and emotional labor, while keeping an eye out for other areas that might merit further exploration.

Sample journal entries and interview comments are organized below as they relate to our two research questions. The participant number (P#) is included in square brackets together with the source of the excerpt (JE = journal entry, W8 = first interview, W15 = second interview). Following on the advice of Day and Leitch (2001), I have attempted to remain aware of and

to guard against "presenting fragments from others' personal and professional lives which are partial, selecting only that which we wish others to see and hiding that which will prevent us telling the story in our way" (p.404).

What shared/differing feelings and emotions are experienced by EFL teachers in Japan?

Journal entries or interview comments coded as Teacher Emotion totaled 131, with 70 coded as Negative (18 sources) and 51 as Positive (11 sources). The most commonly reported teacher emotion was frustration.

My mood changed a bit at the beginning of the second class, and I began to lose my composure when several students kept speaking Japanese and continued talking when I was trying to start the class. [P8-JE]

One thing I was really frustrated with the students was that they never—we don't have a lot of time in class to do consultations and spend the whole class just talking to students, so I really wanted them to come see me after class, after school. I'm here a lot, and I stay here for the students to come see me . . . but they never came to see me, and I was really hoping if they didn't come see me, go to the [self-access language support center], get help there, and they just never did. And I really tried to understand why they weren't getting help. [P2-W15]

Participant teachers appear to invest themselves in the content and delivery of their lessons, and apathy or lack of student effort or reaction appear to be a major source of disappointment and frustration:

I am still disappointed in their lack of enthusiasm and contributions to the class discussions. [P6-JE]

They could have taught them (visiting students) about the Japanese system more. I asked questions about Japan, but they didn't speak much, so that was disappointing. [P6-JE]
So it's like if they don't understand, or if they don't know how to do something, and I learn that from their errors, that's fine with me. I don't get frustrated by that at all. I get frustrated when they don't try. [P10-W15]

Another thing that emerged from the data is that teacher emotions are sometimes not related to the classroom at all, but are influenced by other parts of their lives:

I started the day very frustrated and angry as a result of the part time teachers insisting to change classrooms at the last minute. [P10-JE]

To be honest, I was not doing well emotionally. However, it has nothing to do with teaching or students. This happens maybe once a year, but due to my physical conditions, I was not uplifting as I usually am today. [P9-JE]

Journal entries and interview comments also highlight the many positive emotions experienced by this group of teachers. The following excerpts, for example, express the joy of a relaxed and/or convivial atmosphere:

I really find it a joy with these students, and I love to have jokes and laugh with them. I find that they really like that. [P6-W8]

Overall, I was in a pretty good mood. The weather was nice and I had a good bike ride to school that morning. [Student Name] arrived early again and we had a chance to get him organized and chat a bit. I was there in class about 30 minutes early making preparations, so there was no rushing around. I was

able to talk to a couple of other students who came in early. [P8-JE]

Many of the comments originally coded under Positive Emotion - Teacher highlight how teachers get most of their satisfaction from positive reactions or progress of their learners:

. . . but at the same time I felt very excited and happy when I learned that some students feel a sense of accomplishment by reading so many words and progress!! [P9-JE]

I could see that they were beginning to work it out between themselves and after a few minutes, students weren't having many problems. This made me feel much better. [P2-JE]

I had been worried about the students who didn't do their homework last week but, today they brought their essay and summary of the video. They wrote a lot of information for the video in their summary, so I was very happy and relieved. [P1-JE]

What feelings or emotions do EFL teachers in Japan perceive in their students?

Journal entries or interview comments coded as Student Emotion totaled 80, with 33 coded as Negative (13 sources) and 47 as positive (14 sources). A number of entries and comments hinted at a sensitivity to emotions on the part of teachers:

I know students felt a sense of achievement today after I told them that everyone reached the goal. I know they felt proud and confident about reading. [P9-JE]

One student in particular who's failed every other English class except TOEIC, I got him motivated in that class. And that was really shocking. But when he was doing the listening, he

suddenly started to get answers right. He became a different student. When he was getting everything wrong, he was his usual "hate this, hate this, hate this." And then he started to get things right, and he started to do a lot better. And so I was able to turn that into… He passed that class. That's the only class he passed this semester. [P10-W15]

[One] emotional observation I had of students in the first class was that [Student Name] seemed to be in a bad mood. I interpreted this as him just being tired, but I think one or more of the other students woke him up or chided him, and this didn't help his mood. [P8-JE]

The following three excerpts highlight the reciprocal nature of emotions in the classroom:

The class was in a jovial mood and so was I. Today I also explained some grading differences among teachers, particularly with regard to participation. Ss seemed to appreciate my explanation, and I felt a kind of embedded, mutual respect afterwards. [P3-JE]

The first class went really well and the emotions were definitely on the upside, even though the difficult parts of the video and text. My feeling is that the students and I were feeding off each other in terms of emotions and mood. [P8-JE]

Actually, that one, sometimes, even his body language affects the mood of whoever he's working with. [P7-W8]

In this excerpt, one participant reports on the positive emotional influence of rearranging students' seats from rows to a half circle where students could see each other:

And uhh I just noticed one of the very first days I did it, all the

student were like kinda surprised because now they could see each other. And so in a way I wonder if that's connected to like that emotional stability in the classroom the fact that they're actually all seeing each other. [P3-W15]

Together, the findings above suggest that the participants of this study experience a range of emotions, both positive and negative, and that the predominant emotions of disappointment and frustration are related to a lack of student effort or unfulfilled expectations. On the positive side, these teachers experience joy and fulfillment from student success or engagement, at both the individual and group level. Findings also suggest that these participants perceive a range of emotions in their students (both positive and negative) and that these emotions are strongly influenced by the teacher and other students. In the following section, I will discuss these findings using our framework of emotional intelligence, emotional geographies and emotional labor.

DISCUSSION

As mentioned earlier, the constructs of emotional intelligence, emotional geographies and emotional labor seem especially relevant to our study. The following discussion is structured around these constructs and how the current study might be expanded on.

Emotional Intelligence

The excerpts hint at both strengths and shortcomings in terms of emotional intelligence. My interpretations here are based on the five basic emotional competences identified by Goleman (1995): self-awareness, managing emotions, empathy, self-motivation, and handling relationships with others (cited in Yin, Lee, Zhang & Jin, 2013).

Self-awareness: Several of the excerpts show a certain level of self-awareness, with participants commenting on how their own feelings, mood or emotions influence the flow of class, success of activities and student learning. The following excerpts also express this self-awareness:

And I think sometimes another thing that I have to question is when I think they're getting bored, is it them that's getting bored, or is it me just perceiving that their faces have this bored expression which, maybe if I'm in a really good mood and everything, I see the same face and think that they're just—they're-really paying attention? [P2-W15]

There are definitely some students I feel much closer with than others, and I guess maybe in my teaching, I might gravitate towards those students as opposed to maybe some students I don't feel as comfortable with. I'm sure I probably do that. [P2-W15]

Managing emotions: Some participants appeared to be more skilled than others in managing their emotions and those of their students. This competence is hinted at in the overall findings, and stressed in the following two excerpts:

I then was thinking that I was not their teacher last semester and although doubtful, they may have not been taught this. I also started thinking that even if they did learn it and forgot, getting frustrated with them wasn't going to make them learn it any easier so I simply changed my feelings from frustration to concern and then I was able to do a better job of teaching them. [P2-W8]

Afterward, I am glad that I was calm and collected during the episode, not allowing any anger or judgment to cloud the

classroom environment. [P3-JE]

Empathy: Empathy was not overly expressed and might be an area for professional development for this group of teachers. The majority of journal entries dealing with the student emotions were limited to surface level observations and only a few expressed a deeper level of involvement. The following entry is one of the exceptions:

So I'm trying to—I try to be in their shoes and think about why they're not coming to get extra help. And I had the lower-level writing, so they're not—maybe I shouldn't—I don't know if this the right thinking or not, but maybe they aren't as interested or as motivated to improve their writing. And a couple of the students who are at the higher level, I think maybe they compare themselves with the students who are at the lower-level in my writing class and . . . [P2-W18]

Self-motivation: The predominance of entries and comments related to teacher emotions, both negative and positive, hint at a range of self-motivation strategies. The source of this motivation seems to be predominantly interactions with students, and helping students in their language learning efforts. The following excerpt conveys a relationship between self-motivation and emotional labor.

I always—I love teaching—love it. So I come into class—almost every class—just full of energy. I have—I usually prepare quite a bit for my classes, and I usually come in just very happy and [upbeat], with lots of energy because I know a lot of the students don't have the energy. So I try to almost artificially give them this energy. [P2-W8]

Handling relationships with others: This group of teachers seem to spend a tremendous amount of time and energy trying to

promote a positive classroom environment, and building positive relations with individual students as well as at the group level. We also see in some of the excerpts evidence of teachers trying to repair relations when they are damaged. The following participant describes their efforts metaphorically:

So I guess if I had to describe it musically, I would say it's discordant emotions at first—slow—and then as—if you play the music, it kind of gets a little better, and now we're hopefully in harmony, and we're hitting these notes together. And that's sort of like my goal. I don't expect everyone to be on the same page when we first sit down, but my goal is by the end of class, everybody's talking, they're feeling comfortable, and they leave with—they're happy, they feel good— [P3-W8]

There was also evidence of emotional intelligence on the part of students, as expressed in the following excerpt:

But today, just—I had a very exhausting week—just drained. So today, I was a little bit—a little more sluggish, a little tired. And they could tell. They're like—asked me, "[Teacher's Name], is everything okay today? Are you okay? Did anything happen? You want to tell us something?" Like, "No, no. I'm okay." So they can tell that, when I come in and I'm a little bit not as [upbeat], not as excited. They almost get concerned. They're like, "What's wrong with you today?" [P2-W8]

Emotional Geographies

The overall data painted a picture of the complex relations between teacher and students as well as among students. These various relationships and the overall classroom environment emerged as a central concern for this group of teachers. These additional excerpts highlight this concern:

At this point, the class and I have built a solid rapport with

mutual respect. Right now, this is a good place to be as a teacher and I hope to improve upon this in the coming semesters before this group goes abroad. [P3-JE]

I was frustrated, and Ss seemed the most distant they'd been from me all semester. Some Ss felt that I didn't trust them and that I didn't understand their culture. I walked away knowing I needed a new plan to encourage participation in group discussion. [P4-JE]

I mean there's just a classroom dynamic that all students seem to influence each other in different ways, And I think that by the end of the semester what I'm proud to say at least is that with that class, that we were all on very similar wavelengths . . . I think that the, we are all mutually respectful of each other, mentally and emotionally, and I think that took the whole semester to do but in the end . . . I felt very comfortable with them and I think they feel that comfort with me. So that was my success, an emotional success I guess. [P3-W15]

Emotional Labor

Looking at comments coded at this node stressed for me the deep emotional investment that these participants continue to make in their work. We see in the data evidence that these teachers do work themselves into emotional states that are not necessarily genuine. Most often this seems to be teachers expressing excitement and enthusiasm in an attempt to promote learner engagement. One teacher in particular expresses frustration, disappointment and even anger to students that is not genuine. He discusses how this is part of the persona he wishes to convey to students, but that he does this in a playful manner. Another teacher discussed being in an accident the day before and needing to "put it aside" and "show a good face" to students.

In support of arguments put forward by Hargreaves (2000),

comments by another participant highlight the sometimes positive side of emotional labor.

It's a challenge, yeah. So I think it's a good challenge, though, for me because I have to manage my own emotions, too. [P2-W8]

These three concepts together have provided a useful framework for exploring the topic of emotions in the current context. Abstracting from the above findings, it is apparent when looking at responses, that teachers take their work seriously, and that often this work involves emotion. These three constructs might interact with and impact teacher well-being. Greater awareness and personal development in these three areas should better ensure well-being and avoid burnout.

Several teachers discussed at length how an emotionally charged moment in class would linger for several days afterwards with feelings of regret, stress, anger and even depression. These teachers even mentioned incidents that happened several years ago at previous places of employment. With this in mind, an analysis of Critical Incidents (Day & Leitch, 2001) might provide useful insight. The following excerpt describes an example of an obviously emotional incident:

Today was the most emotionally charged class that I have taught this semester. The core group of "lads" in the second class got bogged down in the video task. One student in particular kept making comments in Japanese under his breath. This muttering eventually got to me, and I stopped the class to confront the student on this. The gist of my talk was that I was trying my best to teach this material, and that this kind of behavior is not only rude but also interrupts the flow of the class and learning for other students. I was wound up, and tried to stress to the students that the contents of this lesson are important for their

future. [P8-JE]

In addition to answering our research questions, I feel that getting participants to reflect on emotions seems to have heightened their awareness of the emotional side of their own teaching. In this sense, EFL teacher training and professional development programs might benefit from this type of reflective journaling on emotions. One pedagogical implication is that eachers and students in these contexts would likely benefit from working together over an extended time, which is not always possible in most programs at Japanese universities, where teachers often meet students for ninety minutes once or twice a week for a fifteen-week term.

CONCLUSION

Hargreaves (1998) astutely points out that emotions are usually discussed only to the extent that "they help administrators and reformers 'manage' and offset teachers' resistance to change or help them set the climate or mood in which the really important business of cognitive learning or strategic planning can take place" (pg. 837). The trend in EFL teaching at university in Japan is also to stress the technical side of teaching, and we can see this trend in published articles as well as list of presentations at academic conferences. As Carr (2005) argues, teaching is much more than just learning classroom management and the technical side of teaching. This study, I believe shows that emotions are at the center of this group of teachers' work, and that this topic deserves more attention in this context.

This study was exploratory in nature and further research is required. Two areas that deserve more attention in the current context are emotions as related to teacher burnout and emotions as related to teachers' professional identity. For example, a follow up study is needed in Japan to Chan (2006), who used structural equation modeling to find the connections between

emotional intelligence and teacher burnout.

I wish to acknowledge the limits of the current study. First, the study could be improved through a mixed-methods research design. At the same time, participants were limited in number and teaching in one geographical location. Finally, the framework of emotional intelligence, emotional geographies and emotional labor could be expanded on. Two constructs that might provide deeper insight in this context are sociocultural distance (Hargreaves, 2001) and teacher identity (Zembylas, 2005; O'Connor, 2008).

In closing, I hope that the current study stimulates discussion on the topic of emotions in EFL contexts in Japan and beyond. In the words of Hargreaves (2001):

The recurrent emotional experiences that people have in their respective occupations affect their identities and their relationships with clients in distinctive ways. Each occupation and its culture has different emotional expectations, contours, and effects on workers and their clients. Teaching is no exception. (p. 1057)

EFL teaching in Japan is clearly no exception.

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APPENDIX

Reflective Journaling Prompts

*Prompt (1) Reflection in practice (What adjustments or accommodations did you make to your lesson plan during today's lesson? Describe as many as possible, in as much detail as possible)

Help Text - Reflection in Action is described as 'thinking on our feet'. It involves looking to our experiences, connecting with our feelings, and attending to our theories in use. It entails building n ew understandings to inform our actions in the situation that is unfolding.

*Prompt (2) Reflection on practice (What worked? What didn't? Explain in as much detail as possible.)
Help Text - Looking back on the class (and the various encounters). The act of reflecting-on-action enables us to spend time exploring why we acted as we did, what was happening and so on.

Prompt (3) Emotional Aspects (What emotions did you experience? What emotions did you perceive in the learners?)
Help Text - Specific emotions as well as general moods during today's lesson.

* Note: Findings from data solicited through these prompts are not reported on in this paper.

GRAMMATICAL FEEDBACK IN IMPROVING ENGLISH WRITING SKILLS: A CASE STUDY ON BANGLADESHI PRIMARY GRADE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to investigate the role of grammatical feedback in learning English as a second language in the case of Bangladeshi primary school students. In Bangladeshi mainstream schools, English is considered as an obligatory course and students start learning English at the very beginning of their school-study. Among four skills of learning English, writing specially requires a formal setting which is commonly provided by the school. Moreover, enough practice along with learning through exhilarating experience can give the learners a better outcome (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). For achieving an improved skill of writing, a learner needs to take care of overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure and word structure simultaneously (Collins and Gentner; 1980: 67). These structures are designed on the basis of grammatical framework. As a result, providing effective grammatical feedback is vital for increasing the aptitude level of students' writing skill. According to Hyland (2003:177) different feedback strategies such as teacher feedback, peer feedback, feedback on form compared to content and direct versus indirect feedback are important to accomplish this whole process. Furthermore, by following Hattie

and Timperley (2007:104) it is possible to infer that all types of feedback should be comprehensible, persistent and appropriate for the learners. Therefore, this paper presents a quantitative field study conducted on two primary schools of Bangladesh to figure out the process and challenges of providing grammatical feedback in learning English writing skills within a country-specific context.

Introduction

The present study aims at investigating the contribution of grammatical feedback to improve the writing skill of English L2 learners with a special focus on Bangladeshi primary grade students. Writing has an immense importance in academic professional as well as personal communication. Grabe and Kaplan (1996:6) define writing as a cluster of skills which are acquired through proper training and effective instruction. In general, primary school is considered as the most congenial place to start developing writing skill. Since Bangladeshi primary school curriculum maintains a bilingual setting, students start getting familiar with English as a second language from the very beginning of their study. Consequently, they need to learn English writing skill as an obligatory part of it. The present paper, therefore, explores the role of feedback that contributes in improving the grammatical knowledge of the Bangladeshi primary grade students and tries to identify the level of their use of this knowledge in writing.

Background

The learning situation of English grammar in Bangladeshi primary schools is a very important phenomenon to understand the status of English writing skill development of the students. The latest school curriculum of English has the clear directive to implement communicative language teaching in all schools of Bangladesh. This communicative approach requires in-depth use of functional grammar. Therefore, students need to learn the

appropriate use of grammar for achieving good command in academic writing. However, such effective strategies are not very commonly practiced in primary school-level teaching in Bangladesh. Hasina (2002), in her research, reveals an interesting fact that, "most of them (teachers) teach the rules of grammar deductively, through direct demonstration in the classroom. And the students are taught to memorize the rules of English grammar" (p.166-167). This equally affects the writing skill development of those students. Therefore, the present study has tried to look into the grammatical feedback issue and students' attitudes towards it while they want to be at home in English writing.

Writing and grammatical feedback

Writing: Teaching approaches

Two competitive models should be addressed to get the guideline for understanding the fact related to L2 English writing skill development. These two models are attributed as product approach and process approach. This product-process debate mainly deals with the way of teaching writing skill. The first one is chiefly concerned with corrected end product of a write up, whereas the second one prefers to pay more attention on the writing process of students within the context of the classroom. According to Huff (1983: 805), from the very beginning stage, product approach checks out the correctness of spelling, grammar, punctuation and word choice; and in contrast process approach takes the writing holistically, produces the text and gives importance to the audience and the situation where writing takes place. In their respective researches, Harris (1983), Swales (1990) and Hyland (2003) identify that the process approach fails to incorporate all aspects of writing and as a result a less perfect final version of the write up may be produced.

On the other hand, as Brookes and Grundy (1998: 15) say, the product approach helps to overcome the writing errors by taking

care of grammatical issues and finally it yields more accurate and vibrant output. By following the guideline of product approach it can be inferred that students need adequate skill of g rammatical accuracy for the improvement of their writing and therefore they require support from their mentors. So, proper guidance from their teachers can contribute in the development of their writing skill. The teachers can provide guidance in a summative form as Hyland (2003) says to assess the competence and performance of the students in a product-oriented approach to writing. Contrastively, process-oriented formative assessment can also be instrumented for the development of the students' English writing. However Nunan (1999) and Gardner (2012) both prefer an inclusive approach where process and product oriented activities work together to achieve the highest improvement in English writing.

Application of grammar in English writing

English writing needs appropriate guidance of grammar. In fact, it helps to make the writing meaningful and to connect it to the functions of text. One important thing is to mention here that the students get the optimum benefit of grammar in their writing if it works as more functional in nature. Tawatchai (2010) finds that functional way of grammar provides enormous support to understand necessary characteristics of a text and its situational and cultural context. In other words, students need to know the mechanism of English language to achieve good command in writing. Andrews (2005), in his study shows that appropriate kind of grammatical approach should be taught by the teachers to make the students better writer in English. Therefore, Chaisiri (2010) prefers a genre-based approach of writing where students need to learn not only different grammatical patterns, but also the contextual set up of the writing. In this approach effective mentoring is essential since teachers must show the students how to use structures and operate words within different genre specific contexts. They should also provide suggestions and

support to their students to make them better English writer. This, in fact, opens an avenue to discuss the nature of teachers' feedback regarding grammatical corrections in developing English writing skill.

Grammatical feedback

Feedback is an essential part of learning. By following the definition of Hattie and Timperley (2007:81), it is to state that learning feedback works as a special sort of response which is provided by a mentor on the basis of a learner's 'performance or understanding'. Feedback plays a very significant role in second language learning. Since grammatical efficiency is one of the crucial requirements for developing writing skill, appropriate and detail feedback can contribute in this domain. However, specific components like 'approach', 'response' and 'follow-up' are needed to figure out the structure of feedback (Ferris 2007:166). It is to assume that grammatical feedback has the possibility to improve the learning outcome. For this, Hattie and Timperley (2007:82) emphasize on learning context to which feedback is applied. Along with this, Chandler (2003) categorizes the feedback into content and form. Explicitly in grammar learning, feedback related to the content and form complements each other to achieve the expected output. In fact, the form in writing gets better noticeably when the learners necessitate correcting their errors occurred in the contents.

For the improvement of writing skills, grammatical feedback can be given indirectly and directly. At the time of giving direct feedback the instructor provides straight cut solution of the problem faced by the student. As a result, the student only redrafts the correct form. In contrast, while giving indirect feedback, the teacher offers necessary number of clues to identify the error and the students have to find out the correct form by applying their own skill of writing (Ferris and Roberts 2001:163-164). Indirect feedback creates self-motivated

opportunities for the students to rectify their writing skill, but they might get frustrated without having specific directions from the teacher. This possibility is supported by Chandler (2003), where he finds grammatical and lexical errors are corrected in a more efficient manner if the teacher uses a balanced combination of direct and indirect feedback. In fact, the way of providing grammatical feedback should be interactive. Therefore, Frankenberg-Garcia (1999) suggests that the most effective type of feedback should be real-time feedback where students get the direction at the time they encounter a problem in writing. The way of delivering feedback also depends on the preference of the students. Along with teachers' feedback, in some cases, learners receive feedback from their peers which may allow them to enjoy the autonomy in learning and to share critical views among them. However, research (e.g. Connor and Asenavage 1994; Paulus 1999; Berg 1999; Villamil and De Guerrero 1998) in this area show that peer feedback is less effective than the feedback received from the mentor. Hence in the following study, we have used three parameters: experience, attitude and understanding of grammatical feedback to explore the learning situation of English writing by the Bangladeshi primary grade students.

The Study

Methodology

The present paper analyzes a simple query related to the English writing skill development issue of the Bangladeshi school going primary grade students. Since the students of two participatory schools are treated as a single group, an orthodox case study research has been carried out to get the answer of the query. In case study research, an empirical inquiry is performed to investigate a real-life phenomenon which must be related to a single participant or a group of individuals (like school going students or a specific community or else). In this study, a simple quantitative model has been developed. Sometime case studies prefer longitudinal assessment of individual participants and

therefore, a qualitative approach with detail descriptive accounts is analyzed. In contrast, Block (1986) and Hosenfeld (1984) state that case studies can also allow collecting numerical and categorical data from a case group and going for necessary quantitative analysis. At the same time, Yin (1984:25) has made a careful comment by saying that the case study is not at all synonymous to qualitative research and he also mentions that "case studies can be based…entirely on quantitative evidence."

Inspired by this guideline, a simple quantitative investigation has been done for this research. According to Mackay and Gass (2005), the objective and verification-oriented nature of quantitative research can yield more realistic findings which are very much important to understand a case. Moreover, Dörnyei (2007) finds quantitative research as a path way to get the generalization on the basis of specific samples. In the present study, two Bangladeshi primary schools have been taken into account and the participants' view towards grammatical feedback in improving English writing skill has been assessed. These specific findings of the study have finally been used to get an idea related to this issue.

Participants

The study has been designed to evaluate the viewpoints of Bangladeshi primary grade students regarding grammatical feedback in developing their English writing skill. Two public primary schools of Dhaka city (the capital of Bangladesh) have been selected on the basis of their good results (more than 80% of the students obtained 'A' grade) in the last Primary School Certificate (PSC) examination held in 2015. The convenience of accomplishing the research has also been taken into account while selecting the schools. Since the sample requires representing the population in quantitative research, the sample of 165 5th grade students in two primary schools have taken part in this study while the population in this case is all primary

school level students in Bangladesh.

Instruments

A questionnaire with three corresponding segments has been devised to collect the participants' responses. 'Likert scale' (Dörnyei 2007:105) has been followed to generate closed-ended question items. The first segment has five statements which are about participants' mindset towards English writing. The students are asked to check one box for each statement whether they are 'strongly agree'/ 'agree'/ 'disagree'/ 'strongly disagree' to it. A few examples of the statements of this segment are: 'I fond of English writing' and 'I regularly get English writing tasks at school'. This segment provides an overview of participants' attitudes about English writing at school. The second segment was for investigating the procedure of receiving grammatical feedback by the participants. It consists of six statements and participants have been instructed to follow the above mentioned scale to express their opinions. Some examples of this segment are: 'Receiving feedback before finishing the task and 'Receiving adequate feedback on content'. The third as well as the final segment of this questionnaire includes one open-ended question to answer: 'What should be the most effective way to improve the writing skill in English?' The preciseness, clarity and intelligibility have been carefully maintained at the time of formulating the questionnaire. Students took more or less 15 minutes to complete this task.

Procedure

The study conducted in the last quarter of 2016. All the participants are anonymous in this study. Four field visits were made to collect data from the students of the selected schools. Initial permission from the school authorities had been taken before starting the data collection procedure. First, a brief demonstration had been presented to make the participants familiar with the filling up process of the questionnaire and then

they started completing the task of their own accord. After collecting the data, necessary measures were taken to get statistical results.

Results

The study mainly focuses on three parameters mentioned in the previous section to assess the opinions of the students. The analysis of the questionnaires shows that 165 students gave opinions about their experiences, attitudes and understandings towards English writing and related grammatical feedback. Table 1 shows the experiences of the participants on English writing. Percentages are shown according to the overall number of students.

Table 1: Students' views on written English

I am fond of English writing:
Strongly Agree (9.1%)
Agree (10.31%)
Neither agree nor disagree (24.5%)
Disagree (16.97%)
Strongly Disagree (15.76%)

I think it is important to develop the ability to write in English:
Strongly Agree (56.37%)
Agree (37.58%)
Neither agree nor disagree (4.85%)
Disagree (1.22%)
Strongly Disagree (0%)

*I am improving my English writing capacity day by day:*Strongly Agree (6.07%)
Agree (9.1%)
Neither agree nor disagree (51.52%)
Disagree (31.52%)

Strongly Disagree (1.82%)

I get adequate support to improve my writing skill:
Strongly Agree (3.04%)
Agree (6.67%)
Neither agree nor disagree (27.28%)
Disagree (43.64%)
Strongly Disagree (15.76%)

I regularly get English writing tasks at school:
Strongly Agree (1.82%)
Agree (39.4%)
Neither agree nor disagree (43.64%)
Disagree (3.04%)
Strongly Disagree (11.52%)

According to Table 1, students first expressed their affinitytowards English writing. The interesting fact is most of the students were not very confident about their English writing. More than 24% students selected the option: 'Neither agree nor disagree', and 23.64% students went for 'No comment' choice.
If we add up these two figures, we shall get the highest percentage of students' preferences which in other way tells us that they were not very sure about their fondness towards English writing. However, more than 9% students strongly agreed that they had a great interest in English writing and more than 10% students almost followed them by choosing the option: 'Agree'. In contrast, a very high percentage of students gave their opinion against the first statement by saying that either they were disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. By following this first statement, we can understand that the participants did not have any clear idea how they could take and manage English writing. Even though the first statement shows that the most of the participants did not keep faiths on

themselves to take English writing as an interesting phenomenon, the second statement depicts that the students were fully aware of the importance of acquiring English writing skill. Hence most of the students were inclined to choose two options: 'Strongly agree' and 'Agree'.

This consciousness towards English is really impressive. Despite having such level of awareness, more than 50% of the participants chose the option 'Neither agree nor disagree' in answering the third statement of this segment. In fact, this answer also supports the first statement as their confidence level was so poor to determine the development of their English writing. The fourth and the fifth statements of this segment are describing the reasons behind their poor confidence level. Since most of the students thought that they did not get enough support from their school in developing English writing skill, it replicates that according to their viewpoint their learning procedure is not as effective as they expected.

Moreover, 65% of the participants agreed that they got English writing home tasks regularly and 72% participants failed to decide whether they had received adequate amount of English writing tasks. As a result, it is inferred from this table that primary grade students of Bangladesh are possibly alert to the necessity of developing English writing skill but they think that they are not getting plenty of opportunities to improve this skill. Finally, this situation in fact affects their confidence level as well.

Table 2 mainly focuses on the procedure of receiving feedback by the students. This segment consists of six statements. First two statements deal with the time of receiving feedback. In this part, most of the participants stated that they had got feedback after finishing writing tasks. Very few numbers of participants selected the options of 'Strongly agree' and 'Agree'. Even

though Frankenberg-Garcia (1999) suggests real-time feedback as the most effective one, the real picture is students commonly received post-task feedback. The third statement is related to peer feedback. Most of the participants answered that they had got feedback from their classmates. As guided by the respective studies of Connor and Asenavage (1994, Paulus (1999, Berg (1999), and Villamil and De Guerrero (1998) we have already mentioned that peer feedback is comparatively more unauthentic than a mentor's feedback. Hence, this high percentage of opinion does not lend strong support.

Table 2: Students' experience in receiving feedback

Receiving feedback before finishing the task:
Strongly Agree (3.04%)
Agree (6.67%)
Neither agree nor disagree (51.52%)
Disagree (38.79%)
Strongly Disagree (0%)

Receiving feedback after finishing the task:
Strongly Agree (7.88%)
Agree (66.67%)
Neither agree nor disagree (25.46%)
Disagree (1.22%)
Strongly Disagree (0%)

Receiving feedback from classmates:
Strongly Agree (0%)
Agree (51.52%)
Neither agree nor disagree (34.55%)
Disagree (12.73%)
Strongly Disagree (0.61%)

Receiving adequate feedback on grammatical forms:
Strongly Agree (10.31%)

Agree (17.58%)
Neither agree nor disagree (23.64%)
Disagree (28.49%)
Strongly Disagree (20.00%)

Receiving adequate feedback on spelling errors:
Strongly Agree (56.37%)
Agree (23.04%)
Neither agree nor disagree (12.73%)
Disagree (7.88%)
Strongly Disagree (0%)

Receiving adequate feedback on content:
Strongly Agree (11.52%)
Agree (13.94%)
Neither agree nor disagree (22.43%)
Disagree (41.82%)
Strongly Disagree (10.31%)

The last three statements of this segment show the way of grammatical feedback the participants had received in their classroom. Participants became confused while they attempted to find options for the statement linked to grammatical form feedback. We may assume that they were not familiar with direct and indirect process of feedback. Therefore a low percentage of participants agreed or strongly agreed with these options. In contrast, the majority of the participants' opinions were against the proper delivery of feedback related to grammatical form. Where Chandler (2003) explores a balanced combination of direct and indirect feedback to correct the grammatical and lexical errors, our participants received grammatical feedback in a traditional manner with special focus to spelling errors. Hence, more than 50% participants went for the 'Strongly agree' option to comment on receiving spelling error related feedback. On the

other hand, response to the content feedback, highest percentage of the participants chose the 'Disagree' option which also indicates that the teachers were less concerned with content feedback in compare to the form feedback.

At the end of the questionnaire there was an open question for the students to answer: 'What should be the most effective way to improve writing skills in English?' 116 students out of 165 responded to this question. Among them 65 participants suggested putting more focus on basically three things: interactive writing tasks, regular practice and inclusive feedback. According to other 31 participants, creative writing and language games provided by the teachers could make their English writing better. The rest of the participants preferred in-depth mentoring to learn English grammatical rules correctly.

Discussion

In this study, one important fact is revealed that teachers need to work more on increasing the confidence level of their students. According to the data, a large number of students became confused while they answering even simple set of questions. They should have strong faith on themselves. As the study describes, the participants were very much responsive to the importance of acquiring English writing skill; however, they did not have proper grammatical knowledge. Therefore they required effective feedback. In spite of this necessity they failed to get inclusive and although feedback from their teachers. Only spelling errors and a few grammatical form related feedback they commonly received. Content feedback was not very common experience for them. Nevertheless, they had expressed their true belief that appropriate types of feedback could change the scenario and should give them the opportunity to achieve adequate skill in English writing.

Conclusion

The paper basically describes the proper connection between grammatical feedback and English writing skill in the context of Bangladesh. However, the study is stipulated within two primary schools of this densely populated country, it at least provides an assumption that the above mentioned education sector seeks more attention in developing English writing skill. In other words, the process of grammatical feedback needs more improvement for the betterment of the primary level English school education in Bangladesh. The main focus of this study was to assess the attitude and the experience of the students towards grammatical feedback. The result of this study recommends that the feedback should be inclusive and effective and consequently it influences a lot in the development of the students' English writing.

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EFFECTIVE ORAL AND WRITTEN TEACHER FEEDBACK

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ABSTRACT
In this paper effective strategies of teacher feedback, oral and written for second language writing, will be analyzed and discussed. First, the background of the current writing workshop standard is discussed. In particular, the drift from summative to formative feedback will be considered. Then a discussion of feedback strategies and content with examples of how these relate to second language writing courses. After that is a discussion about oral feedback. This in turn is followed by an analysis of oral feedback observations and concerns. Then there is a discussion of suggestions for effective written feedback. Finally, there is a conclusion about the most important factor, time, in giving feedback to students.

INTRODUCTION
Over the last 30 years in the field of second language writing there has been a transformation of process-based (multiple drafts-feedback-revision) classroom where the workshop approach has come to be the norm. Feedback has long been considered important for encouraging and consolidating learning in general (Anderson, 1982; Brophy, 1981; Vygotsy, 1978). So there has also been a drift from summative (evaluative feedback) to formative feedback (development/future) (Hyland, 2006a). Teacher feedback has come to be supplanted by peer feedback, but teacher feedback remains an important tool for the instruction of writing as well as fostering student improvement in writing. Research indicates that effective feedback should be conveyed in a variety of ways and should allow for response and

interaction (Brinko, 1993). The focus of this study will be on effective oral and written feedback from instructors to second language writers.

Feedback Strategies and Content

A useful place to start discussing feedback is to look at some general feedback strategies and concerns relating to content. As well as a discussion of how they can be effectively implemented in a second language writing context. Susan Brookhart, in her book *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students* (2008), identifies and discusses several important strategies and content related to effective feedback that will serve as the basis for this discussion. The feedback strategies will be analyzed first, followed by issues related to content.

Feedback Strategies

The first strategy discussed is timing. The instructor must address the issues of when and how feedback will be given. Some suggestions about timing include giving immediate feedback for fact based assignments, and delaying feedback for more extensive analysis of student thinking and processing. However, Brookhart (2008) suggest avoiding delay when it would affect students negatively. Furthermore, feedback should be provided as often as possible for major assignments. For example, in writing students will often need feedback in the planning, drafting, and summative stages of the writing process.

The next strategy to consider is the amount of feedback given. The instructor must consider how many points to address. In addition, the instructor must also contemplate how much feedback to give for each point. Brook (2008) suggests that the instructor prioritize and choose points related to major learning goals as well as give credence to the student's development level. In the second language writing context this might mean focusing on paragraph structure with beginning writers. But the

instructor might want to focus on using textual evidence properly without plagiarizing with advanced level writing students.

The mode of feedback, that is how the feedback is conveyed- orally, in writing, or via a visual demonstration, is another strategy to consider. Here, Brookhart (2008) recommends an interactive approach by talking with students individually. In the second language writing context this usually means student-teacher conferences. However, she acknowledges that this is often not possible for a number of reasons relating to time management and class size. Therefore most oral feedback in the second language writing classroom comes in a lecture-style format. Additionally, most summative feedback in second language writing classes is given in written comments. However, it is effective to use oral feedback as well if time permits.

Audience is closely related to mode in terms of whether or not the feedback is given individually or to a group or whole class. Individual feedback enforces the idea that instructors value student learning according to Brookhart (2008). For example, in the second language writing context if a particular student is having problems writing effective topic sentences, the instructor can focus on that issue with the student. While she acknowledges that large group feedback is effective for reviewing large concepts missed. An example from a second language writing class would be reviewing the need for a controlling idea with the topic in an effective topic sentence for a paragraph.

Feedback Content

Another useful resource from Brookhart's book, *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students* (2008), introduces several aspects of feedback content. The first area discussed is focus. Focus is concerned with the assignment and the process and how the student self-regulates while completing it. According to Brookhart (2008), the instructor should describe the work and

process whenever possible. Furthermore, comments that help contribute to self-efficiency are useful. It is also important to avoid giving personal comments to students. This area in second language writing suggests that instructor help guide students through the writing process from brainstorming to outlining to drafting and getting feedback to revising and editing a final draft.

The next area of feedback content is comparison. Here the instructor must decide whether the feedback will compared to criteria (criterion referenced), to other students (norm-referenced), or to the student's own past performance (self-referenced). In most second language writing classes the instructor gives feedback according to a criteria introduced early in the class. However, some instructors may also use portfolios, which are a collection of the student's work, over a semester or year, which is used in order to assess a student's overall progress in a writing course.

Function is another aspect of feedback content that must be addressed by the instructor. That is, will the feedback describe or evaluate/judge the student's work. Brookhart (2008) advises against judging the student, which may demotivate a student in future assignments. In the second language writing classroom evaluation, as mentioned earlier, usually is based on criteria set forth at the beginning of a course.

Another area of feedback content that must be addressed is valence, which is giving positive or negative feedback. Brookhart (2008) suggest always giving some positive feedback while describing what was well done. Furthermore, it is suggested that negative comments should be paired with positive suggestions for improvement. In the second language classroom, and Japan in particular, many students expect negative feedback in order to identify and correct writing errors. However, it should be balanced with for effective writing as well.

It should be noted that the feedback content needs to have "clarity"-which means that it needs to be clear to the student. This means using vocabulary and concepts that he student will understand and should be modified according to student level and ability. Brookhart (2008) further suggests that the feedback should be tailored in amount and content according to the students' level. So in the second language writing classroom this means that lower level beginning student content will most likely will be related to essay structure and basic concepts, while advanced level students will be given feedback mostly related to content and other high level skills.

Specificity is another issued that instructor must consider in feedback content. One might think in terms of whether or not the feedback is too exacting, overly general, or the appropriate amount. Thus, Brookhart (2008) suggests in tailoring the degree of specificity to the individual student and task. In addition, the feedback needs to be specific enough so that students know what to do but not so specific that is done for them. The author suggests identifying the types of errors but avoiding correcting every one. This might be referred to as copyediting or supplying students with the right answers and does not leave the students anything to do. This is a common issue that second language teachers grapple with since the sentences are often unreadable and that instructor may feel compelled to make it grammatically correct themselves. However, the reasons for the correction may not be apparent to the student in question.

Finally, tone is another important consideration of feedback content. These are the implications of what a student will hear from the instructor. The choice of words according to Brookhart (2008) is the most crucial factor in this category. It is suggested that the instructor choose words that communicate respect for the student and his work, which will make the student the agent, and

will cause the students to think or wonder. A negative tone in the second language writing context might lead to demotivation if perceived as a lack of respect for the student or their work.

Oral Feedback

Now that several issues of feedback strategies and content have been discussed, it will be useful to consider some issues related to oral feedback for second language writing in particular. There are several reasons why oral feedback can be an effective means of providing students with feedback. According to Ferris and Hedgecock (1998 p.141), it is believed that it can save time that would have been spent on written feedback and evaluation. Also, it can provide enhanced opportunities for interaction and negotiation between the student and instructor. Furthermore, it may be considered a more effective way of giving feedback to students who are primarily auditory, rather than visual learners. Regarding student and teacher attitudes, several studies found a strong liking for conferencing because of opportunities that it provides for face-to-face interaction and instantaneous feedback (see for example Zamel, 1985). Oral feedback can be given to the whole class (recurring general errors) or face to face (specific to the student) during conferences.

There are several different ways to run a conference, but there is a standard model. Typically conferences will take place outside the classroom in the instructor's office or a small conference room. The conference will begin with an opening, followed by student initiated comments and questions, then teacher-initiated comments and questions, a reading of the paper, and closings. However, there are a number of variations available-some instructors have conferences with students during workshop environments where the other students in the room are revising their papers. Furthermore, sometimes the teacher needs to be more assertive if the students are passive; which is often the case in the Japanese second language writing classroom.

Oral Feedback Observations and Concerns

It has been suggested that a process approach to second language writing in a conference should be non-directive (Clarke). This approach is valued in order to avoid appropriating student texts. In addition, there some concerns related to this approach. For example, it ignores cultural differences among students. In the Japanese second language writing classroom students would ask for direction. Researchers suggest that it does not help the student come to terms with genre focused writing styles and does not force students to be linguistically accurate (Johns 1995). However, one big positive aspect is that students cannot ignore feedback. For the instructor it is less tedious than writing comments. On the other hand, conferencing takes a lot of time and, in addition, some students are not comfortable with the format.

Suggestions for Written Corrective Feedback

Most of the feedback strategies discussed can be applied to written corrective feedback. However, there are several concerns that have been noted by researchers over the years. For example, it has been noted that too much criticism can affect motivation and self-confidence (e.g. Connorst & Lunsford, 1993). So it means that instructors should be selective about which errors they point out in student writing. Furthermore, premature or gratuitous praise might confuse student writers and discourage revisions (Hyland & Hyland 2001).

There are some good suggestions from Dana Ferris (1990) relating to written corrective feedback. First, Ferris (1990) suggests that feedback is most effective at the intermediate stages of the writing process. She suggests that instructors should provide feedback on all aspects of student texts including content, rhetorical structure, grammar, and mechanics. And she states that teacher feedback should be clear and concrete to help

students make revisions. But at the same time, they need to be careful not to appropriate student texts by rewriting the paper for them. Also, it is suggested that teacher feedback should take individual and contextual variables into consideration.

CONCLUSION

There are many considerations for teachers to make when giving feedback in the second language writing classroom. However, a combination of oral and written corrective feedback throughout the writing process seems to be an effective means of giving students the help they need to become effective writers. One of the biggest factors in the process of feedback is time. The more time an instructor has for each student the better the feedback will be, however, a factor like this is linked with class sizes. This is largely an administrative issue that cannot be controlled by the instructor. However, it has an impact of the amount of feedback that instructors can give students. As a result, this factor has a huge impact on how feedback will be used in a second language classroom.

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THE EFFICACY OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF WRITING FEEDBACK ON LEARNER PERFORMANCE OF IELTS-TYPE PRACTICE ESSAYS: TWO CASE STUDIES

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ABSTRACT
Using a case study approach, this paper discusses the issue of whether and to what extent written feedback on learner writing is useful to the learners. Two high-intermediate learners in Vietnam (in the range International English Language Testing System [IELTS] 6.5 ~ 7.5) were given feedback on their writing of IELTS-type practice essays, using a variety of different feedback methods. The efficacy of the feedback was analyzed using interview and introspective data.

BACKGROUND
Teachers correcting learners' writing (sometimes called *marking)* is one of the most enduring images of a teacher's work. For many it would seem perverse to question the necessity of it, but in fact there has been quite a substantial amount of research into a) whether correction is in fact beneficial, and b) if it is, then what kind is beneficial. It is uncontroversial to say that some sort of feedback is an essential part of any learning: a child learns to avoid physical danger though the feedback received from nerve-endings; we learn many things in daily life, from finding our way around a new neighborhood, to driving a car, to operating a new kind of software, through the feedback mechanisms of trial and error. Sometimes, but not always, we do this with guidance from someone who already knows how to do it. The questions for

language learning, therefore, are in reality both questions of *how* rather than *whether*, and we can reformulate the above questions as: a) what *kinds* of feedback are beneficial and b) is *explicit* feedback one of these kinds?

In a paper that had an enormous influence on the field of writing tuition, Truscott (1996) proposed the following:

(a) Research evidence shows that grammar correction is ineffective; (b) this lack of effectiveness is exactly what should be expected, given the nature of the correction process and the nature of language learning; (c) grammar correction has significant harmful effects; and (d) the various arguments offered for continuing it all lack merit.

Truscott's argument was that idea of correcting student mistakes was such an unquestioned part of teaching practice that few people had looked at evidence concerning whether or not, and to what extent it was effective in improving writing abilities. He went further to claim that the evidence that did exist was overwhelmingly negative: that error correction was fundamentally useless as a means of fostering learning. In fact, as Truscott conceded then, and later (Truscott, 1999), the research was both flimsy and mixed. Ferris (1999), while agreeing with Truscott that there needed to be more research, and that the burden of proof was on those who argue in favor of error correction, differed from his view that even though students might want grammar correction, teachers were not bound to give it to them, arguing that students' own strongly stated desires could not so easily be dismissed or ignored. Ferris went on to survey studies that had been done, and to conduct her own research (2004, 2011). She concluded that the research base was still both insufficient to answer the question of effectiveness, and inadequate in that even those studies that did exist were

'fundamentally incomparable' (2004, p 50). Not only that, Ferris further claimed that it was predicted by SLA research both before and since 1996, that error feedback *should* be effective in language acquisition. Ferris concluded both the 2004 paper and the 2011 book with a recommendation for flexibility and eclecticism in the treatment of student errors, including indirect feedback; giving different types of feedback depending on error-type as well as on student characteristics; and encouraging students to take responsibility for taking some action based on the feedback. At the same time she pointed out that while highly motivated and highly proficient students were able to manage considerable responsibility for developing their skills, lower proficiency students may be less capable of identifying and correcting errors beyond their current level (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005), and may thus require more specific direction.

A later paper by Ahmadi (2012), accepted both Truscott's contention that there was little evidence for the grammatical efficacy of feedback, and Ferris' point that teachers cannot deny students the feedback they want. Ahmadi compared *coded feedback and recasts* (reformulation) with *direct correction* (which he called *uncoded feedback*), and found little difference between them in their effects on students, concluding, therefore, that if teachers felt they were obliged to give feedback at all they would be best advised to give the latter type, since it did not waste as much time and energy as other types.

Nassaji (2011), however, in a study of oral rather than written feedback on student writing, did find some differences between types of feedback. In particular he found that *negotiated feedback* was more effective than *non-negotiated* or *partly-negotiated feedback*, and that the the beneficial effect was greater for some linguistic targets than for others. Nassaji agreed with both Truscott (1996), and Hyland and Hyland (2006), however, in being at pains to emphasize the evidence

that students can use feedback to improve from one draft to the next of a single piece of work does not imply that they have acquired those improved features to the extent of being able to use them in future writing.

Tee (2014) has also analyzed written feedback on writing by ESL students, focusing not on changes to grammatical competence, but on the kinds of feedback students reported as being beneficial to them. She concluded that effective feedback contained sufficient information for students to be able to respond and act on it; it frequently contained instructions about what students should do (for example, 'look this up in the dictionary', 'move this clause to the beginning of the sentence', and so on; and it was specific (in other words, rather than simply saying 'good work', effective feedback gave examples of what was good or poor, together with reasons.)

Hyland and Hyland (2006) had also focused on the necessity for feedback to give specific advice, using the term 'information-loaded feedback' to describe just kinds of feedback recommended by Tee. In their wide-ranging review of the issue they concluded that despite the increased study of writing feedback during the decade to 2006, there were still many questions unanswered, particularly in relation to which kinds of textual features are improved by which kinds of feedback, and the roles of context and individual factors in the both giving and receiving feedback. Eleven years on from Hyland and Hyland's review, there remains uncertainty. This paper, though, addresses the latter point, by examining in some depth thepractice of giving and receiving feedback through the interactions of one assessor and two adult learners.

DATA COLLECTION

Two learners, Ngoc and Quynh, both preparing for the IELTS test, and both in the 6.5 - 7.5 range, wrote five and eight practice

essays respectively, over a period of around one month, and received feedback from an experienced assessor and teacher. The feedback was given in a variety of ways, including an estimated score; direct correction; coded error feedback; comments, explanations and questions (about grammatical and lexical issues); and comments on the ideas expressed. The learners responses to, and evaluations of, the efficacy of these various feedback methods, collected through interviews and written reflections are analyzed.

Of these five methods of feedback, the first, an estimated score, needs no further explanation, and was not included in the analysis. The next two, direct correction and coded error feedback are those we most commonly think of as writing feedback.

Direction correction was used for (1) simple mistakes or (2) where explanations would have been too complicated or if the assessor thought that the participants would be unable to use the coded feedback to correct their mistakes or errors themselves. For example, Quynh wrote:

(1) Meanwhile, the basis knowledge should not be neglected.
This was corrected, without explanation, to:
Meanwhile, the basic knowledge should not be neglected.

and:

(2) A policeman was invited to give a speech about the topic.

However deep his knowledge is, only a few students reluctantly listened to him. I doubt whether there were any students sitting there if strict rules were posted.

This was corrected to:

A policeman was invited to give a speech about the topic. However deep his knowledge is, only a few students reluctantly listened to him. I doubt whether there would have been any students sitting there if strict rules had not been posted, requiring them to attend.

Coded error feedback consisted of hints WITHOUT correction which enabled participants to recognise their errors and correct them by themselves. Typically, a code is used for this kind of feedback (for instance P for preposition, A for article, T for tense, and so on), but in the present case since the assessor and students were not in a classroom situation and did not have a shared code to use, in fact whole words were used for ease (PREPOSITION for preposition).

The fourth category of feedback was *comments, explanations and questions (about grammatical and lexical issues)*. This kind of feedback in a superficial sense may require a choice by the learner, but in fact is different from coded feedback in that the choice is usually simply to accept or reject the assessor's suggestion, however, the suggestion is accompanied by an explanation, which is the main point of the feedback. For instance, Quynh wrote:

In conclusion, people's activities are unavoidably causing some damages to the environment on a daily basis. Therefore, both authorities and individuals should join their hands to minimize the problems.

Comment: *This is a set phrase 'join hands to ….'*

The problem phrase has not been corrected, but the writer is invited to notice and correct it herself, whilst being given a brief explanation of the reason for the correction. Questions, similarly,

were of the form, 'Do you mean ….', though the question was usually simply a variation of 'I think you mean….' . In other words, in this category all feedback consisted of reformulations or suggestions by the assessor, accompanied by explanations. The fifth category, *comments on the ideas themselves*, did not relate to errors as such, but to instances where the assessor judged that the writer's understanding of the context of the question differed from the likely interpretation of an actual examiner, so that the answer might be expected to be marked down, on the basis of being insufficiently relevant to the question.

ANALYSIS

Ngoc's language learning history

Ngoc is a teacher of English in her mid-20s. She is speaks with care for the accuracy of what she says, sometimes correcting her grammar and vocabulary, and occasionally her pronunciation when she judges that her interlocutor doesn't catch her intent. She has experience of nine months of overseas study in New Zealand, has a degree in English teaching, and teaches English in her hometown in Vietnam.

She started to study English when she was in grade two at primary school. She had mixed feelings about English during her schooldays. On the one hand she discovered that she had a good memory for vocabulary and grammar, and was often told that she had talent. This gave her confidence, and the motivation to learn more. She was pleased with her results, and at primary school her English ability gave her status amongst other students. However, as she moved into secondary school, classes were increasingly based upon translation and rote learning, and became less and less interesting. She had no chance to use the English she was learning, and she gradually came to dislike it. In schools at that time, mathematics was considered more important than English: if you did well in mathematics you had good job

prospects. Therefore her parents sent her to cram school to do extra mathematics, though she was also able to do extra English, and Vietnamese literature, too.

Ngoc identifies the lack of opportunity to practice as being the greatest obstacle to her learning. Her cousin, growing up in a s imilar environment, took part in an overseas-study exchange program while quite young, and later had the opportunity to study at an overseas university. As a result her English is at near-native speaker level. Ngoc also spent nine months at a New Zealand university, but not having had the earlier sustained exposure to English meant that she was starting from a weaker base than her cousin's.

A key memory which constitutes a focus for Ngoc's understanding of the importance of use of the language concerns the first time she saw a Westerner. Some non-Vietnamese speaking tourists were trying to buy something in the local grocery store, near her house in Hue. The shopkeeper did not understand the tourists English. Ngoc didn't catch the words either, but she could guess what the tourists wanted, and 'translated' for them: 'They would like to buy some water'. She remembers exchanging a few words with the tourists, and particularly that they smiled and were grateful to her. She is sure that the English she used was grammatically poorly formed, yet she realized that the communication had been successful.

What she learned from this experience was that *in order to communicate in a foreign language there are some things as important as grammar knowledge, if not more so: the ability to guess from the context and the willingness to engage in conversation with whatever resources one has, correcting one's mistakes through practice more than through analysis.*

Quynh's language learning history

Quynh has been a university teacher of English for a year and a half at the time of writing, a position which she gained immediately on graduation in 2015. She speaks with fluency, rarely hesitating, and with the kind of pronunciation that shows she has taken care to eliminate most typical language transfer problems from Vietnamese. She has a wide, idiomatic vocabulary, and few noticeable grammatical errors when she is speaking, although these become more noticeable in writing.

Her starting point of learning English is quite similar to Ngoc's. She started to learn English in grade 3. From grade 3 to grade 10, the focus of her English learning was grammar and vocabulary. The way her classes were organized, though, was such that at that time she had little idea that the real purpose of learning a language might be as a means of communication.

Despite being a member of English gifted class of her commune, she conscientiously concentrated on grammar, vocabulary and reading tasks. In retrospect, she wishes she had been oriented to learn other skills too. Fortunately, at grade 11, an English teacher introduced her to Paltalk.com, an English-language video-chat app, where she started improve her pronunciation, then her general speaking skill. Up to that moment, she had not practiced her writing much despite her very high level of grammatical knowledge.

As a student of Hue University of Foreign Languages, she was taught the four English skills carefully, yet she admitted that she was quite lazy in her first year. However, she was fortunate that the application of CEFR into her university's testing and assessment pushed her a lot. The framework gave her a specific target, which guided her as to which materials would best help her learn, among a wide range of English materials available on the Internet. "I have to admit that I would have been lost without

this framework, because I didn't know what I should aim for. That is why, since I become a teacher, I have similarly instructed my students in the materials they can use to greatest effect" She started digging into CEFR books, including PET, FCE and CAE; however, she thought that her writing practice was not as effective as it could be, due to lack of any feedback and correction. Quynh's main belief about teacher feedback might be summarized as: *self-study must go along with appropriate guidance*.

Responses to Feedback

A major plank of Ngoc's philosophy of learning can be summarized, as noted earlier, as: *in order to communicate in a foreign language there are some things as important as grammar knowledge, if not more so: the ability to guess from the context and the willingness to engage in conversation with whatever resources one has, correcting one's mistakes through practice more than through analysis.* A second plank is: *you can improve if you know your ability (including your limitations) and know how to develop it.* These two ideas together informed her response to the feedback she received on her IELTS practice essays.

Quynh's belief that *self-study must go along with appropriate guidance* aligns with both of these ideas, but for her, the major problem areas she sees in her own writing are word usage (especially she felt the feedback enabled her to "feel" the words better), ideas and the organization of those ideas at both the whole text level and the sentence level. Her major learning from the feedback might be summarized as: *the organization of ideas, the underlying coherence and cohesion of the text is the most important aspect of writing test essays*, and: *while it's important to demonstrate the ability to convey complex ideas, sometimes this is better done with simple structures*.

Errors and mistakes

Both Ngoc and Quynh welcomed all feedback, on grammatical and lexical errors as much as on issues relating to the organization of ideas. In relation to grammatical problems both believe that it is important to recognize both errors and mistakes: Errors tell them that there are gaps in their knowledge, and prompt them to 'learn' the content of these gaps; mistakes (when they read the feedback and think, 'Of, course, I knew that') prompt them to be more careful with proofreading. In fact some errors were in a sense deliberate: for example, for the practice essays Ngoc reported that she deliberately used the dictionary to try out words and phrases that she was not yet confident in using. This may have caused more errors than she might expect in a real test, but was a skillful learning strategy, since she was conscientious about noticing the feedback and retrying those indicated as usage errors. She followed a similar policy with comments and suggestions from the assessor, trying out newly introduced words and phrases in subsequent submissions.

Direct corrections and coded error feedback

Both types of corrections were judged to be useful, with certain reservations. Direct correction led to better understanding, provided the reason for the correction was understood. There were three kinds of cases like this: first where the immediate reaction was, 'Of course, I knew that'; second where the reason came quickly to mind after a little thought; and third where a search of the dictionary or grammar book was sufficient to bring understanding. Ngoc rarely encountered any corrections she did not eventually understand. Coded feedback was, for Ngoc, equally useful, although occasionally there was a fourth case: where she was not able to make a satisfactory correction.

From Quynh's perspectives, each type of feedback is helpful for a certain kind of mistake or error. For grammatical mistakes, she

finds direct corrections most useful, while error corrections are best addressed through some information exchange, of the kind provided by coded error feedback.

Comments, explanations and questions (about grammatical and lexical issues)

As with corrections and error feedback discussed above, comments, questions and explanations were also useful. In fact, for Quynh, and perhaps for Ngoc too, they were more useful.

Since the comments were both extensive and in English, they were in themselves useful communication practice for both writers. In addition, perhaps because of their communicative nature, they engaged the interest, and Ngoc therefore found the substantive content (the grammar and lexical issues addressed) was easier to retain than that of the corrections. The comments and explanations did not require any substantial action by the writers. This was because the particular issues addressed were those that the assessor considered too complicated to indicate using the correction code, but too important to correct directly without explanation. The questions did, in principle, require a response, but in fact in the majority of cases were also too complicated to require more than a simple choice between two alternatives. For example, Ngoc wrote:

On the other hand, people can explore diverse cultures from many sources without moving away from their positions [1]--> *homes . Through books, films, the internet and the mass media, they are provided with an immense* [2] *amount of useful information.* (Underlined words added in second draft).

- *Comment by assessor on 'positions': homes?"*
- Comment by assessor on 'immense': "immense requires a COUNTABLE noun, but in this case your noun is information.

In the case of uncountable nouns you need to add a COUNTING WORD : amount(s) of "

*T*hus while in principle she could have responded by rejecting the suggestions, and rewriting in a different way (or even asserting that her original choice of, for instance, 'positions' was correct), in practice the most likely response was to accept the suggestions, and in most cases this is what both learners did. In one sense, then, this kind of correction is not much different from direct correction, where the assessor rewrites a part of the learner's text. However, the explanation of the reason for the correction, in both Ngoc's and Quynh's case was perceived as one of the most useful of the feedback methods. Both of them, being highly motivated and skilled learners, used the comments to generalize from the specific error, and to inform their subsequent writing.

Quynh found the most useful kinds of comments to be those related to lexical errors, particularly ones that linked the specific 'errors' with general rules of thumb, as for instance in the following:

Word use: showing structures/ giving examples

a) ***Result in*** *+ specific action or state (*eg, *the changes result in students learning more,* or *the changes result in increased learning)*
b) ***It is true that*** *+ negative points (*eg, *it is true that money is important, but…)*
*c) How to use "****concerned vs concerning****" by checking the difference between these sentences: I'm* <u>*concerned*</u> *about your progress vs The issue* <u>*concerning*</u> *student progress is a difficult one*
d) ***less XXX than****: less visible than*
not XXX compared with*: not easily visible compared with*

Also useful were comments that caused her to consider textual cohesion and coherence, such as:

e) The financial satisfaction is sometimes ***too****[3] appealing so that some employees will make every effort to achieve the goal.*

Comment: *You should learn this word, 'too'.*

- *'too' implies not good. e.g., 'these shoes are too big' (so I can't wear them), 'He was too happy' (so he didn't notice the danger).*
- *If you just mean 'very' you can say 'exceptionally', 'extremely'.*
- *On the other hand if you really do mean 'too', you need to make the connection with the next part clearer.*
- *'…. too appealing, so that some employees will make every effort to achieve the specific target, but may be inclined to work less effectively in areas theydo not see as related to the target, such as getting on with co-workers and so on.'*

f) "the" should be replaced by "these" to increase the cohesion.

A particularly useful insight gained by Quynh was that while she had previously learned, correctly, that as an academic writer she should always try to form nouns and noun phrases rather than verbs and simple verb phrases, there are also times, an IELTS test being one of them, when simpler structures can be better, as in the following original and edited texts:

First of all, were it not for <u>wild animals' protection</u>, the ecosystem would lose its balance as a result of the overexploitation by humans. Needless to say, if it[4] occurs, diversity of animals in the forest will considerably reduced.

Comment: *I can't follow what "it" refers to. If it's "overexploitation" why do you say "IF"? This IS occurring, isn' t it? or is it "the loss of balance? If so, you seem to be saying that the loss of balance will reduce diversity. But aren't they the same thing?*

Rewrite: *First of all, were it not for the protection of wild animals, the ecosystem would lose its balance. Already we are overexploiting the natural resources of the earth, and animal life in the forests is becoming less diverse. Needless to say, if we continue to do this, the balance of the entire ecosystem will be considerably changed.*

The kind of nominalization typical of much academic writing is perhaps one of the most difficult aspects of English to control effectively for coherence and cohesion, and test candidates need to balance the demonstration of some mastery of complexity with the need to communicate clearly. Sometimes test candidates may be better advised to use simple subject-verb structures that they are confident of using correctly rather than complex nominalization that they are less sure of. In fact many academic writers discourage excessive nominalization as a general principle. (See for instance, Sword, 2012, Pinker, 2014.)

Ngoc evaluates this kind of feedback by relating it to her teaching. Speaking as a teacher, she pointed out that she also provides feedback through comments, though at a much simpler level, in consideration of her own students' characteristics. First she needs to decide whether she can phrase the comments in English at a level the students can be expected to understand and engage with, and for some issues she may need to use Vietnamese. She points out that while grammar explanations are undoubtedly important for her as a teacher, for students they may be much less so: they may simply not be interested in

explanations, even if they are motivated to improve their communicative abilities. While she sees it as the teacher's job to help students to develop communication skills, and therefore to l ead them to acquire the grammar needs for this, she reiterates her philosophy of learning: *in order to communicate in a foreign language there are some things as important as grammar knowledge, if not more so: the ability to guess from the context and the willingness to engage in conversation with whatever resources one has, correcting one's mistakes through practice more than through analysis.*

Comments on the ideas themselves

There is a further aspect to the notion of 'organization of ideas' which was important to both writers. It is one thing to express one's own ideas in response to an IELTS-type question in clear English, cohesive at the sentence level and coherent at the whole text level; it is quite another to have an accurate intuition as to which ideas the examiner can be expected to find coherent at the 'knowledge of the world' level. For instance, the question, *Some people think that governments must insist on preserving the traditional appearance of old buildings undergoing renovation or redevelopment,* elicited a response beginning as follows:

S*ome individuals are of the opinion that traditional exterior of old-fashioned constructions must be* ***preserved and restored by governments****.*

The answer then proceeded on the basis that governments themselves would pay for preservation and restoration. In the English-speaking societies with which most examiners are likely to be familiar, this assumption may not be the most obvious one, and many might interpret the question as referring to governments requiring *owners* to fund such work. This kind of misalignment of cultural norms may not always result in a lower score, but certainly could. At the very least the reader's

(examiner's) feeling that something is amiss could be disadvantageous.

This kind of misalignment of shared knowledge of the world is one that is especially difficult to address when not living in a community where the language is used. It can be picked up through current affairs reading, but requires large amounts of such reading to cover the range of potential topics that might occur in the IELTS test. This area is therefore one of those where the assessor's comments are likely to be useful, and were in fact perceived as useful.

CONCLUSION

The data on which this analysis is based comes from a case-study of only two writers, and thus provides only a snapshot of these two learners at one point in time. Not only that, the two learners, Quynh and Ngoc, as teachers are not typical at all, being exceptionally highly motivated and successful learners. The findings, therefore, cannot be generalized to all learner populations, or indeed even to the group of learners to which these two might belong. The value of this kind of data resides in its depth and richness. By looking in some depth at the reflections to feedback of two individual learners, we can come to an understanding of how specific types of feedback *might* be interpreted and used by learner writers, and how we might use these potential understandings to inform our practice, as teachers, of matching feedback mechanisms to our students.

What did we learn, then, about the efficacy of these specific types of feedback to these two individual learners? First in both cases, the learners' response to the feedback was connected with their beliefs about learning: using context to aid understanding; learning through mistakes by trial and error; knowing one's abilities and how to develop them; the importance of deep lexical knowledge (knowing how to use words in a variety of situations)

and of the underlying organization of texts. Of most use to both writers, therefore, were a) comments and explanations of specific errors, particularly where these explanations could be tied to 'rules of thumb' that could to some extent be extended to similar situations; b) coded-error corrections or questions which involved them in some kind of information exchange (the necessity to grasp the assessor's intent and carry out some action in response); and c) the assessor's response to the ideas themselves in the learners' essays.

This analysis has of necessity been brief, focusing as it has on the perceptions of the two learners. Further research is planned to analyze the actual changes in the learners' written production over time, to see whether in fact, and to what extent, the feedback resulted in greater accuracy (in grammatical and lexical terms) or fewer repetitions of errors relating to the organization of ideas, or to the appropriacy of the ideas themselves.

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FOUNDATION TO FORMATION: EFFECTIVE ENGLISH FOR TOURISM PURPOSES PROGRAM DESIGN FOR HOSPITALITY EDUCATORS

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ABSTRACT
Tourism impact to GDP in Asia has been outstanding for over a decade. The global contribution of tourism to the global economy is expected to rise by 3.5% in 2017. International tourists to Asia have increased by 4% in 2016, giving rise to tourism related businesses in places such as Cambodia and elsewhere. The tourist influx and business expansion has created new job opportunities for employees. However, global tourism employees must possess excellent English communicate skills. The author found in a study in Cambodia in 2013 that participants could not understand or communicate beyond words and simple sentences. In fact, nearly half of participants could only comprehend 50% of spoken communication. This shortcoming could prohibit higher salaries and movement to better employment. The paper examines how English for tourism purposes program educators can use these shortcomings as a foundation for creating better communication situations that form more interesting and lively tourism destinations, thereby attracting more visitors in the long term.

INTRODUCTION
The growth of English as an international language (EIL) in science, technology, and business in the 1960's helped originate the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) field. English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) have become the two main categories of ESP, and contain such fields as English for Legal Purposes and

English for Business Purposes respectively. Further specialized fields, such as English for Medical Purposes, English for Science and Technology, also fall under the EAP umbrella, while English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes fall under the EOP umbrella (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998). English for Tourism and Hospitality is found within the ESP classification; however, the author believes that the tourist industry will probably have its own category, English for Tourism Purposes, hereafter referred to here as ETP.

No one disputes that the tourism industry is extremely important due to its contribution to worldwide GDP, expected to rise to 4.0% by 2026. In addition, tourism has already contributed USD7.6 trillion towards the global economy and offered 292 million jobs in 2016, a huge addition to global employment (WTTC, 2016). Although terrorism has hit the tourism industry hard during the past several years, people still travel. Exciting and unique opportunities for global tourists have increased remarkable since the outset of the 21st century.

Global travelers can choose from travel options including adventure tourism, gastronomic tourism, medical tourism, ecotourism, cultural tourism, and even disaster tourism. The variety of tourist opportunities has allowed specialized businesses to flourish. This in turn has created many new employment possibilities for the labor force; however, tourism employees must have effective professional English communication and hospitality skills because face-to-face communication is both the bridge between the customer and the establishment and also the road towards memorable experiences for travelers (Reisinger, 2009). Unfortunately many hospitality employees do not have such excellent communication skills and this results in lower salaries and less movement to higher paying positions. Morrow (2015) has shown that almost half of Cambodian tourism employees can only comprehend only half

of the information being directed at them and have deficiencies on producing long grammatical utterances and pronunciation, often only able to communicate on a word-by-word basis. In addition, 91% of participants in that study stated that native English and EIL speakers visit their establishments every day for tourism purposes, and as such, employees needed to use English all the time. However, 35% of participants stated that while they could speak English in words and short utterances, mistakes filled their communication. This illustrates the need for ETP programs that give employees ample practice in producing longer, more intricate utterances. Since 48% of participants could only understand about half of what was communicated to them directly, further listening comprehension training is also sorely needed. Effective ETP programs with these deficiencies as the foundational goal should be created and administered, specifically geared towards addressing the language needs of tourism employees in practice, thus alleviating employees' communication shortcomings in the real world. This would allow the employee to begin with a firm communication foundation on which to build and further formulate a career in the ever-growing field of global tourism. Section two examines effective ETP program design, after first explaining the background of ESP. Section three offers an example of an effective ETP lesson, which was tested by the author, and section four concludes.

EFFECTIVE ETP PROGRAM DESIGN

The first step in creating effective ETP programs is to survey the existing language-using population in order to identify both skills and needs by way of a pre-program language assessment orshort test. Once the background needs and present communication skills of a particular group are determined, teachers and administrators can structure effective ETP programs with a focus in tourism English that also focus on intercultural communication strategies. Intercultural communication cannot

be taken for granted, and include aspects such as body language, space, touching, and eye contact, all of which go hand in hand with communication.

To begin creating an effective and practical ETP program, it is useful to understand the background of *ESP*. Hutchinson (1997) has characterized ESP as an approach rather than an outcome. Usually, the rationale is that an employee learns ESP for a specific reason or to fulfill a certain objective, often times employment-related. For this reason, its teaching is not really constructed following any set method, and its teachers are often not versed in the specific details of the job, the subject, or the objective aim. As such, ESP classes are more akin to training rather than textbook teaching, and offering the employee practical skills to complete communication tasks or undertake necessary linguistic objectives take precedence.

ESP teaching has been divided into two domains by Dudley-Evens and St. John (1998): 1) *absolute* characteristics, in which tasks are created to meet special needs of the learner, make use of the underpinning of the particular discipline, and are centered around the language of the discipline and its specific skills and discourse nuances; 2) *variable* attributes that contain tasks related to and created for specific jobs and occupations. These tasks, which may use a teacher-created teaching technique other than that of standard English teaching, are apt to be patterned for adult learners, and are designed mainly for learners at intermediate level and above who already have some basic knowledge of English in their field. Elements towards a successful ETP program therefore should include training in detailed and general communication skills. Instead of teaching minute aspects of ETP-related language, such as grammar and sentence structure, the author has found that teaching overall communicative competence for ETP is more useful for employees' communication skill building due to their

busyschedules that leave little time for self-study. Most employees practice ETP on the job anyway, and further practice can help them use it during work.

In order to meet the needs of TI communication, ESP educators need to take certain steps when creating training opportunities for hospitality employees. Training contains many aspects and covers all aspects of business operation; however, training also includes communication, and as such, creating effective ESP programs is necessary for two reasons: 1) to communicate effectively with travelers who come to the destination on their own and wish to get information, and 2) to add to the creation of lively and interesting destinations with friendly and effervescent communication skills that generate international tourist influx through word of mouth.

In the creation of effective ESP tourism programs, certain steps must be followed for program design. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) divided these steps into three categories. These are: 1) pre-program activities, 2) in-program activities, and 3) post-program activities. Before courses are created and administered *pre-program* activities should be instituted by institutions to check language needs and present language uses of tourism employees. Here, surveys are useful in assessing employee skill levels and addressing needs on which to base a useful ESP course. However, surveys are only the first step in creating an

effective course. Further pre-program needs assessments of the employees' needs immediately before a course allows program administrators to fully take into account the communication shortcomings of employees and tailor courses accordingly. In the next stage of the pre-program activity phase, courses are designed only after analyzing the results of survey data. Needs analysis is also fully interpreted and examined in order to create an appropriate program and implement effective courses. During

this phase, certain aspects must be considered: 1) The program intensity, 2) Assessment of the learners' English ability, 3) The length of the program and classes offered, 4) Class sizes, and 5) Class meeting times (Dudley-Evans & Johns, 1998). These aspects are addressed and then planned out to incorporate real-life activities into useful classroom-based activities. Following is a description of TRELIS, a six steps program design useful in creating ETP programs.

TRELIS: The Six Steps of ETP Program Design

Morrow (2015) divided effective ESP creation into six elements to build upon ETP design. Those elements are:

1) *Tourism* related vocabulary on levels from basic to advanced

2) *Role-play practice* in real-life tourist situations

3) *Extensive reading* on related topics such as ecology, culture, and human behavior

4) *Language fluency* training

5) *Interpersonal and intercultural communication* skill training

6) *Specific and integrated* skill building.

Using realia as much as possible is important in the six-step program design. Activities suitable for effective lessons created in the pre-program phase are those that include real-life tourism role-plays to practice vocabulary, extensive reading to learn about destinations for relaying information, fluency drill practice, and interpersonal communication training in such aspects as eye contact, and body distancing. In the last phase of pre-program activities, materials are chosen or created. Though time-consuming, it is useful for the teacher or program developer

to create custom materials based on the previous six elements that are tailored for specific roles within the tourism situation.

The actual administration of the classes and courses are carried out in the *in-program* phase. It goes without saying that the students should be actively involved during the course. Teachers of ETP should have some experience working in, or at least teaching, ETP or ESP because experienced teachers are able to actively integrate students into activities. It is essential to provide ample time and opportunity to let the students experience real situations, and during the activities, their progress can be checked periodically via vocabulary, reading, and listening quizzes, for example.

The post program phase requires the administrators to evaluate the course design seriously and critically. A post-course survey could accomplish this task relatively easily. Here, the employees are interviewed after the program completion to assess what activities were effective for them, what they learned from the program, and how they think the program involvement will assist them in the actual working situation. Other post-program activities include conducting an on-the-job evaluation in communication at the employees' work situations (Dudley-Evans & John, 2008). Internships are also a very important stage of hospitality training programs because when students have the opportunity to intern directly in tourism businesses, such as hotels, they can receive hands-on training, can practice day-to-day business procedures, can practice effective methods of intercultural communication, all the while receiving useful critique from hospitality professionals. Such experiences would definitely be invaluable to a young labor force in any profession. Skills in room arrangement, decoration, food and restaurant management, cleaning and room preparation, check-in/check-out procedures, and up to date booking are all examples of intercultural communication and tourism aspects that may need

ETP.

In Cambodia, it was found that very few businesses or even English schools offered useful communication training on the job in English for tourism purposes; however, this kind of training is highly beneficial not only to young labor force new in the job market, but also to veteran staff members. Learning how to empower their staff members is another advantage for those training in management programs. In-turn, the staff naturally carries their enthusiasm over to the customers for a memorable visitation experience and the potential of return visits annually and spreading of positive word of mouth. Since tourism is an industry that uses open face-to-face communication, tourism employees need both the ability to absorb and remember content and vocabulary as well as to share and relay content to travelers effectively.

Example of an Effective ESP Activity

In the following example activity, following the TRELIS approach, ETP can be used to teach tourism-related vocabulary (such as hotel amenities, information about destinations, itinerary, travel costs, and the like), and then practice it using role-play activities. The lesson also allows for: extensive reading about hotel amenities and local sightseeing (learning through English), language fluency training while explaining these items in English, and practicing interpersonal and intercultural communication needed to stream from tourism employees towards guests on a daily basis. Finally, specific skills (such as required to discuss details, potential problems, and other important facts) and integrated skills (those required to listen to requests or problems and respond effectively) can also be incorporated into the lesson. In the end, this training would allow employees to obtain better and more stable employment and higher salaries in developing countries, all the while boosting them on to a better standard of living. In this sample lesson,

Check-in to Sunny Day Hotel, the following table with amenities can be used to practice a role-play situation:

Floor and Amenities
Floor 1: *On Deck swimming pool, El Patio Restaurant, Love Bar, lobby with relaxing furniture, and The Palace Gift Shop, drink and snack vending machines.*

Floor 2: *Kiki's Karaoke Lounge, Bar Diva, Princess Bridal Shop, and The Rocket Nightclub, laundry room/laundry services, ice machines.*

Floor 3: *Betty's Breakfast Nook with veranda, photo shop.*

Floors 4-15: *Guestrooms*

Lobby Front: *Van pick-ups for sightseeing, airport shuttle, taxi stand.*

Basement: *Car parking, maintenance office*
Table 1. Hotel Amenities for Check-in Role Play

The following describes the lesson procedure:

The class is divided into groups of five or more people. In this activity, theroles can be self-designated or assigned by the teacher. Two members of the group should practice the role-play as 1) a front desk clerks and 2) a bellhop. The front desk clerk is instructed to use the *hotel amenities* guide to explain the hotel to guests. The other group members should take turns acting as guests. The front desk clerks are instructed to greet the family as they come in to the hotel. They are asked to first, predict what kind of family they might be, and next, practice asking for information, and then carry out necessary procedures such as filling out the registration card and offering credit card payment

information. Hotel amenities should also be explained to the customer while focusing on details and anticipating potential problems, including potential communication problems. The front desk clerks are instructed to check-in the family until they go to their room, at which point they will meet the bellhop. The bellhop will practice making small talk, further eliciting desires from the guests and providing further information. Once in the room, the bellhop must explain the room features in detail to the guest, using new vocabulary, practicing effective intercultural communication, and trying integrated information such as reading from the hotel guide and demonstrating TV use. As the activity progresses, the family should be instructed to ask about other hotel amenities, including restaurants, gift shops, swimming pool, dining, and also about local sightseeing attractions. If possible, they should also be instructed to verbalize some problem or complaint to help the front-desk clerks in their practice.

CONCLUSION

It goes without saying that superb English communication ability is necessary in tourism due to the daily influx of international travelers as Morrow found in Cambodia. In that particular study, respondents had shortcomings in comprehension and production skills, which they already know, but find very difficult to overcome naturally. In that study as well, 91% of respondents stated that native and EIL speakers visit establishments every day, and employees always need to use English, not an easy task. In total, 35% stated that while they felt they could speak English quite well in words and broken sentences, their communication had many mistakes. Again, fixing this is not an easy task, but such problems must, and can, be rectified. In addition, 48% responded that they could only understand about half of what interlocutors said, which shows need for further listening comprehension training. Both of these scenarios exemplify the need that employees do have need for English communication

daily. Only a fraction of participants stated they could understand and communicate fluently and confidently. This points out a very important need that should be taken into account while creating ETP programs: the elevation of not only communicative *competence*, but communicative *confidence* as well. As found, many business staff members are quite deficient in many areas, but many are also somewhat proficient, and with practice can develop their proficiency even more. A large number of employees cannot communicate without many mistakes. However, many can *understand* much of what is said to them but just cannot produce English adequately. These participants need to elevate their own ETP training, and once they do, they will most likely receive better jobs and higher incomes, which will propel them on to higher standards of living. In order to further create effective ETP programs, an analysis of shortcomings in social and communicative aspects in the tourism population should be undertaken. If, for example, participants could not produce essential communication beyond simple items with immediate relevance then activities should be tailored towards this goal.

Attention to *social* aspects as well as *language* aspects will go much further in aiding better communication than spending time teaching grammatical drills would for example. One thing that must be said is that any ETP program that is administered must support as well as mirror human nature and also focus on intercultural communication for the tourism industry. This will assist the younger members of the labor force in obtaining better jobs, higher incomes, and higher standards of living in the expanding tourism world.

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PERCEPTIONS OF ONLINE SELF-ASSESSMENT QUIZZES: A STUDY OF VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
As information and communication technology continue to develop rapidly in this modern era, it has brought significant changes in the teaching and learning process around the world. Using online learning platforms has caught educators' attention as they offer teachers and students an opportunity to carry their lessons beyond the limited realms of a class. In this study, the use of such a platform, called QuizStar, was examined in the Vietnamese tertiary context. Through a survey, the study investigated learners' perceptions and perceptions and motivations towards online quizzing as a form of self-regulated study; the correlation between frequency of use of online quizzes and exam scores; and whether learners' computer proficiency affect their utilization of online self-assessment quizzes. The data were analyzed using SPSS and the study gives implications for the use of online learning platforms and of technology, in general, in the EFL context.

INTRODUCTION
Many classrooms around the world have witnessed transformation due to new learning technology and software. Acknowledging the numerous benefits that technology can promote in the educational context, many educators are now embracing the use of blended learning which incorporate classroom and online instructions (Al-Jarf, 2005). In the language learning situation, many researchers have asserted the advantages of using online instructional systems as they offer students a non-threatening learning environment to promote

learners' autonomy (Macdonald, 2008; Blake, 2008; Mello, 1997; Rajaretnam; 2004). One of such online learning platforms is online self-assessment quizzes which allow students to check their knowledge through meaningful materials with formative feedback (Gikandi, Morrow, & Davis, 2011).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Online self-assessment quizzing is defined as "the application of formative assessment within learning online and blended settings where the teacher and learners are separated by time and/or space where a substantial proportion of learning/teaching activities are conducted through web-based ICT" (Gikandi et a, 2011, p. 2237). Since its emersion in the educational situation, numerous studies have been conducted to ascertain the effectiveness of online self-assessment quizzes towards promoting higher achievement in learners. An overwhelming number of studies have reported significant increases in test scores after treatment with online quizzes (Davis, 2013; Einig, 2013; Ibabe & Jauregiza, 2009; Kilickaya, 2010, 2013; McKeown & Maclean, 2012; Mello, 1997; Yip & Kwan, 2006). However, it should be pointed out that many of these studies (Davis, 2013; Einig, 2013; Kilickaya, 2010, 2013) did not report the effect sizes of the increases, while others noted various degrees of improvements (Lys, 2013; McKeown & Maclean, 2012; Richards-Babb et al, 2013; Yip & Kwan, 2006).

Research has shown that the numerous benefits of online self-assessment quizzes contribute to its success. Einig (2013), Richards-Babb et al (2001), Sagarra & Zapata (2008), Yip & Kwan, (2006) assert that the extra online practice motivate students to study and become more engaged in their learning. Immediate formative feedback offer students the opportunity to self-assess their knowledge and identify their weaknesses (Ibabe & Jauregizar, 2009; Kilickaya, 2010, 2013; Lys, 2011; Rajaretnam, 2004; Richards-Babb, 2011). In addition, the

diversity of activities and games also promote students' interest in learning (Kilickaya, 2013). Another appealing feature is that online quizzing allows students to work at their own pace, focusing on the gaps in their knowledge (Ibabe & Jauregizar, 2009; Itoh & Hannon, 2002).

However, online quizzes are not without limitations. In their study, Yip and Kwan (2006) highlight teachers' concerns in the challenging task of developing effective materials. Creating a truly meaningful and engaging quiz requires careful material design and application, yet not much research has been carriedout in this area. It is also difficult to monitor whether students are using the quizzes constructively or as a mere memorization tool (Davis, 2013; Einig, 2013).

Despite the crucial role of technology in the application of online quizzes, most studies fail to consider students' familiarity with computers as a factor towards successful integration. In addition, in most studies, self-assessment quizzing was conducted in developed countries where computer literacy amongst students is high. In developing countries, there has been little research into technology-assisted language learning, particularly, online self-assessment. In Vietnam, where computers and access to the Internet have only recently been made accessible in the past decade, no literature regarding the use of online self-assessment quizzes is available. Therefore, in exploring the feasibility of integrating online quizzes in the Vietnamese language learning curriculum, the study is interested in answering the following research questions:

1. What are Vietnamese students' perceptions and motivations towards online quizzing as a form of self-regulated study?

2. Is there a relationship between frequency of use of online quizzes and exam scores?

3. Does learners' computer proficiency affect their utilization of online self-assessment quizzes?

It is hypothesized that Vietnamese learners will have positive perceptions of online quizzes and that exam scores will be improved with more frequent use. As Vietnam is a developing country where computer access in learning facilities are not as readily available as developed countries, it is hypothesized that Vietnamese students will encounter technical difficulties in using online quizzes.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in the study were 36 first-year undergraduate students (M=2, F=34) majoring in English at Hue University of Foreign Languages, Vietnam, aged between 19 and 20 years old. All participants attended a Listening 2 subject in their second semester (15 weeks) of their first year.

Instruments

Online quizzes

The online platform used for the study is called *QuizStar*. Ten online quizzes were used over the semester. The quizzes consisted of audio recordings and questions in form of multiple-choice, true/false and short answer. The listening tasks were compiled and adapted from various resources to align to the end-of-course exam format. The tasks' level was Level 3 in the Vietnamese 6-Level Language Proficiency Framework. Each quiz took approximately 30 minutes to finish and no time limit was set. Students had the option of retaking the quiz as many times as they wish.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to gather information on students'

perception. The questionnaire consisted of two major parts. The first section sought background information (i.e. age, gender and study major) and self-rating of computer literacy. The second section asks the participants to rate on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) – to 5 (strongly disagree) fifteen statements. The items belonged to four clusters: general perceptions, motivation, benefits and difficulties. The questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese to maximize clarity and accuracy.

Procedures

Data collection

The venue for the Listening 2 sessions was in one of the university computer labs. In week 1 of the course, students received instructions on registering for a QuizStar account and familiarized themselves by taking a sample quiz. A quiz was uploaded to the website after class every week, starting from week 2 to week 12, excluding week 8 when students had their mid-term test. The online quizzes were optional and did not have a marking weigh on students' final score. QuizStar platform provided information on students' frequency of use in number of attempts taken.

Students' exam scores were provided by the university's learning management system which the researcher have access to. The questionnaire was conducted after the course has ended to collect information on students' general attitude and motivation as well as their perceptions towards the benefits and difficulties of using online quizzes.

Data Analysis

Data collected from the questionnaire and QuizStar reports were coded and analyzed using SPSS Statistics 20.0 software package. Descriptive statistical analyses were used to determine students' perception and motivation towards using online quizzes. In order to establish whether a relationship exists between frequency of

use and exam score, a Pearson correlation analysis was run. A Spearman correlation analysis was used to answer whether computer literacy affect students' frequency of using online quizzes.

RESULTS

Research question 1. What are students' perceptions and motivation towards online quizzing as a form of self-regulated study?

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of learner's perceptions

Variables

General perception
No. of Statements: 3
Minimum: 2.00
Maximum: 4.67
Mean: 3.7
Standard Deviation: .529

Enhanced motivation to study
No. of Statements: 5
Minimum: 3.00
Maximum: 4.75
Mean: 3.82
Standard Deviation: .484

Believed benefits
No. of Statements: 4
Minimum: 3.20
Maximum: 4.60
Mean: 4.02
Standard Deviation: .350

Experienced difficulties in using online quizzes

No. of Statements: 3
Minimum: 1.00
Maximum: 3.67
Mean: 2.20
Standard Deviation: .559

The majority of participants held positive perceptions towards using online quizzes as a form of self-regulated study (M=3.78). 69% of students agreed that they enjoy learning with online quizzes and an overwhelming 94.4% believed this is a good way to study. Despite strong agreement that online quizzes are an effective way to study, only 38.9% prefer online quizzes to traditional pen and paper exercises. Increased motivation was also reported by most students (M=3.82). 86.1% believed learning with online quizzes helped them realize the need for self-regulated study and a high percentage of learners (77.8%) stated online quizzes motivated them to study.

Accordingly, students' perception of the benefits of onlinequizzes was also exceptionally high with a cluster mean of 4.02. Particularly, feature of immediate feedback was highly regarded by students (M=4.40). Interestingly, most students did not experience difficulties in using online quizzes (M=2.20). Unlikethe hypothesis that students may have low computer proficiencyand might experience technical difficulty, the results show that out of the 36 learners, only 6 reported encountering issues with technology.

***Research question 2*:** Is there a relationship between frequency of use of online quizzes and exam score?

Table 2: Frequency of use
No. of Attempts: 36
Minimum: 6.00
Maximum: 30.00Mean: 14.6667

Standard Deviation: 6.30193

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics of students' usage of online quizzes. On average, students took the quizzes approximately 15 times. Thus, some quizzes were taken more than once. However, students varied considerably in the number of quiz attempts taken. Though the quizzes were optional, all participants made an effort to complete 6 quizzes at the minimum.

Table 3: Correlation between frequency of use and exam scores

Frequency of use: r=.340* / p=.042

To examine whether a relationship exists between the amount of time students spend on taking online self-assessment quizzes and their end-of-semester exam scores, a Pearson correlation test was conducted. The result reveals a significant correlation between the two variables (r=.340, p=.042). This result indicates that 12% of the exam score is accounted for by the amount of time spent on online self-assessment quizzes.

Research question 3: Does learners' computer proficiency affect their utilization in using online quizzing?

The participants were asked to self-rate their computer proficiency on a scale of 1 (not at all proficient) to 6 (extremely proficient). A mean of 4.25 suggests that, in general, most students believed they had a relatively high competence in using the computer. Six out of 36 students reported low computer literacy while an overwhelming 83% (30/36) regarded themselves as being capable of using the computer competently.

Table 4: Learners' computer proficiency self-rating

Computer proficiency self-rating:

Not at all Proficient (1) ------- (6) *Extremely Proficient*
1: 2.8%
2: 2.8%
3: 11.1%
4: 38.9%
5: 38.9%
6: 5.6%

Mean: 4.25
Standard deviation: 1.025

In order to investigate whether students' level of computer proficiency affected the amount of time they spend doing online quizzes, Spearman correlation tests was run between students' computer proficiency self-rating with frequency of use and motivation. The results yield insignificant correlations between computer proficiency with frequency of use (r=.024, p=.891) and motivation (r=-.115, p=.504). Thus, there is no relationship between learners' self-rating of computer proficiency and their use of online self-assessment quizzes. In other words, students' familiarity with computers did not affect their utilization of online quizzes.

Table 5: Correlations with learner's self-rating of computer proficiency
Self-rating of computer proficiency:

Frequency of use
r=.024, p=.891

Motivation
r=-.115, p=.504

DISCUSSION

One of the aims of the current study is to explore the attitudes of Vietnamese students towards online self-assessment quizzes as a form of complementary practice. Mean scores of *general perceptions*, *motivations*, and *benefits* clusters were high, demonstrating a positive view of online quizzes. Overall, students enjoyed learning with online quizzes and were motivated to learn as they could receive immediate feedback and use it to identify the knowledge gaps they need to fill. However, less than half of the participants expressed preference in online quizzes to traditional pen and paper exercises. A possible explanation is that Vietnamese first-year students are not familiar with doing exercises on the computer as their secondary school experience did not offer them the chance to. Another reason can be the fact that students cannot take notes or write answer guesses on the actual exercise questions as they listen.

Though the no-stake online quizzes were introduced as an optional learning tool with no extra incentive to final grade, it is surprising to find that all students made use of the quizzes on at least six occasions. The mean score of attempts taken suggests that many students take the quizzes more than once. These outcomes further confirm that participants regarded online quizzes as an effective learning tool. The results also accord with Davis (2013) who suggests that the quizzes should be made optional to increase motivation.

Interestingly, most students did not encounter problems with the technological aspect of the online quizzes. Students' self-reported computer proficiency was relatively high with most students stating they are proficient in using computers. This result corresponds to the low mean score of technical difficulty items in the questionnaire. Consequently, no significant correlation was found between students' computer familiarity with their motivation and frequency of use. Because most

students in the study have good command of the computer, computer familiarity did not become a factor influencing their use of online quizzes. One possible explanation is that students at Hue University of Foreign Languages are often required to use the computer for researching information and preparing assignments and presentations for many of their other subjects.

Therefore, it is possible that they have become more familiar with using the computer and Internet after one semester at university. The findings suggest that technological issues are not an obstacle to the implementation of online self-assessment quizzing at Vietnamese tertiary context. However, as one-sixth of the participants experienced technical troubles, appropriate training at the beginning of the semester is necessary to ensure that all students can properly utilize the learning platform.

As for the effect towards students' achievement, the result indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between learners' frequency of use and their end-of-course exam score. In other words, regular use of the online learning platform influenced students' performance on their exam. The effect size of this correlation (r=.340, p=.042) is regarded as relatively strong since there are many other factors influencing students' listening skill such as vocabulary knowledge, language proficiency, topic familiarity, etc. The outcome is congruent with previous research that affirms online quizzes' effectiveness in enhancing students' achievements (Davis, 2013; Kilickaya, 2010, 2013; Mello, 1997; Yip & Kwan, 2006). However, this result should be regarded with caution as data for learners' frequency of use can be problematic. Because QuizStar is a free online platform, only students' number of attempts for each quiz is provided and the exact number of minutes spent on the quizzes are not calculated. The number of quiz attempts does not fully reflect the amount of time student work on the quizzes. In addition, due to the small scale nature of this preliminary study,

there is a lack of a control group and pre- and post-treatment tests to determine clearly the effect of online quizzes on students' achievements. The research finding that online quizzes have a positive influence towards higher exam scores is not perfectly accurate. However, the strong correlation found in this research makes it possible to conclude that online quizzes do contribute to improving students' scores.

CONCLUSION

This study sought to confirm whether students in a Vietnamese tertiary context have the same positive view of online self-assessment quizzes as of previous research in more developed countries. The findings suggest that, in general, most students consider online quizzes as an effective and motivating tool to aid their learning. Contrary to the initial hypothesis, study results show that the Vietnamese university students participating in this research are fairly competent in using the computer and did not experience as much technical issues as anticipated. Initial research also pointed out a positive correlation between habitual use of online quizzes and higher assessment scores. To create a clearer picture of the effectiveness of online quizzing, there is a need for further research both with a larger sample and research methods not yet being applied. A different quiz platform could be utilized for more accurate report of student participation. Future studies should also target teachers' attitudes towards this learning tool as they have the difficult task of designing and administering materials. Drawing from the conclusions of the study, it is possible to recommend the implementation of online quizzes in the Vietnamese tertiary context.

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THE VOICES OF PALESTINIAN ENGLISH TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

In addition to the normal kinds of problems which are faced by students and teachers, Palestinian education in the West Bank has historically faced a unique and unstable security environment in the midst of a long-running and intractable conflict. This paper reports how seventeen Palestinian English teachers described the largest challenges they and their students face though recorded interviews conducted in March, 2017. After post-interview analysis, the professional difficulties that these teachers identified and described were classified into three categories according to the frequency of appearance: student motivation, lack of student preparation for university study and the security environment. This paper aims to report upon these themes so university English teachers working in other contexts can better-understand and learn from the voices of Palestinian English teachers.

BACKGROUND

June 2017 marked the fiftieth anniversary of the longest military occupation of the post-World War II era: that of the West Bank. The Israeli/Palestinian dispute has been an infamously stubborn and long-lived conflict, bearing witness to numerous explosions of violence and disappointments in a seemingly unending cycle of retaliations and counter-retaliations. The balance of power, which has been materially and diplomatically supported by an unparalleled strategic partnership with the United States, has overwhelmingly tilted towards Israel throughout the past five decades, which has allowed it to lay claim to additional land in that time. This one-sided advantage will continue to be true well

into the foreseeable future of what has been ruled "belligerent occupation" by the Supreme Court of Israel (Kretzmer, 2012). Meanwhile, the Palestinian National Authority (PNA) is beset with large problems of its own such as power struggles with rival political factions, periodic financial disruptions, corruption and mismanagement. Unfortunately, barring a radical and creative change in the status quo, the seemingly-irreversible entrenchment of the current untenable situation could mean that no peaceful solution can come into existence any time soon.

Within this larger context, the topic of English education among Palestinians becomes pertinent because language education will be an important ingredient not only for assisting the Palestinian workforce to more fully enter and thrive in the international economy, but improved English proficiency will also allow Palestinians to benefit more fully from the global information system and use it to articulate their knowledge and perspectives to the rest of the world. Like so much in the region, the future of Palestinian education is beset with uncertainty and problems and addressing these concerns has great potential to enrich thousands of lives. Furthermore, better-understanding these challenges as seen by the local teachers themselves may provide insights and inspiration for English teachers elsewhere in the world in addition to guidance for teachers outside of Palestine who may be interested in reaching-out to teachers there with the desire to provide greater international supportive contact.

Palestinian education has been subject to instability and repression resulting from the tumultuous history and political circumstances of the West Bank. Palestinian education has historically been fragmented and confounded by the geographical separation of its population and by different curricula used across different places at different times (Barakat, 2007). The founding of Palestinian universities in the West Bank in the early 1970s was not forbidden by the occupying power

and was, in fact, even seen by Israelis as a preferable alternative to West Bank Arabs pursuing PLO-sponsored or Soviet-sponsored education abroad (Sullivan, 1994). Nonetheless, according to Israeli historian Benny Morris (2001, p. 341), "Like all occupations, Israel's was founded on force, repression and fear, collaboration and treachery, beatings and torture chambers, and daily intimidation, humiliation and manipulation." As a result of the ongoing territorial dispute, the realities of the West Bank present a uniquely challenging setting for English education.

Although Palestinian-controlled universities are no longer subjected to the restrictions on academic freedom and censorship which were occasionally present in Israeli-controlled portions of the West Bank prior to the Oslo Accords of the early 1990s (Sullivan, 1994), higher education in Palestine nonetheless "emerged against a backdrop of chronic crisis" (Nicolai, 2007, p. 20) and the life of a typical Palestinian student or teacher "continues to be significantly compromised by the presence of checkpoints, the Barrier, military and armed group activities and entry into schools, settler-related incidents, increasing detention of students and lack of infrastructure" (UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2016, p. 33). These problems take place amid other forms of control such as withholding of Palestinian National Authority operating funds, building permits and other restrictions which result in economic underdevelopment (B'Tselem, 2017). This unique array of repression and attendant effects compound the types of challenges and obstacles which are found even in ideal teaching conditions like crowded classrooms, scarce training opportunities, a lack of resources and low pay (Yamchi, 2004).

Despite heavy media attention on the Israeli/Palestinian conflict, there is nonetheless a lack of research on the topic of Palestinian teachers beyond scholarly journals focusing on education in the

Near East. All of the participants in this project unanimously agreed that greater international contact would be beneficial for their students, their schools and their communities, so this paper aims to address the question of what problems Palestinian English teachers and students face and what English teachers elsewhere in the world can better-understand and learn from the experiences of teachers in Palestine, illustrated by quotes from the participants themselves.

METHODOLOGY

In March 2017, the author had the opportunity to visit three Palestinian educational institutions in three West Bank cities. These include a university near Ramallah, a university in Nablus and a small private language school in Hebron. He wished to meet Palestinian teachers and learn about the challenges they face as well as how they cope with them in the hope that their stories and practices could provide greater understanding and assistance for teachers who work in other contexts. The participants were of varying sexes, ages and work experience. They ranged from new, locally-educated teachers to more experienced professors with foreign PhDs who had taught in a number of other countries and settings. One participant had even been a member of the committees which produced both editions of *English for Palestine*, the first English textbook used in schools as part of a Palestinian national curriculum (Dajani & McLaughin, 2009).

All interviews took place over one week in March, 2017 during free periods in the teaching day and were conducted in English, and as privately as the situations would allow. Recordings were made using a digital audio-only recorder; all recordings took place with the signed consent of the interviewees after receiving a briefing on the interview goals and author's background while optional pseudonyms were chosen by the teachers themselves.

The interview questions were submitted to the participating schools beforehand and reviewed before each session (see Appendix 1). Due to time constraints, three teachers submitted their answers in written form in lieu of a recorded interview. After transcription and close reading of the responses, the information was categorized into three themes which emerged during analysis: student motivation, study skills and security and safety issues.

Theme 1: Student motivation

The most frequently-expressed theme which emerged from the interviews was a lack of student motivation for studying English. Statements pertaining to this topic were expressed by 14 out of the 17 interview participants, such as how difficult it is to engage such students and help them advance in their studies. The reasons for low student motivation were ascribed to varied factors by different teachers. For instance, Mahmoud was quick to identify student de-motivation as the most significant problem he encounters:

Students are not motivated... Many students, actually, just, they come to university because they have to. Again, there is no future. Employment future, specifically. So you find only five percent interested students [sic] in all the classes. Regardless if they are major classes or university requirements. Girls are more motivated, generally, than boys. I would say this has to do with the… the situation that we are living in here. No horizons, actually. Students are not intolearning by themselves. We don't have this culture at all.

Some participants suggested that students' negative experiences with English in the past were a factor for their lack of willingness in university. Tagreed remarked that some students have come to "hate English" as a result of being forced to study it. Rana believed that her students "live in an environment where

most people reject English" while the obligatory nature of many English courses makes students feel that the language is imposed upon them. Rana also observed that her students who majored in English were more motivated than non-majors. Additionally, some scholarship has suggested that some attitudes towards English in the occupied Palestinian territories may be colored by residual anti-British colonialist sentiment and the current American backing of the Israel occupation and revanchist settler movement (Yamchi, 2006)

Fatima believed that many of her less-motivated students regard English as unimportant to their lives may also feel social pressure to speak Arabic. She speculated that for some students, their lack of motivation may be partially due to a "small-town mentality" in addition to limited opportunities to encounter and speak English outside of class. Similarly, Suza stated she needs to "push" some students to work harder and tries to motivate them by trying to show the relevance of English to their futures:

I talk to them, okay? I tell them that you- it's important that you know those language skills. It's important to learn them because English is an important language. You have to, if you have to move-on forward in life, if you're going to get a scholarship outside of the country, you're going to use English. So it's good to know English, okay? So it's a must nowadays…

Different teachers had different recommendations for addressing student de-motivation. Sparking interest, enjoyable learning and demonstrating the relevance of English to students' lives were common themes. For instance, Tagreed believed teachers should demonstrate the relevance of English to their students, perhaps by using Internet and social media to exemplify its use. She argued that technology, especially Internet technology and social media, could be a means of kindling student interest in English. Othman believed that forming a solid rapport with his students

was a key to motivating them:

Teaching is a responsibility and you should feel it. You should touch it. You should sense it and there should be a kind of intimacy to it and to your students. You should feel that they are part of you and you are part of them. You should feel things that make them happy and do much [sic] of them. And you should also guess or expect things that make them annoyed and avoid all these things. I feel it, all the time.

He also believed the most effective way to improve motivation was to "make teaching fun" and offer students the support and guidance they need. Throughout his career, he altered his teaching style to a more student-centered approach in which he sees his role as being a "guide on the side" who facilitates learning.

Anwar, an experienced teacher of 39 years, believed a teacher should "build a bridge of trust" to their students:

Once students love their teacher, they love learning and they come with interest to their classrooms. Once the teacher becomes aloof and... isolated from the teaching environment, the students lose interest and stop becoming interested in the class.

He believed that teachers can best inspire their students by being interesting and funny as well as encouraging their students to be expressive, independent-thinking and creative. Taking steps like these, he hopes, are what can make English "fun" to learn.

Theme 2: Study skills

The second category of problems was the lack of preparation for university study which affects many new students when they enter higher education. 8 out of 17 teachers cited this as a

leading area of concern during their interviews. 5 of these teachers mainly attributed the lack of study skills to the teaching methodologies predominating in high schools.

Mahmoud argued that lower-ability students require assistance to develop self-study skills because they "lack the skills to learn by themselves," a need he often tries to address in the remedial courses he teaches. "Basically they [students] are challenged with the standard of university. They come weak from school. They find it quite difficult to go ahead." He also suggested that his university could better-support its students by offering more courses for learning skills development in their earlier semesters, such as remedial courses or classes focusing on critical thinking and academic writing:

They need support in basically, I would say, in learning skills. Learning skills… let me talk about pedagogy. Okay, a lot of students actually, they lack the skill to learn by themselves… Self-directed learning.

Anwar charged that public schools are similarly "weak" and that the lack of preparation and struggling in university is a source of student frustration. Andira believed that the lack of preparation for university studies and the persistence of a "high school mentality" were handicaps for her students. Rami stated that many incoming students are unaccustomed to the more communicative, student-centered approaches that they encounter at the university level and they have difficulty becoming more active learners. Other teachers who spoke about this topic believed that many students were entering university poorly prepared for being independent and critical thinkers.

Teachers often attributed the problem of poor preparation for incoming university students to the nature of the curricula used in Palestinian-administered high schools, including schools run

by the United Nations Relief Works Administration (UNRWA) which educates refugee students. The study of English in these schools is heavily structured towards preparation for the *Tawjihi,* the general secondary examination. This test, which originated in the Jordanian education system, emphasizes information-retention, is notoriously difficult and is a source of great stress for students (Nicolai, 2007). Because of the heavy focus on *Tawjihi* preparation, high schools frequently rely upon methods of "teaching to the test" and memorization instead of teaching English for communication. For instance, Othman stated that *Tawjihi* preparation means that students primarily focus on grammar during high school and tend to rely heavily upon the limited patterns they are most comfortable in university. Test preparation also impels students to seek additional instruction outside of school if they can afford to do so, such as in private test-focused services akin to the *juku* cram-schools in Japan, which only continues the tendency for students to lack English for communication.

A variety of other factors were cited by different participants to explain the cause of the lack of student preparation. Some argued that one reason was the quality of teachers in high schools, a problem they attributed to corruption or nepotism in the hiring practices of the PNA's Ministry of Education. Others mentioned the lack of opportunities for professional development, such as training or conferences. Chronic low pay and interruptions in salary distribution also make teaching in the public school system unattractive for teachers, and economic insecurity often requires them to supplement their incomes by finding other work. Indeed, a number of teachers at the Excellence Center in Hebron worked there part-time to make ends meet. Finally, another teacher with many years of experience at his university suggested that an additional factor was the trend of universities lowering their standards for entry in response to financial pressures to increase the number of eligible tuition-paying

students.

Theme 3: Security and safety

This third theme of self-reported problems concerns security-related issues affecting students, teachers and learning institutions. These range from students being late to class due to checkpoints, disrupted educations from curfews or detention or the effects of periodic episodes of violence. This also includes effects on teachers such as problems in daily commutes, obtaining passports and opportunities for travel within the West Bank, Israel and abroad. This was the broadest of the three themes, but problems invoking this category were mentioned by 7 out of 17 teachers. Not included in this total are several teachers who mentioned these problems outside of their interviews but not during their interviews.

Safety and security have been recognized for decades as ranking among the most basic of human needs (Maslow, 1943) and the entire Palestinian community in the West Bank has suffered from insecurity resulting from the occupation and its effects. According to a report by Human Rights Watch (2017):

Whether it's a child imprisoned by a military court or shot unjustifiably, or a house demolished for lack of an elusive permit, or checkpoints where only settlers are allowed to pass, few Palestinians have escaped serious rights abuses during this 50-year occupation.

It is unsurprising that these negative effects would have impacts upon campuses and in classrooms; Nabil stated outright that one of the major challenges he faces is working with “traumatized students who are scarred both physically and emotionally by the occupation."

Palestinian universities are intermittently subjected to IDF raids

targeting offices, dormitories, laboratories and student organizations, which amounts to another issue of concern. These incursions are referred to as "attacks" and deceased students as "martyrs," who are frequently memorialized by the schools after their deaths. Security incursions into Palestinian-controlled areas typically happen at night, often with the assent of the Palestinian National Authority, as allowed under various security agreements following the Oslo Accords. PNA security forces conduct similar security activities on college campuses as well, in part due to the fact that groups like Hamas and Palestinian Islamic Jihad (PIJ) are rivals for political power. The possibility of security raids is a regular feature of life at all institutions of higher education within the Palestinian territories.

Among the security issues facing students, detentions were cited as an occasional impediment. During the school year, some students or their family members may be detained for security reasons, including suspected links with terrorist organizations like Hamas and Palestinian Islamic Jihad. Teachers who mentioned this issue also confirmed that such groups had a presence on campus or sympathizers among students. A number of teachers testified that some of their students have been detained for long periods of time and had difficulty completing their work as a result. "Administrative detention" by the Israeli military system, for instance, may involve a (renewable) detention without trial of up to six months (B'Tselem, 2017 January 9). As a result, a number of teachers remarked that helping to complete the education of students who had missed semesters due to disruptions to their studies was a regular feature of their jobs.

Mahmoud recalled one difficult semester from the early 1990s in which he had been assigned to teach prisoners who had been detained in Israeli jails during their early adulthoods. As a result of their incarcerations, they had received incomplete educations

and possessed minimal English skills. He regarded this experience as a memorable challenge because it required teaching students who missed significant learning opportunities in their formative years and lacked basic knowledge. He also recalled that education opportunities for Palestinian prisoners in Israeli jails had improved in the following years due to activism.

As institutions, universities possess symbolic importance in this conflict. For instance, Bir Zeit University was shut-down for four years starting in 1988 during the First Intafada, halting all classes. In a response to this closure, some teachers secretly organized underground classes off-campus at risk to themselves during that time of great strife (Birzeit University History, 2017).

One teacher, outside of her interview, remarked that the IDF may have a particular dislike for her university due to the strong resistance and nationalistic symbolism that it and the surrounding community had shown in the First and Second Intafada.

Anwar stated that problems stemming from the occupation, such as restrictions on movement and delays at checkpoints, were the most significant sources of hardship that he and his students had to face:

As you know, we are living under Israeli occupation and we have too many disruption [sic]. Sometimes we start a normal semester. All of a sudden, things change as a result of Israeli closures and Israeli curfews and Israeli restrictions on movement from one city to another, from one place to another. So, in fact, the Israelis are creating too many obstacles for us. And this would prevent us from going ahead with the teaching process as smoothly as we want... Some students come from Jerusalem and, you know, there is a permanent checkpoint near Qalandiya which prevents them sometimes from coming to

university. The Israeli occupation is a… is a major problem in our lives, in our educational lives.

One teacher in Hebron directly connected the safety of his students to their need for English. Ibrahim Z, a public middle-school teacher and private part-time private instructor, stated his hope that English could prevent disaster in his students' interactions with IDF soldiers:

I teach in H2 [the IDF-controlled section of Hebron] and there- there is, you know, Israeli occupation and it's really important for them [students] to speak English there. Because sometimes, because of the misunderstanding with- with the soldiers, some catastrophes happen. So, for example, if the soldier asks them to stop in Hebrew and they didn't understand this... so, you know, about the Israeli soldier, he will suspect them. After that, they- he might, just, shoot them because he's afraid of them... so I think English is really important for them.

This takes-on special importance in a tense and divided city like Hebron where a miscommunication with ideological settlers or IDF personnel could result in arrest or violence. Outside of one interview, a teacher remarked that an emphasis on organized protest, which is commonplace in modern Palestinian society, can affect students' behavior at university, with demonstrations and strikes being a regular fixture of some students' lives. They suggested that some students may too easily resort to protest or similar acts as a response to disagreements over how their university is run, resulting in disruptions to class and the academic year. As an illustration of this dynamic, on the second day of interviews at Bir Zeit University, the midday lunch hour was the setting for a large crowd of students who had gathered in an organized, peaceful demonstration. This was a protest over the killing of a Palestinian, Basil al-Araj, by Israeli forces in

Ramallah during a gunfight on the morning of March 6, 2017 (Cohen and Khoury. 2017, March 26). The day following the violent incident, which had been carried-out with the consent of the PNA, similar protests took place elsewhere in Ramallah. Violent confrontations are commonplace in the occupied Palestinian territories and protests such as these are regular events in Palestinian life, both in and outside of university.

CONCLUSION

In this analysis of guided interviews with West Bank Palestinian English teachers, it was possible to identify three broad themes that were most frequently self-reported by Palestinian teachers of English as affecting their work. Two of these themes dealt with low student motivation and helping students make adjustment to university life; the third theme was about student security and safety stemming from the occupation and its effects. Although the bulk of these issues involved practical matters of managing a classroom and diverse student needs, the context of the occupation and its restrictions upon Palestinian life clearly add an extra and confounding dimension of insecurity and risk for students and teachers alike.

In such a complex and seemingly intractable situation, an outside interviewer can try their utmost to be assiduously apolitical in their inquiry, but this unique setting makes it nearly impossible to separate the challenges of teaching from the politics affecting the surrounding communities in which the students and teachers live. This is especially the case when the interviewees themselves unambiguously identify this conflict as a major source of their main professional difficulties and those of their students. Although an individual teacher can do their utmost to create an environment which is conducive to learning in their classrooms, life in the classroom is nonetheless linked to life outside of it regardless of how talented or skilled the teacher may be. Whether it is a demonstration on campus, a teacher who is

late to class due to delays at security checkpoints or the limited horizons of students' futures, the security and political dimension renders it nearly impossible to maintain a stance which can be kept apolitically separate.

Despite all of these difficulties, every participant in these interviews expressed their belief that learning English holds great promise for their students, that their schools and communities would benefit from increased international contact and that optimism was an asset in their work. Variously, they described English as a "passport to the 21st century," "a window to the world," or "the global language" which is a virtual requisite for students' future job searches, a necessary skill for accessing global information media or a means of enriching their lives through travel and communicating with foreigners. Outside observers have sometimes noted that Palestinian culture has placed a high value upon education; one western English teacher who spent years working in West Bank universities commented, "Palestinians have traditionally regarded education as the one investment which cannot be confiscated." (Sullivan, 1994). Captured in these series of interviews, the voices of Palestinian English teachers were practical, pragmatic and oriented towards the future; with the help of these education professionals, Palestinian learners of English will hopefully become better-equipped to articulate their own voices to the rest of the world.

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APPENDIX

***Interview Questions**:*

1. Please tell me about yourself? Your preferred name, where you are from, where you have lived, your education and work experience?
2. When and why did you start teaching English?
3. What kinds of teaching do you do today? For instance, full-time or part-time work?
4. Can you tell me about your classes? How would you describe them?
5. What kinds of materials do you use in your classes?
6. Please describe your typical teaching day? Including preparation, grading, etc?
7. What are some other responsibilities that you have?
8. How would you describe your school and your classes?
9. What are the biggest challenges that you face in your teaching?
10. What kinds of challenges do your students face
11. What kinds of support do you think that you and your students need for the future
12. What do you enjoy the most about your teaching and your school?
13. How do your students hope to use English in the future? How and why do you think English education is important for the future?
14. Tell me about an interesting or memorable teaching experience that you have had?

NAME-CARDS AS TOOL TO PROMOTE AUTONOMY AND IMPROVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT
This article is a description of classroom practice, sharing five techniques and several strategies used by the author for enhancing the use of *name-cards* in class. A name-card is a piece of paper with the student's name written in large characters, folded so that it stands upright on a desk. They are mainly used to help teachers learn names. However, it will be shown that a piece of paper sitting in front of each student can be used for several additional useful purposes. Specifically, they can helpteachers manage the class, quantify student participation, collect feedback, and promote autonomy.

INTRODUCTION
A name-card is a piece of paper, folded into a triangle lengthwise, which sits on a desk in front of a student, showing his or her name. This article starts by outlining their main use - learning names - then looks at some additional ways they can be adapted to help streamline class administration, quantify participation, collect student feedback, and promote autonomy. Few of the ideas described are new - they are either variations on tricks learned from colleagues (see *Additional Use 2* and *4* below) or common techniques adapted to work with name-cards (see *Additional Use 1, 3,* and *5*).

GETTING STARTED AND BASIC USAGE
Some Tips for Making the Cards
Setting this up with blank paper is straightforward - fold the sheet and have students write their name. If possible bring a few

colored pens or pencils - if students only have a normal pen/pencil, the names can be hard to read. If the cards are to be used with specific sections, as described in the rest of this article, it is best to clearly demonstrate how you want the name-card folded before handing out the blanks. To help organise the cards when they are collected again, the teacher should also prepare bulldog clips or elastic bands. To help differentiate the classes, different colored paper for different classes/majors can help.

Remembering Students' Names

The main use for name-cards is knowing and remembering students' names. Class control and answer elicitation is much easier when these are known from the beginning of term. Later, while students are doing activities, it is possible to spend some time matching faces to names. To help with memorization, one option the author has seen colleagues use is to attach a photo to the back and then use the name-cards as flashcards. Another is to have a section on the cards where students write some basic personal information (major, sports, dreams) in order to make them more memorable.

The author has used these successfully in classes of up to 50 students, but found that they become less useful for this basic function if the cards are too far away to read, or if they are blocked from view by students in front, or if the class "desks" are small folding tables attached to chairs. However, even then, name-cards can still have a number of valuable additional uses, as explained below.

ADDITIONAL USES

Additional Use 1: Shuffling Seating

Moving students around, both from week to week and during each class, exposes students to a variety of peer learning styles, topic choices, and levels. Any student paired with an unsuitable partner only needs to tolerate them for a short time, and

eventually students will have met all others in the class - something not guaranteed if their other courses are largely formal lectures. In addition, as Wilkinson (2015) has noted in the context of vocabulary testing, peer tests done by a different person each class can support motivation. One possible reason for this is that no-one wants to get an embarrassingly low score on a test given by a partner they do not know well.

There are a number of ways to assign students a new seat each week. Simply asking students to "sit next to someone new" does not work for the author, as students typically just rotate pairs within small gender-segregated friend groups, and some with social issues were left sitting alone. Another option tried was class-chart based systems (posted near door at the beginning of each class). However, this also had weaknesses: absent or late students force an immediate editing of pre-planned class charts, and moving students during class (e,g. for rotating conversation partners) breaks a chart completely. This led to errors, such as using the wrong name or even occasionally awarding points to the wrong student. A final option, used by some of the author's colleagues, is classroom management software; but this requires reliable access to a laptop/projector (often internet too) and a willingness to spend the beginning of class fiddling with technology.

The low-tech solution to the problems above is to use name-cards: shuffle them and deal them out one per desk just before class starts. The name-cards can be easily moved after the bell to fill holes caused by late or absent students, and when students move during class, their names can move with them. With group activities, the cards can be marked (Team A / Team B) and dealt in groups. A final advantage was that when cards were shuffled, the obvious randomization prevents students from worrying about covert teacher agendas: none ever ask now why they have been put at the back, put at the front, or paired with a specific

other student.

Additional Use 2: Managing Lateness, Absence, and Spare Materials

Late students often walk in while teachers are trying to explain the first activity. There are as many methods for dealing with this as there are teachers, but two basic choices: interrupt the class and deal with them, or remember them until later. Until every face in class is memorised, the latter option is difficult. In some larger classrooms, it is also easy for students to sneak in the back while the teacher is writing on the board. Class chart solutions are again inflexible - you can mark empty places, move students in to fill gaps, and quickly mark where late students sit, but it is easy to get confused and it still interrupts the class. Name-cards make this much easier. At the bell, any cards sitting on empty desks are collected and students are quickly moved to fill any gaps in the pattern. If students come in late while the teacher is busy, they just find a seat without interrupting the class. Later, when there is time to deal with them, recognising who came late is not reliant on memory: late students are the ones without name-cards. No-one can sneak in, the class is not interrupted, and if their card has not been claimed by a certain point, they can be marked absent.

Name-cards also help distribute handouts to absent students. When students go missing for more than one class (perhaps dropping out, perhaps not), they create a growing pile of orphan worksheets. It quickly becomes difficult to keep track of who has or has not received what. The solution is to fold each sheet up and tuck it inside the name-card, as this way it is certain to eventually get to the right student. This guarantees that no-one can claim to not have received important notices, and a thick name card packet is a physical warning to check if the student has issues, or has dropped out. Marked homework can also be returned to absent students this way, as long as it is under four

sheets thick.

Additional Use 3: Quantifying Participation and Minor In-Class Sanctions

The author uses a points system to quantify students' participation grade, with minus points for sleeping, forgetting homework, and so on; while bonus points are awarded for (among other things) additional homework, event attendance, or spotting mistakes. Clearly listing actions that earn and lose points makes "participation" more quantifiable and objective, whereas a subjective impression can easily be skewed by superficial personality traits in class.

However, until student names are memorized, it is hard to mark participation points on an alphabetical name list. Class seating charts make marking points for a single class easy, but again are not flexible enough to follow moving students. Additionally, if teachers shuffle the chart every week, combining the data for final grades becomes time consuming. With name cards, teachers can just walk to a student's desk and add the points directly to the back of their card. This points section follows the student as they move around, and there is more room for points than in the small boxes on lists and charts. At the end of term, their participation points are easily combined and counted.

Initially, the author just used a signature to indicate bonus points, but later had two rubber stamps made - one that says "NG" for minus points and one that says "OK" for bonuses - these can be seen in use in Figure 1. Stamps, especially self-inking stamps, were found to be quicker to give and to count than handwritten points. In terms of security, it is best to balance the likelihood that student will cheat with the difficulty of counterfeiting your mark: the higher the chance of cheating, the more effort teachers might want to put into unusual ink colours or stamps. This of course only works if your class allows you to move

around and physically reach name-cards. Also, it is necessary to make sure students with large numbers of minus points do not "accidentally" lose their cards. To this end, teachers should always collect the cards at the end of the class - count them in and out if necessary. Secondly, students should be told that if they do manage to take them home and "lose" them, they will lose *all* participation points and will have to build that back up from zero by doing extra work. The author has not had to carry out this threat yet. To minimise the impact on honestly careless students, it helps to have them use their mobile phone cameras to take regular backups of their card.

Additional Use 4: Collecting Feedback from Students

A few years ago, the author received a negative comment on a class from students via the university administration. The comment itself ("30 minutes of homework per week is too much" - a belief quickly corrected) was less worrying than the fact that the students had felt it necessary to go via the administration rather than feeling comfortable communicating their concerns directly. After this episode, an idea was borrowed from a colleague: to use the back of name-cards to collect comments from students on each class as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1:
Example Student Feedback Sheet questions from the Back of a Name Card, with Suggestions.

Please give me your comments on this class. For example:
I didn't understand X
I like X – can we do it more please
I want to study X
I _____

This indicates to students that comments are welcome, and gives them an alternative to the possibly intimidating option of saying

something negative directly. Since then, it has become clear that this channel has other advantages. Firstly, it allows students to have an impact on the course while it is running and to give focused feedback on individual classes, whereas standard end-of-term surveys only allow generic input on the course as a whole, and only after it has finished. Secondly, it offers an established way to feed data into reflective practice without having to organise a separate questionnaire. For example, the author has used this space to find out what kind of phones students use, how much time they spend doing specific homework tasks, how they use subtitles on videos assigned for homework, and other easily answered but useful questions.

Most open comments (those from weeks I did not ask a specific question) are either requests for clarification or "How to" questions - some related to class, some not:

--I didn't understand the difference of fix outline/draft
--I'm poor at QW. So how improve QW?
--How much words of vocabulary test?
--How do we develop a TOEIC score?

Others were either interesting but unrelated comments or positive feedback:

--I wanna go to Kenya for Study Abroad!
--Presentation is so interesting!

Note that students need to be trained not to make the following kinds of comments as they are not useful - that they need to give more detail:

--I didn't understand.

--It is difficult

Additional Use 5: Promoting Autonomy

Student autonomy is an important factor in increasing motivation and encouraging students to participate. This is most commonly achieved by giving students control over certain aspects of class content and activity - see for example Zhang and Head (2010). However, another aspect students can be given responsibility for is monitoring their own performance. Often, though, the relevant data on attendance and grading is only organized properly in the teacher's grade-book - the students' own record of their performance is scattered across multiple pieces of paper in bags, homes, folders, and bins. Especially if students start asking towards the end of term how many times they have been absent, or what their grades are, teachers should consider adding a section to the name-card where students track this information themselves. This allows students to see at glance if they are in danger of failing, if their vocabulary test scores are satisfactory, if their quick-writes are getting longer, and what their scores for previous essays/reports were. Students are responsible for tracking their own performance and seeking help if they need it. It would also be possible to add charts to track improvement on anything that has a quantity or a time (such as speed reading) or portfolio-style logs of achievements (such as pages read, or important test scores).

Finally, as all the information is there at the end of term, students can self-assess their own final grade, which the author then checks against the official grade sheets, and comments on if it is too low or too high. Students who dispute their final grade often do so because they have forgotten that they failed a component or are not aware how heavily that component was weighted.
Since starting to ask students to self-assess using a name-card

summary like the one in Figure 3, the author has not received a single grade enquiry (a request for grade revision that arrives in the holidays). More constructively, it also allows students to see what they need to work on during term, and what they should concentrate on in the following semester.

ALTERNATIVES AND UPDATES This article was initially completed in 2015. Since then, theauthor's use of name cards has changed. The feedback and gradebook sections have moved to an online system, and thespace used instead for three new sections: a section where a class contract can be copied and signed to ensure no misunderstandings, a section for useful class language (*Excuse me, I don't know,* etc), and a section for useful conversational phrases.

CONCLUSION

In summary, since starting to use name-cards with the additions described above, class control and communication with students in the author's class have become much easier than with previously used methods such as class seating charts. Additionally, students are less likely to ask about their grades and attendance, and as such are more responsible for their own learning. In conclusion, this article recommends that readers try name-cards at least once - especially since if it fails, all that has been lost is a few sheets of paper.

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COMMON ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION OF NON-ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS AT A UNIVERSITY IN VIETNAM

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ABSTRACT
Pronunciation is a skill which definitely plays an important part in learning a language. However, it is a fact that in the process of learning English, mispronunciation is now an obstacle for Vietnamese students. Many students hesitate to speak English and find it difficult to practice listening skills because of mispronunciation. In this paper, the author aims to show the results from an investigation into mispronunciation of 100 non-major English students in classes at a university in Vietnam. Based on the results, the author analyzes the causes and suggests some solutions to deal with the pronunciation problems.

INTRODUCTION
In today's global world, the importance of English cannot be denied and ignored since English is the most common language spoken everywhere. With the help of developing technology, English has been playing a major role in many sectors including medicine, engineering, and education, which, in my opinion, is the most important arena where English is needed. As a developing country, Vietnam needs to make use of this worldwide spoken language in order to prove itself as an international power.

Today, in Vietnam, English is one of the compulsory subjects of the school system from early grade levels to tertiary education levels. In many universities in Vietnam many subjects are taught in English, and it is set as a prescribed learning outcome.

In fact, Vietnamese students in general are well schooled in English vocabulary and grammar. However, most of the students are not confident enough to speak and communicate in English. This reality arises for different reasons and the first and foremost is that they cannot pronounce words in a correct way and they have no idea about proper pronunciation rules. Mispronunciation makes students not only hesitate to speak up but also face difficulties in their English listening skills.

Based on the result from the investigation into mispronunciation of 100 university and college students with unequal language-abilities, from different parts of Quang Binh province, English pronunciation errors are grouped and categorized. Then, the subjective and objective causes are analyzed in order to deal with the problem.

CONTENT

Dalton (1993) defines pronunciation in general terms as the production of significant sound in two senses:

First, sound is significant because it is used as part of a code of a particular language. So we can talk about the distinctive sounds of English, French, Thai, and other languages. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation as the production and reception of sounds of speech. Second, sound is significant because it is used to achieve meaning in context of use. Here the code combines with other factors to make communication possible. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation with reference to acts of speaking". (P. 3)

According to Penny Ur (1996) pronunciation is the sound of the language, or phonology; stress and rhythm; and intonation and includes the role of individual sounds and segmental and supra segmental sounds.

TYPICAL DIFFERENCES IN PRONUNCIATION BETWEEN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE

Vowels

English vowels are in greater number than Vietnamese vowels. As claimed by Nguyen Dinh Hoa (1997), there are eleven vowels in Vietnamese, while there are thirteen in English stated by Yule (2010). In English, vowels are divided into long vowels and short vowels, which is strange in Vietnamese. In addition, there are two out of seven short vowels in English that do not exist in Vietnamese.

Consonants

There are 24 consonants in English and 21 consonants in Vietnamese. Some English consonants do not exist in Vietnamese and vice versa. English has consonant clusters playing role as onset such as *street* and a coda such as *sixth* but those cannot be found in Vietnamese. On the other hand, in Vietnamese, a single letter is a phoneme. This is while some phonemes in English can be represented by one letter with different sounds.

Sound connections

Sound connection is very important in English pronunciation. In English, fluency is a priority; however, it is strange to Vietnamese people because there is no ending sounds in Vietnamese.

Word stress

Vietnamese is a monosyllabic language while English is a polysyllabic language. Most Vietnamese words have onesyllable; therefore unstressed syllables do not exist in Vietnamese.

Intonation
In English, there are two types of stress: word stress (the syllable is stronger than the others) and sentence stress (words are stressed in a sentence). Learners who know these two types of stress can find it easier to understand and use English like native speakers.

The major phonological difference between Vietnamese and English is tones. Vietnamese shares some consonant and vowel concepts with English, but what English do not have is lexical tones. Tones in Vietnamese can be used to change the meaning of a word, while it is that the distinct articulation of sounds in English changes the meaning. In Vietnamese, according to Doan Thien Thuat (1999) Vietnamses is a language having six tones: acute tone, grave tone, tilde tone, drop tone, falling tone, zero tone.

RESEARCH SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURES

Participants
The subjects of this research were 100 non-English major students at the university, from 18 to 21 years old, 50 males and 50 females. The students came from different parts of Quang Binh province.

Procedures
This research aims to find out common errors related to pronunciation of non-English major students at a university in Vietname, with the view to helping learners deal with the problem of pronunciation in learning process. In order to meet the target, the following steps were carried out:

Step 1: Data collection
In the teaching process, the author checked the students' pronunciation through three techniques:

Interview:
Students are asked to answer three questions about how they learn vocabulary and what they know about the English phonetic transcription:

Question 1: What are you concerned about when learning new words?
A. meaning
B. part of speech
C. phonetic transcription

Question 2: What does the symbol in the slash (in a dictionary) /…../ tell you about?

Question 3: What do you know about the following chart? (The chart is a Phonemic Chart showing monophthongs and diphthongs as well as vowels and consonants).

Reading test:
Students are asked to read aloud an English passage or a dialogue. In addition, they are asked to read aloud some familiar words with or without the benefit of phonetic transcription.

Listening and writing test:
Students listened to a tape script by native speakers and then write the phonetic transcription of words with one or more than one syllables.

Step 2: Data analysis
The collected data in this project were mainly analyzed with the help of a quantitative approach. The results were presented in numbers and percentages.

Step 3: Analyze subjunctive and objective reasons for

mispronunciation.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

After investigating the pronunciation of 100 non-English major students from college and university classes at the university, the following results were found:

100 % of the students said that when learning new words, they just focus on their meaning and don't care about their phonetic transcription. They usually read along with their teacher in a passive way and forget the way of proper pronunciation right after that. 85% of the students know what the items between the slashes mean but they don't know how to read them. The others have no idea about the items. Only 10% out of the students have already seen the phonetic transcription chart but don't understand all the symbols.

Most of the students cannot pronounce correctly all the words in a fifty-word passage. In addition, students from different parts of the province have different pronunciation problems because of their local accents. All the students do not know how to read the words basing on their phonetic transcription, and cannot write the phonetic transcription as well. Common errors are in terms of:

Ending sounds

90% of the students neglect the ending sounds in speaking English. In particular, they cannot distinguish the differences among the words with the same preceding sounds but different ending sounds: Example: *five – fine (fai), nice – night – nine (nai).*

In addition to forgetting the ending sounds, 5% of the rest

mispronounce ending sounds. For instance, students often add the sound /s/ at the end of all words because they think that it's the right way to speak English. A large number of students cannot know how to pronounce the ending sounds /s/ and /ed/ after past-tense verbs.

Sound confusion:
When being asked to read some minimal pairs with similar sounds, students cannot distinguish the sounds. 98% of the students cannot find out the sound differences between the pairs: Example: man – men. Further, 65% of the students find it difficult to distinguish between /ʃ/ and /s/: Example: See – she. About 55 % cannot pronounce the sound /t/ in a correct way. 90 % have no idea about long vowels and short vowels, so most of them have the same way of reading the words such as *sheep – ship, eat-it, seat- sit.*

Consonant clusters
75% find it difficult to pronounce consonant clusters, and they often read the consonants one by one like a separate syllable. This is because students do not know what syllable in English is.

Vietnamese influences
The number of students who use Vietnamese in pronouncing English is 100%. When being asked to listen and write the phonetic transcription, students are likely to use Vietnamese in writing the transcription and use their own way to pronounce the words. The common errors are those of pronouncing diphthongs and some consonants.

Linking sounds
English linking sounds are very common since they build the fluency and intonation of an utterance. However, Vietnamese people are not familiar with that kind of sound. Therefore, 95% of the interviewees face difficulty linking the sounds.

Word stress

Word stress plays an important part in English because it can change the word meaning. However, there are no unstressed syllables in Vietnamese language. Therefore, students do not pay much attention to English word stress and make confusing pronunciations.

Intonation

Intonation is important for intelligibility, because it is used to express intentions. The most important part of intonation plays the pitch of the speaker's voice, because listeners get certain information from the pitch of the voice and speakers send information using pitch variation. Vietnamese students in general tend to not recognize the strong sound and weak sound in a sentence. Moreover, they do not know in which situation, they should raise or soften their voice. 97% of the students cannot distinguish the strong sound and weak sound in common sentences. 72% of them raise their voice at the end of Wh-question and soften their voice in Yes/no questions.

REASONS

The results show that the reasons for mispronunciation among students include objective reasons and subjective reasons:

Subjective reasons

There are a lot of phonological differences between English and Vietnamese languages. For examples, some English vowels and consonants do not exist in Vietnamese which is definitely a barrier for Vietnamese students in pronouncing these sounds. In addition, the way of speaking without intonation and their regional accents has big influences on pronouncing English.

Objective reasons

First of all, when being asked about the way of learning

vocabulary, students answered that they just care about the meaning only. Students rarely use the dictionary to check their pronunciation. Therefore, they do not have any knowledge about English sounds. On the other hand, students feel assured about their own way of pronunciation. For instance, there are lots of English words which look like the combination of two other words such as "comfortable", and students build up the sound based on what they have known.

Moreover, a majority of students do not know about the phonetic transcription which is a handicap for them in the processing of learning English because they cannot correct the errors themselves. Furthermore, because of the limited time for pronunciation section in classes, students do not have many chances to practice reading words or sentences intensively. Consequently, teachers cannot correct the mistakes regularly. Lastly, most of the students lack the opportunities to communicate with foreigners. Although, there is foreign voluntary teacher in the university that teacher is not required to teach non-English major students.

SOLUTIONS

In order to deal with the problems of mispronunciation the following recommendations should be taken into consideration:

Regarding the institution

The foreign languages and informatics center should organize pronunciation classes to support the students' learning of proper pronunciation instead of only repeating the teacher in a passive way. Moreover, students should be able to look up words in their dictionary and check their own pronunciation.

Regarding lecturers

As sounds play an important role in communication, foreign language teachers must attribute proper focus to teaching

pronunciation in their classes. First and foremost, lecturers should spend more time providing students with basic knowledge on pronunciation and helping them practice it. Before learning English 1, students should have a chance to be familiar with English sounds such as vowels and consonants, and syllables. In addition, it would be a good idea to have students practice each sound one by one and in full sentences along with intonation and volume. In the process of teaching vocabulary, lecturers should remember to write the phonetic transcription of words on the board so that students have a habit of learning how to pronounce in a correct way.

Regarding learners

Students need to be aware of the importance of correct pronunciation. In order to deal with pronunciation errors, it would be advisable for students to begin a new habit of using English sounds, and break down the influences of the mothertongue in speaking English. Students should practice day by day and look in the dictionary for the phonetic transcription when dealing with new words and check the sounds rather than incorrectly predict the sounds so as to acquire better pronunciation skills. Moreover, it would be preferable if students are aware of self-study via a variety of media. In addition, listening to English songs or watching movies with English subtitles would be a good idea for the students to improve their pronunciation.

CONCLUSION

Pronunciation plays an important role in the process of learning English. Good pronunciation can help learners become more confident in communication. If the above recommendations are taken into consideration, I believe that pronunciation will never be a barrier for the students in their way to success.

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Dedicated to the aid and assistance of fellow educators and students in and around Asia