ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly

March 2015

Volume 17, Issue 1

Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson and John Adamson

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal
A Division of TESOL Asia Group
Part of SITE Ltd Australia

http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

editor@asian-efl-journal.com
Publisher: Dr. Paul Robertson
Chief Editor: Dr. John Adamson
Associate Production Editors: Allison Smith and Dr. David Litz
Assistant Copy Editors: Catherine Carpenter, Patrice Crysler, Amina Hachemi, Glenys Roberts, Stuart Sotozaki-Leech, and Breda O'Haris-Davies

ISSN 1738-1460

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Foreword

By Asian EFL Journal Associate Production and Copy Editors

This March 2015 issue of the Asian EFL journal touches upon a number of issues worthy of note in the field of English language teaching and learning and applied linguistics. With article topics ranging from effective ways of providing writing feedback, approaches to reading in university EAP classes, and the use of storybooks in the classroom to communication anxiety, L1 use in foreign language instruction, and approaches to vocabulary instruction, this installment includes authors from a vast geographical area that includes countries such as Taiwan, Japan, Turkey, Pakistan, and Oman.

First, *Using Picture Books with School Children in Taiwan's EFL Classrooms* by Lichung Yang explores teaching strategies for reading comprehension. She presents a study undertaken to assess primary school teachers' knowledge of quality picture books used in EFL classrooms. The study involved 355 elementary school teachers from two different cities, and the results indicate that teachers' recognition of picture books is not as diverse as expected. This article will undoubtedly be of great interest for those teaching EFL to young learners.

Student Uptake of Teacher Written Feedback on Writing by Rachael Ruegg examines variations in types of feedback in relation to different types of writing problems. The study took place in the English department of a foreign language university in central Japan using 41 Japanese university students and explored the impact of indirect, semi-direct and direct feedback. It was found that structural and lexical problems were best helped by indirect feedback, while semi-direct feedback was of greater benefit to meaning and content issues and direct feedback was the most effective for surface-level grammar errors. The author suggests that if educators use feedback more effectively that it not only benefits the students, but can also reduce the amount of input required.

In *Foreign Language Communication Anxiety (FLCA) among Tertiary Level Omani EFL Learners*, Asfia Khan and Rahma Al-Mahrooqi explore the impacts of foreign language anxiety on Omani EFL students at the university level. In the study, the writers focused on speaking activities specifically as a previously acknowledged area of anxiety for language

students in general and looked to see if anxiety-related behaviors differed between Omani culture and others. They also considered the link between such anxiety and gender and self-perceived proficiency. The results of their study, with the use of an instrument focusing on communication anxiety, demonstrate that the students had general anxiety and particularly evaluation and teacher anxiety. Levels of peer anxiety were low, however. While gender seemed to play little part in anxiety levels, self-perceived proficiency did appear to have a direct effect.

Next, in *The Relationship between the Effectiveness of Vocabulary Presentation Modes and Learners' Attitudes: Corpus Based Contextual Guessing, Dictionary Use and Online Instruction*, Dr. Kadriye Dilek Akpınar, Dr. Asuman Aşık, and Arzu Sarlanoğlu Vural have examined the effectiveness of vocabulary presentation modes such as corpus based contextual guessing, dictionary use, and online instruction and how they impact the recall and retention of vocabulary. Secondly, the researchers also investigated learner attitudes in regard to these specific presentation modes via pre/post testing and a questionnaire. Although corpus based contextual guessing was the least preferred method by learners, the study suggests that this practice was the most successful for learners' development of cognitive skills, as well as related affective factors.

In *Developing the EFL Learners' Academic Reading – Diagnosis and Needs Analysis through Action Research*, Ming-Yueh Shen explores a needs analysis approach to the choice of classroom reading activities for a group of EAP undergraduate students studying at a university in Taiwan. Shen's research project started with two pre-course questionnaires to find out how the students felt about reading academic texts and the strategies they employed; course content and classroom activities were designed according to the students' responses. During the reading skills course students gave feedback in the form of self-evaluation questionnaire and learner journals. According to Shen, the greatest concern of students was that they were hindered in academic reading by their lack of content specific vocabulary and they were overwhelmed by the reading load at undergraduate level. Shen also includes various approaches arising from the needs analysis such as working on outlines of units and making use of visual aids and DVDs to give students background to topics before reading about them.

The final article in this issue is *Pakistani University English Teachers' Cognitions and Classroom Practices Regarding Their Use of the Learners' First Languages* by Said Imran and Mark Wyatt. This paper explores the polemical issue of first language (L1) use in the teaching and learning of other languages. Their case study of three male English teachers at a

university in Pakistan seeks to establish whether there is a discrepancy between teachers' idealized cognitions about L1 use and their actual classroom practices. Using a triangulation of interviews, classroom observations and stimulated recall sessions, it was found that although all three teachers theoretically supported exclusive use of the target language in class, only one followed through on this in his day to day teaching. The reasons given for this disparity included concerns about identity, teachers' own experiences as language learners and students' perceived language proficiency. Participants did not cite national educational policy or institutional pressure as factors, although it is expected that these may influence them subliminally. The authors call for further research aimed at unearthing subconscious feelings in a bid to align policy with reality and stimulate public debate on this important issue.

In sum, a diverse array of themes and topics are covered in this particular edition of the journal and the ideas that have been put forward not only have far-reaching academic and pedagogic implications, but also policy ramifications as well. On behalf of the entire team at Asian EFL Journal, we hope you find this particular edition enlightening, engaging, and informative, and we thank you for your continued support.

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Using Picture Books with School Children in Taiwan's EFL Classrooms

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Bio Data:

Lichung Yang is currently an associate professor in the Department of English Instruction at University of Taipei in Taiwan where she teaches children's literature in the undergraduate and graduate programs. Her chief research interests include picture book studies, and the relation between picture book reading and the practice of literacy in the EFL context.

Abstract

Elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge of picture books may be only one aspect of the knowledge base needed for effective reading instruction, but knowledge of quality picture books and the ability to apply that knowledge to facilitate school children's literacy development in English is especially important for EFL teachers at the elementary school level. In this study 355 elementary school EFL teachers from two different cities in northern Taiwan were surveyed about their reading-related pedagogical content knowledge, especially their knowledge of picture books and their practice of read-alouds with school children. A 4-tier questionnaire was designed to comprise the demographics of the participants, two measure instruments (TORP, Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile; TRT, Title Recognition Test) and one open-ended short-answer question in order to assess the participants' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction, their recognition of picture books, and their use of picture books in the EFL classroom context. The results suggest a number of interesting findings. An interdependent relationship was identified between teachers' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction and their recognition of picture books. The results of TRT were also associated with the EFL teachers' self-reports of the usage of picture books in the EFL classroom context. Additionally, the study shows that elementary school EFL teachers are mainly skills-oriented in reading instruction, and that their recognition of children's books may not seem as wide or as diverse as the common assumption in terms of essential components of reading instruction. Implications for the measurement and study of elementary school EFL teacher reading-related content knowledge as well as related implications for teacher development are discussed.

Keywords: Teacher knowledge, picture books, reading instruction, elementary school, EFL in Taiwan

Introduction

Elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge of picture books may be only one aspect of the knowledge base needed for effective reading instruction, but knowledge of quality picture

books and the ability to apply that knowledge to facilitate school children's literacy development in English is especially important for EFL teachers at the elementary school level. Evidence-based studies have indicated that quality children's books offer chances to bolster the foundations necessary for emergent literacy development. For instance, Martinez and McGee (2000) have identified five trends in children's literature that have met critical needs in literacy instruction: (1) books to move children into beginning reading, (2) books to sustain and expand beginning readers, (3) books to make the transition from easy-to-read picture books to longer and more complex chapter books, (4) books to nourish children's interest in the historical and natural world, and (5) books that reflect the diversity of children and their experiences. Drawing on socio-cultural theories, Hassett (2009) also indicated that quality children's picture books (1) contain language with rhythm, rhyme, repetition, and flow, which supports instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics; (2) offer a language-rich forum for talking about personal connections and perspectives, which supports oral language and vocabulary development, as well as fluency and comprehension; (3) offer a strong sense of book language, story structure or information, which encourages an understanding of how books and genres work; (4) offer the "meat" of early comprehension instruction, including thinking and questioning skills; (5) serve as models for writing patterns and word choice; (6) provide humor, and the kind of enjoyable experiences necessary for engagement and interest in reading. It seems reasonable to expect that elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge of English picture books is a fundamental component of beginning reading instruction.

Indeed, picture books have been promoted as a useful English-learning tool-kit that affords school children opportunities to develop their literacy and hone their language skills since English language teaching was formally extended to Taiwan's elementary schools in 2001 (Bradbury and Liu, 2003). A variety of course books or textbooks that feature phonics, vocabulary, and sentence drills may be common in the local EFL classrooms, but picture book read-alouds have been conducted by individual teachers as part of the regular curriculum. In the past few years, the government authorities have also promoted English literacy and reading by urging the use of picture books with elementary school children. New Taipei City, for instance, started an experimental project in 2008 called "English Activation Curriculum," in which two additional English classes per week were added to the school curriculum if schools had enough EFL teachers. The program has been implemented in almost all the public elementary schools in the city since 2010. In the English Activation Project, each class is required to read at least two picture books each semester. A total of 36

picture books, which contain 8 required and 4 optional titles respectively for lower, intermediate and upper grades, are selected as part of the primary teaching material for school children. Each title is packaged with sample teaching schedules, lessons, instructional practices, ready-to-use flashcards, audio CDs, scripts, worksheets, and website information. The 36 units were packed in two boxes and sent to each public school in years 2012 and 2013. Different from New Taipei City, its neighboring city, Taipei City, has not assigned any specific titles, but EFL teachers working at the public schools have been urged to use picture books with school children. Optional text-based teacher manuals on selected picture book read-alouds made by well-experienced EFL teachers have also been sent to each public school to offer practical models to plan creatively on the books. Additionally, elementary school teachers have been encouraged to design and create English picture storybooks since 2009. The city government has been sponsoring the creation of English-language picture books that address EFL learners' English language ability and learning needs. Selected picture books created by teachers themselves have been published in volumes and distributed to elementary schools for English teaching.

The use of English picture books in the elementary school EFL classroom has also elicited great interest from researchers who examined mostly the pedagogical effects of picture book read-alouds in the EFL classroom context. Some studies have shown the ways in which the textual features of English picture books can be used with diverse young English language learners (Chang, 2002; Chien & Huang, 2002; Liaw, 1998; Lin, 2003; Wu, 2008; Yang, 2000; Yang, 2006; Zheng, 1990). Other studies have indicated elementary school teachers' views of English picture books used in the EFL classroom context (Sheu, 2006; Sheu, 2008; Zheng & Lin, 2004). However, few studies were ever done to investigate elementary school teachers' reading-related content knowledge, including their knowledge of picture books, and their application of that knowledge in the EFL classroom. EFL teachers' knowledge about children's picture book read-alouds can be seen, to borrow the title by Shel Silverstein, as "a missing piece" to the research in Taiwan's elementary EFL education.

In Taiwan's real-world classroom, elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge of children's books seems to be regarded as an assumed element of their professional repertoire, and such knowledge is rarely included in the list of required teacher competencies by the central and local governments. It is not included in the EFL teacher certification examinations that remain the major entrance to teaching positions. The question of elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge of reading is frequently framed in terms of academic preparation or certification standards. Despite in-service trainings held by the local authorities, little was

done to extend and develop EFL teachers' familiarity with a wide variety of children's books. While knowledge of children's picture books is less likely to appear in teacher certification requirements or in-service trainings, such knowledge is often reflected in EFL teachers' selection of reading material and instructional practices, and therefore seems a logical prerequisite for any reading instruction that aims at facilitating the literacy development of the young English language learners.

If research is needed to identify what kinds and levels of professional knowledge as well as pedagogic skills elementary school EFL teachers require for English reading instruction, it is imperative to investigate EFL teachers' knowledge of picture books and their application to reading instruction in the EFL classroom context. Evidence is also needed to determine how wide and varied elementary school EFL teachers' experience with children's books may need to be so that they are able to effectively use picture books as part of their overall early literacy programs. Once evidence-based research in these fields has been conducted, and a comprehensive understanding developed, the results can be used to create proficiency guidelines and inform professional preparation.

This study is predicated on the assumption that elementary school EFL teachers' knowledge and use of picture books in the classroom is significantly related to their "pedagogical content knowledge" about reading instruction (Shulman, 1987). It seems sensible to expect that their theoretical orientation to reading instruction should influence their perceptions and practices of picture book read-alouds in the EFL classroom context. In particular, teachers who conduct read-aloud practices in EFL classroom should be expected to be knowledgeable about picture books in general. This study addressed this connection and provided a research foundation for the intuitive association between the two areas.

This study focused on what elementary school EFL teachers know or need to know, about reading-related pedagogical content knowledge, including theoretical orientations toward reading instruction as well as knowledge of picture books, and how that knowledge is used in practice. The specific research questions are as follows:

(1) What is the relationship between elementary school EFL teachers' theoretical orientation toward reading instruction, and their knowledge about picture books?
(2) What is the depth of elementary school EFL teachers' reading-related pedagogical content knowledge in the area of picture books, and how fine-tuned is their knowledge when applied to read-alouds in the EFL classroom context?

Literature Review

There has been a great deal of interest in the field of general education in the nature of teacher knowledge. Perhaps the most influential theoretical framework to emerge from this work has been Shulman's (1987) model, in which teacher knowledge is seen to constitute an interrelated set of categories of knowledge: 1) content knowledge, 2) general pedagogical knowledge (pedagogical issues that 'transcend subject matter'), 3) curriculum knowledge, 4) pedagogical content knowledge (the 'special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers'), 5) knowledge of learners and their characteristics, 6) knowledge of educational contexts (at both micro- and macro-levels), and 7) knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values (adapted from Shulman, 1987, p.8). Among the categories of teacher knowledge Shulman has conceptualized, of special interest is "pedagogical content knowledge," which she described as "the blending of content and pedagogy" that enables a teacher to present the subject matter as comprehensible to the learners (p.8).

Following Shulman, Johnston and Goettsch (2000) placed the specific knowledge that language teachers possess into the three categories (content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of learners), and found that these categories are intertwined in complex ways as they are played out in the classroom. As Tedick and Walker (1995) indicated, the education of an EFL teacher is a specialized case; it tends to focus on pedagogical knowledge, and on English language skills based in grammar, phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon of the English language. Tedick and Walker (1995) may ignore other dimensions of reading instruction, such as comprehension and fluency, but it is evident that specifying the content knowledge needed to teach reading in the elementary school EFL classroom is difficult not only because instruction changes across the elementary grades, but because reading instruction is often a mixture of speaking, listening, reading and writing activities based on different epistemological perspectives (Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2000; McCutchen, Green, Abbott, & Sander, 2009).

In the English-speaking countries, research that directly examined the knowledge base needed to teach reading has been growing in the last decades. Although lagging behind such subjects as math, and social science, research in language education is given recognition to the central role that teachers play in language learning (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). And researchers have largely investigated linguistic knowledge needed to teach children to read or decode words (Brady & Moats, 1997; Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich & Stanovich, 2004; Hoffman & Pearson, 2000; Mather, Bos, & Babur, 2001; McCutchen, Abbott, et al 2002;

McCutchen, Harry, Cunningham, Cox, Sidman, & Covill, 2002; Moats, 1994; Moats & Foorman, 2003; Phelps & Schilling, 2004). Moats (1994), for example, suggested that language teachers acquire the kind of expertise in language structure that is required of them to teach emergent literacy, and read to beginning readers and those encountering reading problems. Moats and Forman (2003) surveyed teacher knowledge of reading-related concepts, and found a modest predictive relationship between teachers' knowledge, their observed teaching competence, and students' reading achievement levels. In line with Moats (1994), Bos, et al (2001) argued that language teachers need to possess sufficient knowledge about the structure of English words so that they can systematically address the instructional needs of children struggling to learn to read. To teach reading to at-risk students and students with learning disabilities, Mather, Bos & Babur (2001) also maintained that language teachers need to have positive perceptions regarding the role of systematic, explicit instruction, as well as knowledge of the English language.

In addition, some investigators have studied the declarative knowledge and beliefs held by teachers with varying backgrounds and experience (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001). Other researchers have explored relationships among teachers' knowledge of language, cultural literacy, beliefs, ability to instruct, and student outcomes (McCutchen & Berninger, 1999; McCutchen, Abbott, et al, 2002; McCutchen, Harry, Cunningham, Cox, Sidman & Covill, 2002). McCutchen, Abbott, et al. (2002), for instance, focused on measurement of kindergarten and first grade teachers' knowledge, and the relationship of growth in that knowledge base to student outcomes. They found that teachers' own content knowledge influences classroom practice, and changes in teacher knowledge and classroom practice can improve student learning.

Research to ascertain elementary school teachers' personal and professional reading practices have also been undertaken in the US and the UK (McCutchen, Cunningham, et al., 2002; Cremin, 2008a; Cremin, 2008b; Burgess, et al., 2011). In the UK, Cremin and her team (2008a, 2008b) explored teachers' reading habits and preferences, investigated their knowledge of children's literature, and documented their reported use of such texts and involvement with library services. Investigators in the US also examined the relationship between elementary school teachers' reading habits, knowledge of children's literature, and literacy-related skills (McCutchen, Cunningham, et al., 2002; Burgess, et al., 2011). McCutchen, Cunningham, et al. (2002), for instance, investigated relationships among elementary teachers' knowledge of children's literature and English phonology, their philosophical orientation toward reading instruction, their classroom practice, and their

students' learning. They found that relationships emerged between content knowledge and instruction, and between teachers' phonological knowledge and their students' reading achievement. Burgess et al. (2011) also found that teachers with more knowledge of children's literature were more likely to use best practice techniques in the classroom.

As mentioned before, if picture book reading is essential to any reading instruction in the elementary school context, it can be seen as a timely contribution for this study to develop appropriate measure instruments to investigate elementary school EFL teachers' reading-related content knowledge with special regard to picture book reading in Taiwan. It required much primary search and detective work to highlight teachers' reading-related pedagogical content knowledge and connected it with the EFL classroom practice. And it can be regarded as a worthwhile attempt to start with an investigation of picture book reading instruction built upon the established studies on picture book reading and EFL teacher knowledge, and identify and develop necessary measure instruments so as to assess the relevance of EFL teachers' knowledge of picture books to reading instruction in the EFL context.

Methods

Participants and Settings

Three-hundred and fifty-nine elementary school EFL teachers (t*eachers of* English as a foreign language) from northern Taiwan were surveyed. Four questionnaires were incomplete, and 355 completed. All of the EFL teachers surveyed were not native English speakers, but Taiwanese people who have been teaching English at the elementary level during the school day. The vast majority of the participants surveyed were women (93.5%), and 6.5% men. More than half of the EFL teachers surveyed were below 40 years of age. Thirty-nine percent (39%) of the teachers surveyed were between 30 and 39 years old, 33% between 40 and 49 years of age, 20% between 23 and 29 years of age, and 8% above 50 years of age. Almost half of the participants held bachelor's (49%) as their highest degree, and slightly more held a master's (51%) as their highest degree (and two participants even held a doctoral degree). Thirty-two percent of (32%) the participants have more than 10 years of EFL teaching experience, 32% 6-10 years, 22% 3-5 years, 15% 1-2 or less-than-one year of teaching experience. Table 1 summarizes the demographic statistics of the EFL teachers who participated in the survey.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Participants

	Number	Percent (%)
Age (y)		
23-39	**209**	**58.9**
23-29	71	20
30-39	138	38.9
40-50+	**146**	**41.1**
40-49	118	33
50+	28	8
Gender		
Man	23	6.5
Woman	332	93.5
Edu		
MA +	183	51.5
BA	172	48.5
TY (y)		
1-5	**131**	**36.9**
1-2	53	14.9
3-5	78	22
6-10	**112**	**31.5**
10+	**112**	**31.5**

Edu, Education; MA+, master degrees and above, BA, bachelor degree; TY, teaching years

Measures

In this study, we incorporated quantitative and qualitative methods by conducting a 4-tier questionnaire survey to probe elementary school EFL teachers' familiarity with picture books along with their theoretical orientation toward reading instruction. The 4-tier questionnaire survey was designed as follows:

The first tier of the questionnaire was the background information, including the participants' age, gender, education, and EFL teaching years.

The second tier was the DeFord Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP) (DeFord, 1985) which measured basic inclinations toward reading instruction. The TORP consent was obtained from Professor Diane DeFord. DeFord (1985) categorized theoretical orientations related to reading instruction into three distinct characteristics, all of which differ primarily in the unit of language that is emphasized: word segments, words, or text. The first theoretical orientation to reading instruction is *phonics* orientation. The second theoretical orientation to reading instruction is *skills* orientation. The third theoretical orientation to reading instruction is *whole language* orientation.

The TORP consisted of 28 statements about reading and reading instruction with a five degree Likert scale response system from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5) to assess

teacher beliefs about practices in reading instruction. According to DeFord (1985), teachers' overall orientation may be determined by total score. Possible total scores range from 28 to 140; scores of 28-65 indicate a phonics orientation, 66-110 a skills orientation, and 111-140 a whole language orientation.

The 28 statements were also grouped into subsets by orientation to provide comparisons of subgroups on statement subtests. The 10 phonics and 10 skills statements point range for the comparison was 10 to 50 (strong agreement to strong disagreement), and the whole language was 8 to 40. In other words, a high mean on the statement subset comparison would indicate strong disagreement from the subgroup on those statements. Conversely, a low mean would indicate strong agreement from the subgroup on those statements.

The coefficient alpha reliability of this instrument was reported to be .80 (DeFord, 1985), and the reliability of the instrument checked with the selected sample of EFL teachers was .81 (Cronbach's alpha) in a pilot study, indicating a moderately high level of internal consistency.

The third tier was the Title Recognition Test (TRT), which was designed as a recognition measure that had previously been used to assess the amount of exposure to print in adults and children (Stanovich & West, 1989; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991). The version of the TRT used in the present study was modeled on Cunningham & Stanovich (1991). The checklist consists of a total of 39 items: 25 actual picture book titles and 14 foils for book names. It is not composed by high-brow or low-circulation titles that would be known by only the most highly educated or academically inclined readers. Instead, many of the titles appear on the reading lists or teaching materials recommended by the advisory groups commissioned by the city governments. Because we want the TRT to probe school-directed rather than out-of-school reading, an attempt was made to include the picture books in which the verbal text covers the essential components of reading instruction that can be used in the EFL curriculum. The 14 foils were drawn from Cunningham and Stanovich (1991) or generated by the writer, and randomly interspersed among the actual titles. The 39 items were listed in alphabetical order, mixing target and foils.

The instructions to the subject read as follows: "Below you will see a list of picture book titles. Some of the titles are the names of actual books and some are not. You are to read the titles and put a check mark next to the titles of those that you know are books. Do not guess, but only check those that you know are actual books." For each subject, we recorded the number of correct targets identified as well as the number of foils checked. To take into account possible differential thresholds for guessing, a derived score was calculated by

subtracting the number of foils checked from the number of correct targets identified. This derived score was used in the analyses that follow. The reliability of the number of correct items checked was .82 (Cronbach's alpha).

The fourth tier of the questionnaire was an open-ended short-answer question, which asks EFL teachers to report their use of picture books. This questionnaire was piloted with a group of 18 well-experienced EFL teachers from elementary schools in two metropolitan cities in northern Taiwan. The piloted questionnaire was also modified for the purpose of the survey.

The questionnaire was designed for two reasons. First, it was developed to gather information of the general patterns of elementary school EFL teachers' reading instruction rather than narrowly focused knowledge in one area such as phonics or phonology. TORP was selected and administered to identify general patterns of theoretical orientation within a large sample of elementary school EFL teachers. While teachers' theoretical orientations were classified into phonics, skills and whole language, the three TORP subsets were not watertight, nor did each of them remain consistent as a unity. Deford mentioned that there were overlaps between phonics and skills, and that the skills group exhibited more dispersion than the other two groups (1985). Despite the possible overlaps between phonics and skills, TORP was used to get an overall understanding of the participants' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction rather than an investigation of the range and diversity of individual teachers' theoretical orientation. Since teachers' theoretical orientations in reading instruction tend to shape the way they use picture books in the EFL classrooms, it is necessary to get a comprehensive view of the EFL teachers' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction before their familiarity with and use of English picture books is probed. Further, as the examination of teachers' theoretical orientations formed only one tier of the questionnaire, and its purpose was to identify any general patterns within a large sample of teachers in order to be further explored through TRT, observation, and self-reports, the original instrument was not modified but re-worded with terminology more familiar to EFL teachers in Taiwan.

Secondly, the main purpose of the questionnaire was to seek to see teachers' familiarity with or a knowledge of picture books as well as their application of that knowledge into the EFL instruction. While English proficiency and knowledge of the English language are crucial for EFL instruction, familiarity with or a knowledge of picture books and the ability to apply that knowledge to EFL instruction often goes beyond conventional teacher assessments which focus on English proficiency (Butler, 2004). Admittedly, TRT is a proxy or indirect measure for the kind of content knowledge required to use picture books with school children. Familiarity with a book title does not guarantee that a teacher can engage children in

enjoyable joint reading or guide them through a meaningful discussion of the literary or literal components of a picture book. But it would also be unlikely that a teacher has a rich knowledge of children's books, but lacks a passing knowledge of well-known titles. Stanovich & West (1989) empirically demonstrated that the measure TRT had the advantages of low cognitive load, freedom from subjective judgments, and that it displayed correlations with reading ability. To overcome the potential limitations of the TRT, moreover, an open-ended question was made as the fourth-tier of the questionnaire so as to better understand the extent to which EFL teachers are familiar with the content of the picture books as well as how they use the books in their regular teaching practices. The fourth tier of the questionnaire was designed to invite the respondents to report their use of picture books in the EFL classroom during the past year in the following categories: titles, grade levels with which the books were used and teaching objectives when those titles were used. In so doing, EFL teachers' self-reports were also used in conjunction with the TORP and TRT to confirm their theoretical orientations toward reading instruction and counter measurement problems.

Procedures

A total of 620 surveys were distributed and 359 were collected, which established a collection rate of 58%. Surveys were placed in the school mailboxes or distributed by a contact teacher in each school. A cover letter was included with the surveys that gave a rationale for the study, definitions of terms, and the date that the surveys needed to be returned to the research group. Each participant was asked to complete a compact questionnaire. To encourage participation, the letter also stated that a small gift would be awarded to the teachers who returned their survey by the designated date.

Data Analysis

The data from the survey were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data were analyzed with SPSS (18^{th} ed.), while grounded-theory methods were used to analyze the short written responses (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

As a means of qualitative assessment, the fourth tier of the questionnaire (an open-ended short response) was presented in text form. First, the data were reviewed several times and notes were taken, patterns were identified and pertinent categories established. The categories varied based on the answers. Respondents could have answers that fit more than one category. For example, one respondent wrote, "*Rosie's Walk*, used with intermediate and upper grade students, to teach vocabulary and prepositions; *Willy the Dreamer*, used with upper grade

students, to introduce Anthony Browne's artistic style and surrealism." This answer was coded into three categories: titles, grade levels, and teaching objectives, including vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension. As for another response, "*Joseph Had a Little Overcoat*, used with Grade Six students, to teach clothes vocabulary and sentence patterns, and build in them concept of recycling," it was coded into: title, grade level, and teaching objectives, including vocabulary, sentence pattern, and topic. The only distinction between comprehension and topic is that in *comprehension* the specific content of the book, including the theme of a story, is clearly expressed; in *topic*, the specific content of the book is not expressed, but a broad direction or relevant issue is indicated, usually associated with the topics listed in the *Grades 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines* promulgated by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan. Two reviewers went through the data with a 95% agreement.

Results

TORP

TORP total scores ranged from 44 to 113, with a mean of 73.15 (SD = 9.03). Data suggest that 63 teachers (18%) teachers scored in the phonics orientation range, 291 teachers (82%) in the skills range, and only 1 (0%) in the whole language range. We calculated separate means for the three orientations. The phonics mean was 25.16 (SD = 4.64), with a range of 10-40 (possible range of 10-50), and the skills mean was 25.58 (SD = 4.46), with a range of 12-41(possible range of 10-50). The whole language mean was 22.41 (SD = 3.35), with a range of 11-32 (possible range of 8-40).

TRT

The mean of the TRT scores for the 355 teachers was 10.02 (SD = 5.11), with a range of -5-23 (possible range of -14 - 25).

The mean number of targets checked per subject was 11.75. The most targets checked was 24 (two subjects), 26 (7%) subjects checked 20-23 targets, and 51 out of the 355 (14%) subjects checked only 5 targets or fewer. By far the most popular target was *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (96% responses). Targets, like *We're Going on a Bear Hunt* (87%), *David Goes to School* (83%), *Dear Zoo* (80%) garnered more than 280 responses.

The mean number of foils checked per subject was 1.73. The most foils checked was 14 (one subject), two subjects checked 11 foils, but 277 out of the 355 (78%) subjects checked 2 foils or fewer. The most popular foil was *From Head to Foot* (46%). Foils, like *Sally Goes to School* (24%), *Hide and Seek* (23%), *Yes, Yes* (16%), *Hop Top* (15%) garnered more than 50

responses. The Appendix lists the percentage of recognition scores for each item of the TRT test.

Correlations between TORP and TRT

In order to present the basic descriptive statistics and give a clear indication of the theoretical orientation variability in the data, the sample was split into low tertile (n = 136), middle tertile (n = 100), and high tertile (n = 119) groups, based on phonics scores (the unequal numbers of subjects resulted from tied scores). The numbers and percentile are presented in Table 2, along with results of a chi-square test of the distribution of age, gender, education and teaching years of each group. From Table 2 it is apparent that no relationship was found between age and percentile group of phonics, X^2 (2, N = 355) = 1.74, p = .42. The percentage of participants divided by phonics scores did not differ by gender, X^2 (2, N = 355) = 1.14, p = .93 or education X^2 (2, N = 355) = 0.97, p = .62. There is evidence of no relationship between teaching years and percentile group of phonics X^2 (4, N = 355) = 7.18, p = .13. In summary, the three phonics groups (low tertile, middle tertile, and high tertile) are nearly equivalent or similar with regard to baseline characteristics, including age, gender, education, and teaching years.

Table 2

Numbers, Percentile and P-value on Age, Gender, Education and Teaching Years by Tertile Based on Phonics Scores

	low-tertile (n = 136)	**mid-tertile (n = 100)**	**high-tertile (n = 119)**	***P***
Age (y)				
23-39	86 (63.2%)	56 (56.0%)	67 (56.3%)	0.42
40-50+	50 (36.8%)	44 (44.0%)	52 (43.7%)	
Gender				
Man	8 (5.9%)	7 (7%)	8 (6.7%)	0.93
Woman	128 (94.1%)	93 (93.0%)	111 (93.3%)	
Edu				
MA +	71 (52.2%)	48 (48.0%)	64 (53.8%)	0.62
BA	65 (47.8%)	52 (52.0%)	55 (46.2%)	
TY (y)				
1-5	52 (38.2%)	31 (31.0%)	48 (40.3%)	0.13
6-10	35 (25.7%)	41 (41.0%)	36 (30.3%)	
10+	49 (36.0%)	28 (28.0%)	35 (29.4%)	

Edu, Education; MA+, master degrees and above, BA, bachelor degree; TY, teaching years

* $p < 0.05$.

Analysis of variance was also conducted to compare the differences across all three groups. Table 3 provides means and standard deviations for the measures of teacher beliefs derived from the TORP. Descriptive statistics are reported separately for low-tertile, middle-tertile, and high-tertile groups. Across all three groups, teachers' mean scores of phonics and skills were rather low on the TORP scales (10-50), and the mean scores of whole language were relatively moderate or compatible on the TORP scales (8-40).

When the whole language means were considered, a minor difference ($p > .05$) was detected between the low-tertile (M = 22.2) and high-tertile (M = 22.6) groups in terms of whole language orientation. However, an examination of the phonics and skills means revealed significant differences ($p < .05$) across the three groups of teachers in phonics orientation from the low-tertile (M=20.8) to the high-tertile (M = 30.2), and in skills orientation from the low-tertile (M = 23.2) to high-tertile (M = 28.3).

In addition, significant difference ($p < .05$) in TRT also seemed to occur from the low-tertile (M = 9.2) to high-tertile (M = 10.7). It should be noted that TORP uses a 1 to 5 scale with 1 being "strongly agree" and 5 being "strongly disagree," and that TORP subsets are inversely related to TRT. As value of a TORP subset is increasing, its theoretical inclination is decreasing, and vice versa. Hence if an increase in phonics scores is associated with a weakening inclination toward phonics, then the data suggest that the weaker the phonics orientation, the more the TRT score.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Tertiles in Phonics, Skills, Whole Language and TRT

TORP subset scores	**low-tertile (n = 136)**	**mid- tertile (n = 100)**	**high-tertile (n = 119)**	***P***
Phonics (range 10-50)	20.8 (2.3)	25.0 (0.8)	30.2 (3.2)	0.000*
Skills (range 10-50)	23.2 (4.2)	25.6 (3.3)	28.3 (4.0)	0.000*
whole language (range 8-40)	22.2 (3.6)	22.5 (3.4)	22.6 (3.0)	0.62
TRT (range-14-25)	9.2 (5.0)	10.5 (5.2)	10.7 (5.1)	0.043*

Standard deviations are indicated in parentheses.

*$p < 0.05$.

The correlational analysis of Table 4 further indicates some significant relationship between the TORP scores and the TRT scores ($r = .11$, $p < 0.05$). When the three orientation scores derived from the TORP were considered in relation to the TRT scores, the correlation matrix

showed both the skills and whole language scores were not related to the TRT scores, but phonics scores significantly correlated with the TRT scores (r = .15, p < 0.01). As there is negative relationship between the TORP subsets and TRT, correlational analyses of phonics-TRT scores indicated that EFL teachers less inclined toward phonics may be more inclined and able to recognize the picture books titles.

Table 4

Correlations between TORP, TORP Subsets and TRT

	TORP	**Phonics**	**Skills**	**Whole Language**	**TRT**
TORP	-	.837**	.814**	.451**	.111*
Phonics	-	-	.578**	.098	.146**
Skills	-	-	-	.059	.076
Whole Language	-	-	-	-	-.005
TRT	-	-	-	-	-

* p < 0.05 ; ** p < 0.01

Discussion

Quantitative Data

The TORP total scores of EFL teachers indicate that respondents appeared to be strongly inclined towards skills orientation toward reading instruction. This is in line with the result of the TORP subsets. In the correlations between TORP and TRT, the descriptive analysis of Table 3 also illustrates that EFL teachers' mean scores across all three groups were rather low on the TORP scales, indicating that most of the teachers were strongly advocating theoretical orientation toward phonics and skills, and relatively moderate toward whole language orientation. As mentioned above, the weaker the phonics orientation, the more the TRT score. Table 3 and Table 4 reveal a strong association between the TORP subset scores and the TRT scores, suggesting that EFL teachers less inclined toward phonics may be more inclined and able to recognize the picture books titles.

The results of TRT show that EFL teachers tend to familiarize themselves with picture storybooks with sparse verbal text such as *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*, *We're Going on a Bear Hunt*, and *David Goes to School*. However, storybooks which contain sophisticate word-and-picture relationships that require a careful exploration for comprehension,

including such notable titles as *The Paper Bag Princess* (27%), *The Tunnel* (23%) and *Granpa* (8%), were hardly recognized by most of the EFL teachers. Storybooks that can be used for alphabetic and phonics, including *Don't Forget the Bacon* (19%), *Sheep on a Ship* (8%) and *Tomorrow's Alphabet* (20%), were seldom marked, either.

The results of the qualitative data indicate that almost all the teachers may be phonics or skills oriented. Optimistically, however, teachers who were less phonics oriented tend to recognize more picture books and may integrate them into their reading instruction in the EFL classroom context. This finding may support arguments from earlier studies that suggest a balanced combination of a phonics program along with a literature-based approach to reading instruction proves significantly effective to help beginning readers (Dahl & Scharer, 2000; Manyak & Bauer, 2008; Shanahan & Beck, 2006). Young EFL learners at different levels need different approaches. No one program or approach works for all children and skillful teachers weave together activities and teaching strategies to fit the context and experiences of children (Hill, 2006). Phonics skills incorporated within a reading program which includes quality picture books and selected picture books can also serve to enrich a language-focused curriculum in order to motivate young EFL learners to read. Phonics and whole language are not opposite sides of a curricular coin. From the findings of recent studies, the issue is not whether phonics is supposed to be taught in whole language, but how it is actually integrated into such classroom programs (Dahl & Scharer, 2000).

Questionnaires and Qualitative Data

To get a better understanding of elementary school EFL teachers' picture book reading instruction, statistic figures from the TORP and TRT cannot be regarded as the definitive evidence of teacher's reading-related content knowledge. Apart from those two measures, EFL teachers' self-reports were also used in conjunction with the TORP and TRT to confirm teacher orientations toward reading instruction and counter measurement problems.

In Taiwan's real-world classroom, textbooks are taking center stage, and children's books are often thought of as "extra" or outside readings. Authentic picture books have long been positioned as a supplement—an interest, but not the focus. They have been regarded as part of the supplementary and optional reading in elementary EFL classrooms. It is encouraging that EFL teachers' self-reports indicate that authentic picture books have been regularly used with the young EFL learners during the past year. Findings from the study show that two picture books on average were used for guided or intensive reading in the EFL classroom context each semester. Most of the books used with the EFL learners are notable picture

books. Only some of the electronic books mentioned were specifically written stories, or referred to as leveled or graded "readers," targeting toward English language learners. Let us look more closely at the ways in which the picture books were used in elementary EFL classrooms.

First, more writers or books can be integrated into the EFL classrooms. Unsurprisingly, the results of TRT test can be noted in teachers' self-reports. The EFL teachers' self-reports show that a limited number of titles were very popular among the elementary school EFL teachers. The highest number of mentions was for *Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What Do You See?* (45) with two others gaining over 30 mentions, namely: *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (40), and *Joseph Had a Little Overcoat* (38). The work of Eric Carle gained the highest number of mentions and remains very popular with the EFL teachers. After these, six books were mentioned more than 20 times: *David Goes to School* (29), *Dear Zoo* (28), *Piggybook* (27), *We're Going on a Bear Hunt* (22), *No, David* (22), and *From Head to Toe* (21). The other titles which received above 10 mentions were: *There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly* (19), *Go Away, Big Green Monster* (19), *Seven Blind Mice* (16), *Good Night, Gorilla* (15), *Handa's Surprise* (13), *Willy the Dreamer* (12), *Bark, George* (11), *I Love You: A Rebus Poem* (11), *Red Rockets and Rainbow Jelly* (11), *Rosie's Walk* (11), and *Five Little Monkeys Jumping on the Bed* (10). Encouragingly, *Oops!*(6) and *Anna's Amazing Machine* (5), two of the picture books created by local elementary school teachers, were mentioned along with the well-beloved titles frequently used in the EFL classroom context.

Second, different types of picture books can be included and integrated into the EFL classrooms. When asked to list the titles used during the past year in the EFL classroom, the responses indicate that storybooks are the predominant form of picture books used in the EFL classrooms in terms of types of picture books. Ninety-five percent of the titles mentioned are about stories with sparse verbal text or none, and most of the stories are presented in symmetrical word-and-picture relations. Picture books are produced in different genres, including wordless picture books, alphabet books, counting books, concept books, informational books, and storybooks (Lukens & Coffel, 2012; Norton, 2010). It is suggested that different types of picture books be used with young learners to help them get access to different genres or structures of writings (Sawyer, 2012). However, the findings from this study show that storybooks became the main staple of the read-alouds in the EFL context while other types of picture books were seldom mentioned in the teachers' self-reports. Their self-reports show that few EFL teachers used more sophisticate picture books or informational books. *The Man Who Walked Between the Towers, the* 2004 Caldecott award-

winning book by Mordicai Gerstein was mentioned once; an informational book, like *Houses and Homes* by Ann Morris and Ken Heyman, and a poetic science book, *Science Verse*, written by Jon Scieszka and illustrated by Lane Smith, were respectively mentioned once. Anthony Browne's *Piggybook* appears to become popular as the gender equality education has been advocated across the educational levels in recent years. Other than that, there were very few mentions of English-language picture books which contain language input that may contain sophisticated word-and-picture relationships or need careful exploration. Data suggest that EFL teachers seemed to depend on a relatively narrow range of well-known picture books. EFL teachers' self-reports are in line with the results of TRT that less than 30% of the EFL teachers recognized Robert Munsch's *The Paper Bag Princess* (27%), and Anthony Browne's *The Tunnel* (23%), and that 16% of them recognized Margaret Wise's *The Runaway Bunny*, and only 8% knew John Burningham's *Granpa*. While it is possible that other books were known to the respondents, and that other titles may be placed on the bookshelves in the classroom or library, the number of responses which seem to indicate a narrow range of picture books becomes a genuine cause for concern.

The significant role that the popular picture books play cannot be contested, but the formation of a canon of children's books for the EFL classroom context has implications for pedagogy and practice. Indeed, a picture book is easy to use when the relation between the language-focused input and language-focused output is clear. Moreover, when a set of books that have been constantly accepted and used by elementary school teachers in the EFL classroom context, generations of school children will receive similar English-language training and share similar cultural memory. As Marsh (2004) has suggested, however, the canonization of a particular set of literary texts has served to marginalize some other popular and cultural texts, often the preferred texts of children in contemporary society. In an after-school picture book read-aloud project, Yang (2013) found that 11-12 year old EFL learners preferred the picture-books which are intellectually challenging enough for them to explore or learn something new. Cremin also observed that it may contribute to the regulation and framing of the elementary English curriculum particularly in the later stages, and may create situations in which teachers annually focus upon the same books, with all the challenge of stasis and loss of personal as well as professional interest that this may imply (2008a). While supporting school children's literacy development in English with the right books is important, it is suggested that breadth and diversity should also be crucial if children are to be developed and extended as readers.

Third, picture book read-alouds should be conducted with Grade 1 students. Data indicate that elementary school EFL teachers surveyed often teach young learners at different grade levels. Only 30% of the EFL teachers surveyed taught one student/grade level. Seventy percent of them taught more than one student/grade level; 59% of them taught two consecutive or different grade levels, and 11% three grade levels (low-, intermediate- and high-grade levels), not to mention the fact that there are culturally and linguistically diverse English language learners at each grade level. However, the number of EFL teachers working with each grade is generally equivalent or similar: Grade 1 (32%), Grade 2 (29%), Grade 3(37%), Grade 4 (35%), Grade5 (34%), and Grade 6 (34%).

When teachers were asked to note the grade levels with which picture books were used, their self-reports show that picture books were most frequently used with Grade 4 (86%), Grade 5 (85%) and Grade 3 (84%) students, ranging in age from 9 to 11 years. They were also often used with Grade 6 (76%) and Grade 2 (72%) students. Only 50 % EFL teachers noted that they used picture books with Grade 1 students.

The data that suggest EFL teachers seldom used picture books with grade 1 students are of interest. Limited class time may be one of the major reasons because most Grade 1 and Grade 2 students have only two English classes each week. However, some famous picture books that feature alphabetics and phonics could be used with grade 1 and grade 2 students, who begin to learn to read and are expected to become familiar with the alphabetic principles. EFL teachers' self-reported use of picture books seems once again to correspond with the results of TRT that 20% of the EFL teachers recognized *Tomorrow's Alphabet* (written by George Shannon and illustrated by Donald Crews), 19% of them knew *Don't Forget the Bacon* by Pat Hutchins, and only 8% knew *Sheep on a Ship* (written by Nancy Shaw and illustrated by Margot Apple).

Last of all, essential components of reading instruction should be adequately addressed or reinforced when picture books are used with EFL children. EFL education at the elementary school level is a fundamental, complex and demanding process that involves learning multiple dimensions of a foreign language. By the *Grades 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines* promulgated by the Ministry of Education, elementary school EFL teachers are expected to conduct reading instruction in such areas as alphabetics (alphabetic principle, and phonological awareness), phonics, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, and much more. EFL teachers' self-reports indicate that a storybook can be used with children in different age groups and in many different ways, depending on when and how each read-aloud was conducted. Picture storybooks may be adopted as part of the regular EFL curriculum in some

schools, but most of them have been used with young EFL learners as a means of illuminating part of a textbook, or an interval between the regular teaching hours. According to the teachers interviewed, the picture books were frequently used in the first week when school started and children were just back to school or in the following week right after the mid-term or final examination when they were relatively tension-free.

In the realities of elementary school classrooms, EFL teachers work not merely with school children of different ages, but frequently with classes with very mixed levels. Teachers stressed that storytelling in class was shared social experience, which was not only enjoyable but could get mixed-leveled students involved. Picture storybooks frequently turned out to be used to provide variety and extra language practice in conjunction with the course books.

When the teaching objectives of the picture book read-alouds were examined, 36% (129 out of 355) teachers used picture books to teach vocabulary, 10% phonics, 11% fluency, 9% comprehension, and only 4% alphabetics. In addition, 17% taught sentence patterns and 7% taught grammar via picture book read-alouds. Only 4% used picture books as writing prompts. EFL teachers also considered other aspects of reading instruction. Fourteen percent of (49 out of 355) teachers in the survey used the storybooks to foster positive learning attitude toward English learning, and 35% (124 out of 355) teachers aimed at a general understanding toward such topics as gender, animals, food and drinks, colors, clothing, and body parts. Taken together, EFL teachers' self-reports seem to echo the results of TORP that the majority of EFL teachers were skills-orientated. While most EFL teachers may use picture books as a springboard for a wide variety of related language and learning activities, essential components of reading instruction, including alphabetics, vocabulary, phonics, fluency and comprehension, should be adequately addressed when picture books are used with young EFL learners.

Limitations and Implications

Some limitations of this study have implications for future research in this area. First, this study is cross-sectional in nature, recording and analyzing the theoretical orientation as well as content knowledge of a sample of 355 elementary school EFL teachers working in a metropolitan area of northern Taiwan at one specific point in time, between December 2012 and June 2013. Moreover, a high women-to-men ratio was also seen in the sample of the EFL teachers working in the metropolitan area where there were roughly 7 men per 100 women. The rather high percentage of female EFL teachers in elementary school may be common and attributed to a preference among women to seek teaching jobs, but we cannot determine

whether a small number of male EFL teachers are typical of male EFL teachers at the national level. If island-wide or national data could be collected, we hope to address whether the assessments designed for this study may be useful for detecting and mapping elementary school EFL teachers' theoretical orientations as well as content knowledge of reading instruction. Additional work is evidently needed to conduct a more comprehensive or a nationally representative study of elementary school EFL teachers' theoretical orientations and content knowledge of reading instruction.

In a related way, further work needs to be conducted on issues surrounding the assessment of picture book read-alouds in the EFL classroom context. Information about instructional practice designed to encourage the development of the five essential areas of literacy (i.e. phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency) would serve an important practical function to determine how EFL teachers use the picture books in the classroom context (Burgess et al, 2011). Additional work is needed to identify acceptable instructional practices for picture book read-alouds and specify the ways in which EFL teachers process texts and images with young EFL learners.

Further, researchers have found it important to track and investigate possible changes in teachers' belief about language teaching so that the findings can be more useful for the design and development of EFL teacher education programs (Borg, 2003; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Richardson 1990). DeFord (1985) has also indicated that most instructional programs fall along a continuum of practices rather than three distinct categories. Future research in this area had better target a sample, involving repeated observations of the same variables over long periods of time in order to understand the development and change of the same subjects in theoretical orientation toward reading instruction in a classroom practice or over an extended period of time.

Conclusion

We assumed that how teachers' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction would make a difference in how young EFL learners learned to read in the classroom context, and that EFL teachers' knowledge about picture books in particular would influence the read-alouds they conducted in class. The study confirmed this expectation. In this study we have extended and updated the established measure instruments to investigate elementary school EFL teachers' reading-related pedagogical content knowledge in the area of picture books, and attempted to understand how fine-tuned is their knowledge when applied for picture book read-alouds in the EFL classroom context in the urban area of northern Taiwan. The study

has also examined EFL teachers' theoretical orientations toward reading instruction as well as their familiarity with picture books, and their use of English picture books in the elementary EFL classrooms. It would be taken for granted that elementary school teachers are knowledgeable about children's books and their potential for reading instruction, but the study has found that such knowledge is far from consistent across the profession. The study has shown that elementary school EFL teachers are mainly skills-oriented in reading instruction, and that their recognition of children's books may not seem as wide or as diverse as the common assumption in terms of essential components of reading instruction (Chall, 1996; NICHD, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). There should be an extensive range of options of children's books for the EFL classrooms.

The *Grades 1-9 Curriculum Guidelines* promulgated by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan have set up clear and specific learning objectives and English proficiency index, and the English language has been introduced to elementary education for over a decade. Importantly, most children's attitudes to reading in English have undoubtedly influenced by policy, and EFL teachers' knowledge and practice with regard to children's books, though these are not the only factors contributing to children's reading. When the central and local governments put considerable stress on children's reading, there is good reason to consider what constitutes elementary school EFL teachers' expertise in the area of reading instruction or to help develop and sustain their knowledge of a wide range of children's books.

Elementary school EFL teachers may be divergent in their theoretical orientation toward reading instruction and approaches to picture book read-alouds, but they value the educational functions of the English picture books, recognizing them as a rich language resource**.** Picture book read-alouds have been regularly conducted in the EFL classroom context, and it seems a good time for EFL teachers and teacher educators to look afield for more titles and more types of picture books to introduce to school children to foster the development of English literacy. Teacher knowledge of the picture books that they use with young EFL learners needs to improve constantly throughout their teaching career.

Despite its limitations and other challenges, this study suggests the value of evidence-based research on elementary school EFL teachers' theoretical orientation toward reading and their knowledge of picture books. It also highlights the need for continued research and development in the service of enhancing EFL teacher reading-related pedagogical content knowledge which has enormous influence in English proficiency and reading habitus for young EFL children. Taken together, research in such areas as EFL teacher education and picture book studies, suggests implications for the design and practice of teacher training and

professional development in EFL teacher education. The ongoing research may well focus on how to provide sustained professional development and support for EFL teachers as they implement picture book read-alouds or literature-based instructional approaches in the EFL classroom context.

Acknowledgements

This study was sponsored by a grant from the National Science Council (NSC 101-2410-H-133-009). The author is indebted to the school principals and staff for their administrative support, and to all the EFL teachers invited for their participation in the project. The author also thanks Chii-Min Hwu for assistance with statistics, and two anonymous reviewers for comments that helped to improve the manuscript.

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Appendix Title Recognition Test Items

Item	% recognition	Item	% recognition
Title		Foil	
Alphabet City	45%	*Curious Jim*	4%
David Goes to School	83%	*Don't Go Away*	9%
Dear Zoo	80%	*From Head to Foot*	46%
Don't Forget the Bacon	19%	*He's Your Little Brother!*	6%
Granpa	8%	*Hide and Seek*	23%
Green Eggs and Ham	43%	*Hop Top*	15%
Handa's Surprise	33%	*It's My Room*	4%
If You Take a Mouse to School	34%	*Let's Play*	9%
Joseph Had a Little Overcoat	66%	*Sally Goes to School*	24%
Little Blue and Little Yellow	54%	*The Lost Shoe*	4%
Madeline	54%	*The Missing Letter*	8%
Mommy Doesn't Know My Name	44%	*The Rollaway*	2%
My Five Senses	57%	*The Small World*	4%
Rosie's Walk	64%	*Yes, Yes!*	16%
Seven Blind Mice	73%		
Sheep on a Ship	8%		
The Carrot Seed	49%		
The Paper Bag Princess	27%		
The Runaway Bunny	16%		
The Tunnel	23%		
The Very Hungry Caterpillar	96%		
Tomorrow's Alphabet	20%		
We're Going on a Bear Hunt	87%		
When Sophie Gets Angry---Really, Really Angry	44%		
Where the Wild Things Are	45%		

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Student Uptake of Teacher Written Feedback on Writing

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Abstract
Some research has shown direct written feedback to be more effective than indirect written feedback, while other studies have found the opposite to be true. Moreover, it has been suggested by some that the explicitness of feedback should be tailored to the type of problem it responds to, as some problems are more treatable than others. However, little research has been conducted to ascertain which types of feedback are more effective for which kinds of writing problems. This pilot study attempts to address this question. Comprehensive feedback was given to 41 Japanese university students on all writing problems encountered over a period of one semester. The types of feedback, kinds of writing problems and resulting revisions were categorized using a taxonomy designed for this purpose. The resulting revisions were then analysed using repeated measures ANOVA to ascertain which type of feedback is more effective for each kind of writing problem. It was found that while indirect feedback is effective for lexical problems and problems relating to essay structure, semi-direct feedback is more effective for meaning-level problems and problems relating to content whereas direct feedback is more effective for surface-level grammatical errors. These findings suggest that it would be best to provide direct corrections on surface-level grammatical problems, marginal comments or symbols for meaning-level problems and problems relating to content and to simply underline or highlight lexical problems and problems relating to essay structure. This paper will explain the research methods and results and will offer detailed conclusions and implications.

Introduction

There have been a significant number of studies investigating the effectiveness of written feedback on L2 writing. Most of the feedback studies to date have focused specifically on problems related to language use, often specifically on grammatical errors and sometimes on only one or two specific types of grammatical errors. It seems that writing teachers usually give feedback on not only language errors but also on problems related to organization and content simultaneously. While some studies (e.g. Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Hyland &

Hyland, 2001; Ferris, Pezone, Tade & Tinti, 1997) have examined feedback on meaning-focused issues, very few studies have incorporated both language-focused and meaning-focused issues in the field of second language writing. Furthermore, many of the more recent feedback studies in the field of L2 writing (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; 2010; Sheen, 2007; Sheen, Wright & Moldowa, 2009; Van Beuningen, De Jong & Kuiken, 2012) have involved students revising a single text after receiving feedback just once. It is unclear whether the same results would be found if these studies were continued over a longer period of time.

In giving feedback on students' writing, the usual goal is to improve students' ability to write in the long term, not simply to improve subsequent drafts of the same composition. That is; writing instructors hope to improve the processes learners use to write rather than just the final drafts of the essays they produce. However, it seems that before feedback can help students improve their writing skills, they need to use that feedback to revise their writing. A number of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers (e.g. Schmidt, 2001) have claimed that noticing is a necessary step for acquisition. The best way to know whether learners have noticed the problems in their drafts is to see whether they have revised them in the subsequent draft. If certain kinds of feedback on certain types of problems are ineffective in that they do not result in revision, it seems that it is not worthwhile for teachers to continue to give such feedback, as it is also unlikely to lead to improvement in writing ability.

The research questions of the present study are: 1) when students are given feedback on different kinds of writing problems simultaneously, which types of feedback result in revision attempts for which kinds of writing problems? 2) When students are given feedback on different kinds of writing problems simultaneously, which types of feedback result in more successful revisions?

Review of Literature

Analysis of the treatment of errors in students' writing and the subsequent revision by students has been investigated by a number of researchers in the field of second language writing (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chapin & Terdal, 1990; Conrad & Goldstein, 1999; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 1997; Ferris, 2006; Sachs & Polio, 2007). However, there are few studies that have looked at feedback on different kinds of writing issues in the second language context. In particular, there is a notable lack of studies on the effect of both feedback on language errors and feedback on global issues such as organization and content

in second language students' revisions. It has been suggested by Van Beuningen (2010) that focussing on grammatical accuracy alone is artificial because, in the context of a real writing class, comprehensive feedback would be more likely to be used.

Many maintain that teachers should give meaning-focused feedback on earlier drafts and refrain from giving language-focused feedback until the final draft because they are concerned that students will attend to form instead of developing their ideas, and that they cannot attend to different problems at the same time (Cohen, 1987; Sommers, 1982; Zamel, 1985). However, empirical evidence suggests that students can attend to both form and ideas at the same time (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1997; Wong, 2001). In addition, although it may be ideal to give feedback on different problems at different stages of the drafting process, realities such as overloaded curricula and lack of time may not allow for various rounds of teacher feedback. Furthermore, the more feedback a teacher gives, the more students will depend on teacher feedback while writing, whereas encouraging students to look for problems themselves and to engage in peer-review will foster more independence. Therefore, a teacher's motivation to increase learners' autonomy in their writing may make too many rounds of teacher feedback inappropriate in certain contexts.

In addition, many of the more recent studies have involved students receiving teacher feedback only one time (e.g. Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Fathman & Whalley, 1990). It is unclear whether students behaved differently in these kinds of studies than they would if the feedback had been a usual classroom activity. It has therefore been recommended that more longitudinal studies on the effect of feedback on writing should be carried out (Hyland, 2010; Van Beuningen, 2010).

The Value of Revision Studies

Although it has not been verified conclusively through research that uptake of feedback leads to language acquisition, as Mackay, Oliver and Leeman (2003) state, this does not mean that such a relationship does not exist. Researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have emphasised the importance of noticing the gap between one's current interlanguage and the target language for language acquisition (e.g. Schmidt, 2001). Many have argued that uptake of feedback indicates that a learner has noticed this gap and therefore has taken a step towards eventual acquisition (Chaudron, 1984; Ferris, 2006; Lightbown, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackay, Oliver & Leeman, 2003; Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Sachs & Polio, 2007). Furthermore, it would appear that whether the attempts to uptake feedback are successful or not is less relevant to the question of language acquisition than whether or not

an attempt is made because all revision attempts can be seen as both evidence of noticing and manifestations of hypothesis testing.

Taxonomies in L2 Revision Studies

Previously, several studies used taxonomies to categorise revisions. Faigley and Witte (1984) created a taxonomy to classify revisions, which included four different categories: Formal changes, meaning-preserving changes, microstructure changes and macrostructure changes. The four categories fell within two larger categories: Surface changes and meaning changes. This taxonomy, or aspects of it, has been used by others (Berg, 1999; Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Paulus, 1999; van Gelderen, 1997). The taxonomy created by Faigley and Witte is specifically for classifying revisions. The taxonomy used for the purpose of this study needed to classify the problems themselves, the feedback points, and the subsequent revisions.

More recently, Ferris (2006) used three separate taxonomies to classify feedback given by teachers, error types, and revision outcomes. These taxonomies only partially met the needs of this study because they included different types of grammatical and lexical problems but lacked categories for other types of writing problems such as organization and content. For this reason, a new taxonomy was created for the purpose of this study, to categorise the writing problems, feedback points, and resulting revisions. The classifications of revisions were taken from Conrad and Goldstein (1999), while the classifications of the types of writing problems and the kinds of feedback points were created specifically for this pilot study.

Findings of Revision Studies

According to Ferris (2002), one issue in the debate about feedback is whether students pay attention to the feedback they receive, either in their revisions or in subsequent writing. She states that "few studies of error correction have examined this issue directly by looking at preliminary student drafts and teacher feedback and then tracing the changes potentially attributable to that feedback in subsequent student writing" (pp. 13-14). Ferris (1997) found that 86% of comments on grammatical problems led to revision attempts. In another study by Ferris (2006), 90.7% of errors marked by teachers led to revision attempts.

Ferris and Roberts (2001) compared teacher feedback using codes (which will be termed 'semi-direct feedback' in this paper) to that using no codes (indirect feedback). They found that students made correct revisions 77% of the time when codes were used and 75% of the time when no codes were used. The difference between these two groups was not statistically

significant. They conclude that "…it may be adequate….to locate errors without labelling them by error-type." (Ferris and Roberts 2001: 177). On the other hand, Van Beuningen, De Jong and Kuiken (2012) found that a group who received direct feedback correctly revised 78% of their errors; while a group who received semi-direct feedback only correctly revised 64%.

It has been recommended by some (e.g. Ferris, 1999; Hendrikson, 1980) that the best approach is to combine direct and indirect feedback depending on error type. However, little research has been conducted to clarify exactly what would be the best type of feedback for each kind of error. Studies that specifically link student revisions to teacher feedback have been scarce, and longitudinal research on student uptake of teacher feedback has been virtually nonexistent. In the current pilot study, the different kinds of feedback were given to all the students in the study in order to ascertain which types of feedback lead to more revision attempts on which kinds of problems, and which types of feedback lead to more successful revisions on which kinds of problems. The teacher feedback was given five times over the period of one semester (12 weeks) and emphasised as an integral part of the writing course.

Methods

Participants

The participants in the present study were 41 Japanese university students in the English department of a foreign language university in central Japan. The students constituted two intact classes with the same writing instructor. In total there were 54 students in the two classes; however, three students successfully revised their texts based on every feedback point they received, and a further 10 students did not attempt to revise their drafts at all. In order to find out which types of feedback are more effective at eliciting successful revisions it is necessary that some feedback results in revisions and some does not. Therefore, these 13 students were excluded from this study, as they would not have added any additional information. All 41 students included in the study attempted to revise some points but not others. At the time of the study, the students were in the second half of their second year at the university. Their writing ability could be described as ranging from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate level.

Assignment

Earlier in their writing studies at the university, the students had written paragraphs and short

essays in a number of different rhetorical modes. The second half of the second year of their writing instruction entailed writing an extended research paper. The research papers of the participants in this study were typed using one and a half spacing and ranged in length from five pages to twelve pages. The average length in these two classes was eight pages, approximately 2,500 words. Students wrote the research paper in five sections. They wrote four drafts of each section, receiving written peer feedback on the first two drafts and written teacher feedback on the third draft. The data were collected from the third and fourth drafts of every section of this assignment.

Instrument

The taxonomy had three separate sections. The first one was used to classify the feedback itself in terms of its explicitness. The second one was used to classify the writing problems that received feedback. The third one was used to classify the revisions that resulted from the feedback.

Explicitness

The three different categories of explicitness were: direct feedback, semi-direct feedback and indirect feedback. Direct feedback was defined as any feedback that gave, or included, the exact revision word for word, so that the students could simply copy the information given by the teacher when they revise their text. For example, for a lexical error, if the feedback gave an appropriate word that could simply be used in place of the erroneous one, then it would be classified as direct. For a discrete grammatical error, if the correct form was given, exactly word for word as it should be used in the next draft, it would be classified as direct.

Semi-direct feedback was defined as any feedback that gave the students some clue as to what the problem was. Semi-direct feedback thus included a number of different kinds of feedback. Feedback which used any kind of symbol or code, comments that let students know what was wrong, questions and requests for more information were all classified as semi-direct feedback.

Indirect feedback was defined as any feedback that indicated where the problem was, without any clue as to what kind of problem it was. In almost every case, the indirect feedback consisted of parts of the text being underlined.

Writing Problems

The five different categories used to describe kinds of problems were: lexical, discrete

grammatical, communicative, structural and content. Lexical errors, as distinct from grammatical ones, are notoriously difficult to define. For the purpose of this study, lexical errors were defined as word choice, not word use. Any time a word chosen was out of context, it was classified as a lexical error. If there were any other problem with a word, it would be categorised as a discrete grammatical error.

Discrete grammatical errors were defined as any errors which had no effect on the communication of ideas but which were grammatically incorrect. The most common types of discrete grammatical errors were omitted or incorrect prepositions, omitted or incorrect articles, and incorrect verb forms. They were typically, but not exclusively, at the word level. In some instances, there were word order problems that did not impede the communication of ideas; therefore, some discrete grammatical problems were at the sentence level.

Communicative errors were defined as errors that impeded the communication of ideas. They were typically at the sentence level, such as multiple word order errors. Indeed, it is very difficult to define these errors since the message was not comprehensible. It seems that there often may have been multiple errors in one clause, leading to the breakdown of communication.

Structural problems were defined as problems with the organization, format or layout of the writing. Many of the structural errors were problems with the organization of ideas. For example, when details were given before more general information or when information was in the wrong section of the paper. Others were formatting problems, such as paragraphing, spacing and stylistic issues.

Whereas communicative problems were language errors which impeded the successful communication of ideas, content problems were defined as those in which the ideas of the essay themselves were considered to be problematic. For example, using facts that were clearly inaccurate or considering the topic based on cultural assumptions which do not necessarily hold true for people from other cultures. The most common content problem was expressing ideas in a vague way, with too little detail. Some instances of content problems also stemmed from faulty logic. An example of faulty logic is: “My best friend and I both like chocolate ice-cream the best. Therefore, chocolate ice-cream is the most popular in Japan.”.

Revisions

There were three different categories into which revisions, which resulted from the feedback, were classified, and determined by whether the student had attempted to revise based on the feedback or not and the success of that revision attempt: No attempt, unsuccessful attempt,

successful attempt. No attempt was defined as those parts of the essay which received feedback, but in which there was absolutely no change between the third and fourth drafts.

Unsuccessful revision attempts were defined as any change in the part of the text that received the feedback, in which there was no improvement between the third and fourth drafts although a revision had been made.

Successful revision attempts were defined as a change in the part of the text which received the feedback and in which there was an improvement between the third and fourth drafts. In some cases, only one feedback point was given when in fact two separate problems were present. It is unclear whether it is because the teacher failed to recognize that there were two problems or whether they simply failed to indicate this to the student. In this case, as it would have been extremely difficult for the student to recognize the two separate problems, when either one of the problems was revised and improved between the third and fourth drafts, it was classified as a successful revision attempt. Examples of each kind of feedback, each type of writing problem, and each revision outcome can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

Examples of problems, feedback and revision outcomes

	Category	**Example**
Feedback type	Indirect (Surface level problem)	*I asked five questions about their experiences and opinions <u>in</u> cram schools.*
	Semi-direct (Content problem)	*Therefore, I think that English is the most important subject for entrance exams.* (Comment: *For everyone? Or just for students that want to enter this school?*)
	Direct (Content problem)	*The data was collected over a period of one week during the second semester of ~~their universities.~~* (Comment: *2008*)
Kind of writing problem	Lexis (With indirect feedback)	*I asked my friends or acquaintances to <u>enlist</u> in this survey.*

	Surface level (With indirect feedback)	*Establishing good relationships with others is important to improve people's lives but it does not always bring them happy.*
	Meaning level (With semi-direct feedback)	*Especially, dog was pet as family by human so long time.* (Comment:?)
	Structure (With semi-direct feedback)	*To make it easy to understand I divided the results into two parts.* (Comment: *I don't think you need to do this.*)
	Content (With semi-direct feedback)	*People who answered my questions were 50 students at this university.* (Comment: *You need more information here. What kind of students were they? When and where did you ask them?)*
Revision outcome	No attempt (Structural problem with semi-direct feedback)	Draft 3: *(Hiromi, 2008)* (Comment: *Family name!)* Draft 4: *(Hiromi, 2008)*
	Unsuccessful attempt (Surface level problem with indirect feedback)	Draft 3: *Social networking services are well-known communicative tools in all over the world.* Draft 4: *Social networking services are well-known communicative tools among the world.*
	Successful revision (Surface level problem with indirect feedback)	Draft 3: *What kind of food is good for breakfast to eat?* Draft 4: *What kind of food is good for breakfast?*

Procedure

The taxonomy was set up on an excel spreadsheet. Photocopies of the third draft, with its written teacher feedback, and the fourth (and final) draft of each student's research paper were made. The third draft and fourth draft were laid out side by side in order to complete all sections of the taxonomy at the same time. Each category into which a particular feedback point was classified received the value '1' and other categories received the value '0'. Each feedback point necessarily fell into three categories and would therefore receive a '1' in three columns. The first '1' would show which type of feedback it was: indirect, semi-direct or direct. The second '1' would show what kind of problem the feedback related to; lexical, discrete grammatical, communicative, structural or content. The third '1' would show the result of the feedback point: no attempt, unsuccessful attempt or successful attempt.

The results of each student for all their feedback points in each category were averaged, so that each student had equal weight in the data regardless of how many individual feedback points they had received. All the scores are expressed as proportions, on a scale of 0 to 1.

Data Analysis

Repeated measures ANOVA analysis was used to ascertain whether there were any significant differences between the revision outcomes after receiving each type of feedback for each kind of problem. A significant result of less than 0.05 would indicate that there is a significant difference between the revision outcomes after receiving the different types of feedback for the same writing problem.

Results and Discussion

The number of feedback points received by each student over the 12-week semester ranged from 25 to 165. The average number of feedback points for an individual student was 86. In total, 3,525 feedback points were classified using the taxonomy. Of those, 10.2% (359) were direct feedback, 50.6% (1782) were semi-direct feedback and 39.3% (1384) were indirect feedback. Five point nine percent (209) of the feedback points were for lexical problems, 59.2% (2085) were for discrete grammatical problems, 5.9% (209) were for communicative problems, 19.2% (677) were for issues related to structure and 10.7% (375) were related to content. In total, 17.2% (605) of feedback points were ignored by students and the remaining 82.8% (2920) resulted in a revision attempt. Of the 2920 revision attempts, 17.7% (518) were unsuccessful and the remaining 82.3% (2403) were successful. Overall, 68.1% of feedback points led to a successful revision.

Lexis

This first part of the results section will look at revision attempts made by students after receiving different kinds of feedback on lexical problems. The descriptive statistics of revision attempts for lexical problems after receiving each type of feedback and the success of those attempts can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2

Revision attempts and success for lexical problems

Feedback type	Attempts	Success	Overall success rate
Indirect	0.6185 (0.4049)	0.7250 (0.2630)	44.84%
Semi-direct	0.4992 (0.4967)	1.0000 (0.0000)	49.92%
Direct	0.1441 (0.3527)	1.0000 (0.0000)	14.41%

n = 41

Repeated measures ANOVA was employed to determine whether there was any significant difference between the numbers of revision attempts made after receiving different kinds of feedback on lexical problems. The result, F (2) = 16.765, p = 0.000, was significant at the 0.05 level. Pairwise comparisons showed that the difference between indirect and semi-direct feedback was not significant (0.585), whereas the differences between indirect and direct feedback (0.000), as well as between semi-direct and direct feedback (0.001), were significant.

The number of revision attempts made after receiving feedback on lexical errors was not sufficient to ascertain whether the different kinds of feedback on lexical problems had any statistically significant effect on the number of successful revisions made in the subsequent draft. For lexical problems, direct feedback led to significantly less revision attempts than either indirect or semi-direct feedback. Therefore, it can be concluded that less direct feedback is more effective for lexical errors, although it does not make a difference whether the feedback is indirect or semi-direct. This corroborates a previous study by Ruegg (2009), which found that word choice was the only aspect of writing which appeared to improve through the continued use of indirect feedback.

Discrete Grammar

This part of the results section will look at revision attempts made by students after receiving different kinds of feedback on discrete grammatical problems. The descriptive statistics of revision attempts for discrete grammatical problems based on each type of feedback and the successful attempts made can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3

Revision attempts and success for discrete grammatical problems

Feedback type	Attempts	Success	Overall success rate
Indirect	0.8278 (0.1420)	0.7603 (0.1454)	62.94%
Semi-direct	0.8577 (0.1312)	0.8507 (0.1297)	72.96%
Direct	0.8753 (0.2395)	0.9824 (0.0548)	85.99%

$n = 41$

Repeated measures ANOVA was employed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the numbers of revision attempts made after receiving different kinds of feedback on discrete grammatical problems. The result, $F(2) = 0.873$, $p = 0.422$, was not significant at the 0.05 level.

Repeated measures ANOVA was also employed to ascertain whether the different kinds of feedback on discrete grammatical problems had any significant effect on the number of successful revisions made in the subsequent draft. A significant difference was shown: $F(2) = 46.266$, $p = 0.000$. Pairwise comparisons showed that direct feedback led to significantly more successful revisions than either semi-direct feedback ($p = 0.000$), or indirect feedback ($p = 0.000$). In addition to this, semi-direct feedback led to significantly more successful revisions than indirect feedback ($p = 0.002$).

When it comes to discrete grammatical problems, every feedback type leads to a high number of revision attempts. One possible reason for the high number of revision attempts after receiving direct feedback is that these revisions are comparatively easy to make. Although there was no significant difference between the number of revision attempts made, revisions made after receiving more direct feedback were significantly more successful than those made after receiving less direct feedback.

Bitchener and Knoch (2010) also found that direct feedback benefited learners more than less direct forms of feedback; however, their study only focussed on two particular functions of the English article system. This study shows that direct feedback on grammatical errors that do not impede the communication of ideas is also more beneficial in the context of comprehensive feedback.

Communication

This part of the results section will look at revision attempts made by students after receiving different types of feedback on communicative problems. This section only discusses two different types of feedback, semi-direct and indirect. This is because direct feedback cannot be given when the instructor cannot understand parts of the text. The descriptive statistics of revision attempts for communicative problems based on each type of feedback and the success of those attempts can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Revision attempts and success for communicative problems

Feedback type	Attempts	Success	Overall success rate
Indirect	0.4390 (0.4898)	0.6042 (0.4549)	26.52%
Semi-direct	0.7027 (0.3560)	0.6471 (0.3297)	45.47%

n = 41

Repeated measures ANOVA was employed to ascertain whether the difference between the numbers of revision attempts for the two types of feedback was significant; F (1) = 36.702, *p* = 0.000. Semi-direct feedback led to significantly more revision attempts than indirect feedback.

The number of revision attempts made after receiving feedback on communicative problems was not sufficient to ascertain whether the different kinds of feedback on communicative problems had any significant effect on the number of successful revisions made in the subsequent draft. These results indicate that when a part of a student text cannot be understood, it is useful to communicate this to students, by adding a symbol (such as a question mark) or a comment, rather than simply underlining the portion of text.

Structure

This part of the results section will look at revision attempts made by students after receiving

feedback on issues relating to essay structure. The descriptive statistics of revision attempts for issues relating to essay structure after receiving each type of feedback and the success of those attempts can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Revision attempts and success for structural problems

Feedback type	Attempts	Success	Overall success rate
Indirect	0.5751 (0.4401)	0.9218 (0.2389)	53.01%
Semi-direct	0.7267 (0.2959)	0.7766 (0.3199)	56.44%
Direct	0.6756 (0.4521)	0.9128 (0.2394)	61.67%

n = 41

Repeated measures ANOVA was employed to determine whether there was any significant difference between the numbers of revision attempts made after receiving different types of feedback on problems relating to essay structure, F(2)= 1.598, p = 0.209. This result is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Repeated measures ANOVA was also employed to ascertain whether the different kinds of feedback on issues relating to essay structure had any significant effect on the number of revisions that were successful. No significant difference was shown in the proportion of successful revisions made, F (2) = 2.079, p = 0.142.

Although indirect feedback is a great deal easier and faster for teachers to give than semi-direct and direct feedback, the extra time and effort required to give semi-direct or direct feedback may not be worthwhile since there is no significant difference between either the number of revision attempts made after receiving different types of feedback or the success of such revisions. Therefore, structural problems may be one area in which teachers could save time while simultaneously developing learners' autonomy by providing indirect feedback.

Content

This part of the results section will look at revision attempts made by students and the proportion of successful revisions after receiving feedback on content problems. The

descriptive statistics of revision attempts for content problems after receiving each type of feedback and the success of those attempts can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6

Revision attempts and success for content problems

Feedback type	Attempts	Success	Overall success rate
Indirect	0.2195 (0.4191)	0.5000 (0.7071)	10.98%
Semi-direct	0.6762 (0.2955)	1.0000 (0.0000)	67.62%
Direct	0.2073 (0.4027)	1.0000 (0.0000)	20.73%

n = 41

Repeated measures ANOVA was employed to find out whether there was any significant difference between the numbers of revision attempts made after receiving different types of feedback on problems relating to essay content, $F(2)= 18.858$, $p = 0.000$. This result is significant at the 0.05 level. Pairwise comparisons showed that there was a significant difference between indirect feedback and semi-direct feedback (0.000) as well as between direct feedback and semi-direct feedback (0.000), but not between indirect and direct feedback (1.000).

Semi-direct feedback on content problems led to more revision attempts than either direct or indirect feedback. In addition to this, 100% of revision attempts after receiving semi-direct feedback were successful. The semi-direct feedback constituted mostly comments, as it is difficult to use symbols or codes for issues related to content. One reason that direct feedback did not lead to as many feedback attempts as semi-direct feedback might be that the students felt the instructor was putting words in their mouths. As stated by Ashwell (2000), one disadvantage of direct feedback is the problem of teacher appropriation of student writing. This problem is particularly salient when it comes to feedback on content.

Conclusion

It has been suggested by many, such as Cohen (1987), Sommers (1982) and Zamel (1985) that feedback should be given on meaning-focused issues first and on grammatical, especially discrete grammatical problems, later in the writing process. In practice, it seems that few

writing instructors have time to give feedback on more than one draft of a piece of writing. In addition, limiting the use of teacher feedback to one draft and using more self-review and peer feedback increases learner autonomy in writing and may therefore be seen as preferable to repeated teacher feedback.

In this study, comprehensive teacher feedback was given on each section of the assignment, and yet the learners attempted to revise based on over 80% of all feedback they received from the teacher. This suggests that, even when given comprehensive teacher feedback on every problem found in writing, Japanese university students pay attention to the feedback they receive when revising their texts.

It has been stated that less direct feedback methods are superior to more direct methods because of the additional cognitive processing involved (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Lalande, 1982; Lyster, 2002 cited in Sheen, 2004). It would seem that when there is no significant difference between the different types of feedback, the less direct type should be used in order to encourage critical thinking skills and increase learner autonomy. In the results of this study, there was no significant difference between indirect feedback and semi-direct feedback on lexical problems. This suggests that indirect feedback may be the most efficient type of feedback for lexical problems. Simply underlining inappropriate words is also the quickest and easiest method of feedback for instructors. Additionally, there was no significant difference between the numbers of revision attempts made after receiving different types of feedback on structural problems. This suggests that indirect feedback can be used for structural issues, thus increasing learner autonomy and decreasing the burden on instructors.

On the other hand, for both communicative problems and content issues semi-direct feedback was significantly more effective than either indirect or direct feedback. This suggests that it is beneficial for students to be given clues as to what is problematic when it comes to communication of ideas and content related problems. Discrete grammatical problems were the only kind of writing problems in which direct feedback was found to be more effective than either indirect feedback or semi-direct feedback. This suggests that if the production of highly accurate written products is considered important by the teacher or the curriculum in question, the teacher should provide direct feedback on discrete grammatical problems.

Although some have suggested that direct correction is preferred by students (Leki, 1991), and others have claimed that only direct feedback provides enough information to lead to language development (Chandler, 2003; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010), it is interesting to note that direct feedback did not lead to significantly more revision attempts in any one of the

different kinds of problems. Thus, although students may state that they would prefer direct feedback, they do not appear to pay any more attention to direct feedback than to other, less direct forms of feedback.

Limitations

This study only included students from one particular educational institution, within one cultural and educational context. As such, these findings may not be generalisable to other student populations. Conducting a similar study with learners from different populations would provide valuable information.

The taxonomy used for this study was created for this study as no taxonomies existed which included all three aspects analysed in this study: (both language and meaning) problems, feedback types and revisions. If this taxonomy is to be used again, it would be beneficial to add more categories to it in order to create more detailed data.

In the category of problems, there were five problems: Lexis, discrete grammar, communication, structure and content. However, in practice the structure category encompassed more than just essay structure because other problems were found in the student writing that were not included in the taxonomy. In addition to essay structure, the 'structure' category included formatting and stylistic issues. It would be more accurate if an additional category were used for formatting and stylistic issues.

The category of feedback types included only three types of feedback: indirect, semi-direct and direct. This category also would benefit from being expanded if the taxonomy is to be used again. The category 'semi-direct' included feedback using symbols or codes in addition to comments that did not give an exact correction. Because students may react differently to symbols or codes than to comments, it would be preferable to increase this to two separate categories.

Increasing the existing 10 classifications to 12 would result in richer data, which would tell us more about the effect of different types of feedback on different kinds of writing problems.

Pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research

Based on the findings of this study, it would appear that the following suggestions may be a useful guide to limit the time required for teacher feedback, while at the same time maximising the effect on the final draft and allowing learners to keep their own voice: It may be best to provide indirect feedback, in the form of underlining, for word choice problems, as well as for problems related to essay structure, formatting and stylistic issues. It may be better to provide semi-direct feedback, in the form of symbols and short in-text comments, for

communicative problems and content issues. It seems necessary to provide direct feedback on discrete grammatical problems if a high level of grammatical accuracy is desired.

It has been recommended by some (e.g. Ferris, 1999; Hendrikson, 1980) that the best approach is to combine direct and indirect feedback depending on error type. However, previously little research had been conducted to clarify exactly what would be the best type of feedback for each kind of error. The results of this study suggest the feedback suggestions in the previous paragraph to be more effective than simply using the same type of feedback for all kinds of writing problems. An interesting avenue for future research would be to compare two groups of students, one of which receives the same type of feedback for all problems, while the other receives different types of feedback depending on the kind of writing problems encountered. Comparing two such groups longitudinally could verify the results of this study. Another possibility for future research would be to compare students who receive indirect feedback with others who receive direct feedback longitudinally and measure the extent to which the students become independent writers.

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Foreign Language Communication Anxiety (FLCA) among Tertiary Level Omani EFL Learners

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Abstract:

Foreign language learning is a complex and laborious process involving diverse constructs. Anxiety stands out as a factor which powerfully influences second language acquisition. Several studies have confirmed that one of the most anxiety-provoking activities in foreign language contexts is speaking. Further, research on Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) suggests that anxiety-related behavior differs from culture to culture. Therefore this article reports on a study that investigated the Foreign Language Communication Anxiety (FLCA) of Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level. It also investigated the relationship between FLCA and the following variables: gender, and self-perceived proficiency. Using a substantially modified version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), this study's instrument exclusively measures English language *communication* anxiety. The results indicate that Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level have General Anxiety in English Classes. They also suffer from evaluation anxiety and teacher anxiety more than from peer anxiety. The difference between male and female Omani students in the FLCA appears to be negligible. It is also evident from the results that self-perceived English language proficiency positively correlated with all anxiety types.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, foreign language anxiety, speaking anxiety

Introduction

Foreign language learning is a complex and laborious process involving such obvious factors as learner, teacher, and instructional materials. Less obvious factors are educational policies, course administration, teaching methods, learner objectives, extramural language exposure, learning centers and libraries (Al-Mahrooqi, Asante, & Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2012). The recognition of psychological elements at work in the process has added a further complicating factor since studies on individual learner differences identify anxiety as a powerful influence on second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005; Mohamad & Wahid, 2013).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) describe Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the (foreign) language learning process." (p. 128). This kind of anxiety, however, is difficult to define precisely as, being a psychological construct (Von Worde, 2003), it has a complex hierarchy of intervening variables and Dörnyei (2005) fully supports this view.

In the literature, scholars talk about state and trait anxiety. Foreign language anxiety, however, differs from state anxiety, which occurs temporarily and vanishes when the situation changes (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Spielberger & Vagg, 1995). It is also distinct from trait anxiety, which is a permanent personality characteristic. Those with a high level of trait anxiety tend to become generally anxious in any situation (Ellis, 2008). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), FLA differs from these types of anxieties and is classified as situation specific. It occurs uniquely in the foreign language learning context, being prompted by specific conditions such as public speaking or class participation (Ellis, 2008).

According to Horwitz et al. (1986), FLA has three components: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Communication apprehension refers to an uncomfortable feeling, a type of shyness, which we experience when making ourselves understood or in understanding others. It arises in foreign language learners from their awareness that total communication of mature thought is impossible due to limited language knowledge (Williams & Andrade, 2008). Thus it affects behavior, causing foreign language learners to avoid communication situations in which they might have to speak in groups or in public, or listen to and comprehend spoken messages.

Fear of negative evaluation has been defined by Horwitz et al. (1986:31) as "apprehension about others' evaluations." MacIntyre & Gardner (1991) add that it is manifested in learners' excessive worry about academic and personal evaluations of their performance and

competence in the target language. Learners master a foreign language by using the rule systems and through trial and error. However, for some, errors are a source of insecurity which triggers anxiety. Such students will avoid communication situations and in-class speaking activities as they feel that the errors they make while speaking the foreign language will earn a disapproving evaluation and hinder them from making a positive social impression on others. This behavior adversely impacts their language acquisition.

Test anxiety is a type of performance anxiety generated by fear of failure. Learners suffering from this set unrealistic performance targets for themselves – anything less meaning failure. Spoken language assessment for them can trigger both test and oral communication anxiety at the same time (Horwitz et al. 1986). Anxiety, then, has been accepted as having a negative impact on the different stages of foreign language acquisition and production (Horwitz et al., 1986; Tobias, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner 1991; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999).

Burden (2004) reminds us that learning a foreign language involves such cognitive processes as encoding, storage, and retrieval, which means that anxiety-prone learners must divide their attention between these processes and their reactions to anxiety. On the other hand, successful language learners can concentrate on a task and perform it well since they can curb their anxiety level.

Rationale of the Study

In the context of Oman, significant funding and resources are devoted by the ministries of both education and higher education to bolstering the education system. Yet classroom experience with tertiary-level students indicates that the returns under-represent the investment (Moody, 2009; Al- Mahrooqi et al. 2012). Focusing on student variables, therefore, is a worthwhile exercise as it may provide insight into deeper phenomena impeding the learning process.

Studies have confirmed that one of the most anxiety-provoking activities in the foreign language context is speaking (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; Aida, 1994). In fact, Williams and Andrade (2008) identify FLA as a truly major deterrent to fluent language acquisition and production. As FLA increases, overall grades are affected adversely (Brantmeier, 2005), and this may not be limited to beginners; often even experienced learners suffer from high FLA (Ortega Cebreros, 2004).

FLA with specific reference to speaking has certainly been identified as a problem confronting Omani EFL learners (Al Zadjali, 2008). The present researchers, who are also

EFL experts, have encountered several cases in which Omani students exhibit avoidance behavior – a confirmed sign of FLA when it comes to speaking activities in English. Hence, understanding the learners' emotional state and reasons that trigger anxiety is crucial for helping them to succeed in language learning.

This paper, therefore, primarily reports on levels of FLA during in-class speaking activities among Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level.

Significance of the Study

The study is primarily significant in two ways. First, since FLA research (Oxford, 2005) has suggested that anxiety-related behavior differs from culture to culture, this research is important in that it studies the FLA of Omani EFL learners on whom there is a dearth of published studies, especially at the tertiary level. Second, the instrument used in this study (adapted version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, et al. (1986)) has been modified to exclusively measure English language communication anxiety in Omani classrooms. The instrument was first constructed in English and after several stages of validation (Appendix 1: Validation process), the instrument was translated into Arabic for the sake of clarity and to avoid complexity resulting from students' difficulties with English. The findings are important for EFL instructors, giving them insight into how to introduce and conduct in-class activities, taking into consideration and alleviating the factors that elevate anxiety. EFL instructors can help students with high FLCA by scaffolding, encouraging, and appreciating their efforts.

Purpose of the Study

Horwitz (2001) insists that general FL anxiety might vary across cultural groups. Thus the purpose of the study was:

a) To determine which type of FLCA is predominant in Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level; and
b) To investigate the relationship between FLCA and two variables – *gender* and *self-perceived English speaking proficiency*.

Methodology

The study was quantitative in nature and the researchers used an extensive questionnaire as the main instrument for data collection.

Instrument

The instrument had three parts (Appendix 2a English Version; Appendix 2b Arabic Version):

Part A: Ten items (1 to 10) designed to elicit background information on the participants.

Part B: One item (item: 11) designed to discover participants' self-perceived English language proficiency levels since Mandeville (1993) mentions that Ayres (1986) found that speech anxiety is caused by students' perception of their own capacity for speaking. Allen (1997) suggests that if students know they are proficient in one aspect of language, then anxiety is markedly reduced.

Part C: This comprised a modified version of Horwitz's (1986) measure of language learning anxiety which is called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS).

This originally had 33 items on a Likert-type scale with five possible responses, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The modified version used in this study had 57 items (12 to 68) on a Likert-type scale with five possible responses, ranging from "always" to "never". While the original FLCAS investigated communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation, the modified version captures all the potential sources of anxiety in the speaking classes. Thus items were categorized under the following anxiety types:

General Anxiety in English Classes (7 items included, 12 to 18)
Speaking Anxiety (18 items included, 19 to 36)
Evaluation Anxiety (4 items included, 37 to 40)
Peer Anxiety (13 items included, 41 to 53)
Teacher Anxiety (11 items included, 54 to 64)
Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture (4 items included, 65 to 68).

All 33 items from the original scale were included in the FLCAS for the present study. Some were generic, measuring anxiety related to reading, writing, and listening along with speaking, and therefore the researchers modified them to elicit speaking anxiety specifically. For example:

> Original item: The more I prepare for a language test, the more confused I get.
>
> Modified item: The more I prepare for a speaking test, the more confused I get.
>
> Original item: I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

Modified item: I feel more tense and nervous in my speaking skills class than in my other English class.

Further, in view of the Omani context, some items were added under the anxiety types of Peer Anxiety, Teacher Anxiety and Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture. Thus the total number of items in the modified version of the FLCAS used was 57.

The instrument was first written in English and it went through different stages of validation by three EFL experts, before and after the translation into Arabic. The translation was also validated and checked by two native speakers of Arabic to ensure its faithfulness to the original text of the questionnaire. The validation process resulted in simplifying a few items by using more common communicative expressions than literal and classical ones. It was also piloted with 12 students from different General Foundation Program (GFP) levels. Only one question was slightly modified on the basis of feedback from participants in the pilot study.

Procedure

The questionnaire was administered during class hours in the respective classrooms of the participants, who were briefed about the study's purpose. The researchers were present throughout to clarify any uncertainties. Based on the pilot study feedback, half an hour was given to participants to answer the questions.

Participants

The population of the study comprised Omani EFL students enrolled for the academic year 2013- 2014 in the GFP of a higher education institution in Muscat. The sample was selected randomly from each of the three GFP levels. Out of a total of 436 students, 109 (25%) participated in the study. Out of the 109 participants, 40 were males and 69 were females.

Research Questions

The research focused on the following questions:

a) Which anxiety type is predominant in Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level in a foreign language classroom?
b) Is there a relationship between:
   i. FLCA and gender among Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level?
   ii. FLCA and the self-perceived oral proficiency of Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level?

Results and Discussion

The data obtained was analyzed using SPSS and means and standard deviations were calculated to answer the research questions.

Research Question One

Which anxiety type is predominant in Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level in a foreign language classroom?

As presented in Table 1, all the anxiety types received a mean ranging from 2.45 to 3.44. Anxiety Type 1, General Anxiety in English Classes (Mean = 3.44), and Anxiety Type 6, Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture (Mean = 3.44), stand out with equal and the highest means. A high level of General Anxiety among Omani EFL learners in English Classes is consistent with the findings of studies conducted by Horwitz et al. (1986); Aida (1994); Casado and Dereshiwsky (2001); and Lui (2006) and Al-Zadjali (2008). A high level of Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture is justified. Burns (2010) adds that EFL learning in Oman is not well supported by such local conditions as the absence of an adequate English-speaking environment. Moreover, the degree of incongruity between the Arabic language and culture and English language and culture potentially inhibits motivation and learning (Al-Mahrooqi & Asante, 2010; Burns, 2010). Arabs naturally love their own language (Parker, 1986) as it is inextricably linked to their identity and religion (Altwaijri, 2004). Total immersion in English language and culture may be perceived as a threat to their identity.

Table 1

Grand Means and Standard Deviations of all the Anxiety Types in Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

No	Anxiety Type	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	General Anxiety in English Classes	109	0	3.44	0.568
2	Speaking Anxiety	109	0	3.14	0.739
3	Evaluation Anxiety	109	0	3.27	0.676
4	Peer Anxiety	109	0	2.69	0.988
5	Teacher Anxiety	109	0	3.24	0.693
6	Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture	109	0	3.44	0.897

Anxiety Type 3, Evaluation Anxiety (Mean = 3.27) received the second highest mean. It is apparent that the majority of the Omani EFL learners have high levels of test anxiety and worry about doing well in assessments, a finding consistent with the results of studies conducted by Al-Zadjali, (2008) and Mathew et al. (2013). Anxiety Type 5, Teacher Anxiety (Mean =3.24) is also high. This finding marginally conflicts with the moderate level of Teacher Anxiety indicated by the results of Al-Zadjali's (2008) study, the primary reason perhaps being that her sample population consisted of Omani EFL learners at the school level where course-books are task-based leaving little scope for interaction between learner and teacher. At the tertiary level, communicative approaches to teaching and learning are encouraged, one aspect of which is more interaction between learner and teacher.

Anxiety Type 2, Speaking Anxiety (Mean = 3.14), is also on the high side. Speaking a foreign language and being confident about it are two interrelated challenges for any EFL learner.

Anxiety Type 4, Peer Anxiety (Mean = 2.69), ranks lowest. This could be attributed to the fact that when learners belong to the same culture they understand each other's struggles and are thus nonjudgmental. This curbs peer anxiety to a large extent.

The following Tables 2-7 show the descriptive statistics of the items in each anxiety type on the English as a Foreign Language Anxiety scale.

Anxiety Type 1: General Anxiety in English Classes

Table 2

Mean and Standard Deviations of the Learners' General Level of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety in EFL Classes.

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I get upset when I am not able to understand what is taught in the English class.	109	0	3.57	1.1
2	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the teacher says in the English class.	109	0	3.41	1.249
3	In the English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know.	107	2	4.02	0.921
4	I worry about being left behind in the English class.	109	0	3.84	1.164
5	I feel relaxed in the English class.	104	5	3.38	1.035

6	I don't understand why some students hate the English class.	108	1	2.84	1.348
7	During the English class I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	108	1	2.62	1.125

The above Table 2 displays the means and standard deviations of the seven items under Anxiety Type 1 (General Anxiety in English Classes) on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). Since the grand mean of this anxiety type is high (3.44), it shows that Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level are very anxious in English classes in general. The seven items in this anxiety type assess the level of anxiety that Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level experience in English classes. The items received means ranging from 4.02 to 2.62. Item 1 (In the English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know) received the highest mean. This was expected. According to the researchers' own experience, a large majority of students are weak in English and hence feel nervous in class, which further leads them to forget things that they may otherwise know.

Item 7 (During the English class I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course) received the lowest mean which is 2.62. This indicates that Omani EFL learners are aware of the importance of learning English and are attentive in class, a finding which echoes those of a study conducted by Mathew et al. (2013).

Anxiety Type 2: Speaking Anxiety

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviations for the Learners' Level of Speaking Anxiety

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I speak English in class.	108	1	3.31	1.131
2	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in the English class.	106	3	2.88	1.247
3	I hate the English speaking in-class activities.	106	3	2.59	1.256
4	I don't like to attend classes where I am required to speak English.	109	0	2.54	1.288
5	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in class.	109	0	3.05	1.15
6	While speaking I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	109	0	3.52	1.206
7	Even if I am well prepared for the speaking class, I feel anxious about it.	109	0	3.3	0.977
8	I often feel like not going to my speaking class.	109	0	3.53	1.143

9	I feel confident when I speak English in class.	108	1	2.33	1.23
10	I feel my heart pounding when I am called on to participate orally in class.	108	1	3.56	1.035
11	I feel under pressure to prepare very well for speaking activities in class.	109	0	3.24	1.096
12	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	109	0	3.2	1.129
13	I feel more tense and nervous in my speaking class than in my other English classes.	109	0	3.67	1.072
14	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	107	2	3.1	1.157
15	When I'm on my way to the speaking class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	106	3	2.97	1.117
16	I get nervous when the teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared for in advance.	105	4	3.7	1.102
17	Whenever I want to speak in English, I worry about how I will sound to others.	109	0	3.1	1.247
18	I feel nervous because I cannot pronounce English words properly.	109	0	3.14	1.481

The above Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations of learners' levels of speaking anxiety. The grand mean of all the items in this anxiety type is 3.14, indicative of a high level of anxiety. The 18 items in this anxiety type received a mean ranging from 3.67 to 2.54. Item 13 (I feel more tense and nervous in my speaking class than in my other English classes) received a mean of 3.67, which is the highest in this anxiety type and consistent with a study by Al Zadjali (2008) on Omani EFL learners at the secondary level. To explain this finding further, when anxiety affects input, retrieval, and output levels, learners not only acquire less but find it difficult to demonstrate even what they have learnt. Simensen (2007) noted that many learners feel that as they speak a foreign language their own personality is reduced. Campbell and Ortiz (1991) considered the level of language anxiety to be "alarming", even among university students. Item 4 (I don't like to attend classes where I am required to speak English.) received the lowest mean, i.e. 2.54, which indicates that Omani EFL learners are in general motivated to attend the English class where speaking is involved even though they feel tense and nervous about speaking there.

Anxiety Type 3: Evaluation Anxiety

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviations for the Learners' Level of Evaluation Anxiety

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I don't worry about making mistakes while speaking English in class.	109	0	3	1.08
2	I am usually at ease during speaking tests.	107	2	3.07	1.012
3	I worry about the consequences of failing in speaking activities/tests.	108	1	3.6	1.143
4	The more I prepare for a speaking test, the more confused I get.	109	0	2.88	1.207

Table 4 reflects the means and standard deviations of learners' levels of evaluation anxiety. The grand mean of all the items in this anxiety type is 3.27, indicative of a high level of evaluation anxiety. The four items under this anxiety type received means ranging from 3.6 to 2.88. Item 3 (I worry about the consequences of failing in speaking activities/tests) received the highest mean at 3.6. This confirms that evaluative situations in class are an evident source of anxiety, a finding supported by several studies (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Pite, 1996; Ando, 1999; Madsen, 2006; Al Zadjali, 2008; Mathew et al, 2013).

A Saudi male EFL learner, as cited in Tseng (2012), said, "I feel more anxiety in the class because it is more formal but out of class I don't feel stress, talk to my friends, not afraid of mistakes". Such expressions are a direct indication of the fear of being negatively evaluated in a formal classroom environment rather than peer anxiety. Maclntyre and Gardner (1991) said that higher levels of anxiety seem to be closely linked to early negative experiences in speaking courses.

Item 4 (The more I prepare for a speaking test, the more confused I get) received the lowest mean (2.88) under this anxiety type, indicating an acknowledgement by learners that their efforts towards preparation do eliminate anxiety to some extent.

Anxiety Type 4: Peer Anxiety

Table 5

Mean and Standard Deviations for the Learners' Level of Peer Anxiety

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I keep thinking that the other students are better at speaking English than I am.	109	0	3.39	1.347
2	The presence of proficient students in the English class makes me very nervous while speaking.	109	0	3.15	1.366

3	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	109	0	2.89	1.39
4	Having a large number of students in the speaking class makes me very nervous.	108	1	3.16	1.382
5	The presence of the opposite gender makes me very nervous in the speaking class.	108	1	2.89	1.43
6	I do not feel at ease to participate orally in class because I am embarrassed to make mistakes in front of the female students.	106	3	2.85	1.161
7	I think female students will make fun of me if I make a mistake when speaking.	109	0	2.57	1.25
8	I do not feel at ease to participate orally in class because I am embarrassed to make mistakes in front of the male students.	109	0	2.78	1.301
9	I think male students will make fun of me if I make a mistake when speaking.	107	2	2.6	1.331
10	I feel that my peers will laugh at me when I speak in class.	108	1	2.48	1.286
11	I feel I will not be popular among my male classmates if I participate much in class.	107	2	1.69	1.004
12	I feel I will not be popular among my female classmates if I participate much in class.	106	3	2.03	1.291
13	I would feel uncomfortable if my classmates are allowed to give me feedback on my oral performance.	108	1	2.85	1.237

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of learners' levels of peer anxiety. The grand mean of all the items in this anxiety type is 2.69, indicative of a relatively moderate level of peer anxiety. The 13 items under this anxiety type received means ranging from 3.39 to 1.69. Item 1 (I keep thinking that the other students are better at speaking English than I am) received a mean of 3.39, which is the highest in this anxiety type. Ando (1999) states that fear of being inferior to peers is one of the major anxiety-provoking factors. Further, Neer (1982) argues that peer comparisons do indeed contribute to speech anxiety since worrying students do not like to be compared to an excellent speaker. This is a call for instructors to strategically instill self-confidence in their students where speaking English is concerned.

Item 4 (Having a large number of students in the speaking class makes me very nervous) received the second highest mean (3.16) in this anxiety type. Neer (1982) argues that speaking in front of a large class is an especially anxiety-provoking situation.

Item 11 (I feel I will not be popular among my male classmates if I participate much in class) received the lowest mean (1.69). As reflected earlier, peer anxiety is low among Omani EFL students at the tertiary level. This is perhaps due to the fact that students are grouped by language proficiency level so they are more or less of comparable language ability, which

means they all make mistakes of a similar nature and number. In addition, the Omani society is communal, which encourages cooperation and consideration of other people's feelings. Hence, classmates often feel a kinship-like relationship with one another.

Anxiety Type 5: Teacher Anxiety

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviations for the Learners' Levels of Teacher Anxiety

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the English language class.	109	0	3.56	1.228
2	If my English teacher is an Arab, he will not make fun of me if I make a mistake.	107	2	3.21	1.318
3	If my English teacher understands Arabic he will understand why I make mistakes in speaking.	109	0	3.71	1.204
4	It frightens me when my teacher points at me to answer.	105	4	3.11	1.138
5	I don't feel comfortable when the teacher is a native speaker of English.	109	0	3.03	1.397
6	I am afraid that my teacher would correct every mistake I make while speaking.	109	0	2.5	1.214
7	I am afraid that my teacher will make fun of me if I speak wrong English.	109	0	2.82	1.389
8	I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking.	109	0	4.09	1.102
9	I feel the teacher will dislike me if I speak wrong English.	107	2	2.66	1.266
10	I would be nervous speaking English with my teacher who is a native speaker.	108	1	3.1	1.238
11	I am hesitant to speak with my teacher in class.	106	3	3.05	1.174

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations of learners' levels of teacher anxiety. This anxiety type received a grand mean of 3.24, which is on the high side. The 11 items in this anxiety type received means ranging from 4.09 to 2.5. Item 8 (I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking) got the highest mean in this anxiety type. This indicates that Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level are very conscious of being corrected by their teachers, a finding that contradicts those in the study conducted by Al Zadjali (2008) on Omani EFL learners at the school level. Maybe at the tertiary level learners see themselves as adults and are thus very conscious of the teachers' reaction to their mistakes. Item 3 (If my English teacher understands Arabic he will understand why I make mistakes in speaking) received the second highest mean in this anxiety type at 3.71. This is an

expected finding as students would be comforted by the fact that their bilingual teacher would understand the mistakes they make since the teacher has command over both languages.

Item 6 (I am afraid that my teacher would correct every mistake I make while speaking) received the lowest mean in this anxiety type at 2.5. This shows that teachers perhaps do not correct every mistake made by students, but that some students still feel some discomfort and anxiety due to fear of being corrected frequently by the teacher while they speak. While frequency of error correction seems to matter, one has to note that, more than the frequency of being corrected by the teacher, it is the teacher's reaction to the mistakes made by students while speaking that most affects Omani EFL learners.

Anxiety Type 6: Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to the English Culture

Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviations for the Learners' Levels of Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture

No	Items	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	I worry about sounding impolite when I speak in English.	109	0	2.89	1.397
2	I am not familiar with the culture of English speaking countries, so I do not know how to express myself appropriately.	109	0	3.02	1.147
3	Whenever I want to speak in English, I worry about how I would sound to others.	109	0	3.17	1.29
4	I rehearse a lot before I say anything in English because I don't want to sound rude.	109	0	3.99	1.118

Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations of learners' levels of anxiety due to lack of exposure to English culture. This anxiety type received a grand mean of 3.44. The four items in this anxiety type received means ranging from 3.99 to 2.89. Item 4 (I rehearse a lot before I say anything in English because I don't want to sound rude) received a mean of 3.99, which is the highest in this anxiety type. This shows that students are very careful not to make mistakes that might cast them in a bad light in terms of politeness. Omani higher education students are well known for being polite and considerate, and hence they care about sustaining this image in front of their teachers. In addition, they are well-known for their respect for their teachers, so they are careful not to offend them. Item 1 (I worry about sounding impolite when I speak in English) received a mean of 2.5, which is the lowest in this anxiety type. While this seems to contradict the result for item 4, it really does not.

Because students rehearse before speaking to avoid sounding rude, they become more confident that they will not sound impolite when speaking.

The Ten Highest-Ranking Items:

It might be worthwhile to examine the ten highest-ranking items from all the anxiety types put together as this will provide us with insight into which individual items related to communication anxiety received the highest means regardless of the overall mean of the anxiety type they belong under. According to their means, the following are the ten highest-ranking items:

Table 8

Items with Highest Ranking

N	Items	Anxiety Type Number	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	SD
61	I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking.	5	109	0	4.09	1.102
14	In the English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know.	1	107	2	4.02	0.921
68	I rehearse a lot before I say anything in English because I don't want to sound rude.	6	109	0	3.99	1.118
15	I worry about being left behind in the English class.	1	109	0	3.84	1.164
56	If my English teacher understands Arabic he will understand why I make mistakes in speaking.	5	109	0	3.71	1.204
34	I get nervous when the teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared for in advance.	2	105	4	3.7	1.102
31	I feel more tense and nervous in my speaking class than in my other English classes.	2	109	0	3.67	1.072
39	I worry about the consequences of failing in speaking activities/tests.	3	108	1	3.6	1.143
12	I get upset when I am not able to understand what is taught in the English class.	1	109	0	3.57	1.1
28	I feel my heart pounding when I am called on to participate orally in class.	2	108	1	3.56	1.035

It is clearly noticeable that none of the above items is from Anxiety Type 4 (Peer Anxiety), whereas all the other Anxiety Types (1, 2, 3, 5, and 6) are represented in the above table. Item 61, under Anxiety Type 5 (I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking), is rated with the highest mean (4.09). Being conscious of the teacher is a finding that is confirmed by several other studies (Jones, 2004; Tseng, 2012). Adult learners are very conscious of the evaluative role that the teacher plays in class. Even if the teacher does not explicitly correct mistakes, it is difficult for adult learners to endure a perceived high degree of inaccuracy in their speech. Item 14 from Anxiety Type 1 (In the English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know) received the second highest mean at 4.02. The apprehension consequent of fear of negative evaluation is a factor that leads to learners forgetting while speaking about the things that they already know. Whenever they anticipate that they are unable to express a particular point completely, they display avoidance behavior or "end up being quiet and reticent, contrary to their initial intention to participate" (Jones, 2004, p. 31). Item 68 under Anxiety Type 6 (I rehearse a lot before I say anything in English because I don't want to sound rude) received the third highest mean at 3.99. This is an expected finding as the cultural difference between the learners and target language speakers appeared to be an important anxiety-producing factor in previous studies (Jones, 2004; Tseng, 2012). As cited by Tseng (2012) an Omani female EFL practitioner stated, "It is cultural aspect that you 'lose face' if you say the wrong things".

The ten lowest-ranking items:

The ten lowest-ranking items from all the anxiety types put together. According to their means, the following are the ten lowest- ranking items:

Table 9

Items with Lowest Ranking

N	Item	Anxiety Type Number	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	SD
16	During the English class I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	1	108	1	2.62	1.125
49	I think male students will make fun of me if I make	4	107	2	2.6	1.331

	a mistake when speaking.					
21	I hate the English speaking in-class activities.	2	106	3	2.59	1.256
47	I think female students will make fun of me if I make a mistake when speaking.	4	109	0	2.57	1.25
22	I don't like to attend classes where I am required to speak English.	2	109	0	2.54	1.288
59	I am afraid that my teacher would correct every mistake I make while speaking.	5	109	0	2.5	1.214
50	I feel that my peers will laugh at me when I speak in class.	4	108	1	2.48	1.286
27	I feel confident when I speak English in class.	2	108	1	2.33	1.23
52	I feel I will not be popular among my female classmates if I participate much in class.	4	106	3	2.03	1.291
51	I feel I will not be popular among my male classmates if I participate much in class.	4	107	2	1.69	1.004

Predictably, 5 out of 10 items in the above table belong to Anxiety Type 4 (Peer Anxiety). This clearly indicates that Omani culture, being collective, cooperative and rich in oral tradition, essentially curbs peer anxiety among learners when it comes to speaking.

Research question 2:

Is there a relationship between:

a. FLCA and gender among Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level?
b. FLCA and the self-perceived oral proficiency of Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level?

a. There appears to be a negligible difference in the FLCA between male and female Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level as shown in Table 10. Mathew et al, (2013) confirmed in a study on Omani students that there is no significant difference in the level of anxiety between males and females where evaluation is concerned. Both genders rated Anxiety Type 1 (General Anxiety in English Classes) as the highest. Peer Anxiety (Anxiety Type 4) is the lowest for both genders.

Table 10

Anxiety Types and the Average Mean by Gender (40 males and 69 females)

Anxiety Types	Gender	
	Male	Female
	Mean	*Mean*
General Anxiety in English Classes	3.43	3.45
Speaking Anxiety	3.10	3.16
Evaluation Anxiety	3.08	3.38
Peer Anxiety	2.48	2.81
Teacher Anxiety	3.13	3.30
Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to English Culture	3.30	3.52

b. It is clear that the Omani EFL learners who rated their self-perceived English language proficiency as 'very bad' and 'bad' have more anxiety under all the anxiety types as shown by the means of each anxiety type. Self-perception is related to self-esteem and is strongly linked to language anxiety. Individuals who have high levels of self-esteem are less likely to be anxious than those with low self-esteem (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Table 11

Anxiety Types and the Average Mean by Self-Perceived Proficiency

Anxiety Types	Self -Perceived Proficiency				
	Very Bad	Bad	Average	Good	Very Good
	Mean	*Mean*	*Mean*	*Mean*	*Mean*
General Anxiety in English Classes	4.00	3.88	3.41	3.25	3.20
Speaking Anxiety	4.00	3.81	3.14	2.71	3.00
Evaluation Anxiety	3.50	3.31	3.21	3.36	3.20
Peer Anxiety	3.50	3.19	2.81	2.11	2.60
Teacher Anxiety	4.00	3.56	3.24	2.96	3.40
Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to the English Culture	4.00	3.81	3.60	2.93	3.00

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study aimed to examine the level of foreign language classroom anxiety, with specific reference to speaking, among Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level. It also investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and the following variables: gender, self-perceived proficiency, and actual language level.

The study findings reveal that Omani EFL learners at the tertiary level are very anxious in speaking classes due to a lack of exposure to English culture. The level of anxiety resulting

from fear of a teacher is higher than their level of evaluation anxiety. The highest-ranking item (I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking) clearly is linked to teacher-associated anxiety. Overall, peer anxiety is low, with the lowest-ranking item being "I feel I will not be popular among my male/female classmates if I participate much in class."

There is a negligible difference in the levels of foreign language anxiety between male and female learners at this level. However, regardless of gender, those who rated their self-perceived English language proficiency as ranging from 'very bad' to 'bad' have more anxiety than others. This is shown by the mean of each anxiety type. Another important finding is that the level of anxiety is not related to the actual GFP level of these Omani learners.

Since these Omani learners feel anxious in the classroom, as this study found out, the researchers propose some recommendations for classroom practice. Exposing students to English culture through literature, movies, festivals and other language and cultural media and forms should be included in the curriculum. Besides, periodic total immersion programs could also be designed. This could be done by utilizing the Internet as a powerful and resourceful media outlet to encourage students to practice speaking independently and inside the classroom. For example, Skype could be used to connect Omani English schools online with schools in countries where English is spoken as a first language. Also, native speakers (expatriates working in Oman, or studying Arabic at different institutions in the country) can be partnered with certain schools, classrooms or students to practice speaking with them live or via chat rooms. The researchers of this study have observed that learners participate enthusiastically in discussions of current events or topics that interest them. One of the most immediate ways to ease anxiety is to "make the message so interesting that students forget that this is in another language" (Krashen in Young, 1991: 433). Omani students love to debate controversial issues related to Oman, such as issues related to traditions, health and education. Eliciting topics of interest from students that are connected to these areas is likely to encourage them to talk freely without feeling anxious about language mistakes.

To curb teacher-related anxiety, teachers should be sensitized towards the Omani culture and the pattern of anxiety displayed by learners as a whole. They should take care to provide individual or discreet feedback to learners and this should be constructive rather than destructive. Teachers should also use their sense of humor intelligently as it could have adverse effects on anxiety- prone learners. While emphasizing that learning is a process where making mistakes is inevitable, teachers should step down from being the epitome of

perfection. It will reduce learner anxiety towards them if they move away from being 'a sage on stage' to being 'a guide at the side' (King, 1993). They should share with learners their own struggles as a student and the strategies they employed for success. In one way or another, teachers should also emphasize lifelong learning as a way of life.

Since Omani EFL learners have low peer anxiety, teachers should scaffold anxiety-prone students through pair or group work until they are ready for individual presentations. Peer tutoring is also an option which, as the present researchers have found, helps boost self-esteem and alleviate anxiety (Fudge, 1998; Margolis, 2005; Topping, 1996).

Making students comfortable in EFL classes should be a priority for achieving teaching and learning outcomes. Avoiding activities which involve competitiveness, or which threaten learners' self-esteem, is always important and especially so in the case of Omani tertiary level EFL learners. Among the topics students feel uncomfortable with are those related to issues banned by their religion or that involve discussing intimate relationships as this is unacceptable in their culture. Perhaps eliciting topics that interest them is a good way to decide on discussions that could take place.

The literature mentions a host of strategies that can reduce anxiety. Among these are some strategies relating to teacher behavior. According to Karakas, "The primary role in reducing speaking anxiety belong(s) to the teachers who organize, conduct the tasks and evaluate students' performance" (2012, n.d.). Therefore, he suggests raising teachers' awareness of the importance of establishing good rapport with students, accepting them as individuals, tolerating their mistakes, and creating a supportive and positive classroom environment. The activities teachers design should also take account of students' interests and be suitable for their level of language proficiency. In addition, teachers should not push their students to talk when they are not ready and should use methods like The Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia eclectically to reduce students' anxiety (Richards & Rogers, 2001, as cited in Ibid). Cutrone (2009) also places the onus on teachers to reduce communication anxiety in their classrooms by being aware of its existence and consequences and by not reacting to it negatively so as not to exacerbate it. He also urges foreign teachers to learn the students' cultural code to know what speaking situations or topics might increase their anxiety levels. Moving away from an evaluation paradigm to a paradigm of genuine care about students as people has also been suggested by researchers such as Stevick (1980), William and Burden (1997) as reported by Cutrone (2009). Hence, it is vital for teachers to take the center stage to help students reduce their affective filter and help them cope with anxiety-inducing situations in the EFL classroom.

Limitations

The findings are based on self-reporting by the participants, which may be subject to the characteristic limitations of self-reporting. There is also a possibility that participants felt embarrassed about answering questions related to psychological matters and hence, to save face, underrated their anxiety. A combination of questionnaires, focus group discussion and observations could provide more reliable data.

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Appendix 1

Validation Process of the Instrument

Stage 1: Three professors, two native speakers and one non-native speaker (Arab), who are EFL experts, reviewed the first draft of the FLCA questionnaire. This version was created by the authors adapting the FLCA Horwitz's et al. (1986) measure of language learning anxiety which is called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The accuracy, clarity, and relevance of anxiety themes and items under each theme were evaluated.

Stage 2: Changes recommended by the validators in the first version were incorporated in the second version.

Stage 3 The second version was translated into Arabic by a professional translator.

Stage 4: The translated version was reviewed and validated by a bilingual EFL expert.

Stage 5: The Arabic version of the instrument was piloted with 12 EFL learners.

Stage 6: The instrument was finalized with inputs from the pilot session.

Appendix 2 a

English Version of the Modified Instrument

Dear Students,
You are requested to fill in the information required in this questionnaire, which is part of a research study. All your responses shall be treated with confidentiality and will be used for research purpose only. Your time and honest feedback is greatly appreciated by the researchers.

Part A: Background Information:
Read the following statements. Put a tick (√) where applicable.

1. Gender: Male □ Female □
2. Year of Birth:
3. Are you working or doing your own business? Yes □ No □
4. Region you belong to: Ad Dakhiliyah □ Ad Dhahirah □ Al Batinah North □ Al Batinah South □ Al Buraimi □ Al Wusta □ Ash Sharqiyah North □ Ash Sharqiyah South □ Dhofar □ Masqat □ Musandam □
5. School: Private □ Public □
6. Education: General education □ Basic education□
7. Did you study any Optional English Skills courses at school?
   Yes □ No □
8. If yes, which level of the course did you complete :
   Optional English Skills level 1□
   Optional English Skills level 2 □
9. Current GFP **English** level:
   GFP English Level 1 □
   GFP English Level 2 □
   GFP English Level 3 □
10. In which level of **English** were you placed in GFP according to the Placement Test at the time of admission to college :
    GFP English Level 1 □
    GFP English Level 2 □
    GFP English Level 3 □

Part B: Self- perceived Oral Proficiency:

11. What is your self-perceived proficiency level in English language?

Very Bad □ Bad □ Average □ Good □ Very Good □

Part C: English Language Anxiety
Read the following statements. Put a (√) tick where you feel is appropriate.

No.	Statements	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
	1.General Anxiety in English Classes					
12.	I get upset when I am not able to understand what is taught in the English class.					
13.	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the teacher says in the English class.					
14.	In the English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know.					
15.	I worry about being left behind in the English class.					
16.	I feel relaxed in the English class.					
17.	I don't understand why some students hate the English class.					
18.	During the English class I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.					
	2. Speaking Anxiety					
19.	I never feel quite sure of myself when I speak English in class.					
20.	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in the English class.					
21.	I hate the English speaking in- class activities.					
22.	I don't like to attend classes where I am required to speak English.					
23.	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in class.					
24.	While speaking I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
25.	Even if I am well prepared for the speaking class, I feel anxious about it.					
26.	I often feel like not going to my speaking class.					
27.	I feel confident when I speak English in class.					
28.	I feel my heart pounding when I am called on to participate orally in class.					
29.	I feel under pressure to prepare very well for speaking activities in class.					
30.	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.					
31.	I feel more tense and nervous in my					

	speaking class than in my other English classes.					
32.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.					
33.	When I'm on my way to the speaking class, I feel very sure and relaxed.					
34.	I get nervous when the teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared for in advance.					
35.	Whenever I want to speak in English, I worry about how I would sound to others.					
36.	I feel nervous because I cannot pronounce English words properly.					
	3.Evaluation Anxiety					
37.	I don't worry about making mistakes while speaking English in class.					
38.	I am usually at ease during speaking tests.					
39.	I worry about the consequences of failing in speaking activities/tests.					
40.	The more I prepare for a speaking test, the more confused I get.					
	4.Peer Anxiety					
41.	I keep thinking that the other students are better at speaking English than I am.					
42.	The presence of proficient students in the English class makes me very nervous while speaking					
43.	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.					
44.	Having a large number of students in the speaking class makes me very nervous.					
45.	The presence of the opposite gender makes me very nervous in the speaking class.					
46.	I do not feel at ease to participate orally in class because I am embarrassed to make mistakes in front of the female students.					
47.	I think female students will make fun of me if I make a mistake when speaking.					
48.	I do not feel at ease to participate orally in class because I am embarrassed to make mistakes in front of the male students.					
49.	I think male students will make fun of me if I make a mistake when speaking.					
50.	I feel that my peers will laugh at me when I speak in class.					

51.	I feel I will not be popular among my **male** classmates if I participate much in class.					
52.	I feel I will not be popular among my **female** classmates if I participate much in class.					
53.	I would feel uncomfortable if my classmates are allowed to give me feedback on my oral performance.					
	5.Teacher Anxiety					
54.	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the English language class.					
55.	If my English teacher is an Arab, he will not make fun of me if I make a mistake.					
56.	If my English teacher understands Arabic he will understand why I make mistakes in speaking.					
57.	It frightens me when my teacher points at me to answer.					
58.	I don't feel comfortable when the teacher is a native speaker of English.					
59.	I am afraid that my teacher would correct every mistake I make while speaking.					
60.	I am afraid that my teacher will make fun of me if I speak wrong English.					
61.	I am always conscious that the teacher might over-react to my mistakes while speaking.					
62.	I feel the teacher will dislike me if I speak wrong English.					
63.	I would be nervous speaking English with my teacher who is a native speaker.					
64.	I am hesitant to speak with my teacher in class.					
	6. Anxiety due to Lack of Exposure to the English Culture					
65.	I worry about sounding impolite when I speak in English.					
66.	I am not familiar with the culture of English speaking countries, so I do not know how to express myself appropriately.					
67.	Whenever I want to speak in English, I worry about how I would sound to others.					
68.	I rehearse a lot before I say anything in English because I don't want to sound rude.					

Appendix 2 b

Arabic Version of the Modified Instrument used for the Study

أعزائـــي الطلاب :

يعد هذا الاستبيان جزء من دراسة بحثية، وبالتالي نرجو منكم تزويدنا بالمعلومات المطلوبة. كما أننا نحيطكم علمًا بأنه سيتم التعامل مع جميع المعلومات التي ستدلون بها بمنتهى السرية وسيتم استخدامها لأغراض البحث فقط.
مقدرين لكم وقتكم وشفافيتكم في الاجابة على جميع الاسئلة.

الجزئية (أ): المعلومات الأساسية:

1. **الجنس** □ذكر □ أنثى
2. **سنة الميلاد:**
3. **هل تعمل ؟** □نعم □ لا
4. **لأي محافظة تنتمي.؟ الداخلية □ الظاهرة □ شمال الباطنة □ جنوب الباطنة □ البريمي □ الوسطى □ شمال الشرقية □ جنوب الشرقية □ ظفار □ مسقط □ مسندم □**
5. **لقد تلقيت تعليمي في مدرسة :** □ خاصة □ حكومية
6. **نظام التعليم في المدرسة التي بها درست:** □ تعليم عام □تعليم أساسي
7. **هل درست أي من مادتي مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية الاختياريتين في المدرسة؟** □نعم □ لا
8. **إذا كانت إجابتك السابقة بنعم، فأي من المستويات التالية أكملت؟**
   - □ مستوى (1) لمادة مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية الإختيارية
   - □مستوى (2) لمادة مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية الإختيارية
9. **المستوى الحالي لمادة <u>اللغة الإنجليزية</u> في البرنامج التأسيسي:**
   - □المستوى الأول
   - □المستوى الثاني
   - □المستوى الثالث
10. **في أي مستوى من مستويات <u>اللغة الانجليزية</u> في البرنامج التأسيسي العام تم تصنيفك بعد إمتحان تحديد المستوى الذي قدمته خلال مرحلة القبول للكلية؟**
    - □ المســتوى الأول في اللغة الانجليزية في البرنامج التأسيسي
    - □ المســتوى الثاني في اللغة الانجليزية في البرنامج التأسيسي
    - □ المســتوى الثالث في اللغة الانجليزية في البرنامج التأسيسي

الجزئية (ب): الإدراك الذاتي للكفاءة الشفهية:

11. **كيف تقيم مستوى كفاءتك الشفهية في اللغة الإنجليزية؟**

سيء جدا□ سيء □ متوسط □ جيد □ جيد جدا □

الجزئية (ج) : قلق تعلم للغة لانجليزية:

م	العبارة	دائما	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا
	1. القلق العام في محاضرات اللغة الانجليزية					
12.	أشعر بالإستياء عندما أعجز عن فهم المادة التي يتم تدريسها باللغة الإنجليزية.					

13.	أشعر بغضب عندما لا أستطيع فهم كل كلمة يقولها المعلم في مادة اللغة الإنجليزية					
14.	أشعر بالإستياء عندما أنسى معلومة أعرفها ونسيتها في محاضرة مادة اللغة الإنجليزية.					
15.	أشعر بقلق من قلة معرفتي وفقر خلفيتي باللغة الإنجليزية.					
16.	أشعر بالراحة في محاضرة اللغة الإنجليزية.					
17.	لا استطيع فهم سبب عدم حب الطلاب لمادة اللغة الإنجليزية.					
18.	أثناء محاضرة اللغة الإنجليزية، أجد نفسي أفكر في أشياء لا علاقة لها بالمحاضرة					
2.	قلق التحدث					
19.	ليس لدي الثقة الكافية للحديث باللغة الإنجليزية في المحاضرة.					
20.	أشعر بالإحراج قبل التطوع للإجابة في المحاضرة.					
21.	لا أحب الأنشطة التي تتطلب حديثي باللغة الإنجليزية.					
22.	لا أحب حضور المحاضرات التي تتطلب مني الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
23.	أشعر بالإرتباك عندما يُحال إلي سؤالًا باللغة الإنجليزية.					
24.	أشعر بالقلق عندما أتفاجئ بسؤال بدون الإعداد المسبق له.					
م	العبارة	دائما	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا
25.	عندما أتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية أشعر بإرتباك يجعلني أنسى المعلومات التي كنت أعرفها.					
26.	حتى لو كنت مستعدًا مسبقًا للحديث باللغة الإنجليزية ،أشعر بالقلق حيال ذلك.					
27.	دائمًا أشعر بأني لا أرغب في حضور دروس التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
28.	أشعر بالثقة عندما أتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية في المحاضرة.					
29.	أشعر بالقلق عندما يطلب مني معلم المادة للحديث الشفهي.					
30.	أشعر بضغط عندما يتطلب مني الأمر الإستعداد للتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.					

31.	أجد صعوبة في الإلمام بكافة قواعد اللغة الإنجليزية التي يجب أن أراعيها عند الحديث بهذه اللغة.					
32.	أشعر بالتوتر والقلق في محاضرة التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية أكثر من باقي المحاضرات.					
33.	أشعر بالقلق والتشويش عندما أتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية في المحاضرة.					
34.	عندما أكون في طريقي للمحاضرة أشعر بالثقة والإرتياح.					
35.	أشعر بالغضب عندما يوجه معلم المادة لي سؤالًا لم أعد له سابقًا.					
36.	أشعر بالقلق من نبرة صوتي وأنا أتكلم الانجليزية وكيف ستبدو للأخرين.					
3.	قلق التقييم					
37.	لا أشعر بالقلق أثناء وقوعي في الخطأ عند التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية في القاعة الدراسية.					
38.	عادة أشعر بسهولة في تقديم إختبارات التحدث.					
39.	أشعر بالقلق بشأن العواقب المترتبة على الفشل في أنشطة أو اختبارات الحديث.					
40.	كلما حضرت مسبقًا لإختبار المحادثة كلما زادت ربكتي في الحديث.					
4.	القلق من مهارات الزملاء					
41.	أقارن قدرات الآخرين بقدراتي وكونهم الأفضل في الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
م	العبارة	دائما	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا
42.	وجود طلاب بارعون في الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية يجعلني أقلل من شأني وقدراتي كثيرًا.					
43.	أخشى من سخرية الآخرين مني أثناء حديثي باللغة الإنجليزية وإرتكاب الأخطاء.					
44.	احتواء الصف على عدد كبير من الطلاب يجعلني قلق جدًا.					
45.	وجود الجنس الآخر يجعلني قلقًا بشكل أكثر.					

46.	أنا لا أشعر بالراحة عند الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية أثناء المحاضرة ؛ لأني أشعر بالحرج من ارتكاب الأخطاء.					
47.	أعتقد أن الزملاء سيسخرون مني في حالة وقوعي في الخطأ.					
48.	أنا لا أشعر بالراحة عند المشاركة شفويا في الصف لأنني أشعر بالحرج من إرتكاب الأخطاء أمام الزملاء الذكور.					
49.	أعتقد أن الطلاب الذكور سيسخرون مني في حالة الوقوع في الخطأ.					
50.	أشعر أن زملائي سيضحكون إن أخطأت عند الحديث في المحاضرة.					
51.	أشعر أني لن أكون محبوبًا بين زملائي الذكور إذا شاركت كثيرًا في المحاضرة.					
52.	أشعر أني لن أكن محبوبًا بين زميلاتي الإناث إذا شاركت كثيرًا في المحاضرة.					
53.	ساشعر بعدم الإرتياح إذا وجهت لي ملاحظات مباشرة عن أخطائي في الحديث.					
5.	القلق من معلم المادة					
54.	ما يثير خوفي هو عدم قدرتي على فهم المعلم عندما يتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
55.	إذا كان معلم المادة عربيًا، لن يسخر من أخطائي اللغوية في اللغة الإنجليزية.					
56.	لو كان معلم المادة عربيًا،سيدرك سبب وقوعي في الأخطاء أثناء الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
57.	يربكني عندما يقوم المعلم بتوجيه الأسئلة لي مباشرةً.					
58.	لا أشعر بالإرتياح عندما تكن اللغة الأم للمعلم هي اللغة الإنجليزية.					
59.	أخشى من تصحيح المعلم لأخطائي أثناء حديثي باللغة الإنجليزية.					
م	العبارة	دائما	غالبا	أحيانا	نادرا	أبدا
60.	أخشى من الوقوع في أخطاء تجعل المعلم يسخر من حديثي الخاطئ باللغة الإنجليزية.					
61.	أدرك جيدًا أن المعلم يسعى جاهدًا لتعديل					

	أخطائي وتزويدي بالفائدة لتطوير مهاراتي في التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
62.	أشعر أن المعلم سيقوم بتجاهلي إن أخطأت في التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.					
63.	يزداد قلقي حين أتحدث اللغة الإنجليزية إذا كانت لغة معلم المادة الأم هي اللغة الإنجليزية.					
64.	أتردد في الحديث مع معلم المادة في القاعة الدراسية.					
6. القلق بسبب عدم الإطلاع على الثقافة الإنجليزية						
65.	يقلقني عدم المامي بأساليب الحديث المناسبة لأنني أخشى أن يتم اعتباري غير مهذب.					
66.	لست مطلعًا على ثقافة البلدان الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية ؛ لذا لا أستطيع التعبير عن نفسي بشكل مناسب.					
67.	عندما أود التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية ، أكون قلقًا من نبرة الصوت وكيفية ايصال الحديث للآخرين.					
68.	أحاول أن أحضر كلامي وأرتبه قبل النطق به على الملأ ؛ حتى لا أبدو غير مهذب.					

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

The Relationship between the Effectiveness of Vocabulary Presentation Modes and Learners' Attitudes: Corpus Based Contextual Guessing, Dictionary Use, and Online Instruction

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Abstract

The aim of this study was two-fold. Firstly, it attempted to investigate the effectiveness of vocabulary presentation modes: i) Corpus Based Contextual Guessing; ii) Dictionary Use; and iii) Online Instruction on the vocabulary development of EFL learners' recall and retention. The second purpose of the study was to compare the learners' success of recalling and storing the target vocabulary with their attitudes towards these presentation modes. For this purpose, a pre-test and two recall post tests and an attitude questionnaire were administered to learners. One-way ANOVA indicated that the Corpus Based Contextual Guessing was the most effective presentation mode for learning and storing new vocabulary, yet it was the least favored one for both developing their cognitive skills and affective factors.

Keywords: corpus based contextual guessing, dictionary use, learners' attitudes, online instruction, vocabulary presentation modes

Introduction

The importance of vocabulary acquisition has been widely emphasized by the researchers throughout the world (Nation, 1993 and 2001; Wang, 2007; Blewitt, Rump, Shealy, & Cook, 2009 and Jordaan, 2011). Research on the field of language skills (Coady, 1993 and Rott, 1999) report that, rather than solely focusing on grammar rules, adequate and appropriate vocabulary acquisition leads to effective communication. As Schmitt (2010) noted, "learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books" (p.4). Foreign/second language research indicates that readers use a variety of strategies when they encounter new words while reading a foreign language (FL) text (Harley & Hart, 2000; Paribakht, 2004; Qian, 2004). Consulting a dictionary for the meanings of these words, writing them down for further consultation with a teacher, ignoring them, or attempting to infer their meaning from context are some of these strategies learners apply (Harley & Hart, 2000). Among these strategies, Dictionary Use (hereafter DU) and guessing strategies are widely used. However, there is still a gap in the literature about the most effective way or ways of vocabulary acquisition. Carter (1998) points out that "it is difficult to draw precise lines to suggest when a move from key-word techniques, or translation in pairs, or from using a monolingual or bilingual dictionary to context-based inferential strategies, is best instituted…" (p.213). While some researchers emphasize the disadvantages of the DU, the others encourage Contextual Guessing (hereafter CG) for a better vocabulary acquisition or vice versa. For instance, Knight (1994) claims that DU slows learners' reading comprehension though it can enhance the accuracy and precision of the meaning of unknown words. Both immediate and delayed tests scores of Knight's (1994) study indicate that learners who consult a dictionary for unknown vocabulary learned more words than those who did not. On the other hand, Rhoder & Huerster (2002) claim that it is not easy for learners to build a suitable context for an unknown word depending on dictionary definitions since dictionaries generally give decontextualized meaning.

Besides widely used strategies of consulting a dictionary or contextual guessing, using computer technology has become popular. In order to promote language learning in general, vocabulary acquisition in particular, computers and software programs have been integrated into language classrooms (Ünaldı, Bardakcı, Akpınar & Dolas, 2013). The role of Computer Assisted Language Learning (hereafter CALL) has been the focus of language learning research for a long time. Researchers such as Bowles (2004), Groot (2000) and Tozcu & Coady (2004) have investigated the advantages and disadvantages of CALL in vocabulary investigation. However, research in this field is still in its infancy particularly in terms of comparing the effect of various strategies. In order to fulfill the gap in the field, this study

compared the effect of three different strategies: i) Corpus Based Contextual Guessing (hereafter CBCG), ii) Dictionary Use (DU) and iii) Online Instruction (OI) on vocabulary acquisition and retention.

Different than the previous studies comparing the effect of various types of vocabulary instruction and presentation modes on vocabulary acquisition (Ali, Mukundan, Ayub & Baki, 2011) or the studies solely investigating learners' learning attitudes (Ali, Mukundan & Baki, 2012), this study combined these two important issues in the same experiment. While the main purpose of the study was to explore the most effective vocabulary learning strategy for the learners, a secondary purpose was to reveal learners' learning attitudes regarding their experiences and preferences on the use of methods. More specifically, it attempted to identify their implicit anticipatory evaluation (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) in terms of their feelings of accomplishment (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) after they were exposed to the use of the CBCG, the DU (English-English) and the OI in learning vocabulary. Finally, the study discussed whether any relationship exists between the effectiveness of the presentation modes and learners' attitudes towards these modes.

Review of Literature

Contextual Guessing

Words frequently appear in texts and language learners make use of information given in the text to decode the meaning of unknown words (Gaskins, 2004). Oxford (1990) defines contextual guessing strategies as linguistic and nonlinguistic guessing which are commonly used to infer the meaning of unfamiliar words. Language learners establish the meaning of a new word with the help of semantic (word meaning) or syntactic knowledge (grammatical arrangement of words/rules) and immediate text (one or two words before or after). The knowledge of context, text structure, and general world knowledge (Oxford, 1990) are the other strategies applied by the learners to decode the meaning of unfamiliar words.

Scholars such as Nation (2001) and Parel (2004) emphasize the importance of guessing from context in vocabulary learning and improving reading skills among the other sources of vocabulary learning. They also emphasize a direct relationship between successful communication in ESL/EFL, inferencing and contextual guessing in terms of the vocabulary acquisition. According to Nation (1993 and 2005), the vocabulary range necessary for lexical guessing has been estimated to be between 2000 to 3000 words which are the most frequently used vocabulary items in the English language. More recently, according to Hu & Nation

(2000) and Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe (2011), for an accurate reading comprehension of a text 8,000- to 9,000-word family vocabulary is needed.

Inferencing or contextual guessing depends on the contextualization since it is directly related to global understanding of longer pieces of discourse which enables the comprehension of the context. The positive effect of contextual guessing on vocabulary development have been supported by the researchers such as Redouane (2004), Lo (2004), and Gao (2012). Redouane (2004), for instance, compared the impact of the guessing-from-context strategy with a word-list strategy in learning and retention of French words of university level learners. He found out that guessing-from-context strategy had a facilitating role in recalling and long-term retention of French words. Similarly, Lo (2004) aimed at investigating the effect of lexical inferencing on junior high school students' vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. He also observed the types of knowledge sources and contextual cues the students used. The findings of his study found that the learners who were instructed in lexical inferencing performed better in vocabulary and reading comprehension tests than those who were not. Additionally, Frazer (1999) and Nagy, Herman & Anderson (1985) claim the positive effect of contextual guessing on long-term vocabulary acquisition. Particularly, Gao (2012) supports the idea that there is a direct relationship between the mental effort in processing a word and recalling it.

Besides the above literature about the advantages of contextual guessing or inferencing for vocabulary acquisition there are opposing ideas of some scholars particularly in terms of long-term retention and recall. For instance, several researchers (Nation, 1982; Lynn & Posnansky, 1977; Jenkins, Matlock, & Slocum, 1989) claim that there is not a significant difference between contextual vocabulary learning and learning new vocabulary in isolation or in context-free word lists. In another study, Wang (2011) focused on the problems in inferring the meanings of vocabulary from context. For instance; Ünaldı et al. (2013) compared the contextualized, decontextualized and corpus-informed vocabulary instruction in Turkish context. According to the results, decontextualized learning group's scores were significantly higher mean in the post-test when compared to the other two groups. Surprisingly, the group which was treated with contextualized vocabulary activities made the least progress. Finally, İstifçi (2009) examined lexical inferencing of Turkish EFL learners. In her study, she investigated inferencing strategies the Turkish EFL learners at intermediate and low-intermediate levels use when they attempt to guess the meaning of unknown words and the similarities and differences between these two levels.

Corpus Based Context

A corpus is defined in many ways by linguists. For example, Tognini – Bonelli (2001) defines the term corpora as "a collection of texts assumed to be representative of a given language put together so that it can be used for linguistic analysis" (p.2). In a corpus, naturally-occurring language, with the aim of representing "larger chunks of language", is selected according to a "specific typology" (Tognini – Bonelli, 2001). More precisely, Sinclair (2005) defines corpus as "a collection of pieces of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of data for linguistic research"(p.16). According to Baker, Hardie & McEnery (2006), "corpora are usually large bodies of machine-readable texts containing thousands or millions of words" (p.48). Nowadays corpora are used for different literary and linguistic studies or translation practice by lexicographers and computational linguists. It is rather a new tool for language teachers particularly for vocabulary instruction. Though it does not offer any method or technique about what to teach or how to teach, it provides hundreds of texts which can be used for finding vocabulary in context from newspaper to academic texts. There are different types of corpora (written vs. spoken, diachronic vs. synchronic, plain vs. annotated, monolingual vs. multilingual) and the texts are categorised and specified as the subcorpora (e.g. according to genre, register, style, etc). In other words, corpora enable the teachers to present vocabulary appropriately and to point out to students' examples of various usages.

The most well-known and largest English language corpora are American National Corpus (22 million words), British National Corpus (100-million-word text corpus), Corpus of Contemporary American English (425 million words), Bank of English (650 million running words). In this particular study, texts for the CG were chosen from Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

Dictionary Use

When language learners encounter unknown vocabulary items, one of the vocabulary learning strategies is dictionary use (Nation, 2001; Nation & Meara, 2010). Schofield (1999) suggests that because the DU leads the learner to have a deep processing of information about a new word- its spelling, its part of speech, its inflections and so forth-, it facilitates retention. One of the most widely discussed areas about the DU is the role of printed dictionaries and electronic dictionaries on vocabulary retention. What is suggested in some studies (Sharpe, 1995; Nessi, 2000; Chiu & Liu, 2013) is that easily extracted information from electronic

dictionaries may result in forgetting them very soon due to the shallow processing of looking up words. However, in their research, Osaki, Ochiai, Iso & Aizava (2003) claim that dictionary types do not affect word retention.

The use and usefulness of dictionaries have always been an on-going controversial issue. In some studies (Aizawa, 1999 and Laufer, 2011), the researchers identified a non-significant correlation between the DU and vocabulary learning and retention while reading. These studies deal with the comparison of the use and non-use of dictionaries. Despite these researchers' views, there is also substantial evidence for the efficacy of the DU in vocabulary retention (Neubach & Cohen, 1988; Luppescu & Day, 1993 and Cho & Krashen, 1994). Since there are different views about this issue, there is still a gap in the literature for understanding the contribution of dictionary use to vocabulary retention.

In addition, language researchers and educators hold diverse views about whether bilingual or monolingual dictionaries enhance vocabulary learning. While some studies (Luppescu & Day, 1993 and Knight, 1994) support the contribution of bilingual dictionaries in foreign language learning, others (Underhill, 1985 and Boggard, 1991 as cited in Chen, p.59) encourage the use of monolingual dictionaries.

Online Instruction

The use of computer technology has been placed in the mainstream of teaching and learning vocabulary. There have been several studies conducted on teaching vocabulary through CALL in a variety of applications. CALL has been used and investigated in vocabulary instruction in several modes of application; such as specially designed softwares, multimedia or hypermedia contexts, online dictionaries, concordancers and the OI. Mainly, these studies have searched for comparing the effects of CALL application in vocabulary retention by language learners with the ones of traditional and paper-based activities.

As well as the variety of the methods, the results of CALL studies on vocabulary instruction have revealed diversity. While some of these studies (Bowles, 2004; Groot, 2000 and Kang, 1995) displayed no advantage of CALL application, researchers such as McCreesh (1986); Tozcu & Coady (2004) found out positive results of CALL application in vocabulary teaching. Using CALL in vocabulary instruction can be useful for language learners as they see the words or phrases in a wide context illustrated by the visuals with special software. Language learners might be more inclined to learn vocabulary through technology. However, using CALL in vocabulary instruction may require specially designed software that can be applied with a specific financial budget and experts in the field. Moreover, in language

classrooms not all teachers and learners may find it interesting and easy to integrate CALL in vocabulary instruction. Son's (2001) review about CALL and vocabulary learning suggests that "more research is needed to find out the effects of lexical CALL on manifold aspects such as implicit and explicit learning of vocabulary and comprehension" (p.27).

Along with the development of technology, using online learning management systems are also becoming significant since "students who already digitally manage their lives with cell phones and instant messaging also try to manage education digitally" (Langdon & Taylor, 2005, p.1). For example, Al-Jarf's (2007) study has compared the achievement of active and inactive participants of an online course system according to their exposure to the OI. In addition to in-class instruction, the teacher also uses an OI tool, Nicenet. The results showed that students who are actively participating in the OI have gained more achievement in vocabulary learning and there were positive effects of the OI on students' attitudes towards the OI and the vocabulary course.

CALL studies have generally been conducted through databases or specially designed software. However, there is a lack of research on the OI using course management system in teaching vocabulary and comparing the OI with other vocabulary learning modes as in the case of this study. Considering the literature about the relationship between vocabulary acquisition and presentation modes, this study aims at filling this gap by comparing three vocabulary learning modes (CBCG, DU and OI). More specifically, this study aims at finding out answers for the following research questions.

Research Questions

1. Is there any significant difference among the vocabulary presentation modes of CBCG, DU and OI on the vocabulary development of EFL learners' recall and retention?

2. What are the learning attitudes of EFL learners towards the vocabulary presentation modes of CBCG, DU and OI?

3. Is there any relationship between EFL learners' vocabulary development and their learning attitudes after exposure to vocabulary presented through CBCG, DU and OI?

Methodology

Participants

Seventy-six (13 male and 63 female) students participated in this study. They were all native speakers of Turkish majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Foreign Languages Education Department at a Turkish state university. They were first-year students of intermediate level and their ages ranged between 19-20 years. The participants had been studying English for 7-8 years when the study was conducted. The study employed purposive sampling. Samples were selected based on the judgment that they are typical or representative of the population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). To determine participants' homogeneity, a pre-test designed by the researchers was administered before the instruction process. The study took place in the "Lexical Competence" course as part of their syllabus in the academic year 2012/2013. Participants were randomly assigned to three presentation modes. 25 students were assigned in the OI group, 26 students were assigned in the DU group and 25 were assigned in the CBCG group out of 120 first year students. Students who attended the in-class training regularly were selected as the subjects for the CBCG, the DU and the OI. Additionally, in the OI group, the students who were actively involved in the online system were particularly selected.

Instrumentation

Immediate recall and delayed recall tests

After determining the target words through a pre-test design, three presentation modes were applied in three different groups by the three instructors who were also the researchers. Students were asked to complete them as carefully as possible and informed that these tests would not be used as part of their course grade. They were informed about the research and their consents were taken. However, the nature of the study was not mentioned until after all instruments had been administered and collected, so as not to affect the results inappropriately.

The immediate recall test was given at the end of the instruction processes during one class session. Two weeks later, the learners received the delayed recall test. The participants were asked to give Turkish translations or English equivalents of the target words. Each correct answer was scored as 1 point. The highest score the participants get is 20 points. The same format and scoring procedures were used in both of the post tests.

Attitude Questionnaire

A questionnaire designed by Ali et al. (2012) (see Appendix II) was used to find out FL learners' learning attitudes on vocabulary presentation modes of the CBCG, the DU and the OI. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part A was concerned with demographic information of the subjects. Part B related to vocabulary learning attitudes. It consisted of 14 closed-ended items. Items numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11 related to the effect of presentation modes on learners' cognitive ability in terms of their attitudes of developing vocabulary learning strategies and skills. Items numbered 8, 9, 12, 13, 14 evaluated affective factors which related to the learner's emotional state, motivation and attitude towards the presentation modes.

A five-point Likert scale of strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4) and (5) strongly agree was used. The alpha coefficient reliability was measured as 0.925 which indicates a high level of reliability (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). The validity of the instrument was indicated as 0.660 by using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. Secondly, factor analysis was measured through Barlett test as ($p = 0.000$ / $\chi 2=199.708$; $p<0.01$). These measures indicate that the questionnaire is valid and the correlation between the variables is significant. Moreover, the questionnaire includes certain open-ended questions to give students an opportunity to state the reasons of their likes, dislikes, and difficulties encountered about the presentation modes in their own sentences. These statements were used to support the results of the questionnaire.

Procedures

Selection of Target Words

Regarding target words selection, Read (2000) emphasized that there was no standard approach. However, Schmitt & Schmitt (1995) suggested that class texts or activities might be used for the vocabulary selection. A pre-test was administered comprising two phases in order to determine a list of words unknown to the subjects participating in the study. Firstly, students were given a test with 80 words (included in the course syllabus) in Turkish (native language) either to be explained in or translated into English as they prefer (target language). 22 of these words were assumed unknown to them, and the other words were fillers. After the test sheets were collected, the students received another sheet with 80 English words either to be explained in or translated into Turkish as they prefer in the second phase. In this phase, 22 pre-selected words appeared on the sheet again but different than the first phase, another set of words were used as fillers. The rationale behind this procedure is to cross check students'

answers since they might find the correct answer when the word was subsequently presented in English while they fail to find the English explanation of a word presented in Turkish. Finally, the correct explanations or the equivalents of the words (Turkish/English) that were agreed on by the three researchers were accepted as the known words. Then, they were excluded from the word list.

Besides, two of these words which were known by most of the students were removed from the list of target words (see Appendix I). The target words were all content words, consisting of eight adjectives, seven verbs, four nouns and one adverb. They were between 1050-3400 frequency band according to COCA. The rationale behind giving the frequency band of the target words was that these words had a certain level of frequency in English. The distinction between high and low frequency words are described by Nation (2005) since he identified "low frequency words as words that deal more with academic studies, words that appear throughout all academic texts and courses, but not very often in day to day speech, such as formulate, index, and modify" (p. 48).

Presentation Modes

The total number of 20 words (five words per session) was selected and presented to learners of all three groups during the instruction period. The modes of the CBCG, the DU and the OI were developed for vocabulary presentation**.** Table 1 shows the brief outline of the research procedures.

Table 1

The schedule of the classroom procedures and data collection

Week 1	Pretest
Week 2	Instructions for the CBCG, the DU and the OI in three different groups
Week 3	Instructions for the CBCG, the DU and the OI in three different groups
Week 4	Instructions for the CBCG, the DU and the OI in three different groups
Week 5	Instructions for the CBCG, the DU and the OI in three different groups
Week 6	Immediate Recall Test
Week 7	Break
Week 8	Break
Week 9	Delayed Recall Test/Attitude Questionnaire

Corpus Based Contextual Guessing (CBCG)

Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) was used for text selection. Newspaper and magazine sections were chosen for the search since the target words were not academic and there are more usages of the words in newspapers and magazine sections. Firstly, five texts for each target word were chosen by the researchers. Then, four experienced EFL teachers, including two native English speakers and two non-native English speakers, evaluated the appropriateness of the texts in terms of learner factors, text factors and context factors which are described below. The aim was to ensure that the contextualized meanings of the target words were indeed inferable and that helpful guessing, beyond the morphological cues, were contained in the target words (Qian, 2004). Finally, 20 texts were determined for 20 target words. The presentation of the 20 target words through the CBCG lasted for four weeks with five words for each week. The criteria used for text selection were as follows:

1. Learner factors (Frantzen, 2003; Levine & Reves, 1998): Researchers of the related field point out the importance of knowing a high percentage (at least 95%) of the words in the text by the readers for guessing the meaning of the target words successfully (Laufer, 1989; Na & Nation, 1985 and Nation, 2001). They also emphasize that the text should match the comprehension ability of the readers (Nation, 2003).
2. Text factor (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1997 cited in Nassaji, 2003; Shefelbine, 1990): The topic of the text should be related to students' real-life experience.
3. Context factors (Haastrup, 1991; Diakidoy & Anderson, 1991 and Frantzen, 2003): A set of various word classes should be presented. Words should invite the use of various guessing strategies such as "making use of the meaning of the paragraph or text as a whole to guess the meaning of the unknown word" (Akpınar, 2013:9).

Dictionary Use (DU)

One week before the study, the participants were given a mini-lecture on how to use monolingual dictionaries to look up the precise meaning/s and use/s of a particular word rather than an approximate guess. In addition, they were taught what information they can find in a monolingual dictionary. Then the students were asked to work in pairs to practice DU in the given sentences. However, the sentences that included the target words were selected as not to provide any contextual clue so as to prevent the learners' guessing. The appropraiteness of the sentences considering the availability of the contextual clues were also checked by the same four experienced EFL teachers, including two native English speakers and two non-native English speakers. Dictionary skills instruction took four weeks. At the

beginning of each week, the students were given 5 short reading texts, which included five words from the word list, and they were asked to look up information about the highlighted target words in a monolingual dictionary. The students were encouraged to work on their definitions, phonemic transcriptions, synonyms, antonyms, collocations, grammar facts, derivatives, contextualized examples and other aspects of the words.

Online Instruction (OI)

As an online course management system, NICENET has been chosen and used since it is free of charge and easy to manage. NICENET is an Internet Classroom Assistant which provides a communication tool with its features, including world-wide-web based conferencing, personal messaging, document sharing and link/resources sharing.

Before the OI, the computer literacy skills of the students were assessed by a questionnaire, and then the students were given the class key and asked to enroll themselves. The instructor gave a tutorial about the use of NICENET by introducing how to enroll and use the components of system such as sending messages, posting in conferencing, sharing links. The students used NICENET at home or where internet was available for them with their personal computers.

The OI took four weeks. In the beginning of the course, an introduction message explaining the course components were posted in the "Conferencing" area. Similarly, every week, on consecutive days, five words from the target word list were posted in the "Conferencing" area and necessary links were shared in the "Link Sharing" area in a de-contextualized way. It was aimed that the target words were explicitly investigated by the students in several aspects. The students were asked to find out the meanings of the target words, their collocations, synonyms and antonyms, and pronunciation from the given links or other links they may use. They were also asked for discussion over what they found about the words or sharing the example sentences in the same area. Thus, a total of 266 messages were posted in the "Conferencing" area. During the instruction, 11 vocabulary websites (five of which by the instructor while six by the students) were shared in the "Link Sharing" area. The links posted are listed in the following:

- Dictionary.com-Free Online English Dictionary: http://dictionary.reference.com/
- Cambridge Dictionaries Online: http://dictionary.cambridge.org/
- Vocabulary.com-Learn Words-English Dictionary: https://www.vocabulary.com/
- Dictionary tools on iTools: http://itools.com/language/dictionary
- Sentence Examples: http://sentence.yourdictionary.com/
- Vocabulary, Vocabulary Games: http://www.myvocabulary.com/
- Merriam-Webster Online: http://nws.merriam-webster.com/opendictionary/

- Free Online Collocations Dictionary-http://nws.merriam-webster.com/opendictionary/
- The Free Dictionary: http://www.thefreedictionary.com/
- Online OXFORD Collocation Dictionary of English: http://oxforddictionary.so8848.com/
- English Cobuild Dictionary: http://dictionary.reverso.net/english-cobuild/

During the 4-week OI period, the instructor was active in NICENET by giving technical support about using the online platform or links, answering the questions posted by the students, encouraging them to use the hyperlinks and add new links through messaging. The instructor served as a facilitator to make students actively use the platform and the internet to find out and learn about the target words.

Data Analysis

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 20.0 was used for statistical analysis. When analysing the descriptive data, statistical methods such as frequency analysis, mean and standard deviation were used. As for the comparison of quantitative data, for normally distributed parameters, Independent-Samples T Test and One Way ANOVA test were performed with a highly significant P value <0.05.

Results

R.Q.1: Is there any significant difference among the vocabulary presentation modes of CBCG, DU and OI on the vocabulary development of EFL learners' recall and retention?

Table 2

Comparison of Immediate Recall and Delayed Recall tests

		Mean	Std. Dev.	F	P
Immediate Recall	OI	5.16	4.888	1.737	0.183
	CBCG	7.24	3.654		
	DU	5.92	3.252		
Delayed Recall	OI	5.72	5.152	5.846	0.004**
	CBCG	8.64	2.885		
	DU	4.64	4.480		

One-Way ANOVA

**p<0.01

Immediate Recall and Delayed Recall tests were used in order to compare the effectiveness of the three vocabulary presentation modes of CBCG, DU and OI on learners' recall and

retention. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) in the Immediate Recall tests showed a non-significant difference among the three presentation modes in terms of learners' recalling the target vocabulary (F=1,737; p=0,183>0,05).

On the other hand, Delayed Recall test scores indicate a significant difference when the three presentation modes were compared (F=5.846; p=0.004<0.01). According to test scores between both the CBCG-OI and the CBCG-DU, the difference was in favor of the CBCG which indicates that the CBCG was the most effective presentation mode in terms of vocabulary retention of the learners (Table 2).

R.Q.2: What are the learning attitudes of EFL learners towards the vocabulary presentation modes of i) CBCG, ii) DU and iii) OI?

Table 3

Learning Attitudes of Learners

	Effect of vocabulary presentation modes on cognitive skills		**Effect of vocabulary presentation modes on affective factors**	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
OI	2.89	1.08	3.38	1.09
CBCG	1.76	0.62	1.76	0.81
DU	2.02	0.64	2.01	0.85

The learning attitudes questionnaire consisted of two parts: The first one assessed the effect of presentation modes on learners' cognitive ability in terms of their attitudes of developing vocabulary learning strategies and skills. The second part focused on the affective factors which relate to the learners' emotional state, motivation and attitude towards the presentation modes. Learning attitudes of the learners towards the presentation modes indicated a significant difference for both cognitive ability and affective factors. According to the learning attitudes questionnaire, the most favored presentation mode for the learners was the OI which was followed by the DU and the CG modes. Depending on the learning attitudes questionnaire, mean and standard deviation scores indicated that the OI was the most favored presentation mode for the learners (Table 3).

R.Q.3: Is there any relationship between EFL learners' vocabulary development and their learning attitudes after exposure to vocabulary presented through i) CBCG, ii) DU and iii) OI?

The comparison between the data gathered from the questionnaire and the vocabulary recall tests (immediate recall versus delayed recall) indicated the following results:

- The OI mode was found to be the most favored mode in terms of learners' learning attitudes both cognitively and affectively. On the other hand, it was not the most effective one regarding learners' recall and retention since Immediate Recall and Delayed Recall tests scores were non-significant.
- The DU mode was found to be moderately effective among the other modes in terms of both learning attitudes and learners' success. However, a significant negative difference was found between the immediate recall and delayed recall tests. This means that learners were more successful in the immediate recall test when compared to delayed recall test.
- The CBCG mode was indicated as the least effective mode in the attitude questionnaire both cognitively and affectively. However, delayed recall test scores showed that it was the most effective vocabulary presentation mode on learners' vocabulary retention.

Discussion

The study has primarily attempted to investigate the most effective vocabulary presentation mode in developing EFL learners' recall and retention. Target vocabulary was presented through the CBCG, the DU and the OI to three intermediate groups of EFL learners majoring in the ELT department. Secondarily, the study investigated the differences in students' learning attitudes towards these modes.

ANOVA results of the immediate recall test showed that there was no significant difference in recalling the number of words ($F=1.737$; $p=0.183>0.05$) among the three presentation modes of the CBCG, the DU and the OI. Similarly, the results of Aizawa (1999) and Laufer (2011) has also shown that there was a non-significant correlation between DU and vocabulary learning while reading. However, these findings were inconsistent with the results of studies by Knight (1994) and Ali et al (2012). In Ali et al.'s study (2012), the students in Dictionary Strategy Group were able to remember the words in the immediate recall test better than the ones in Contextual Clues group and CALL group.

As for retention, the CBCG was found significantly the most effective mode ($F=5.846$; $p=0.004<0.01$) among the others which is inconsistent with the results of Nation (1982), Jenkins, Matlock, & Slocum (1989) and Unaldı et.al. (2013) who found that there was not a significant difference between contextual vocabulary learning and learning new vocabulary in isolation or in context-free word lists. However, the positive effect of contextual guessing on retention is in line with Frazer (1999), Nation (2001), Parel (2004) and Hayati & Shahriari (2010).

The findings of Redouane's (2004) and Lo's (2004) studies also support the findings of the current study particularly in terms of retention. The positive effect of the CBCG in storing the target vocabulary supports the assumption of several scholars (e.g. Haastrup, 1991; Hulstijn, 1992; Na & Nation, 1985; Mondria & Wit-de Boer, 1991 and Gao, 2012) who claim that there is a direct relationship between the mental effort in processing a word and retention. Supporting the important role played by guessing strategy and its relationship with cognitive processing Akbari, Gafar Samar, & Asadi (2006) also claimed that "such a strategy has come from cognitive science and schema theory which are widely accepted in ESL and EFL circles" (p.2)

Another main topic investigated in the current study was the learning attitudes of the learners towards the presentation types. The attitude questionnaire results revealed that the OI was significantly the most effective mode in terms of the learners' attitude regarding cognitive ability and affective factors. This finding is consistent with Al-Jarf's (2007) study which resulted that students have positive attitudes towards learning vocabulary through the OI. On the other hand, the results of Al-Jarf (2007) indicated that student achievement significantly improved through online learning and the OI did contribute to the students' overall performance level in vocabulary, which was found insignificant in this study. Within this particular respect, it is also consistent with the results of some studies (Kang, 1995; Groot, 2000 and Bowles, 2004) that did not show any advantage of CALL applications. Learners' low scores in recalling the vocabulary presented through the OI might be due to the complicated form of the web site, which makes it difficult for the learners to remember the word later. Additionally, they might be *"easily distracted by other websites when searching through internet"* as they mentioned in the attitude questionnaire. The qualitative data gathered through open-ended questions revealed the problems and difficulties of the learners encountered while using the OI, for example, some students stated that "The website was complicated and it was difficult to remember the words later"; "I still prefer paper and pencil type of studying not with computer"; "I can be easily distracted by other websites when

searching through internet." The positive attitudes of the participants towards using the OI, regarding to their responses to open-ended questions might be listed as "I like surfing on the net and visiting different links, searching the words is very enjoyable and motivating" "It is really time saving when compared with printed dictionaries" and "I like sharing the information with my classmates on net".

Moreover, this study also supports the empirical results of Ali et al. (2012) which asserts that students favored vocabulary learning by using the CALL when compared to contextual guessing and dictionary strategies. Considering the comments of the students in the open-ended questions included in the attitude questionnaire, the students stated that they liked the OI since they became familiar with a range of different websites and experienced a different way of learning. They also emphasized that they not only had easy access to find the meanings of the words, but also could find detailed information about the words (roots, synonyms, collocations, example sentences etc.) Additionally, they found it collaborative to share their own experiences with their classmates in the online environment.

As for the CBCG, the results show that the CBCG was not significantly preferred in terms of learning attitudes of the students. According to the learners' comments in the attitude questionnaire this might be mainly due to the wrong guesses caused by the lack of the knowledge of guessing strategies. In the quantitative data, the subjects maintain that they do not favor the CBCG since the roots and affixes sometimes have led them to make wrong guesses resulting in learning the meanings of the words incorrectly. Some of the participants emphasized the difficulty of applying the guessing strategies appropriately, while others stated that they did not find the topics of the texts interesting and did not attempt to guess the meanings of the target words.

On the other hand, although delayed recall test results showed that the DU was the least effective presentation mode than the others, the participants considered the DU mode moderately effective in their learning attitudes. This might be explained by regarding two distinct points of view of the learners. Depending on the qualitative data results, the first group who mentioned the negative aspects of the DU stated that "dictionaries were difficult to carry all the time"; "the DU was time-consuming and boring", and "I find it difficult to build a suitable context for the word since it is given in an isolated way," which is parallel to Rhoder & Huerster's (2002) assumption about the difficulty in using dictionaries for the learners since they generally give decontextualized meaning**.** On the other hand**,** some of the participants supported using dictionaries by stating that "it was my favorable habit to use

traditional methods such as a monolingual and a bilingual dictionary" which is parallel to Huang & Eslam's (2013) study.

Conclusion

Many researchers have investigated the relative effectiveness of vocabulary presentation types and learner attitudes of the learners; however, no single study has ever empirically investigated both of them. What makes this study unique is its main aim of focusing on the differences between the actual performances of learners' vocabulary development and their attitudes towards these presentation modes. The findings of the study can be concluded in several ways. Firstly, the CG by using corpora has been found the most effective vocabulary presentation mode for retention. The importance of lexical inferencing on both comprehension and learning has long been emphasized by so many scholars (Redouane, 2004; Lo, 2004 and Gao, 2012). Attempting to infer the meaning of a word in a context obliges the learner to develop strategies such as using their morphological, syntactic or world knowledge which requires a mental process of transferring the knowledge. As Prince (1996) assumes, this mental process not only facilitates learning but also develops an attitude of self-reliance which contributes to "a learner's L2 autonomy that is the hallmark of proficiency", (p.489). Therefore, in order to achieve the actual learning, teachers should give more space to contextualized vocabulary presentation, which leads to practice lexical inference. It should also be kept in mind that the ability to use inferencing strategies improves both the reading skills of language learners and vocabulary acquisition (Barnett, 1990 and Schmitt, 2002). They also assume that lexical inferencing enhances language learners' strategic competence. Thus, learners should be informed about the guessing strategies in order to use them more effectively.

Secondly, the learners' positive attitudes towards the OI might be due to the popularity and novelty of using computer technology, although this appeared to have little positive influence on their recall and retention of the target words. Computers can enhance positive learning attitudes compared to the traditional methods (Kukulska-Hulme, 1998 and Langdon & Taylor, 2005). Since the findings of the present study indicate that the OI highly motivates learners in learning English vocabulary compared to the other presentation modes, teachers should incorporate technology with the other effective presentation modes such as lexical inferencing. Computer technology can be integrated to the process in various ways such as using corpus as in the case of this study for a better comprehension and acquisition. However, instead of using pre-packaged programmes, teachers can develop different programmes

supported with local and global comprehension tasks and more drills with synonyms, antonyms, word puzzles and other word games or students can do self-access activities using the CALL resources.

Additionally, it should be known that effective vocabulary instruction in EFL setting can be achieved depending on learners' needs, attitudes, motivation and abilities. Any presentation or instruction mode, whether the DU, the CG or the OI, should be adapted to the learners' needs. "A mixture of approaches should be adapted" to decode the new words since there is "no clearly marked stages of transition" (Carter, 1998, p. 213) in the learning process.

Finally, the current study also reveals another important fact which should be interpreted cautiously. The difference between learners' actual performance and learners' attitudes towards the presentation modes gives a significant clue for the researchers of the field. In EFL pedagogy, research just focusing on learner attitudes or solely investigating learners' achievement through pre-post design is not adequate to determine the most effective ways of teaching/learning procedures. For obtaining more concrete results in the empirical research, learners' attitudes towards the methods for improving both their cognitive skills and affective factors, in other words, their favors and dislikes of certain instruction types should be supported with data assessing their actual performances.

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Appendix I

Target Word List

1. eerie	11. deed
2. charred	12. daunting
3. shove	13. deliberation
4. protruding	14. recess
5. combustion	15. alleviate
6. bleak	16. shred
7. impending	17. lucrative
8. smug	18. disguise
9. feasible	19.bluntly
10. flush	20. stumble

Appendix II

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CBCG/DU/OI.

You have had an opportunity to learn vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI. Please evaluate the use of the method by marking your responses in this questionnaire.

Part A. Demographic Information

Name: _____
Class:_____
Gender:_____ Semester:_____ Year of study: _____

Part B: Learning Attitudes

Please put an **X** to the items below according to the following scales.
Strongly Agree(SA) Agree (A) Undecided(U) Disagree(D) Strongly Disagree(SD)

Nos.	**Items**	**SA**	**A**	**U**	**D**	**SD**
1.	I could enrich my vocabulary knowledge using CBCG/DU/OI.					
2.	I could increase my skills in learning vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI.					
3.	I could improve my vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI..					

4.	I could follow or keep up with the learning of vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI.					
5.	I could make the best use of the method in learning vocabulary.					
6.	I could increase my knowledge about the words I learn using CBCG/DU/OI.					
7.	I had a good opportunity to learn vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI.					
8.	I was motivated to use the method in learning vocabulary after I was introduced to CBCG/DU/OI.					
9.	I noticed that my understanding of vocabulary learning have changed after being exposed to CBCG/DU/OI.					
10.	I could memorise the meaning of words I learnt easily using CBCG/DU/OI.					
11.	I could recall the meaning of words I learnt easily using CBCG/DU/OI.					
12.	I enjoyed learning vocabulary using CBCG/DU/OI.					
13.	I found that it is interesting to use CBCG/DU/OI in learning vocabulary.					
14.	I found that CBCG/DU/OI was suitable form my kind of vocabulary learning.					

Part C: Learning Feedback: Instruction: You may write in Turkish for this section.

15. What difficulties have you encountered in using the method to learn vocabulary?
16. What are the aspects that you like about the method? Why?
17. What are the aspects that you dislike about the method? Why?
18. Other comments and suggestions?

Adapted from Ali, Mukundan, Ayub & Baki. (2012).

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Developing EFL Learners' Academic Reading Skills - Diagnostic and Needs Analysis through Action Research

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Abstract

This paper describes how, through diagnosis of difficulties and needs analysis, an academic reading course, helped develop the academic reading skills of a group of technical university EFL learners. The 46 participants were native speakers of Chinese and enrolled on an undergraduate course, "*Introduction to Linguistics*" at an EFL technical university. Data included a background survey, a self-evaluation questionnaire, and a reading strategy questionnaire, supplemented with reflective learner journal entries and the learners' academic performance records. A diagnostic and needs analysis was carried out to identify what difficulties the students might have encountered when reading their academic textbooks. Accordingly, an EAP reading course, mainly based on diagnostic and needs analysis, was designed by providing the students with a wide range of activities responding to the revealed difficulties and needs. The results of data analysis showed the learners' positive development in terms of reading comprehension, awareness of strategy use, and confidence in academic reading. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for future study are also discussed.

Keywords: Academic reading, EFL learners, difficulties diagnostic, needs analysis

Introduction

For EFL learners whose exposure to English is quite limited, reading becomes one of the most crucial means by which academic knowledge is transmitted. It has been emphasized that the ability to read academic texts is considered to be one of the most important skills that EFL learners need to acquire (Levine, Ferenze, & Reves, 2000). Reading comprehension is essential, not only to academic learning in all subjects but also to professional success and lifelong learning (Pritchard, Romeo, & Muller, 1999).

However, acquisition of academic literacy is often a difficult process for technical university EFL learners in Taiwan. Many students enter higher education under-prepared for the reading demands that are placed on them (Dreyer & Nel, 2003). Without having

developed the ability to deal with a large amount of text, they painstakingly rely on word-by-word reading (Ou, 1997). Most of them, therefore, often complain about complicated textbooks and the huge number of weekly reading assignments. The great majority of these students might experience the "vicious cycles" again, after entering the graduate program, if they haven't learned how to read effectively and efficiently (Huang, 2006).

Given the fact that many ESL/EFL learners lack the skills to understand ~~the~~ academic textbooks, previous research has suggested the need for an EAP (English for Academic Purpose) reading course which is a combination of language, content, and reading strategy instruction (Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1998; Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Janzen & Stroller, 1998; Rusciolelli, 1995). While a variety of principles and techniques for the development of effective content-course reading have been presented (Allen, 1998; Buick, 1993; Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Mustafa, 1998; Walker & Huber, 2002), relatively scarce research literature emphasizes the importance of investigating the learners' difficulties and needs in academic reading (EAP) and of using these insights to develop a reading improvement course that matches the actual needs of the learners.

The purpose of the present study was to suggest a reading improvement course based on difficulties and needs analysis to help the group of EFL learners read the textbook effectively. More specifically, this study aimed to initially investigate the learners' difficulties and needs with reading in their specialization and then provide a reading course for the development of EAP reading skills.

Thus, the research questions addressed were as follows:

1. What are EFL learners' difficulties and needs in academic reading?
2. How can the academic reading course be implemented for the development of EAP reading skills?
3. Can the academic reading improvement course with diagnostic-needs analysis enhance the EFL learners' development of EAP reading skills?

Theoretical Background

Academic reading is defined as purposeful and critical reading of a range of lengthy academic reading texts for completing the study of specific major subject areas (Sengupta, 2002). According to Sengupta, academic reading is the complex and extended reading of texts varying in length. Particularly, it is different from other reading because academic reading requires both extensive and intensive reading of texts that are discipline-specific, and careful synthesizing of material from a number of sources are needed (Carrell & Carson,

1997). Moreover, academic reading should be read by consciously finding authorial intensions and purposes (Huckin & Flower, 1990).

A great number of researchers have developed effective teaching methods for reading comprehension and reading strategy use, emphasizing the transfer of skills learned in a class to actual use in other classes, i.e. academic reading. In other words, instruction must focus on the application of skills learned in a reading class in specific contexts (Allen, 1998; Buick, 1993; Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Mustafa, 1998; Walker & Huber, 2002). For example, Allen (1998) indicated that students do not see the value in learning how to find the main idea in an excerpt unless they practice finding that main idea in a textbook, writing it in their notes, and then studying it for a test. Thus, it is important that instructors of college reading courses must understand their learners' needs by focusing on the types of tasks students will be required to complete in college.

To resolve the dilemma between the skill training and learners' real study needs in their respective specialism, Buick (1993) suggested a learner-centered approach for 23 overseas students on a ten-week university pre-session study skills course in the UK. Four specifications were required as follows: first, each student chooses his/her own texts and studies a text of substantial length, on a topic strictly pertaining to his /her own area of specialism; second, reading-practice actively images the actual academic contexts of students; third, classes are learner-centered in that students identify their own interests; fourth, students are evaluated through an oral presentation.

Following Buick's (1993) learner-centered classroom, Janzen and Stoller (1998) suggested some steps and principles, emphasizing that integrating strategic reading instruction into the L2 classroom requires advance planning on the part of the teacher. Four steps are essential in this planning process: (1) adopting materials at an appropriate level of difficulty for the students; (2) the selection of strategies to emphasize in the classroom, taking into consideration such factors as student characteristics, the demand of the text, and the goal of the reading instruction; (3) the structuring of lesson plans and texts to guide the presentation of strategies; (4) the adaptation of instruction in response to student needs and reactions to in-class modeling, practice, and discussions.

For effective classroom application, Allen (1998) further provided comprehensive guidelines, recommending that application of skills should be done with the use of college-textbook chapters. By using college-level textbooks in teaching reading, instructors can not only teach the reading skills with excerpts from the textbook but also assign students written work that is comparable to those they will be assigned in college courses. Moreover, Allen

(1998) suggested that college reading courses need to place emphasis on the types of tasks that give students practice in areas of reading such as identifying a purpose for reading and accessing prior knowledge (a planning stage), self-questioning and monitoring (a drafting stage), and evaluating and reacting to the material (a responding stage).

In addition to these principles and guidelines, some empirical studies have supported the use of reading strategies on reading for science and technology. By investigating the effect of five reading strategies on L2 science learners' reading proficiency, Mustafa (1998) indicated that explicit instruction of reading strategies was considered to be helpful for learners that are performing academic tasks. It was also shown that explicit teaching of these strategies through proper methodology led to a positive learning attitude.

Providing learners with a better and effective learning environment was thought to be another way to promote learners' language proficiency and academic achievement. By conducting a program with Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), which consists of instructional practice for the development of social, academic, and communication skills, Calderon (1999) indicated that guided interaction around meaningful and interesting tasks and interesting reading selections helps even the most reluctant learners become actively engaged in learning. Recent studies further recommend a technology-enhanced environment to develop learners' strategic reading in ~~the~~ academic study (Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Levine, et al, 2000; O'Reilly, Sinclair, & McNamara, 2004). For example, in Dreyer and Nel's (2003) study, 131 first-year university students in South Africa received strategic reading instruction with a Learning Content Management System and were found to perform better in both the TOEFL test and their subject course than those who didn't. A positive result from a networked computer environment was also found in a study conducted by Levine, et al. (2000), in which a computerized learning environment (i.e., Microsoft Word 3.11, Netscape Navigator and E-mail) contributed to the development of EFL critical literacy skills and strategies to a greater extent.

In conclusion, previous research has suggested a variety of strategies and principles that help develop learners' academic reading. However, while the teaching methods were presented in the previous research, the diagnosis of learners' difficulties and needs in relation to reading before a reading improvement course hasn't been emphasized yet. As suggested by Walker and Huber (2002), investigating the learners' needs is a prerequisite for ~~a~~ really effective instruction since it matters greatly how teachers direct students to approach the reading task. In other words, we need to emphasize the concept of diagnosis and treatment in

EAP teaching to offer a different approach for the development of learners' academic reading skills.

Method

Participants

The forty-six participants were native speakers of Chinese and enrolled in an undergraduate course, "*Introduction to Linguistics*" at a technical university in central Taiwan. Most of them had received formal English instruction for at least seven years before the study was conducted. They had taken some general English courses in the previous years. However, none of them had received any strategy-related instruction in content reading prior to the course. They were inexperienced in academic reading.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study are briefly introduced as follows:

A background survey with open-ended questions was designed by the researcher to investigate the learners' educational background, reading difficulties, and expectations regarding being an effective reader. A *self-evaluation questionnaire* (Table 2), consisting of a 4-scaled checklist, was conducted to (1) investigate the learners' reading attitude, participation and learning motivation during the learning process, and (2) examine their *self-evaluation* of reading comprehension. To reach content validity, the items were proofread by an English speaker and five students for wording clarity.

Additionally, a *reading strategies questionnaire* (Table 3), adapted from Oxford (1990) and Pressley, Brown, El-Dinary, and Afflerbach (1995) was administered to investigate the students' perceptions of strategy use for academic reading. The 12-item~~ed~~ five-point-Likert-type questionnaire consisted of the strategies taught in the reading course. For the reading strategy questionnaire, a mean score of five indicated that the students perceived themselves using the strategy all the time, whereas a score of one indicated that the students perceived themselves using the strategy none of the time. The questionnaires were sent to two evaluators for peer review to determine content validity. An English-speaking teacher helped proofread the content for clarity of meaning.

Learners' performance records (Table 4), including data from six exercises and two written tests in the midterm and final exams, were collected as supplementary data for analyzing the development of the learners. There were ten questions in each exercise. The two written tests consisted of true/false, multiple-choice, and short essays, which were all adapted from the

exercises in the textbook. To achieve content validity, the items of the tests were evaluated by two professors in the subject matter area.

Reflective learner journal entries (Table 5) were collected at the end of the course to qualitatively examine how learners thought about what they had learned and to have qualitative comments about the course. They were interpreted in terms of two main categories: affective reflection and cognitive reflection. The students reflected on how they felt about their development of academic reading ability, and what they had learned from the instructional program.

Data Collection Procedures

There were three stages for data collection procedures: diagnostic and needs analysis, instructional program, and assessment. First, the participants responded to a *background survey* in either Chinese or English at the beginning of the semester, which could be written in either Chinese or English. Additionally, they indicated on the *reading strategy questionnaire* to what extent they used each reading strategy on the five-point-scale questionnaire when they read an academic textbook beforehand. Based on the insight from the survey, we conducted a fifteen-week instructional program, from which the data for the learners' academic performance were collected.

Then, during the midterm exam, they responded to a *self-evaluation questionnaire* to show how much they had learned from their previous academic reading experiences. At the end of the semester, the same *self-evaluation questionnaire* survey was conducted to assess the learners' progress in terms of their concepts, attitude and motivation towards academic reading. To evaluate the success of the reading course, the learners were required to submit the learning protocol with the academic performance records, in addition to a one-page *journal* as qualitative comments on the course

Data Analysis

This study analyzed the data derived from the *background survey* to investigate the learners' reading habits, difficulties, and needs (Section 4.1). All the data were transcribed, and identified, coded and categorized into multiple categories (Patton, 1990). Recursive themes were identified in the results and presented in multiple categories. The major themes that emerged from the analysis were presented in percentage. Based on these insights, a reading

improvement course was designed with various classroom activities for the learners (Section 4.2).

The learners' development in EAP reading was evaluated by analyzing their academic performance records, self-evaluation questionnaire, reading strategy questionnaire, and reflective learner journal entries (Section 4.3). The comparisons between the pre-and-post s*elf-evaluation and reading strategies questionnaires* were conducted and interpreted to examine the effects of the instruction. All the data were supplemented with that from the learners' academic performance record, which was presented by score range and compared by percentage.

Reflective learner journal entries were qualitatively analyzed, as was the background survey, and then were categorized into two main categories: affective reflection and cognitive reflection. Recursive themes were identified from the multiple responses as multiple categories. The major themes that emerged from the analysis were counted by frequency and presented in percentage.

Results

The Academic Reading Difficulties of Technical University EFL Learners

Table 1 presents the main themes regarding the learners' difficulties with academic reading. As shown in Table 1, most learners (93.3%) attributed their difficulty in academic reading to vocabulary problems. Vocabulary was identified as an important contributing factor, followed by the inability to read a large quantity of material (64.4%). Moreover, 53.3% of the learners revealed their difficulties in figuring out complex sentence structures to comprehend the text correctly. There were also 33.3% of them who reported that the lack of terminologies and background knowledge led to their difficulty in reading an academic textbook. Some of them (17.8%) complained about the small print that distracted them from reading. There were 2.2% of them who did not feel motivated by the course.

Table 1

EFL Technical University Students' Difficulties in Academic Reading

Difficulties	Frequency(N=45)	Percentage
1.Poor vocabulary (i.e. vocabulary size & terminologies)	42	93.3%
2.Inability to read large quantity of material	29	64.4%

3. Poor grammar	24	53.3%
4. Lack of background knowledge	15	33.3%
5. Distracted by small print	8	17.8%
6. Lack of interest in the course	1	2.2%

Note. Percentage =frequency is divided by the total students. The total number is 45 due to a missing data.

Classroom Activities for the EAP Reading Improvement Course

To respond to the learners' difficulties in vocabulary and reading comprehension, a reading improvement course was designed for the participants. The course objective was to integrate reading strategies and some tailored-made activities into academic reading to make the learners' reading of *Introduction to Linguistics* texts more comprehensible. During the 15-week course, the students practiced such reading skills as using context clues for unknown words, previewing and predicting, skimming and scanning, identifying the main idea and supporting details, summarizing, and identifying patterns of organization.

To respond to the revealed difficulties, items 1 to 6 in Table 1, the following classroom activities for the course "*Introduction to Linguistics"* were proposed as follows:

Read a Simpler Textbook. The textbook, *The Study of Language* (Yule, 2007) was chosen for this course because it was designed for beginners, starting from the basics and covering as wide a range of topics as other linguistics textbooks do, such as an analysis of the key elements of language, discourse analysis, language and the brain, language variations, language and culture, etc. The learners were guided to read a textbook written in simpler language on the same topics as introduced in other linguistics textbooks. It was assumed that the EFL learners would have easy access to the content knowledge presented in less complicated vocabulary and syntax; as a result, they could learn to read intensively and extensively if the textbook was not intimidating. With comprehensible reading materials, it was believed that the learners' intellectual interests were stimulated and motivated.

Assisted Reading with Guided Questions. EFL learners reported being overwhelmed with the content of several pages in each chapter. To respond to this problem (item 2, Table 1), several guided questions were designed for each pre-reading, during-reading or after-reading activity to help learners practice "previewing and predicting" from the subheadings, "skimming the main idea and supporting ideas," "scanning" for the parts of the text that contain the pertinent information, and "summarizing" the content. Moreover, as students prepared to read the text, the teacher demonstrated specific

reading strategies they should use. Here are some suggested guided questions that mainly focus on text content:

> *What kinds of context are mentioned in this unit? Please explain their roles in the unit on pragmatics.*
>
> *How can we make sense of the example in discourse presented on page 131?*
>
> *Discuss the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. How does it explain the Japanese words for rice and Eskimo words for snow?*

Outline for Units. Presenting the outline for each unit by visual aids, e.g., *PowerPoint*, was a helpful way of introducing the key points of the text in simple and organized language. This activity helped solve the difficulty of items 1, 2, and 4 (Table 1). The outline can be done in various ways depending on the unit content and the learners' proficiency level. While reading in class, the teacher stopped and pointed out relevant facts from the visual aid. In this way, the learners would not be lost in the densely written text and would also learn the skill of locating the main ideas of the text. They learned that skipping some unknown words would not necessarily hinder their comprehension of the content. They also had to review the lessons in detail by doing the follow-up exercises at home.

Teach Word-solving Strategies to Derive Word Meaning. To help the learners deal with their vocabulary difficulties (item 1, Table 1), the teacher showed the learners, by thinking aloud, how to use the context clues, instead of the dictionary definitions, to determine a word meaning. The teacher modelled this strategy by pointing out an exact point in the text where she skipped over a particular word or phrase and showing how she dealt with it. With the authentic textbook, the teacher provided the learners many relevant opportunities to observe the process of inferring a word meaning by using context clues in diagrams, charts, or sentences that come before or after the unknown words. Then the learners practiced contextual inference by ways of group discussion to consolidate inferring skills.

Integrate Four Skills. To motivate the learners, this course required them to practice the strategy they learned in the previous session by choosing parts of the text, reading at home with their group members, and giving a short 10-minute group presentation in the following class about how they made sense of the text and how they tackled the tough words. The assignments included "locating the main idea of each paragraph," "drawing a graph or table for the unit," or "hunting for the detailed answers for

questions." For each unit, several after-reading questions were assigned to provide the students opportunities to review the lessons in detail and also practice writing in English. To facilitate the assignments, group work was incorporated into the classroom activities. Thus, learning became a cooperative and interactive adventure. Moreover, the learners were exposed to the content knowledge by using the integrated skills.

Group Discussion and Teacher's Explanation. The discourse structure of academic reading texts is usually complex, often written with multiple clauses and densely packed ideas. Learners were often discouraged when misunderstanding the content, as shown in Table 1, items 3 and 4. The teachers first asked them to read the text silently at home or in class, pausing to mark points they felt difficult. As learners read the assigned chapter, they used sticky notes to mark one or two points they struggled with. Then, as the group discussion began, several learners could share with the others their problems and the possible solutions. The teacher talked to each group and then explained the common problems. While teacher's explanations helped them feel relieved from pressure, learners also benefited a lot from peer discussions. A check-list was kept thoroughly by the class teacher as a continuous assessment and the feedback on the weaknesses in general were then given to each group immediately-the following week.

Presentation Using Visual Aids and DVD Excerpts. Presentation with visual aids such as PowerPoint and DVDs was a very powerful presentation in teaching content reading. This activity helped respond to the difficulty items 2, 4, 5, and 6 in Table 1. In each lesson, the teacher presented the outline of the text with PowerPoint to facilitate learners' reading. For example, when a topic such as "language and the brain" was introduced, some DVDs excerpts from *Discovery* were provided to help explain parts of the brain and their functions. For introducing the topic about first language acquisition, the teacher supplemented the lesson with a drama film starred by Jodie Foster as a role of Nell whose mother was paralyzed on one side, which contributed to the oddity of Nell's speech. This movie greatly motivated the learners to learn how language is acquired.

Course Evaluation

The EAP reading course, mainly based on diagnostic and needs analysis, was assessed by examining the learners' midterm-final self-evaluation survey, pre-post reading strategy questionnaire, and reflective learner journal entries.

Improvement in learning attitude and participation

The comparisons between the midterm and final self-evaluation survey revealed that the majority of the students responded positively to the course, as shown in Table 2. Although the percentage showing the learners' previewing the lessons is not very high, those who reported "never" previewing became fewer at the end of the course. In contrast, those who reported they "always, often, or sometimes" reviewed the lessons increased (Table 2, Part I-items 1 & 2). In other words, it is indicated that the learners reviewed the lesson more frequently than they did at the beginning of the course, no matter what the reasons were.

Moreover, at the end of the assessment, the learners reported that they became more confident and involved in their academic reading than before. Although the percentage didn't increase dramatically, there were more learners responding to the scales (Table 2, Part I-items 3 & 4) that indicate "Very Confident," "Always," and "Often." With regard to the response to the course requirements and arrangements, more learners responded positively with a higher percentage on the scales of "Very Acceptable," and "Very Reasonable," and "Reasonable," while those who indicated "Uncertain" became fewer (Table 2, Part I-items 5 & 7). Moreover, the majority of them reported being able to follow the pace of the course (Table 2, part I-item 8).

With regard to the motives to take this course, as expected, the majority of students took this course because it was required. However, as shown in Table 2, those who responded to "interest in course," and "desire to increase knowledge" increased greatly at the final assessment (Table 2, Part I-item 6). In other words, impacted by the instructional program, they had a more active and positive attitude towards studying linguistics.

Additionally, Table 2 (Part II-item 1) indicates that those who reported "partly understand the lecture" at the midterm survey (12.2%) became fewer at the final survey (2.2%). While more learners reported "mostly able to read fluently" and "mostly able to finish exercise" (Table 2, Part II-items 2 & 3), those who indicated "partly" in the two areas became fewer. With regard to overall comprehension of the course, those who indicated "good" also increased (Table, Part II-item 4).

Table 2

Comparisons of Self-Evaluation between Midterm and Final Exam

<I> Weekly Learning

1. *Preview*	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Midterm (N=41)	0	12.2%	60.9%	26.8%
Final (N=46)	0	6.5%	76.1%	17.4%
2. *Review*	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Midterm(N=41) (*6 missing)	0	48.8%	43.9%	2.4%
Final(N=46)	4.3%	50%	45.7%	0
3.*Learning attitude/confidence* (*2 missing)	Very	OK	A Little	None
Midterm(N=41)	4.9%	60.9%	14.6%	7.3%
Final	13%	63%	19.6%	0
4.*Class participation*	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Midterm(N=41)	0	31.7%	68.3%	0
Final(N=46)	4.3%	34.8%	60.9%	0
5.*Course requirements*	Very Acceptable	Acceptable	Uncertain	Not Acceptable
Midterm(N=41)	7.3%	60.9%	31.7%	0
Final(N=46)	23.9%	63%	13%	0
6.*Motives for learning* (*Multiple choice)	Interest in course	Desire to improve English	Desire to increase knowledge	A required course
Midterm(N=41)	9.7%%	43.9%	46.3%	68.3%
Final(N=46)	23.9%	41.3%	56.5%	60.9%
7.*Course arrangements*	Very Reasonable	Reasonable	Uncertain	Not reasonable
Midterm(N=41)	4.9%	56.1%	36.6%	0
Final(N=46)	17.4%	71.7%	10.9%	0
8. *Ability to follow the pace of teaching*	Totally	Mostly	Partly	None
Midterm(N=41)	7.3%	80.5%	12.2%	0
Final(N=46)	10.9%	80.4%	8.6%	0

<II> Level of Comprehension				
1. *Ability to understand the lectures*	Totally	Mostly	Partly	None
Midterm(N=41)	7.3%	80.5%	12.2%	0
Final(N=46)	6.5%	91.3%	2.2%	0
2. *Ability to read fluently*	Totally	Mostly	Partly	None
Midterm(N=41)	0	60.9%	24.4%	0
Final(N=46)	0	84.8%	15.2%	0
3. *Ability to finish exercises*	Totally	Mostly	Partly	None
Midterm(N=41)	2.4%	63.4%	34.1%	0
Final(N=46)	0	82.7%	17.4%	0
4.*Overall comprehension of course*	Very good	Good	Ok	Not good
Midterm(N=41)	0	26.8%	65.9%	7.3%
Final(N=46)	0	39.1%	60.9%	0

Improvement in Reading Strategy Use

The comparisons between the pre- and post-reading strategy questionnaires indicated an increasing use of reading strategies after the instruction. Table 3 shows that the mean score for items 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, and 12 increased at the end of the instruction. In other words, the learners revealed that they used more reading strategies than they did at the beginning of the course. Moreover, the percentage indicating those who "read every single word" decreased (Table 3, item 10). That is, the decreasing use of dictionary suggested that the learners were starting to get rid of their old habit of looking up every unknown word they encountered when reading.

Table 3

Comparisons of Means of Reading Strategy between the Pre-and Post-Survey

		Pre-test/M	Post-test
1.	I start reading and try to figure out the meaning as I go along.	3.7	3.7
2.	I like to know something about the topic as I go along.	3.6	3.8
3.	I read the title and imagine what the article might be about.	3.0	3.6

4.	I look at illustrations and try to guess how they relate to the article.	3.1	4.0
5.	First, I read the comprehension questions at the end and look for those answers when I read.	3.1	3.1
6.	I skim the whole article to see what the general idea is.	3.5	4.3
7.	I read a passage once and then reread it.	3.7	3.6
8.	I read the first line of every paragraph to get the gist.	3.5	4.1
9.	I skip the words I don't know and continue reading.	3.5	3.7
10.	I read every single word and look up the ones I don't know.	3.1	2.9
11.	I try to guess at unknown words.	3.5	4.3
12.	After reading, I write the main ideas in my own words.	2.7	3.6

Note. Item 1~4: preview & predict; Item 5: scanning; Item 6,8: skimming; Item 7:repeated reading; Item 9~11: word-solving strategies; Item 12: summarizing

Improvement in Academic Performance Records

As shown in Table 4, the results from both the written tests on Midterm /Final Exams and the unit exercises indicated the positive impact of the instruction on the learners. While most of the learners had scores ranging between 61 and 70 (26.1%) and from 71 to 80 (36.9%) in the midterm exam, an increasing number of them progressed to the range of 81-90 (36.9%) and over 90 (6.5%). Moreover, the number of learners who failed in the midterm exam (i.e. below 60) became fewer. For instance, those whose score on tests ranged between 51 and 60 decreased rapidly from 15.2% to 8.4% (Table 4). With regard to the on-going evaluation on unit exercises, the number of the learners who reported difficulties in finishing exercises at the beginning of the course became fewer, dropping from 13% to 2.2%. In contrast, there were more learners in the range of 71-80 and 81-90, increasing from 36.9 % to 54.3% at the end of the instruction. In other words, Table 4 indicates the learners' improvement in doing the after-lesson exercises, no matter what other factors caused the change, because they benefited from the diagnosis-treatment course, resulting in improvement in their academic reading.

Table 4

Comparisons of the Written Tests and Unit Exercises between Midterm and Final Exam

		40-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
Tests	Midterm	2.2%(1)	15.2%(7)	26.1%(12)	36.9%(17)	17.4%(8)	2.2%(1)
	Final	4.3%(2)	8.4% (4)	15.2%(7)	28.3%(13)	36.9%(17)	6.5%(3)
Exercises	Midterm		2.2% (4)	13.0%(6)	39.1%(18)	36.9%(17)	2.2%(1)
	Final		2.2% (1)	2.2% (1)	41.3%(19)	54.3%(25)	2.2%(1)

Positive Responses from Reflective Learner Journal Entries

Table 5 presents the major themes that emerged from the reflective journal entries on the course with diagnostic-needs analysis. They were categorized into two main themes: affective reflection and cognitive reflection. A majority of the learners reported that they became less stressful toward academic reading (67.4%) and more willing to take actions to adjust their reading habits (82.7%). Some mentioned about their growing confidence in academic reading (24.1%). In other words, the learners showed a positive attitude toward the academic reading course designed with diagnostic-need analysis.

Additionally, most of them reported that they became more skillful (60.9%), while some of them revealed their improvement in specialty knowledge (36.9%), vocabulary and writing (32.6%), text comprehension (26.1%), and reading speed (21.7%). When reflecting on the course work, most of the learners (60.9%) indicated that the teacher's help with highlighting the key-points facilitated reading and made academic reading become less threatening. Interestingly, 50% of them especially mentioned their enjoyment of the movie and the DVDs presentation supplemented for the topics of "language acquisition" and "language and the brain."

Table 5

Major Themes Emerged from Learning Reflective Journal Entries

I. ***Affective Reflection***	Percentage
I took actions to change my reading habits.	82.7%
I changed my attitude toward reading academic textbooks.	67.4%
I became more confident in reading academic textbooks.	24.1%
II. Cognitive Reflection	
I improved my reading skills.	60.9%
I benefited a lot from my teacher's highlighting the key-points by Power-point presentation.	60.9%
I learned a lot from the DVDs presentation for some topics.	50%
I improved my knowledge in linguistics.	36.9%
I improved my vocabulary and writing ability.	32.6%
I improved my comprehension ability.	26.1%
I improved my reading speed.	21.7%
I benefited a lot from the teacher's explanation of the sentences.	17.4%

N=46

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to help improve the technical university EFL learners' academic reading skills by presenting remedial EAP reading course based on a diagnostic of their difficulties and needs. With regard to the learners' difficulties in academic reading, Table 1 reveals that most of the learners in this study attributed their difficulties in academic reading to vocabulary problems. This finding supports previous studies that indicate a lack of vocabulary knowledge is one of the largest obstacles to efficiently comprehending academic texts in L2 (Alderson, 1984; Levine & Reves, 1990). Given that college students in general universities in Taiwan have a small vocabulary size of 2000-3000 words, which is far below the requirement of 5000-7000 words in order to comprehend college English textbooks (Chen, 1999), it is not surprising to find that most of the learners in this study reported their difficulties in academic reading due to limited vocabulary ability.

To solve the problem of understanding new lexis, this study provided the learners with contextual guessing strategies for unknown words. The positive result was presented in Table 3 revealing a decreasing use of the dictionary for every single unknown word and an increasing use of guessing strategies. Obviously, the ability to solve word problems is an essential skill for learners. This finding suggests that if teachers understand their students' difficulties, they can be supportive in providing a helpful reading course that meets their needs.

The findings of this study also revealed that comprehension of subject knowledge was another difficulty in academic reading for the technical university EFL learners. To comprehend academic content exclusively in English is overwhelming for those learners with limited language proficiency. As studies in schema theories have demonstrated, understanding greatly depends on readers' background knowledge of the content area of a text (Carrell, 1985). Most of the learners in the study reported that the terminologies were remote from their vocabulary bank. This gap might lie in the fact that the general English courses in the senior high school and university cannot cater equally to these academic requirements in the students' fields of specialization. When leaving the reading course for their academic work, the students still had no idea about how to read and how to apply the information to their college-level discipline courses. Most of them, therefore, often complained about the complicated textbooks and the huge number of reading assignments.

To facilitate the learners' academic reading, this study suggested several activities as presented in Section 4.2. The increasingly improved performances on written tests and the exercises, supplemented with the learners' self-evaluation and reflections indicated that this

remedial reading course facilitated their academic reading. As shown in Table 5, the provision of visual aids, such as PowerPoint and DVDs, impressed the learners greatly and thus boosted their learning motivation in EAP reading. The learners were first presented with the films to activate their prior knowledge and then were directed to the textbook for additional insights and information. Providing the learners with a simpler textbook might be another reason for why most of the learners made some progress towards the achievement tests and the exercises. This suggests that providing learners with comprehensible reading materials stimulates their intellectual interests and helps them develop competence in academic reading (Brown, 2007).

Furthermore, the results of the study implied the teacher's roles in teaching content reading. As shown in Table 5, a majority of learners were satisfied with the teacher's assistance in highlighting the key-points. This finding was consistent with Huang's (2006), which indicated teacher~~'s~~ facilitation is the most prominent element to assist students to read academic textbooks. This teaching method might have a functional relationship to academic performance in Table 4 and perceptions of achievement in Table 2. However, while the teacher's explanation was favored, too much reliance on teacher facilitation~~s~~ might cause a decrease in previewing lessons and in class participation, as shown in Table 2.

The results of this study necessitate reading strategies for academic reading, lending support to Mustafa's (1998), which indicated that formal instruction on reading strategies was perceived by the students as being helpful in performing academic tasks. This study also supports Alexander's (1996) concern that explicit and systematic teaching of reading strategies through proper methodology led to positive attitude toward learning. Given the facts that many technical university learners lack the skill to understand the academic textbooks, it is clear that they need skill training for effective reading comprehension because they need to equip themselves with reading skills to solve their academic reading comprehension problem. A number of studies have also indicated that reading comprehension in L2 can be improved by explicit teaching of a repertoire of strategies (Barnett, 1988; Dreyer & Nel, 2003; Janzen & Stroller, 1998; Rusciolelli, 1995).

Conclusion, Limitations, and Pedagogical Implications

This article has described an approach to academic literacy which helped EFL learners to improve comprehension of the academic textbook in their specialization by diagnosing their academic reading difficulties and needs and then providing them with a remedial reading course. The results of this action research suggested that

integrating diagnostic needs analysis into academic reading course did make the learners' linguistic study more comprehensible and consequently boosted their confidence in EAP reading.

Although this course with a diagnostic basis did help develop technical university EFL learners' EAP reading, it is hard to exclude some contributing factors resulting in some limitations in terms of course design. First, the researcher had the inability to randomly select and assign the subjects to the experimental and control groups due to the course arrangement. This course assignment was predetermined by the students' class schedules for the four-year academic study. Additionally, it is difficult to design an instructional program responding to learners' individual differences, including learning style preferences, high/low motivation, gender, etc.

Despite the limitations, there are several pedagogical implications that might facilitate learners' academic reading. First, the teacher should be supportive as a facilitator, as indicated in Table 5. EFL teachers should design the survey according to their own teaching context and their students' needs. Pre-teaching the frequently occurring terminologies or difficult~~y~~ words might make students feel secure with EAP reading. It might also be helpful to activate appropriate schema by asking warm-up questions, directing students to relate their prior knowledge to the content, and providing the visual aids, such as PowerPoint and DVDs. Another favorite support is to explain the organization and structure of the articles and highlight main ideas and details in the text.

Second, it is a content-based teacher's responsibility to choose the reading texts with proper difficulty level and with less complicated sentence structures, clear organization and layout. It's very important to take language-learning needs into consideration due to the fact that most university students are not ready for academic reading. For the inexperienced learners, it is helpful to start with less intimidating textbooks to maximize EAP reading.

Finally, it is imperative to incorporate strategies with EAP reading, namely to broaden the vocabulary development by teaching prefix and suffix and to teach reading strategies such as predicting, skimming, scanning, finding main ideas, using context clues, referring to graphs and tables, and summarizing. As suggested by Alexander (1996), for students to become more motivated strategic readers, teachers should be not only responsible for developing reading instruction, but they also need to promote the use of effective reading strategies through systematic teaching. It is also important that instructors of reading courses help learners apply skills to their college-level courses and learn how to succeed in subsequent college study; as indicated in the previous research, ~~t~~o offer effective teaching, instruction

must focus on application of skills learned in a reading class in specific contexts (Allen, 1998; Buick, 1993; Janzen & Stoller, 1998; Mustafa, 1998; Walker & Huber, 2002). Moreover, learners need to learn a variety of strategies and be able to choose those that work best for different purposes.

Additionally, it is also necessary to integrate writing such as essay questions or summaries into EAP writing. Thus, learners can not only practice the reading skills with excerpts from the text, but also practice writing skills that will be required in their academic life.

Acknowledgements

This study was funded by National Formosa University under the project *TCS-097058* for enhancing teaching and learning.

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Pakistani University English Teachers' Cognitions and Classroom Practices Regarding Their Use of the Learners' First Languages

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Abstract
There has been a recent increase in research into language teachers' cognitions regarding their use of the learners' mother tongue(s). However, one strand of this research has tended to elicit idealized cognitions with little reference to actual classroom behaviour through questionnaires and interviews. This is in contrast to the other strand which, through drawing on observations too, has managed to elicit situated cognitions based on classroom events. However, the relationship between these and the teachers' idealized cognitions has often been left unexplored. If there is a gap, this could potentially result in negative emotions, such as guilt and confusion, amongst students as well as teachers. This case study of three Pakistani university English teachers explores (through interview) their idealized cognitions regarding their use of the target language and the learners' first language(s) (Urdu and Pashto); it explores their observed classroom practices and their rationale for these, elicited through stimulated recall. Findings reveal that while the idealized cognitions of all three teachers supported the exclusive use of the target language, two of these teachers used the learners' first languages in class to some extent and subsequently justified 'judicious' first language use. To explain the gap between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour, the study draws on various personal and contextual factors, e.g. other cognitions including feelings of identity, prior language learning experiences and perceptions of the students' language proficiency. Implications include the need for awareness-raising in Pakistani higher education and public debate on language policy.

Keywords: Teacher cognition, first language use, Pakistani higher education, English teaching

Introduction

There has been increasing interest in recent years in teacher cognition, "what teachers think, know and believe" (Borg, 2006, p. 1), and in how this shapes teachers' classroom practices and is shaped by their experiences. As Borg explains, this interest is inspired partly by insights drawn from the field of psychology as to how action is shaped by cognition and partly by growing recognition of the centrality of the teachers' role in influencing classroom events. Accordingly, in language learning contexts where educational policy and classroom practices appear to differ widely and learning outcomes seem disappointing, e.g. Pakistan (Shamim, 2008), it may be particularly important to direct research towards language teacher cognition, since educational policy and teacher education might then benefit. Notwithstanding this insight, teacher cognition research in international contexts, while growing (Borg, 2012), is still limited. Themes that have been addressed include communicative language teaching (CLT) (e.g. Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood and Son, 2004; Wyatt, 2009; Wyatt and Borg, 2011), grammar teaching (e.g. Borg, 1998; Phipps and Borg, 2009), learner autonomy (e.g. Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012), materials design and development (e.g. Wyatt, 2011) and teachers' use of the learners' first language (L1) (e.g. Al-Alawi, 2008; Macaro, 2001; McMillan and Turnbull, 2009).

In this paper, we focus on teacher cognition in relation to the last of these themes in a hitherto little-explored Pakistani university context, where teachers' use of the learners' L1 can be seen as a controversial issue, as elsewhere. Indeed, in numerous countries this practice has been viewed by many, including administrators and politicians, entirely negatively as a "skeleton in the cupboard … a taboo subject, a source of embarrassment" (Prodromou, 2002, p. 6). This is despite research evidence that suggests using the L1 can help teachers contribute to learning, either directly, e.g. to explain complicated concepts, or indirectly, e.g. to develop positive relationships with students (Littlewood and Yu, 2009). Accordingly, if they are not allowed to use L1 but find it hard to conform to this and worry they are not using the target language (TL) enough, language teachers are likely to feel guilty (Butzkamm, 2003). The pressures are likely to be particularly acute in the field of *English* language teaching, given the hegemonic role of English in a post-colonial world (Phillipson, 1992), and, in contexts politically unfavourable to L1 use such as ours, we suggest tensions between cognitions and practices might be more likely to arise. After reviewing relevant literature and introducing the research context and methodology, we present the findings of a multi-case study focused on three Pakistani university teachers of English as a second language (ESL), exploring

relationships between their cognitions and practices regarding L1 use and investigating reasons for any apparent gaps.

Literature Review

Teacher Cognition Research Regarding L1 Use

There is a relative paucity of teacher cognition research as far as this relates to L1 use. This is highlighted by Littlewood and Yu (2009), who, given this deficit, conducted their own study that first asked students to recollect the extent of their former teachers' L1 use in class and secondly (on the basis of their recollections) to identify what these teachers' purposes were in using L1 (in as far as they could interpret them from memory). Obviously, this would mean asking a lot of students.

Other studies have sought to access teachers' cognitions more directly, e.g. through eliciting their cognitions through questionnaires or interviews, sometimes in conjunction with classroom observations, a combination that allows teachers' actual classroom practices to be compared with their reported beliefs and behaviour. This can provide insights, e.g. into whether there is a gap or fit. A number of studies have been conducted since Macaro's (2001) influential work that identified three broad theoretical positions adopted by teachers: the virtual (using the TL exclusively), the maximal (using the TL as much as possible, with L1 use viewed prejudicially) and the optimal (using the L1 purposefully and 'judiciously' for benefit). A selection of these studies (subsequently discussed) is presented in tabular form (see Table 1).

Idealized Cognitions in Questionnaire/Interview Studies

Having introduced these studies, we now analyse them more closely. Before presenting findings, our first observation is that the research methodology used is likely to have impacted the results. Five of the studies listed in Table 1 used questionnaires or interviews but did not include an observational element, and this omission allows for the possibility that some cognitions that related much more closely to *ideals* than actual realities were elicited. Borg (2006, p. 280) reminds us: "data based on and elicited in relation to observed classroom events may better capture teachers' cognitions in relation to actual practice". While he does not suggest "that ideal cognitions are less important [since] they do provide insights into the workings of teachers' minds", Borg also argues that "as researchers we must ensure that cognitions expressed theoretically and in relation to ideals are not used as evidence of the practically-oriented cognitions which inform teachers' actual instructional practices" (p. 280).

As to what idealized cognitions with regard to the proportion of TL/L1 used in teaching might look like, one possibility is that they might support the exclusive use of the TL, partly since this is mandated by many educational authorities worldwide. In Hong Kong, for example, Littlewood and Yu (2009, p. 66) report, teachers are directed to create "a language-rich environment [which involves] the use of English in all English lessons and beyond: teachers should teach English through English and encourage learners to interact with one another in English".

In the wholly questionnaire/interview studies listed below, there is significant support for exclusive use of the TL. In Al-Shidhani's (2009) survey of 150 English teachers in Oman, only 40% agreed with the statement: "The teacher should be allowed to use Arabic" (their own first language and that of their learners) (p. 187). Likewise, a majority (59%) of the 29 native-speaker teachers of English in Japan, surveyed by McMillan and Rivers (2011), felt negatively or had mixed feelings about using their learners' L1 (Japanese) in class, even though a similar proportion rated themselves as able to communicate with some effectiveness in the Japanese language. An even higher proportion (over 60%) of 24 native-speaker teachers of Chinese, in Wang and Kirkpatrick's (2012) study, supported a monolingual approach that excluded the use of English as a lingua franca. One of them told the authors:

> Our school has a very strict rule prohibiting the use of English. Every teacher knows it. As you can see along the corridors, posters and banners are plentiful on the walls reminding our students about speaking Chinese only. It's our responsibility to hold to the rule and help students to obey it (Wang and Kirkpatrick, 2012, p. 6).

The 'monolingual principle' (Howatt, 1984) is well-established in language teaching. It originally gained widespread recognition more than a hundred years ago, as language teaching specialists rejected the *grammar-translation* approach and embraced alternatives, such as the *direct method*, which was characterized by the avoidance of translation and exclusive TL use in foreign and second language classrooms. The 'monolingual principle' has continued to dominate language teaching approaches since, e.g. through *situational language teaching* and *audiolingualism* that were popular until the 1960s (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

More recently, it was a tenet of Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *natural approach*, central to which are the *acquisition/learning hypothesis*, which holds that acquisition of a second language parallels first language development, and the *input hypothesis*, which holds that a

Table 1

Teacher cognition studies regarding use of the learners' L1

Source	***Focus***	***Methods***	***Number of teachers***	***Subject taught***	***Experience***	***Nationality***	***Educational level***	***Country***	***Learners' L1***
Al-Alawi (2008)	Teachers' use of learners' L1 & beliefs about this use	Observations & interviews	5	English	1-13 years	Omani & Indian	Lower secondary school	Oman	Arabic
Al-Buraiki (2008)	1. Teachers' L1 use & rationale 2. Teachers' reported beliefs and practices	1. Observations & interviews 2.Questionnaires	6 & 40	English	Not stated	Omani	Primary school	Oman	Arabic
Al-Hadhrami (2008)	Frequency of teachers' uses of L1 & rationale	Observations & interviews	4	English	10+ years	Omani	Lower secondary school (Grade 5)	Oman	Arabic
Al-Jadidi (2009)	Extent & purposes of teachers' use of learners' L1 & effect of non-use	Observations & interviews	10	English	Experienced	Various (Arabic & non-Arabic speakers)	University	Oman	Arabic
Al-Shidhani (2009)	Teachers' self-reported beliefs & practices regarding L1 use	Questionnaires	150	English	1-10+ years	Not stated (but all Arabic-speakers)	Primary – Secondary school	Oman	Arabic
Barnard, Robinson, da Costa & da Silva Sarmento (2011)	Teachers' code-switching & attitudes towards this	Observations & interviews	4	English	Not stated	Timorese	University	Timor-Leste	Tetum (also spoke Indonesian, Portuguese)
Chimbutane (2013)	Teachers' beliefs & code-switching practices in L1 & the second language	Observations & interviews	3	Changana & Portuguese	1-12 years	Mozambican	Primary school (Grades 4-5)	Mozambique	Changana

Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010)	Teachers' uses of TL/L1 & rationale for code-switching	Observations & interviews	3	Japanese	1-3 years	Japanese & British	Secondary school	UK	English
Macaro (2001)	Teachers' use of learners' L1, reflections & beliefs about code-switching	Observations & interviews	2	French	Pre-service	Not stated	Secondary school	UK	English
McMillan & Rivers (2011)	Teachers' attitudes towards using their learners' L1, & knowledge & beliefs regarding CLT & TL use	Questionnaires	29	English	1-15 years in-country (Japanese proficiency: beginner – advanced)	English native-speakers	University	Japan	Japanese
McMillan & Turnbull (2009)	Teachers' beliefs & attitudes regarding TL/L1 use, & code-switching practices	Observations & interviews	2	French immersion	10+ years	Canadian	Lower secondary school (Grade 7)	Canada	English
Trent (2013)	Teachers' reported beliefs & practices regarding L1 use in relation to school policy; their changing identities during a practicum	Interviews	6	English	Pre-service	Chinese	Secondary school	Hong Kong	Cantonese
Wang & Kirkpatrick (2012)	Teachers' attitudes towards using English as a lingua franca & reported practices	Interviews	24	Chinese	1-20 years (English proficiency: limited – good)	Chinese	University	China	Various
Yavuz (2012)	Teachers' reports on their L1 use	Interviews	12	English	Experienced	Turkish	Primary school	Turkey	Turkish

sufficient quantity of comprehensible input is required for acquisition to take place (Richards and Rodgers, 1986); it has also been argued that the TL can be more motivating to learn if it is required actively for classroom communication (Littlewood and Yu, 2009). Supporters of the 'monolingual principle' thus have second language acquisition theory to draw upon, even though Krashen's views on the *acquisition/learning hypothesis* have subsequently been challenged, e.g. by Butzkamm (2003), who suggests that a more appropriate model than the monolingual baby would be the young developing bilingual, using one language as support while learning the other.

Despite such reservations, the 'monolingual principle' has drawn support from western countries furthering the spread of dominant languages in a post-colonial world, as well as educational administrators in different international contexts, particularly those who, as part of the establishment, might possess conservative views about language, dislike code-switching and gravitate towards 'inner circle' norms (Phillipson, 1992). Schools, too, often tend to endorse the 'monolingual principle'. In Hong Kong, Trent (2013) reports, the parents may complain if the TL is not used exclusively.

Accordingly, it might not be surprising if teachers are influenced by arguments supporting the 'monolingual principle'. Idealized cognitions, elicited through questionnaire/interview studies, might reflect this, with their results determined partly by the research methodology used as well as the broader context in which the study was conducted. Interestingly, for example, Yavuz's (2012) research in Turkey, drawing on interviews with primary school teachers, reported that only one of 12 claimed not to use the L1 at all. However, Yavuz suggests that Turkish teachers are under less pressure to use the TL exclusively. Furthermore, the research question used: "What is the place of L1

in your teaching?" (p. 4342), which Yavuz describes as 'neutral', actually seems to imply that teachers would have found some place for L1.

The influence of the research methodology used is also evident in Al-Buraiki's (2008) study of primary school teachers in Oman. While a majority of the 40 surveyed agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "English teachers should use English all the time because pupils do not hear English out of class" (p. 15), all 6 of those from a similar population observed did in fact use some L1. This underlines the need, articulated by Borg (2006), for cognitions to be elicited in relation to observed classroom practices. Accordingly, we now turn to studies that have drawn upon observational data.

Proponents of the Virtual Position

Four of the 9 observational studies introduced earlier (Table 1) include examples of teachers who adopted the virtual position, i.e. who made exclusive use of the L1 through choice. One of the five Omani English teachers in Al-Alawi (2008), for example, appears to have been convinced about the need to provide plenty of comprehensible input for his lower secondary learners. He "felt that learners should be surrounded with the L2 [second language] in order to develop proficiency in it" and maintained: "Using the L1 might hinder the process of learning the target language" (p. 5). Similarly, one of the four teachers in Barnard et al. (2011) and one of the three in Chimbutane (2013) maintained exclusive TL use. In each case, these teachers positioned themselves as a 'model' for their learners. For the teacher in Chimbutane, maintaining the 'purity' of the Changana language (the TL) was also important. For the teacher in Barnard et al., an important consideration was that the learners were of a high proficiency and were training to be English teachers, so there was no possible justification for using L1 (in this case, Tetum).

Interestingly, a teacher in Al-Jadidi (2009) called 'Jasmine' said almost the same thing about the Omani pre-service English teachers she was tutoring. Like the teacher in Al-Alawi, another bilingual teacher in Al-Jadidi's study called 'Jihad' was committed to using the TL exclusively to increase the comprehensible input available. In fact, Jihad went so far as to not answer his students' questions in L1 (Arabic) until they were reformulated in English.

In the 9 observational studies, though, the teachers adopting a virtual position were in the minority. In fact, only 5 of the 39 bilingual teachers in these studies used no L1 at all in class, for reasons given above, e.g. to increase exposure to the TL or in line with their identity as 'models' to emulate. However, there were also non-L1 speakers in these studies, who did not simply because they could not, but may have done if they were able to, e.g. an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi (2008) who was favourable to the practice but could not speak Arabic.

Proponents of the Maximal Position

Besides revealing proponents of the virtual position using no L1 on principle, these 9 observational studies also showcase another 7 teachers who pragmatically took the maximal position. This view holds no pedagogical value lies in L1 use, but recognises that "perfect teaching and learning conditions do not exist" (Macaro, 2001, p. 535), and therefore some L1 might be necessary. An example of these teachers is 'Frank', working on a French immersion programme in Canada with Grade 7 learners, who had been instructed in English in Grades 4-6 (apart from 30 minutes French per day), but were now expected to learn Maths, Science and other subjects in French (McMillan and Turnbull, 2009). Frank supported the virtual position, i.e. he aimed for total exclusion of the L1, on

the grounds it would lead to interference and confusion and cause learners to ignore TL input. However, given the language level of the learners, he acknowledged a need to use minimal L1, e.g. for administrative issues, in September, at the beginning of the academic year, while trying to use as much French as possible to increase the comprehensible input available. By October, he was using virtually 100% French, as observational evidence confirmed. Only very rarely did he subsequently use English, e.g. a word or two to remind learners of a key concept they had studied in Grade 6. One can assume that had he been teaching a higher grade he would have excluded the limited L1 he used.

Like Frank, a teacher in Chimbutane (2013) wanted to keep the TL and L1 separate, allowing code-switching only as a last resort when her instructions were not understood. Similarly motivated was a pre-service secondary school teacher in Macaro (2001), who wanted to teach entirely in the L2 (French), as instructed by the National Curriculum. However, concerned with learners' occasional frustration on being unable to follow her instructions, she felt forced to switch to the L1 (English), experiencing this as a kind of defeat. A teacher in Al-Hadhrami (2008) also described using the L1 as a last resort.

Teachers adopting a maximal position may be influenced by the way dominant methodological approaches, e.g. *communicative language teaching (CLT)* and *task-based language teaching (TBLT),* are presented. According to Vivian Cook (2001, p. 404), while proponents of these approaches might accept some L1 use, these approaches "have no necessary relationship with the L1…the only times the L1 is mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimize its use".

Proponents of the Optimal Position

A third position is the optimal, which holds that some pedagogical value lies in L1 use, with some aspects of learning consequently enhanced (Macaro, 2001). This should allow teachers to explore how best to use the L1 in a principled way, exploiting it 'judiciously' to support the three key dimensions of pedagogical communication identified by Littlewood and Yu (2009, p. 69): "establishing constructive relationships, ensuring understanding, and maintaining a disciplined environment". Key to this, though, is how the concept 'judicious use' is understood. Al-Hadhrami (2008), for example, was concerned as one of the four teachers in his study had a very relaxed attitude to L1 use, arguing it should constitute approximately 60%. In the observed lesson, "learners had little exposure to English and, mirroring the teacher, they spoke out in Arabic rather than attempting to do so in English" (p. 25). Hobbs et al. (2010) noted a similar phenomenon in the observed lessons of two Japanese teachers in the UK. 70-75% of their teacher talk was in the learners' L1 (English), a source of embarrassment to one of these teachers in the subsequent interview, when the focus of the observation was brought to her attention; her learners also used considerable L1. Commentators concerned about learners gaining sufficient exposure to the TL and encouragement to use it, e.g. Turnbull (2001), tend to regard such high proportions of teacher talk in L1 as excessive.

However, some teachers might have deeply-held convictions, which they feel justify their use of the L1. A teacher in Barnard et al. (2011) argued against "the monolingual policy of the institution and department", claiming teachers' needed to "avoid linguistic imperialism by promoting and developing Tetum (the learners' L1), which is an index of [the] national identity" (p. 50). In this teacher's observed 80-minute lesson, teacher talk was dominant (91%) and most of this was in Tetum. Only 36% was in the TL (English).

In this case, ideology and concerns about national identity may have trumped other considerations in influencing L1 use. Contrast this with an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi (2008), who used the learners' L1 (Arabic) mostly to joke with them.

Issues of identity also concerned 6 pre-service Chinese teachers of English in Hong Kong in Trent's (2013) longitudinal study. Initially, at the start of their practicum, influenced by school principals who insisted on 'English only' policies, these teachers adhered. "That's what I did", one reported, "I was just a follower of the Hong Kong education policy. But it's really difficult, in reality, in the classroom" (p. 228). Gradually, though, contact with experienced teachers helped these novices realize that this exclusive TL policy could be implemented more flexibly, though there was some guilt and secrecy involved in using the L1. Over time, they then developed more confidence in the belief that "Cantonese can function as a valuable tool for both learning and classroom management" (p. 235), their identities gradually shifting as they moved closer to the optimal position.

Evidence of L1 being used effectively to support learning by proponents of the optimal position is provided in Macaro (2001) and McMillan and Turnbull (2009). In the former, a pre-service teacher of French uses L1 to promote "a deeper understanding of semantic and syntactic equivalents", reduce the danger of confusion and avoid communication breakdowns (Macaro, 2001, p. 544). Although there had been some awareness-raising on the teacher education course, her use of the L1 appeared largely intuitive, based on her own language learning experiences and reading of the classroom situation. However, it was also consistent with her understandings of CLT; in Macaro's view, her judicious use of L1 (it was never very extensive) supported the learners' engagement in authentic, learner-centred tasks. Similarly, 'Pierre', a French immersion teacher in McMillan and Turnbull (2009), used the L1 (English) judiciously to increase comprehension and

"scaffold TL production" (p. 24); he was very concerned about the learners getting frustrated and confused, and accordingly used more L1 at the beginning of the year, gradually reducing this. His approach here, developed through extensive teaching experience, was carefully self-monitored. McMillan and Turnbull suggest that in the observed lessons Pierre's use of English led "to further TL exposure, intake and use of French by students" (p. 33), supporting his aim to provide "rich exposure" to the language (p. 24). They suggest his L1 use was not above 15%, beyond which, they cite Macaro (2005) as arguing, it can begin to have a negative effect on learning. Like the code-switching teacher in Macaro (2001) and, regardless of institutional requirements that mandated exclusive TL use, Pierre was comfortable with the way he used L1.

Summary

Our review of the literature demonstrates that language teachers seem to adopt a range of positions towards L1 use. Some seem to use it 'judiciously', carefully attuning this use to their learners' levels (e.g. university/school) and needs, in line with current thinking in second language acquisition research (e.g. Guy Cook, 2007). However, others might seem to over-use it carelessly, use it secretively and fearfully, so compromising their sense of identity as teachers, or avoid it entirely for a variety of reasons, e.g. to 'model' TL behaviour, increase the comprehensible input available or conform to mandated educational policy. The studies of Macaro (2001) and McMillan and Turnbull (2009) highlight how different types of experience, of language learning and teaching, and of how extensive this experience is, can impact teacher cognition and behaviour. Interestingly, in Macaro's study, awareness-raising through teacher education may have had less impact, possibly as he was working with pre-service teachers who presumably

had considerable theoretical input to filter slowly into their practical knowledge. Teaching can be very challenging at this stage of a career (Berliner, 1988).

None of these studies reveal any evidence of a gap between cognitions and practices, though teachers clearly experienced tensions, e.g. in Trent's (2013) study, which charted identity shift. This may be because observations were generally used as the basis for subsequent stimulated recall, during which elicited cognitions were situated, i.e. based on actual classroom events. This ordering allowed the research methodology itself to provide a learning experience, a phenomenon highlighted, in fact, by the teachers in McMillan and Turnbull (2009).

This is in contrast to the studies that did not use observations. These may have elicited primarily idealized cognitions, perhaps bearing little relation to the teachers' actual classroom behaviour. If there is a gap, this can be a matter of concern, for if teachers believe they should/do teach in one way but actually teach in another, this may cause psychological and educational problems. Consequences may include not only their learners not reaching their full potential, but also the teachers themselves experiencing fear, guilt, alienation or suffering identity crises or loss of confidence. If this is the case, there may be implications for educational policy, teacher education and supervision, which suggests studies are required that explore potential gaps between idealized and situated cognitions.

The Research Context

Language teacher cognition research in Pakistan, the national context of this study, is still limited. As Shamim (2008) reports, though, various observational studies have investigated schoolteachers' classroom practices in Pakistan, typically describing lessons

(regardless of level, province or type of school) as mostly dominated by teacher talk, with the teachers chiefly utilizing reading aloud techniques, translation and form-focused activities drawn from the coursebook, and additionally making extensive use of the blackboard. However, despite the similarities in observed teaching methodology employed across different contexts, and also noted since (e.g. by Nawab, 2012), some significant differences in the teachers' use of the TL (English) and the learners' L1 were observed, these depending largely on the type of school (Shamim, 2008).

Pakistan's language policies in education have been shaped by its colonial past. As Coleman (2010, p. 14) explains: During the British colonial era, the "policy was that Urdu should be the medium of instruction for the masses and that English should be the medium for the elite". This is a distinction that is still evident in the education provision today, in that most children attend *government Urdu-medium schools* that are free, while a tiny minority go to *private elite English-medium schools* that are very expensive. Shamim (2011, p. 6) notes that in Pakistani society the level of proficiency in English is generally seen as "a major indicator of social class, quality of educational standards and learning outcomes [so that accordingly] for many people there is a fuzzy boundary between being educated and knowing English". Hence the attraction of the *private elite English-medium schools*, even amongst dominant social groups that would like to promote Urdu, which, while the first language of fewer than 8%, is a marker of Muslim identity. There are also other types of school in Pakistan, e.g. *madrasas*, which offer an Islamic-oriented education in Arabic, and *government Sindhi-* and *Pashto-medium schools* in the provinces where these regional languages are spoken (Shamim, 2008). The situation is not static and the most significant change in recent years is that there has been an upsurge in the number of lower-middle class families sending their children to

affordable *private non-elite English-medium schools,* attracted by the promise as Coleman (2010, p. 10) suggests, of an 'English' education, "even though in reality [this claim] may not be fulfilled". Indeed, Shamim (2008, p. 240) reports observing "various levels of code-switching between English, Urdu and the local languages" in the classroom discourse of 'English' teachers in such schools, in contrast to 'English only' in the *elite* schools and a mixture of Urdu and local languages in the *Urdu-medium* schools. This suggests that only a very small minority of students (the children of the rich and powerful) gain much exposure to English in English lessons at school. This brings us to the limited research available that sheds light on the teachers' cognitions.

If teachers from *private non-elite English-medium schools* that promise parents 'English' education are not providing this, then there would seem to be the scope for tension and the guilt that accompanies a maximal position. Indeed Shamim (2011, p. 9) reports: "as the use of one or more shared home languages is not legitimised (in such schools), the teachers do not admit to using them in the classroom". The tensions can be considerable. Use of Urdu and regional languages such as Sindh are "strongly discouraged on campus and, at times, also punishable by fine… despite the fact that Urdu [is] unofficially used in classrooms to facilitate teaching/learning in almost all the schools" (Tamim, 2013, p. 10). Teachers expected to use English in *government Urdu-medium schools* also might be less than candid in discussing practices that lack legitimacy. Indeed, Coleman (2010, p. 20) reports meeting informants who "were not expecting to experience any difficulties in teaching through the medium of English because they were 'educated people', [but who] nevertheless chose to be interviewed through an interpreter because they did not understand [his] English".

A key reason for lack of use of the TL (English) might be lack of competence. Rahman (2001) speaks of teachers not "qualified to teach anything but English of a rudimentary kind through rote-learning and spoon-feeding methods" (p. 248) in schools where the "salary structure only attracts teachers who are not fluent – indeed not even tolerably competent – in English" (p. 251). Such teachers might also lack self-confidence (Coleman, 2010), particularly if learners are picking up on their English language 'deficiencies', threatening their self-esteem and sense of identity (Tamim, 2013). The notion of 'deficit' emerges from other studies too, e.g. Nawab's (2012). Drawing on observations and interviews of rural schoolteachers employing extensive use of the L1, this encountered those who "did not know how English could be taught in any other way" (p. 700).

There is little evidence of reported optimal use of the L1 in this context, although Gulzar's (2010) questionnaire completed by a cross-sectional sample of 406 Pakistani English teachers revealed that 87% agreed or strongly agreed that the need to provide clarification prompted code-switching in the classroom. Over two-thirds also agreed that code-switching was used for 'ease of expression' and to give instructions effectively, translate, socialize and provide emphasis. The item that gained least agreement (50%) was 'linguistic competence', but the item was worded ambiguously in the questionnaire. 'Linguistic *in*competence' (in English) might have been a better term, according to the researcher's apparent intention. Some limited support for optimal use of the L1 is also provided by 10 Pakistani 'experts' (with PhDs or MAs in Linguistics from the UK), interviewed by Gulzar and Qadir (2010). However, although these experts demonstrated a grasp of the theoretical issues regarding 'judicious' L1 use, which might suggest they supported it, they showed no inclination to encourage teachers' use of the learners' L1

due to the dangers of over-use. It may be relevant that some, if not all, were employed at universities.

In Pakistan, there is the expectation that at university English is *the* language in which all content is taught across the curriculum in all faculties. Indeed, Shamim (2008, p. 241) quotes a 2007 white paper that states "for all university education, English should be the medium of instruction", a long-standing policy that has gained widespread support, e.g. by Rahman (2001). However, the virtual position might not be that easy to implement. Where the 'English only' policy is applied strictly, for example, students coming from *Urdu-medium* schools can struggle to adjust (Tamim, 2013), and the reaction of some teachers may have been to abandon the language policy. An elderly professor of Physics, for example, told *The Guardian*:

> Over my 37 years of university teaching I have almost stopped giving lectures in English and have switched into Urdu. This is by necessity rather than choice. Students are less able to read, write and speak in English today than they were some decades ago (de Lotbinière, 2010, 15 June).

Of course, given their subject-specific training (which could nevertheless be improved [Shamim, 2011]), *English language* university teachers might adhere to the language policy rather more closely. Indeed, we hypothesize that their idealized cognitions might offer some support for the 'virtual position', with their classroom practices matching this to some extent. These are hypotheses we explore in research conducted at one of the newer universities in Pakistan, situated in a province close to the Afghanistan border, where most of the students speak Pashto at home as well as Urdu in public places. Though some gain an education at *private non-elite English-medium schools*, most are from the *government Urdu-medium schools.* This suggests that their proficiency in

English might not, in general, be high on entry to the university, a contextual factor which might impact the practices regarding L1 use of their English teachers. This is a further hypothesis we explore.

Research Design

The research reported on here was part of a larger qualitative, 'intrinsic' case study (Stake, 1995) conducted by the first-named author (hereafter 'I'), which explored the cognitions (idealized and situated) and classroom practices of seven English language university teachers. During three rounds of data gathering over five months that incorporated 23 interviews (55-60 minutes each), 19 classroom observations (45-60 minutes each) and 18 stimulated recall discussions (35-50 minutes each), iterative analysis took place and key themes emerged, with differences and similarities in the cognitions and practices of teachers highlighted in this analysis. Use of Pashto and Urdu in the classroom together with English was one of these emerging themes.

For the purpose of this paper, this topic (the teachers' use of the learners' L1) is explored with the help of data from three cases, these therefore selected on the basis of 'theoretical' sampling (Silverman, 2009), to further understanding of this particular issue. 'Purposive' sampling was also used, with balance, variety and intuitions about what could be learned from the different individuals, important considerations. I was a cultural insider (a university teacher on study leave), and relationships established prior to the research period facilitated access. My insider status meant 'reflexivity' was a threat, but I tried to be critical of my own judgments throughout and avoid personal prejudices and ideological biases (Holliday, 2007), as explained further below.

The three teachers who are the focus of this study (Hasan, Murad and Waseem, all pseudonyms) participated voluntarily, giving informed consent which guaranteed their anonymity and right to withdraw. Hasan and Murad were in their early thirties while Waseem was in his mid-twenties. Though all three had similar qualifications (MAs in English language and literature), their professional experience varied. Hasan and Murad had 5 and 7 years' university teaching experience respectively, while Waseem had only been teaching for 6 months. All three shared with most of their learners a Pashtun ethnic background, i.e. their mother tongue was Pashto. They taught across different faculties of the university besides the English department, where they taught postgraduate as well as undergraduate courses and literature as well as language.

My research questions (adapted for this particular theme) were as follows:

1. What are the teachers' idealized cognitions regarding TL and L1 use?
2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour regarding TL and L1 use, what are the characteristics of these?
3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

To address these research questions, I used semi-structured interviews, observations and stimulated recall discussions in the following ways: Semi-structured interviews, which involved using written questions as a guide but supplementing these freely to follow-up points of interest (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007), helped develop a picture of educational background, teaching experiences, and perceptions, attitudes and beliefs about English language teaching and learning in the Pakistani context. As well as collecting data relevant to the other questions, I was thus eliciting idealized cognitions (Research Question 1), which might, of course, have little semblance to reality (Corbin

and Strauss, 2008). These interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and subsequently checked with the teachers for verification (Stake, 1995).

As I was "ultimately . . . interested in understanding teachers' professional actions, not what or how they think in isolation of what they do" (Borg, 2003, p. 105), I used classroom observations in combination with interviews. These observations were unstructured to gain "the advantage of serendipity: significant discoveries that [are] unanticipated" (Whyte, 1984, p. 27). To minimize the 'reactivity' of these observations (Holliday, 2007), I was a 'non-participant' (Robson, 2011), shared only the main aims and objectives of my study with the teachers, as a full disclosure could have encouraged unnatural behaviour (Cowie, 2009) and recorded data unobtrusively, audio- but not video-recording and keeping a narrative record (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). To help me maintain a critical distance, each time I observed I requested one of my colleagues to sit in the classroom with me, as Padgett (2008) suggests. This permitted 'investigator triangulation' (Stake, 1995), as I spoke afterwards about the lesson with my fellow observer, before I discussed it subsequently with the teacher. Analysing observational data in relation to interview data helped me address Research Question 2.

My third research method was stimulated recall, which involves prompting "participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event" (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p. 13). Stimulated recall sessions were conducted soon after each observation. I first selected certain episodes from the observation, and then, during stimulated recall interviews, triggered memories through audio clips and questions based on the narrative record. This technique can encourage the vivid reliving of an original situation, as Gass and Mackey argue, although, of course, respondents might not always be able or willing to identify the situated cognitions underlying their actions

(Calderhead, 1981). Much depends on having already established a positive rapport and sense of trust (Holliday, 2007), which was crucial to my research. Insights from the stimulated recall sessions helped me address Research Question 3.

To improve the 'trustworthiness' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) of my research, I drew upon three rounds of data collection; this permitted 'data source triangulation' (Stake, 1995). For example, certain key questions were present in all three interviews with each teacher, but somewhat different wording was used each time so that the interviewee would not recognize I was checking understanding of what I had been told previously (van Canh, 2012). Also, where different practices were observed in the first and second observations of a teacher, I was particularly interested in observing a third time. Where consistency was noted, two observations were deemed sufficient. 'Methodological triangulation' (Stake, 1995) was employed constantly, with what said compared to what seen.

In approaching the data, 'sequential analysis' (Holloway and Wheeler, 2002) was adopted, which involves the verbatim transcripts being split into segments, coded and then divided into multiple categories and made into themes. Predetermined categories were not imposed, but rather themes and concepts emerged through the constant comparison (Corbin and Strauss, 2008) of the teachers' observed actions and interview statements. The data analysis software package, NVivo (QSR, 2009), was employed to search for and aggregate codings, which then supported the development of narrative analysis (Cortazzi, 1993) and the creation of text that aimed to be lucid, comprehensive and thorough to facilitate understanding (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Findings

We now present findings in relation to each teacher and then discuss them next to our research questions.

Hasan

Hasan's classroom observations revealed he used the TL as the only medium of instruction, in line with the virtual position (Macaro, 2001), the only exception being when he used Urdu to enquire about a student's health before starting the class (Hasan Observation 1 - HO.1). However, although Hasan also discouraged student use of Urdu, this was done courteously and sympathetically. For example, in response to a request in L1 (for clarification about the differences between formative and summative assessment), he replied with a friendly smile in English (HO.1). He was more tolerant, then, than 'Jihad' in Al-Jadidi (2009), who refused to answer until questions phrased in L1 were reformulated in the TL. Hasan did, however, also explicitly encourage TL use, intervening, during a group work activity, to guide students who had switched to L1 to use English (HO.2).

Interview data revealed a good degree of fit between Hasan's practices and cognitions regarding TL and L1 use. He emphasised that English should be the only medium of instruction, in line with his views on CLT; learners actively involved in negotiating meaning should be exposed to English for communicative uses (Hasan Interview 1 – HI.1). However, it is interesting that, while Hasan used Urdu before the first observed lesson (to speak to a student who had been ill) (HO.1), he also believed that if the university policy was "to speak English outside class with students, it [could] better the standard of English" (HI.1). This might suggest a gap between idealized cognitions and

practices. However, this behaviour was also consistent with another declared belief, that building students' confidence by creating a supportive atmosphere and by being 'lenient' facilitated learning, hence his tolerance, too, of occasional L1 use from learners (HI.2). Hasan had received harsh treatment from uncaring teachers as a language learner and was determined the classroom environment should be positive (HI.2).

Hasan acknowledged that in the Pakistani ESL classroom "the use of the mother tongue by the teacher not only eliminates [students'] sense of alienation but also offers them a sense of ownership in the class proceedings" (Hasan Stimulated Recall 1 – HSR.1), demonstrating understanding here of arguments for the optimal position, also advanced by Guy Cook (2007). Despite this understanding, Hasan nevertheless emphasized that "students need to be encouraged, motivated and inspired to speak English [as this] would ultimately lead to [greater] English proficiency" (HSR.2), and he used this argument to justify adopting a virtual position. Once, though, earlier in his career, he reflected, he had been forced by undergraduate student complaints to make maximal rather than exclusive use of the L1; this demonstrates he could be flexible teaching learners with lower language proficiency. However, in this case, slowly and gradually, like 'Frank' in MacMillan and Turnbull (2009), he had reduced his L1 use. After a couple of months, the students had become accustomed to his exclusive TL use and at the end of the semester some commented favourably on improvements in their English (HSR.1); their interlanguage would also have developed through using English with each other. This experience had thus strengthened his support for the virtual position, although he was also clearly aware of and able to exploit other options.

Murad

Murad's classroom observations revealed that he occasionally used the L1 (mostly Pashto, but sometimes Urdu) in each, one a literature lesson and the other a communication skills class. The main functions of his L1 use appeared to be to consolidate conceptual understanding and to maintain a positive rapport, which relate to two of the three main purposes for using L1 identified by Littlewood and Yu (2009). So, for example, in the literature class, after explaining several lines of Milton in sometimes simplified English, he switched to Pashto to explain further, drawing on a range of religious and other socio-cultural resources in doing so (MO.1). In the communication skills class, when two students joined the lesson towards the end, Murad addressed them ironically in Pashto, saying "Wakhti ranaghlai?" (Aren't you early?), after a short pause adding "Zama matlab de da bal class da para" (I mean for the next class). This allowed all the students (who were allowed to use L1 themselves) to laugh (MO.2). Such use of L1 for joking with the students might not be rare. It was also employed by an Indian teacher in Al-Alawi (2008). Murad appeared comfortable in his occasional use of code-switching (10-15% of his teacher talk was in L1), and this seemed to fit easily with his lively classroom persona.

Curiously, even though Murad used a mixture of TL and L1 in his classes, his idealized cognitions, elicited a week before the first observation, did not appear to match his classroom practices. In fact, he argued that English teachers should *not* facilitate their learners' understanding by drawing on the L1 (Pashto or Urdu) for translation purposes (MI.1). Asked to justify this, he recalled an experience of attending a short in-service teacher education course in the USA, when he had been asked to conduct micro-teaching to absolute beginners, using Krashen and Terrell's (1983) *natural approach*. He had taught Pashto through "speaking it and acting it out (like shaking hands with them) and

not using even a single word" of their L1. It had been "quite challenging", but after a month he had noticed the learners' growing familiarity with Pashto (MI.1). This had given him the conviction it was essential that the teacher's instructions and interactions with the class should be in the TL. In his view, the students also needed to interact in the TL among themselves to develop their interlanguage (MI.2).

Murad's idealized cognitions therefore appeared to support the virtual position, seemingly at odds with his practices, for which there may be various reasons. Was the teacher education course too psychologically remote from his teaching context so that the ideas were difficult to apply, particularly since the primary focus in some of his teaching was on content? Or was he simply unaware of his classroom language, as research in other contexts suggests can be the case. Al-Bureikhi's (2008) study of primary school teachers in Oman, for example, does reveal that while a majority of those she *surveyed* offered theoretical support for the virtual position, all those from a similar population she *observed* used some L1, which might be an indicator of disparity. Alternatively, was Murad advancing (consciously or sub-consciously) a politically correct position in line with educational policy or one he felt demonstrated knowledge (albeit dated) of second language acquisition research? It is difficult to entirely rule out any of these possibilities.

When Murad's classroom use of the L1 was highlighted to him during stimulated recall, he made the following claim: "I do it intentionally because of my attachment to my mother tongue (Pashto) and also because sometimes using one word or phrase from Urdu or Pashto helps clarify students' understanding. It also saves time" (MSR.1). This suggests that when he reflected on it he realized that his L1 use was motivated by both the wish to express identity, as with the teachers in Trent's (2013) study, and pragmatic concerns. Regarding the latter, Murad emphasized that he was responding to the students'

wants and needs (to hear translations into Urdu or Pashto after getting explanations first in English); he ascribed his behaviour as a response to their demands (MSR.2). Again, teachers in Trent (2013) made similar claims. However, Murad reiterated his commitment to using the TL and stressed a preference for making maximal use of it, employing simplified English, which was indeed an observed feature of his teaching (MO.1, MO.2), rather than L1 to offer clarification when he could (MSR.2). Some of these points are discussed further below.

Waseem

The third teacher, Waseem, who had much less teaching experience, used the L1 (mostly Urdu) more extensively than Murad throughout the three lessons observed; it accounted for 15-40% of his teacher talk in each lesson. He used it primarily for 'maintaining a disciplined environment' as well as for 'ensuring conceptual understanding', two of the main functions of L1 use identified by Littlewood and Yu (2009). Regarding the former, he asked students in Urdu at the start of a lesson to rearrange the chairs, for example (WO.1), and he invariably used Urdu following English when he gave instructions about how to complete activities. Urdu was also used to check comprehension. For example, Waseem would ask: "Kia ye clear hey?" (Is it clear?) or "Samajh aagayi?" (Have you understood?) at successive stages of the lesson (WO.2). Like a pre-service teacher of French in Macaro (2001), he also used L1 to promote "a deeper understanding of semantic and syntactic equivalents" (p. 544). While explaining the nature and role of adjectives, for example, he wrote pairs of sentences on the whiteboard, such as the following, to stimulate awareness of comparative differences: She is a *clever girl*. (Wo ek *chalaak larki* hey) (WO.1). Pashto, as noted, was used less. The students did gain

exposure to it, though, on one occasion, when Waseem surprisingly took a phone call in the middle of a lesson, interrupting his teaching for a minute or two to chat to a relative in his mother tongue (WO.1), for which he afterwards apologized to the researcher, acknowledging this would have seemed unprofessional (WSR.1).

Waseem's idealized cognitions did not appear to fit his classroom practices. In fact, in all three interviews he emphasized the importance of the teacher's exclusive TL use, arguing, for example, that the teacher's "use of the mother tongue prevents the students' English speaking skills from fully developing" (WI.2). Responding to a question about the most important elements of an effective language teaching environment, Waseem maintained that "an environment in which English is spoken" is crucial: "communication should be in English because it would help the students as well as the teacher" (WI.3). When his cognitions are taken in isolation from his teaching then, Waseem appears to have been a staunch advocate of the 'monolingual principle' (Howatt, 1984).

A different picture emerges in the stimulated recall discussions when Waseem was presented with evidence of his L1 use. He reflected, for example, that the extent of his L1 use was related to the students' academic background (WSR.2), and indeed the lesson in which he used L1 the most (approximately 40%) was to students from a faculty (Management) he regarded as containing students who were relatively weaker in English (WO.1, WSR.2); his other language classes were with students of Science and English (WO.2, WO.3). Learners' limited language proficiency has been cited by other academics in the Pakistani context for relying on Urdu rather than English (e.g. de Lotbinière, 2010, 15 June). Waseem, of course, though, was teaching English rather than Physics (a subject it is nevertheless expected should also be taught exclusively in English at university). Also, he was using far more L1 than is often recommended; e.g. by Turnbull and

McMillan (2009) who cite Macaro (2005) as suggesting that beyond approximately 15% it can start to have a negative effect on language learning. It is possible that Waseem's very limited teaching experience (only 6 months) influenced the extent of his L1 use for some purposes, e.g. classroom management. Classroom management issues tend to preoccupy novice teachers trying to make sense of their unfamiliar roles (Berliner, 1988), yet to develop classroom routines they are comfortable with, unlike experienced teachers able to concentrate much more on the students' learning (Nunan, 1992).

Nevertheless, some of Waseem's L1 use, when he reflected on it in stimulated recall, was clearly principled and in line with an optimal position. For example, he argued that drawing on knowledge of the mother tongue could facilitate conceptual understanding of the TL and he illustrated this point by highlighting how elision works similarly in Pashto and English (WSR.3). In one of his observed lessons on adjectives, as noted above, he had likewise invited students to compare how the English and Urdu languages were structured (WO.1). He also argued, in line with the optimal position, that teachers should make judicious use of the L1 in class if it is essential for explaining and clarifying students' conceptual understanding, as he thought this to be the teacher's utmost duty (WSR.2). Supporting conceptual understanding, and he was critical of teachers he knew who had not done that sufficiently (WI.3), was perhaps more important to him then than excluding the L1. So, one set of values may have been more important to him than another. Gulzar's (2010) research suggests that supporting conceptual understanding is seen as a valid reason to code-switch by Pakistani teachers.

Discussion

We will now address our research questions.

1. What are the teachers' idealized cognitions regarding TL and L1 use?

It is evident from the data presented in the preceding sections that the idealized cognitions of all three teachers supported the exclusive use of the TL. As with many teachers in the studies (reported above) that elicited idealized cognitions through questionnaires, e.g. Al-Shidhani (2009), McMillan and Rivers (2011), Wang and Kirkpatrick (2012), these teachers argued against the classroom use of L1. They indicated it would reduce the comprehensible input available (Murad) and interfere with TL acquisition (Waseem). As well as also supporting this virtual position, Hasan went one step further by suggesting that the university should make it obligatory to speak English with students outside class, i.e. elsewhere on the campus, so that the standard of their English could improve.

2. If there are any gaps between their idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour regarding TL and L1 use, what are the characteristics of these?

Observational data reveal that in Hasan's case the gap was minor; he used Urdu *before* a lesson out of sympathy, but English exclusively thereafter. He also accepted some L1 use from students; he was not a hard-liner like 'Jihad' in Al-Jadidi (2009).

In contrast, Murad occasionally used L1 (chiefly Pashto), this accounting for 10-15% of his teacher talk, while Waseem used L1 (mostly Urdu) more frequently (15-40% of the time). So there was a clear gap between the idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour regarding L1 use of these two teachers. Interestingly, though, they seemed to code-switch

for different purposes, both to ensure conceptual understanding, but Murad additionally to build a positive rapport and Waseem to maintain discipline.

3. How can gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour be explained?

Data from the stimulated recall discussions help provide insights into possible underlying reasons for the gaps identified. In Hasan's case, both his classroom behaviour and his idealized cognitions are consistent with a virtual position. In this sense, he is similar to one of the teachers researched in each of the following studies discussed above: Al-Alawi (2008), Barnard et al. (2011), Chimbutane (2013). Nevertheless, he is relatively relaxed about his students' use of L1 (as he seems to want to avoid frustrating them) and he puts demonstrating sympathetic concern above his idealized cognition that English should be used in all interaction with students, both inside and outside the classroom. This caring behaviour, though, is consistent with another set of beliefs he holds dear; Hasan wishes to be very different from the unsympathetic teachers he had the misfortune to be a student of. As Pajares (1992, p. 315) argues: "Conceptualising a belief system involves the understanding that this system is composed of beliefs connected to one another and to other cognitive/affective structures, complex and intricate though these connections may be". In this case, it seems the belief that a teacher should be caring trumped the belief that a teacher should use the TL at all times.

With regard to Murad, as soon as his L1 (Pashto) use was pointed out to him in stimulated recall, he justified his use of it, advancing arguments (e.g. the expression of identity) reminiscent of the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). Indeed, in observed lessons, Murad built rapport with the learners in Pashto in such an easy way, switching seamlessly from English, it appeared to be a deeply-established feature of his teaching. Why then

had he been so adamant in interview that L1 should not be used? One possible explanation is that his teacher education course in the USA may have been too remote from his actual teaching experience in Pakistan for him to draw upon, except theoretically. He had developed a strong belief, through the *natural approach* and *immersion* techniques he had been introduced to in America, that it was necessary to teach the TL (English) through English. However, there is of course a vast difference between micro-teaching Pashto (as TL) on a teacher education course to beginners in the USA who have no particular need to learn it apart from interest and teaching English literature or communication skills in Pakistan to university learners with years of TL experience. Murad had taken a belief developed through a teacher education course set in a foreign context, idealized it and misapplied it to his own context, if he had understood the researcher's questions (which, in the next interview, was subsequently checked). He appeared to have been temporarily blinded as to his own practice, which demonstrates the need, firstly, to site teacher education wherever possible in teachers' own contexts (Mann, 2005) and, secondly, to incorporate awareness-raising activities (Borg, 2006). Murad seemed to lack self-awareness, although the process of reflecting on his teaching in stimulated recall through participating in this research may have helped him in this regard, as it appeared to do with teachers in other studies (e.g. McMillan and Turnbull, 2009).

Regarding the third teacher, Waseem, he also appeared to lack self-awareness, as he was adamant in all three interviews that the L1 should not be used, even though in all three observed lessons he made substantial use of it. However, this should not be too surprising, as Waseem had very limited experience and would have been focused, as many novices are, on classroom management issues (Berliner, 1988; Nunan, 1992). In one of his lessons, though, Waseem did make quite extensive use of L1 (approximately

40%), which is far above recommended threshold levels (McMillan and Turnbull, 2009), a finding which might point towards a need for further training; Waseem had received no specific support in this.

However, Waseem also justified his use of L1 to support conceptual understanding in a way that echoed the optimal position (Macaro, 2001). For example, he discussed the value of contrastive analysis and was also observed to make use of this in his teaching. It appears Waseem's idealized cognitions about one aspect of the teacher's role (supporting conceptual understanding) were perhaps more influential in terms of shaping his practice than were his idealized cognitions regarding TL use. As in Hasan's case, prior learning experiences seemed crucial. Waseem indicated elsewhere in interviews he was reacting against the practices of teachers who had taught him but who had not, in his view, been sufficiently thorough in sharing *their own* and supporting *his* conceptual understanding.

Important to Waseem as well as to the other teachers were the needs of the learners, in as far as they perceived them. Interestingly, they responded in different ways. Hasan was more concerned about the affective dimension, Waseem more about the cognitive, Murad with issues of identity. And their TL/L1 behaviour was very different: exclusive TL use, TL use supplemented by Urdu and Pashto. Where learners meet such varied behaviour, e.g. in Barnard et al.'s (2011) study in Timor-Leste too, there must be the potential for confusion as to the institution's expectations. This does suggest that such issues should be aired.

Interestingly, neither in the interviews with Waseem nor in those conducted with the other teachers were the expectations of the university regarding TL use raised. As noted above, there is the expectation that an 'English only' policy is followed. However, at university level in Pakistan, there seems to be very little discussion of this policy and of

how it is implemented, unlike the public discussion centred on the code-switching and L1 use in schools, which has received much criticism, e.g. Coleman (2010), Rahman (2001), Shamim (2008). Recently, though, some attention has been paid to the challenges faced by university students trying to follow lessons in English and of how these challenges are responded to (de Lotbinière, 2010, 15 June; Tamim, 2013). The debate regarding the appropriacy of the university 'English only' policy needs to be brought out more into the open for fuller discussion.

Conclusions

In summary, then, this study has demonstrated, in line with other teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006), that a consideration of various personal and contextual factors can help explain identifiable gaps between teachers' idealized cognitions and their classroom behaviour and justifications for this. Specific implications with regard to the particular focus of this article include the following: Firstly, there is a clear need in the Pakistani higher education environment for awareness-raising of TL/L1 issues as part of context-sensitive teacher education that draws on recent understandings of the value of 'judicious' mother tongue use (e.g. Guy Cook, 2007), in relation to virtual, maximal and optimal positions (Macaro, 2001). Secondly, this teacher education initiative could feed into more of an open debate of university 'English only' policies, considering the views not just of 'experts', as in Gulzar and Qadir's (2010) study, but also the views of a broader range of university teachers, whose capacity to engage would be stimulated by their very involvement in this discussion.

Of course, these findings need to be set against limitations. Firstly, this study drew on data collected from only three teachers (sampled, according to various criteria including

balance and variety, from seven), and it is possible, of course, that a sample from a different population would have produced quite different results. However, regardless of this, as Stake (1995, p. 8) reminds us: "the real business of case study is particularization". The in-depth qualitative investigation aimed to achieve a deeper, richer understanding of the uniqueness of the multi-case of the three teachers in all its complexity, using 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) to encourage readers to generalize to their own experiences (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Secondly, however, the possibility of 'reactivity' (Holliday, 2007), both in observations and interviews, cannot be excluded, although methodological procedures described above were designed to mitigate that threat. These procedures included different forms of triangulation, including that of 'data source' (Stake, 1995). So, when surprising gaps between idealized cognitions and classroom behaviour were identified, further data collection and reiterative analysis explored these carefully, so that possible misunderstandings could be eliminated.

There is clearly a need for further research, both in this and other contexts. The gap identified here between idealized cognitions regarding TL use (supporting the virtual position) and observed practices, sometimes justified with reference to arguments also drawn on by proponents of the optimal position (Macaro, 2001), demonstrates this. Without such research, educational policy can become divorced from reality. However, one of the puzzles this study did not shed much light on is the possibly deeply-engrained influence institutional and political expectations might exert on teachers' idealized cognitions regarding TL use in the Pakistani context. The teachers in this study, highlighting other influences, surprisingly made little reference to these pressures and expectations. It is possible that, rather than these influences being unimportant, the teachers may not have been conscious of their impact (on their cognitions and behaviour)

and were therefore unable to articulate them, even though the research aimed to explore their cognitions in-depth. This leads us to suggest that additional research methods may possibly be adopted to supplement similar research in future, e.g. psychological tests probing the sub-consciousness.

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Book Review

Pragmatics and Prosody in English Language Teaching.
Jesús Romero-Trillo (Ed.). Springer, 2012, Pp. ix + 234.

Reviewed by Wei Zhao
Shandong Normal University, China

The volume is an intriguing edition that brings together 14 chapters addressing the interface of pragmatics and prosody in real interaction, that is, the relationship between language in use and rhythm, stress, pause, tempo and pitch features of a language. It is mainly concerned with (1) the critical role prosody plays in language use by conveying both linguistic and paralinguistic information; (2) the liaison of pragmatics and prosody in approaching utterance production and comprehension; and (3) pedagogical implications for English language teaching. The collection, which boasts the most recent research developments in this field, offers linguists, teacher-trainers, and ELT teachers both theoretical and hands-on practical guidance. It is organized into three parts, which "represent a cline from the most theoretically-oriented presentation of prosody to the most applied and classroom-oriented research" (p.2-3), each part deals with different areas of prosody; and Chapter 1, begins with an outline of the entire volume.

Part I begins with Chapter 2, "Issues in the acoustic measurement of rhythm"; and David Deterding proposes a modified acoustic metric of rhythm, which is followed by the issues

that arise when this metric is employed and how they are addressed. Finally, the appropriateness of teaching stress-based rhythm to students of English is fully discussed.

Chapter 3, "Prosody and second language teaching: Lessons from L2 speech perception and production research" reviews major findings from L2 speech perception and production research, and examines the impact of such factors as age, linguistic experience, naturalistic, formal or laboratory settings upon second language prosody acquisition. In this chapter, Angelos Lengeris concludes that the learning of segmental features could well be extended into adulthood.

Chapter 4, "Factors affecting the perception and production of L2 prosody: Research results and their implications for the teaching of foreign languages" by Thorsten Piske explores the attitudes both native and non-native speakers have towards foreign-accented speech. The former's attitudes may be affected by three factors like the L1 background of the L2 speaker, the context of foreign-accented speech and the comprehension effort of L2 speech, whereas the latter is related to motivation. Phonetic parameters such as segmental, prosodic and fluency all contribute to the perception of a foreign accent in L2 speech.

Chapter 5, "Function vs. form in speech prosody−Lessons from experimental research and potential implications for teaching" by Yi Xu discusses communicative functions that prosody encodes, i.e., lexical stress, prosodic focus, sentence type, topic or turn initiation, and contradiction contour.

Chapter 6, "Prosodic adaption in language learning" by Marie Nilsenová and Marc Swerts approaches prosodic adaption by recognizing the inborn universality and learnability of prosodic features, which differ across languages in terms of global prosodic conventions and specific prosodic functions. Prosodic adaption not only plays a

crucial role in language learning and processing but also creates rapport between interlocutors in social interactions.

Chapter 7, "Prosody and meaning: Theory and practice" by Tim Wharton investigates the relationship between prosodic features and meaning on a cognitive pragmatics account. Under Relevance Theory, prosody is used to help derive the speaker's intended meaning by expending the least processing effort. The author argues that various aspects of prosody can be captured along a continuum from natural to language-specific. The linguistic dimension of prosody, i.e., tonality, tonicity and tonic is to encode the intended meaning while the natural dimension (e.g., interjections such as *oh*, *ah* and *wow*) is to convey emotions and attitudes.

Chapter 8, "Prosody and feedback in native and non-native speakers of English" by Jesús Romero-Trillo and Jessica Newell compares prosodic features of pragmatic markers as feedback between native and non-native speakers of English. The findings demonstrate that the feedback function of pragmatic markers is more interactionally-oriented for native speakers while transactionally-oriented for non-native speakers; and this information may be useful to inform pragmatic marker learning and training.

Chapter 9, "Early prosodic production: Pragmatic and acoustic analysis for L2 language learners" by Heather L. Balog discusses how intonation and pragmatics skills are developed in tandem for very young children. Both cross-linguistic and bilingual studies based on acoustic analysis provide the evidence that suprasegmental and segmental features differ across languages, and that they are acquired over gradual course of time.

Chapter 10, "Prosody in conversation: Implications for teaching English pronunciation" by Beatrice Szezepek Reed investigates whether prosodic manifestations have one-to-one correspondence with grammatical forms and discourse functions within a conversation

analytical framework. Research shows that prosody is best described in terms of its role in achieving interactional alignment in dynamic contexts of conversation.

Chapter 11, "Same but different: The pragmatic potential of native *vs.* non-native teachers' intonation in the EFL classroom" by Silvia Riesco-Bernier explores the relationship between prosodic realizations and communicative functions that prosody instantiates in the EFL context under Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The study reveals that (1) there is no one-to-one correspondence between prosody and function; (2) compared with non-native teachers, their native counterparts can manipulate more elaborated prosodic choices for communicative purposes.

Chapter 12, "The pragmatic function of intonation: Cueing agreement and disagreement in spoken English discourse and implications for ELT" by Lucy Pickering, Guiling Hu, and Amanda Baker delves into the discrepancy of pitch concord (i.e., a match of pitch choice between interlocutors) cueing (dis)agreement sequences in naturally occurring discourse between American English speakers and Chinese learners of English (ClE). The findings show that native speakers deploy discordant pitch choices in disagreement sequences, which are not applied to ClEs.

Chapter 13, "Trouble spots in the learning of English intonation by Spanish speakers: Tonality and tonicity" by Francisco Gutiérrez Díez concerns tonality and tonicity errors in English intonation learning by Spanish speakers. The author suggests that three intonational subsystems of tonality, tonicity and tone are closely tied, and the acquisition of intonation depends on explicit teaching.

Chapter 14, "Teaching prosody with a pragmatic orientation: A synthesis" weaves the volume together by offering a wide range of learning strategies to cope with issues

discussed in each chapter, which ELT practitioners and learners may find especially beneficial for their tasks.

Overall, this volume provides comprehensive and insightful research on the unison of prosody and pragmatics, as well as offers accessible strategies for approaching prosodic elements in the ELT context. Another positive feature of the volume lies in its coverage of the topic from a comparative perspective. In general, the conclusions drawn from most of the chapters are based on comparison data from cross-linguistic, bilingual or multilingual studies, and as such, truly displays the multifaceted nature of prosody across languages when constructing meaning during real interaction.

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Book Review

Desiring TESOL and International Education: Market Abuse and Exploitation
Raqib Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha. Multilingual Matters, 2014, 288 pages.

Reviewed by Elizabeth Wohlers
Mahidol University, Thailand

In *Desiring TESOL and International Education: Market Abuse and Exploitation,* Raqib Chowdhury and Phan Le Ha present a deeply critical and sometimes personal look at how international education, and TESOL in particular, are marketed by Western universities as they compete to attract international students. The book sheds light on how this market-driven view of international education imposes a certain identity upon international students, casting them as 'others' and appealing to them as customers who generate university income. The book uses personal accounts from the authors' own interviews with international TESOL students studying at Australian universities to demonstrate how students "have appropriated and resisted such constructions to their advantage" and to illustrate the complex and ever-changing nature of students' individual identities (p. xxiii). The first part of the book defines terms and elucidates theoretical frameworks with an extensive review of literature, while the latter chapters delve into student narratives.

In Chapter 1, the authors present the problem: the way in which discourses surrounding international education lead to a "reductionist discussion" of international students that subjectifies the students and benefits neither the students nor the institutions (p.18). Four

major issues in international education are laid out: the varied understandings of the term 'international education', the link between international education and colonization, international education within the context of globalization, and myths about international students.

The second and third chapters are dense with theory related to power, discourse, and generation of desire, identity construction and globalization. Chapter 2 focuses on Foucault's theories on power relations, along with the works of Said, Althusser, Bhabha and Bakhtin. The authors draw upon these theorists to make the argument that "it is through complex articulations of power and discourse that our ways of 'seeing' the international student ultimately materialize, and likewise international students' ways of 'seeing' themselves can easily be categorized under the banner of them exercising power" (p. 22). Chapter 3 explores identity formation in greater depth, seeking to define 'identity' and 'globalization,' explore how globalized identities are created and reveal how international education appears in globalization discourse as a commodity which students selectively consume. The authors express how the trend of commodifying education threatens the creation of knowledge for the public good, as the market does not value the "counter hegemonic knowledges" which universities traditionally produce (p. 60).

In the fourth and fifth chapters, the authors go more deeply into discourses related to international education in Australia. Chapter 4 discusses how dominant discourses have maintained the image of a dichotomy between Western and Asian classrooms, with privilege and normative status being attributed to Western styles of learning. This is illustrated by student stories that reflect perceived truths about cultural differences between Vietnamese and Australian students. The chapter concludes with an extensive critique of the 'truths' about international students presented in Ballard and Clanchy's

widely known and cited text *Study Abroad: A Manual for Asian Students*. Chapter 5 explains the prominent role of the Australian government in international education discourse, detailing how, over three eras of international education, the government discourse has switched from one of international education as aid to a very clear market discourse in which international education is viewed as a key export.

Chapters 6 through 9 focus heavily on the narratives of international TESOL students in Australia. Chapter 6 considers how the students made their choices in terms of which country, university, and field (TESOL) to study in. Chapter 7 is focused on the students' perceptions of their own identities throughout their studies in Australia, particularly their identities related to English education and as speakers of English. It further considers the role of education brokers in the marketing of international education. Chapter 8 is a case study of one particular circumstance that shows the complexity of students' decision-making processes and identity negotiation. Finally, Chapter 9 is based on interviews with students throughout and after their international TESOL studies and traces their satisfaction with their international education 'purchase'. This chapter seeks to demonstrate the folly of stereotyping international students, but it also reads as an extensive critique of TESOL programs in Australia.

The final chapter recommends areas of change in the dominant discourses of international education. The authors reiterate that views of international education need to be broadened to include multiple truths, and true intercultural understanding and exchange must be worked towards by replacing long-held stereotypes of false binaries. In addition, they explain that true internationalization requires valuing Asian knowledge and philosophies and a break in the perpetuation of the dominance of Western ideas and practices. The authors believe that the ownership of international education must belong

to all whose constructions of self are impacted by it, not merely to nations or universities operating out of economic self-interest.

This book offers a highly critical view of how universities, policy makers, and private parties (like education brokers) have turned international education, and TESOL education in particular, into a globally traded commodity. The authors demonstrate how this trend threatens the ability of universities to carry out their role as creators and disseminators of knowledge for the public good and can subjectify students by stereotyping them and casting them as educational consumers. The book is quite theoretically dense, making it difficult to grasp the authors' trajectory at times. The book also leaves the reader wanting to draw conclusions that simply cannot be drawn from this work. First, the book is highly focused upon the Australian context, and though it infers that similar trends of profit-driven marketization of education are occurring throughout Western nations, evidence of this trend outside of Australia is not presented. In addition, the words "market abuse and exploitation" used in the title are quite sensational, and though the book demonstrates downsides of the market mentality in international education, it does not make a clear case either for abuse or exploitation. Nevertheless, this book clearly illuminates troubling aspects of the trend of marketizing international education and is a valuable read for educators, administrators, and policy makers whose views and decisions will shape international education discourse in the years to come.

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All reviewers, unsolicited and solicited, are encouraged to provide submissions about materials that they would like to suggest to colleagues in the field by choosing materials that they feel have more positive features than negative ones.

Length and Format:
1. Reviews should be prepared using MS Word and the format should conform to 12 pica New Times Roman font, 1.5 spacing between lines, and 1 inch margins.
2. The reviewer(s)' full names including middle initial(s), title, school affiliation, school address, phone number, and e-mail address should be included at the top of the first page.
3. The complete title of the text, edition number, complete name(s) of author(s), publisher, publisher's address (city & state), and date of publication should be included after the reviewer(s)' identifying information.
4. Reviews should be between 500-700 words.

5. A brief biography of the author(s) should be included after the review.
6. A statement that the submission has not been previously published or is not being considered for publication elsewhere should be included at the bottom of the page.

Organization:

Reviewers are encouraged to peruse reviews recently published in the quarterly PDF version of the Journal for content and style before writing their own. While creativity and a variety of writing styles are encouraged, reviews, like other types of articles, should be concisely written and contain certain information that follows a predictable order: a statement about the work's intended audience, a non-evaluative description of the material's contents, an academically worded evaluative summary which includes a discussion of its positive features and one or two shortcomings if applicable (no materials are perfect), and a comment about the material's significance to the field.

Style:

1. All reviews should conform to the Journal's APA guideline requirements and references should be used sparingly.
2. Authors should use plural nouns rather than gendered pronouns such as he/she, his/her him/her and adhere to the APA's Guidelines for Non-Sexist Use of Language, which can be found at: http://www.apa.udel.edu/apa/publications/texts/nonsexist.html.