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ARTICAL REVIEW

What do you think of me?: A semi-ethnographic investigation into student stereotypes and biases towards teachers

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EDITORIAL

I am delighted to bring you the first issue of Volume 29 of Thailand TESOL Journal because it highlights the range of research that is being conducted in our region. Articles in this volume from researchers in Australia, Bangladesh, Thailand, and Vietnam employ a range of research methods to address topics from traditional basic skills, such as reading and writing, to other indispensable skills, such as critical thinking and intercultural communicative competence.

Kamal and Begum begin this volume with a report on task-based use of literature for teaching English in Bangladesh. Using *Animal Farm* and task-based activities, the authors found that students were enthusiastic about engaging in the reading and relating it to their own lives and contexts.

In the second article of this issue, Hoang, Nguyen and Tran employ genre analysis to compare qualitative and quantitative research article abstracts in applied linguistics. Their examination of 20 abstracts from vocabulary and narrative articles indicates many similarities, but a difference was found in the use of hedgers, which were much more frequent in the vocabulary abstracts than in the narrative ones. The authors argue that genre analysis can be helpful to teachers, advanced students, and novice researchers.

EFL university teachers’ conceptions of critical thinking is the topic of Prommak’s article. Using interviews the research examined the perceptions of Thai university EFL teachers toward critical thinking and compared their views to definitions given in academic literature. Their findings indicate that Thai teachers consider CT extremely important and had similar components for CT to those of other scholars. One difference, however, was that the Thai faculty saw morality as an essential component of CT, which may be due to the large role Buddhism plays in their education and culture.

The development of an intercultural communicative language teaching model for EFL learners is the subject of the article by Tran and Seepho. Their article reviews the literature on intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence and sets out to propose the steps to take when developing an intercultural communicative language teaching model.

Developing speaking skill through adaptation of cultural lessons in a commercial textbook series by Van and Trinh offers an example of a project to incorporate a comparison of Vietnamese culture and British culture into commercial teaching materials. Observations of classes
and responses from student surveys indicate that students found the inclusion of their own culture motivating.

Finally, our issue ends with Nomnian’s review of the article, *What do you think of me?: A semi-ethnographic investigation into student stereotypes and biases towards teachers* by Wilkinson (2016). This article on students’ preferences for native-speaking English teachers (NESTs) over non-native ones echoes the research of many other scholars working within the World Englishes framework. Nomnian points out that the lack of detail, particularly regarding what the semi-ethnography entailed, hinders a deep interpretation of the results.

As you can see from my brief introduction, this volume is wide is in its scope of issues, contexts, problems, and solutions. I have enjoyed editing it, and I hope you will find something useful to your own context.

Leslie Barratt
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Abstract

Since Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) methods use language materials designed in the form of tasks based on diverse contexts of life, literary texts can be very successfully introduced to teach language because in literature we find simulations of real life contexts (Van 2009) where different situations are replicated. Use of literary texts can provide a light and interesting environment needed for the language classroom. Tasks developed on literary texts can engage students more in the classroom activities than critical or analytical texts. This article intends to demonstrate that literary texts may be used very successfully through the TBLT approach in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. In this case Orwell’s Animal Farm can be used for such purposes for its magnificent language use and pedagogical strengths: the tricks in language, the rhetoric in speech and the art of public speaking.

Keywords: TBLT, Large Class, ESL, Literature, Task, Animal Farm

Introduction

Lecture-based teaching is stated to be the traditional practice of teaching English literature and language by most English users in Bangladesh as well as through the major parts of Kachru’s outer and expanding circles where English is used as second language or as lingua franca (ELF). In terms of the improvement of student language skills, understanding and capacity, the result of lecture-based classes is reported to be less satisfactory because we have also observed that except for few enthusiastic students with real passion for learning, most of the learners start feeling detached from the issues or contents from the lessons taught in class.
Since scholars have observed that the traditional approaches and methods (such as, Grammar-Translation method) for teaching English as a second language (L2) have become less popular because of “its type of … courses remembered with distaste by thousands of learners to whom foreign language learning meant a tedious job..” which often created “frustration for students” (Richard 2001: 6), an exploration for some more effective new methods/approaches has been underway to meet the increasing demand of developing learners’ proficiency needed to communicate effectively (Skehan 1996; Willis 1996; Elli 2003). In recent years, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has gained popularity in general as evident in the large number of recent publications on TBLT (Nunan 2004; Willis and Willis 2007). Since the lessons in TBLT material are quite structured, organized by activity, with ideas or tasks linked following task dependency and recycling (Nunan 2004: 35-36), the whole of teaching-learning process proceeds quite smoothly in the class.

Still, in some contexts, simply using a task-based approach has not been found to be enough in ESL context because students’ interest and motivation also appear to be an important catalyst for the success of TBLT. So there is a demand for some, not only contextualized, but also interesting ESL learning materials. The use of literary texts can provide a smooth and interesting environment needed for language classroom. Tasks developed on literary text instead of critical or analytical texts can engage students more in the classroom activities. Since through tasks ‘the learners learn by actively using a language they are learning’ (Nunan 2004: 36), task-based teaching promotes the sense of ownership and responsibility among students; and literary texts as language learning materials add extra dimension of pleasure and interest in learning.

TBLT has already been adopted as the official English teaching approach in a number of Asian countries including China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, (Adams and Newton 2009; Butler 2011; Lochana & Deb 2006; Viet 2014). In Bangladesh it is also emerging as a very effective and popular approach in language teaching. But challenge remains with the scarcity or unavailability of contextualized materials.

Background

The task based materials prepared using literary texts were trialed in the first semester undergraduate classes where students with an age range of 17-18 years studied English as a second language (ESL) under two functional English courses (each with 36 contact hours) which focused equally on English reading, speaking, listening and writing skills. The courses were comprised of
heterogeneous students with mixed capability of English within the range of CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) levels A2, B1 and B2 which was determined by a proficiency test at the beginning of the semester. The reasons for their heterogeneity seemed to be their diverse background before starting their undergraduate program; most of the students completed their HSC (Higher Secondary Certificate) from Bengali institutions where Bangla was used as a medium of instruction; some of them studied HSC under English instructions, and some of the students completed their A levels (HSC equivalent) under a Cambridge or Edexcel curriculum. Since students’ language skills seemed to develop very little in traditional methods of language teaching, this study was inspired by an intension to get better outcomes in terms of students’ performance and language skills.

**Literature Review**

Along with the emergence of task-based approach as a significant advancement in teaching language (Ellis, 2005; Nunan, 2004; Skehen, 2003; Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001; Willis 1996) the issue of language teaching materials surfaced as a challenge among a number of other related factors e.g. classroom interaction, learner-centered teaching, authenticity etc. Since Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) uses language materials designed in the form of tasks based on contexts of life, literary texts can be very successfully introduced to teach language because in literature we find simulations of real life contexts where different situations are replicated. (Van 2009) Literature can be an ideal reading content for EFL classroom because it involves the integration of four language skills, and certain syntactic patterns and stylistic word order inversions occur more frequently in it. (McKay 2001) Using literature as a language teaching resource has linguistic, methodological and motivational advantages (Lazar 1993; Collie and Slatter 1994; Ur 1996; Carter and Long 1996; Pison 2000; Maley 200). Literary texts are very motivating due to their authenticity and the meaningful context they provide (Ghosn, 2002, Khatib et al. 2011, Shrestah 2008 and Van 2009). Since the lessons in TBLT materials are greatly structured, the activities organized, and the ideas or tasks directly linked following task dependency and recycling (Nunan 2004: 35-36), simple literary texts will go smoothly in the class since the reader find a smooth storyline to connect ideas. Use of literary texts can provide a relaxing and interesting environment needed for the language classroom. If students enjoy reading literature, this activity may increase their motivation to interact with a text and thus, ultimately increase their reading proficiency. (McKay 1982)
Since literary texts are very motivating due to its authenticity and the meaningful context it provides (Ghosn, 2002, Van, 2009), sometimes tasks developed on literary texts instead of critical or analytical texts can engage students more in the classroom activities. Since through tasks ‘the learners learn by actively using a language they are learning’ (Nunan 2004:36), task-based teaching promotes a sense of ownership and responsibility among students. It can be well demonstrated how literary texts like *Animal Farm* may be used in language classes where TBLT method is used. Orwell’s *Animal Farm* can be used in ESL classes for teaching English because of its magnificent language use and pedagogical strengths. In particular, the use of tricks in language, the rhetoric in speech and the art of public speaking can be taught using *Animal Farm*. So, literary texts can be used in TBLT classes for their universality, non-triviality, relevance, variety, interest, brevity and ambiguity (Maley 1989:12). According to some scholars, dialogic value (Alam 2007: 381, Kramsch 1993:131) of literary texts is also extremely helpful in learning second language.

**Objective**

The objective of this article is to ascertain how a task-based approach in teaching literature can be adopted along with traditional lecture based literature classes to integrate “language learning” with “content learning”, merging it with the *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) approach. It also aims to show how literary texts like *Animal Farm* may be used in ESL classes where TBLT is used.

**Methodology and Data Collection Process**

Using a qualitative research methodology, the primary data collection processes for this research included (a) participant observation as teachers in English classes, (b) Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with 9 teachers conducting the courses using TBLT Approach, (c) questionnaire survey among 20 language teachers, and (d) use of classroom tasks developed on literary texts; in addition, existing literature on the use of literature in ESL class, material design and TBLT were used as supplementary data for triangulation. Classroom trial practice with prepared materials (See used sample material in Appendix 2) based on literature to teach English language was given extra emphasis. Trial classes were divided in two slots, slot A and slot B of *English Reading Skills and Public Speaking* course at American International University-Bangladesh (AIUB). The FGD (Appendix 3) was tape-recorded, and notes were taken from this record. Another survey (questionnaire) was administered among 20 teachers of TBLT classes (Appendix 1) since teachers who conduct task-based language classes using literary text as class materials could provide first-
hand information on the issue. Data collected from the notes were analyzed by the researchers of this research to identify emerging issues and challenges faced.

Factors investigated in the study related both to the issues concerning learners and the instructors. This investigation was done with an objective to explore and examine responses, issues and challenges regarding four important aspects related to the implementation of TBLT through literature, such as materials, time management, motivation and feedback.

The experiment-technique and lesson plan used for this procedure are mentioned in the Appendix section of this article. Classroom techniques and procedures used for this research were adopted from Khatib (2011) (See appendix 4). The activities used (See Appendix 2) as models to test on experimental group, for each 90-minute session in the first semester of undergraduate class consisting of (on average) 40 students, were divided in three major parts: pre-task, during task and post task. The activities were also divided among three types, such as individual, pair and group works so that there is much collaboration in learning process. After the completion of the trial sessions the task materials were collected, checked and corrective feedback was provided by the instructor.

**Findings and Analyses**

Table 1. Comparative data on task performance by experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of trials</th>
<th>Total number of learners</th>
<th>Task Completed by</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slot A: Student</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance on tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>developed on literary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>90.00 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 2</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>95.00 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>86.84 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 4</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>89.74 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>90.39 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slot B: Student</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance on tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>developed on critical</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or analytical texts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>70.50 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 2</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>78.37 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>84.61 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial 4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>73.68 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>76.79 %</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
It was found from the class observation as well as from the teachers’ practice reflected in the FGD that student centered task-based language teaching approach using literature proved very successful in its implementation because it was student-friendly, thought provoking and interesting. 80% of the respondents of the questionnaire gave their opinion in favour of using literary texts for TBLT. After the trial of the lessons developed on literary texts the participant observers as the discussants of the FGD and respondents of the questionnaire reported that most students in the ESL classes enjoyed doing the tasks with eagerness and enthusiasm because they could relate the tasks to their academic and personal lives. As a participant observant it was seen that around 90% of the learners of the experimental group could complete the task with concentration within the time stipulated by the instructor. Participants of FGD also reported that task performance of the L2 learners was comparatively less satisfactory (See Table 1) observed while they were trialing materials based on non-literary texts (illustrated, as for example, in appendix 5) in another set of trials conducted among first-semester students. So, it can be deduced that tasks developed on literary texts instead of critical or analytical texts engaged students more in the classroom activities.

The findings with the sample activities were equally satisfactory. In the sample session of the teaching material of the lesson (see Appendix 2), there was harmonious balance in terms of integration of four skills as well as lexico-gramatical and syntactic elements in the form of tasks on vocabulary, sentence skill and comprehension. Therefore, students could develop their vocabulary, and the two consecutive tasks on sentence building also enabled the students to acquire accurate sentence construction skills. In this case, some parts of a short historical, allegorical and satiric novella titled Animal Farm by George Orwell was used to teach ESL applying the TBLT approach. Using the background of the Russian Revolution of 1917, this allegorical novella uses animals as characters satirizing Communism, Stalinism and political corruption in general. Students could involve themselves in the language learning process since they were enjoying learning through interesting and historical fiction, which they could relate to many contemporary political contexts.

As an example of activities, the section of the inaugural speech of Old Major to motivate other animals for the rebellion in Chapter 1 of Animal Farm was used to teach public speaking techniques. The changes in commandments such as “all animals are equal” to “all animals are equal, but some are more equal than the others” were also used to teach the use of tricks and positive language. Furthermore, the students were encouraged to replicate positive language and
language tricks in relating some ideas from their real-life situations. This task ensured student participation in active learning instead of passive participation in class. Since the lessons in task-based teaching materials (Appendix 2) used in the experimental group of students were quite structured, activities organized, and ideas or tasks linked following task dependency and recycling (Nunan 2004), it was possible to conduct the lessons efficiently in the class.

The use of rhetoric in the persuasive language of Old Major’s speech worked as an effective example for students to learn public speaking. In this speech of Chapter 1 in *Animal Farm*, most of the major features of effective public speaking, such as, Rule of Three (e.g. *our lives are miserable, laborious, and short*), Exaggeration/ Hyperbole (e.g. *No, comrades, a thousand times no!*), Alliteration (e.g. *breath in our bodies*), Repetition (e.g. *Man. Man is the only real enemy we have*), Rhetorical Questions (e.g. *Why then do we continue in this miserable condition? Because nearly the whole of the produce of our labour is stolen from us by human beings.*), and Emotive Language (e.g. *we are slaughtered with hideous cruelty*) (Orwell 1945) were successfully used in a single speech, which could be an ideal example for students. Students could locate them clearly to replicate them for their own use.

Moreover, FGD has shown that the use of literary texts to teach language helped the instructors to provide their L2 learners with different simulations of real-life situations with different use of language and made the students more aware of the norms of language use (Widdowson 1975 quoted by Lazar 1993). As mentioned earlier, the participant observers were asked to use the materials attached in Appendix 2 and Appendix 5. They reported of two different experiences. The sample lesson plan based on literary text (see Appendix 2) was used in slot A classes by the participant teachers of FGD, and they reported receiving more positive feedback in terms of developing language skills of the L2 learners than using traditional materials. They also said that learners seemed to be more motivated in first slot (slot A) of trials where literary text materials were used than in the second slot (slot B) of classes.

As a response to the questions "Which one, do you think, is more effective in teaching large classes? Literary or non-literary materials? What is the reason of your choice?" Most of the respondents were in favour of literary materials. They mentioned of the following qualities of literary materials for their choice: literary texts are authentic, motivational, and it fosters emotional intelligence etc. Most of the teachers among FGD participants who used literary texts to create tasks for using in ESL classes agreed to the statement: Instead of grammar/function based lessons
in the tasks/activities theme based lessons using literature (where grammar/function is not declared rather covered indirectly) make students more integrated and attached with the lessons of the activities and help them learn better (Appendix 1).

When asked about the students’ attitude in dealing with the task-based use of literature in ESL class, some of respondents reported that the students initially found it difficult to cope with the task but gradually became successful and enthusiastic to participate in class activities. Initially the students did not respond well while the instructors were eliciting answers and it appeared very difficult for the instructors to provide the corrective feedback to each activity of each student in this large ESL class. Since literature deals with things which are interesting in nature and includes little if any uninteresting things (Maley, 1989), students started to enjoy more in slot A trials than in slot B (See Table 1). Students seemed to start utilizing their creative faculty to respond spontaneously since they were relieved of any fear of being proven right or wrong. Literary texts provided them with this freedom which seemed to be very necessary to motivate them to speak in English and let them exercise the sense of ownership in class. Moreover, since students’ capacity of learning differed, it was reported by the teachers that the use of literature promoted collaborative learning among heterogeneous group of mixed capability students by having them help each other through group work or pair work.

**Emerging Issues**

The findings of the trial implementation of literary materials in ESL classes can be discussed in the following points:

a. Feedback: As discussed in the findings, providing corrective feedback by the instructor to the users of TBLT materials emerged as the key issue to the success of the TBLT approach

b. Ownership and Spontaneity: Task-based use of literature promoted the sense of ownership and responsibility among students.

c. Time Management: Though teachers could manage time dividing the tasks into chunks among groups of students, taking their answers by turn, and by giving reflective tasks as homework and portfolio tasks, in TBLT classes large number students appeared as a concern in the context of Bangladeshi classrooms.
Challenges

Issues regarding providing corrective feedback to the language learning tasks of L2 learners appeared as the most important challenge in implementing task based language teaching through the use of literature. After completion of each task or activity (Appendix 2) in ESL classrooms, providing corrective feedback by the instructor to the users of TBLT materials emerged as the key issue to the success of the TBLT approach. Moreover, successful implementation of TBLT materials surfaced as a challenge since in Bangladeshi language classrooms, consisting, on average, of 40-50 students, monitoring and providing feedback to each and every student appeared unfeasible or sometimes taxing for the instructors. Hence, further investigation is necessary regarding providing corrective feedback to a class consisting of large number of students in Bangladeshi classrooms where a TBLT approach is adopted.

Conclusion

Since TBLT approach uses language materials designed in the form of tasks based on contexts of life, literary texts can be very successfully introduced to teach language because in literary texts real life contexts are replicated through different situations, characters and settings. The success of the task-based use of literary texts is basically based on student motivation and engagement in class activities, critical thinking, emotional intelligence etc. The research findings recommend the use of literary texts instead of critical texts for teaching and learning English language in ESL classes.
References


### Appendix 1. Survey Questions for Task Based ESL Classes Using Literature

Name of Instructor (optional): 
Department: 
Number of students in each class (approx.): 
Number of classes: 

1 = Agree, 2 = Partially Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree

Put tick in appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Provided that we have the constraint of time in class (here 90 mins. in regular semester) it is possible to make task based language teaching using literature successful in a large class of 40-45</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Instead of grammar/function based lessons in the tasks/activities theme based lessons using literature (where grammar/function is not declared rather covered indirectly) make students more integrated and attached with the lessons of the activities and help them learn better.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>To complete all the activities successfully group or pair works help minimize time constraint and ensure maximum participation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Without providing feedback activity completion in class is useless.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>How can we provide feedbacks to all the students of a class of 40?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide group-wise feedback; that is, one feedback for each group activity.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide common feedback on the whiteboard/projector.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide feedback to each individual student.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choose best students to share his/her answer for others</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Best student’s answers can be used as feedbacks.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exchange answer among students to evaluate each other.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Displaying answers as feedback is more effective than orally telling the answer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>To provide feedback going close to the group/individual student roaming around the whole class deprive other students.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2. Sample Task Based Activities Using Literary Text Used in ESL Classroom

Text: *Animal Farm, Chapter 1*

Session 1

At the end of this session students would have:

- learnt the meaning of some vocabulary
- acquired sentence building skills
- learnt some public speaking tips
- read for main idea

Activity 1: Schema Building

Identify the following pictures. Discuss in pairs their significance and share with others in class.

1. ![Flag of Soviet Union]

2. ![Image of 1917]

3. ![Image of Stalin]

Activity 2: Scaffolding

Read the following text on Animal Farm, then underline the keywords in the text and take notes in bullet points in the box below:

*Animal Farm* is an allegorical and dystopian novella by George Orwell, first published in England on 17 August 1945. According to Orwell, the book reflects events leading up to the Russian Revolution of 1917 and then on into the Stalinist era of the Soviet Union. Orwell, a democratic socialist, was a critic of Joseph Stalin and hostile to Moscow-directed Stalinism, an attitude that was critically shaped by his experiences during the Spanish Civil War. The Soviet Union, he believed, had become a brutal dictatorship, built upon a cult of personality and enforced by a reign of terror. In a letter to Yvonne Davet, Orwell described Animal Farm as a satirical tale against Stalin and in his essay "Why I Write" (1946), wrote that Animal Farm was
the first book in which he tried, with full consciousness of what he was doing, "to fuse political purpose and artistic purpose into one whole".

The original title was Animal Farm: A Fairy Story; U.S. publishers dropped the subtitle when it was published in 1946, and only one of the translations during Orwell's lifetime kept it. Other titular variations include subtitles like "A Satire" and "A Contemporary Satire".

Orwell wrote the book between November 1943 and February 1944, when the UK was in its wartime alliance with the Soviet Union and the British people and intelligentsia held Stalin in high esteem, a phenomenon Orwell hated. It became a great commercial success when it did appear partly because international relations were transformed as the wartime alliance gave way to the Cold War.

Time magazine chose the book as one of the 100 best English-language novels (1923 to 2005); it also featured at number 31 on the Modern Library List of Best 20th-Century Novels. It won a Retrospective Hugo Award in 1996, and is also included in the Great Books of the Western World selection.

(source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Animal_Farm)

Notes:
**Activity 3: Pre-Reading Vocabulary (Scaffolding)**

*Look at the meaning of the following words from Animal Farm, Chapter 1 and complete the following sentences using the suitable words:*

- **Comrade(s)** – friend
- **Foal** – young horse
- **Lest** – unless
- **Mare** – female horse
- **Miserable** – very unhappy
- **Rebellion** – revolution
- **Trotter** – a pig’s foot
- **Knacker** – someone who kills old animals for meat, skin, or glue

a. Clover was a stout motherly ____________ approaching middle life, who had never quite got her figure back after her fourth ____________.
b. All men are enemies. All animals are ____________.
c. You, Boxer, the very day that those great muscles of yours lose their power. Jones will sell you to the ____________.
d. Then Snowball … took a brush between the two knuckles of his ____________, painted out MANOR FARM…. a young pig named Pinkeye was given the task of tasting all his food before he ate it, _________ it should be poisoned
e. Our lives are ____________, laborious, and short.
f. I do not know when that ____________ will come, it might be in a week or in a hundred years.

**Activity 4: Sentence building**

*Use the following words to make complete sentences of your own in space given below. You can take guidance from the above examples in Activity 1.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foal</th>
<th>Rebellion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miserable</td>
<td>Lest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Activity 5: Learning language of persuasion

Read the speech of the Old Major at page 2-4 from your text and identify the following techniques of persuasion that can be used in public speech.

a. Rule of Three – listing or talking about things in groups of three. Three is considered more effective number than other numbers. i.e. “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness” or “blood, sweat, and tears”.

b. Exaggeration – this is overstatement, stating the case too strongly, magnifying importance. For example, "I'll die if he finds out!" Exaggeration makes a point dramatically to reinforce it.

c. Alliteration – repeating a similar sound or letter, eg, “back-breaking work”. Alliteration persuades people by adding emphasis.

d. Repetition – It forces the listener to remember things.

e. Rhetorical Questions – These are questions which are not supposed to be answered. They are supposed to make you think. Often, the answer is actually within the question.

f. Emotive Language – The use of strong, emotional words to play on people’s feelings. For example, adjectives like sleazy, slimy, vicious, disgusting, outrageous create a very negative feeling towards whatever they are attached to. “Can you really trust a vicious dog who has a sleazy owner?

Look at Old Major’s speech again. Find an example of each persuasive technique used in the speech.

a. Emotive Language: ………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………….
b. Exaggeration: ........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

c. Alliteration: ........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

d. Repetition: ........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

e. Rhetorical Questions: ............................................................................................

........................................................................................................

f. Rule of Three: .....................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

**Activity 6: Reading for the main idea**

*Read the Old Major’s speech again and write below in short the main idea of the speech.*

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

........................................................................................................

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**Home Task**

*Read the whole first chapter at home and make a list of all the difficult and unknown words for you. Find their meanings from dictionary and in your portfolio.*
Appendix 3. Focus Group Discussion Issues

The following questionnaire and aspects was discussed in the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) to evaluate experiences while implementing task-based English teaching using literary text in large classes:

1. Do you have experiences of teaching task-based classes and/or traditional lecture based classes?
2. How do you differentiate task-based literature teaching from traditional lecture-based classes?
3. Which one, do you think, is more effective in teaching large classes? Why?
4. In your opinion, how many students do a large class consist of in tertiary level?
5. Do you find it difficult to manage a large class? What difficulties do you face?
6. What are the challenges you faced in task-based literature teaching in large ESL classes?
   a. Regarding:
      i. time management
      ii. providing feedbacks
      iii. lack of contextualized materials
      iv. students’ and teachers’ motivation
7. How do you think these challenges can be overcome in large classes? Regarding:
   i. time management
   ii. providing feedbacks
8. If you are given a large class to teach English using literature, how will you ensure maximum students’ participation in class activities?
   i. Group work/pair work
   ii. Peer evaluation
9. How can technology be of a good help? You can comment on computer, audio-visual materials, projector screen, flip chart, electronic white board etc.
10. Do you think there is a role of homework and portfolio in this regard? What is the role? Can you explain?
11. What is the common or general perception of students about task-based classes in the context of test-based culture where their success in education is the results of the exams, not necessarily their communicative competence in the target language?
12. Do you have any other suggestion for successful implementation of task-based English teaching in large classes?
Appendix 4. Classroom Techniques and Procedures

*For a communicative approach to teaching literature the procedures were divided into three phases:*

I. **Pre-task**
   a. Schema Building
      i. Brainstorming
         1. Contextualization of the task (through pictures, realia, questions and answers)
         2. Illustration of the context
         3. Introduction of some of the key vocabulary items (through matching, predicting and guessing)
      ii. Group Scaffolding
      iii. Performing a similar task chorally
   b. Authentic Listening Exposure
      i. Exposure to pertinent songs
      ii. Listening to the relevant story

II. **During-task**
   a. Task Performance
      i. Skimming and Scanning the text
      ii. Discrimination (distinguishing between the main idea and supporting information; distinguishing between different characters' points of view)
      iii. Identifying (point of view, character, and setting)
      iv. Taking notes (jotting down the significant information in a text in your own words)
      v. Predicting (predicting what may happen in the story in case of dilemmas, and suspenses)
      vi. Inferencing (using what you already know to understand something new better)
vii. Analysis (analyzing the stories in terms of plot, conflict, style and its purpose, and theme)

viii. Action
   1. Role-playing
   2. Simulation
   3. Characterization
   4. Dramatization

ix. Summarizing (it could be done in terms of students' recapitulation of what has happened in the story)

x. Evaluating

III. Post-task
   a. Repetition of the Task
   b. Reflection on the Task Achievement
      i. Personalizing (relating the stories to their own personal lives)
      ii. Self-evaluation of attainment
   c. 3. Follow-ups
      i. Pair and group rehearsal
      ii. Accuracy-based tasks
      iii. Student writing
Appendix 5. Sample Task Based Activities Using Literary Text Used in ESL Classroom

Session 1: Tours and Visits

At the end of this session, you will have:
- related background knowledge with reading content
- read for the main ideas and for detail
- listened for specific information

Activity 1: Accessing Background Knowledge

Work in pairs. Discuss questions a) and b).

a) Have you ever visited any of the following places/sites with your classmates and teachers in school or heard about any such visit?
- Museums
- Factories and industries
- Historical and ancient sites
- Forests and natural beauty spots

b) What kind of benefits can be expected from such a visit? Connect these places/sites to any subject or subjects taught in universities.

c) Read the title and headings of the text in Activity 2. Think about possible benefits of industry visits for students, universities and host organisations. Rate these benefits on a scale of 1-3 (1=very little benefit, 3=many benefits).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Host organisations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Activity 2: Reading for Main Ideas and for Detail

a) Read the text quickly and underline the key words or phrases.
Benefits of Industrial Visits

Students, especially of theoretical studies, often do not see their education as relevant to daily life. Many students are not aware of the career opportunities available after study. In fact, there are real benefits for the students, universities and even hosting organisations involved in industry visits.

Benefits for students:
- Enable students to see first-hand the relevance and application of classroom learning to a real-life situation
- Provide opportunities to gain in-depth knowledge of available career choices, helping them make the right decisions
- Offer insights into the real working environment of the industry including first-hand knowledge of the requirements and demands, organisational structures and modes of operation

Benefits for universities:
- Make universities more aware of career choices available for students on the programmes they offer, so they can highlight the value of their programmes to students
- Help establish valuable links with local industries
- Help fulfill the requirements of providing career guidance to their students

Benefits for organisations:
- Provide opportunities to demonstrate different jobs and careers available within organisations
- Give chances to meet potential employees
- Help build stronger links with universities

b) Complete the sentences below using words from the box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>jobs and careers</th>
<th>careers advice</th>
<th>real world</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>links and relationships</td>
<td>practical knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Experience of the requirements and demands of working in an industrial environment helps students gain valuable _________________.

2. An industry may attract potential employees by hosting a visit and demonstrating ________________ available within the organisation.

3. Students may receive ________________ during the visit and this helps universities to fulfill the requirement to provide such a service.

4. The industry and universities can build stronger ________________ through visits.

5. Industrial visit enables students to see the connection and application of their training in the _________________.

c) Read the text more carefully. The text mentions a number of benefits of industry visits. Tick (√) the benefits mentioned in the text.

1. The organisations get opportunities to meet potential employees.
2. Industry visits help students to recognise processing units and generate process flow diagrams.
3. Several obligations are fulfilled as a result of industry visits: these include organisations’ responsibilities to society and university’s requirements of providing career advice to the students.
4. Students have the chance to make informed decisions about higher studies related to industry.
5. Students get to know business skills in a global context, encouraging cultural interaction.
6. Students get exposed to better industrial practices.
7. Industrial visits provide students with opportunities to see the applications of knowledge in the real world and help understand the requirements and demands of the industry.

Activity 3: Listening for Specific Information

a) Listen to the audio of the orientation speech for an industrial visit. Tick (√) the three items that are discussed in the speech.

1. The schedule of day-to-day activities
2. Safety issues for students on the industrial visit
3. Arrangements for foods and meals
4. How the industry visit fits into the teaching programme
5. Preparation for the industry visit
6. How the report on the industrial visit will be evaluated
7. A post-visit task for participants

b) *Listen to the orientation speech again. Complete the sentences using no more than three words from the speech.*

1. Accompanying faculty members are ____________________, Prof. Surojit Bose and Dr. Sharmin Ishrat.
2. Each day the bus will leave the campus at 7:30 and the expected time to report is ______________ at the latest.
3. On 22nd January, the students will visit PolyCab Wires and participate in a workshop on ______________.
4. The participants will watch a documentary in the ______________ at 9:00 on the last day.
5. ______________ will talk about monitoring and reviewing the effectiveness of the visit.

c) *Complete the summary below.*

Selected final year students of 1) ______________ will visit Dhaka EPZ from 2) ______________, 2014, guided by three faculty members. Before the departure, participants must be clear about the 3) ______________ and submit the completed 4) ______________. Each day the participants will visit some organisations to see the industrial facilities or 5) ______________ and also attend a briefing session. Students should submit a 6) ______________ after the visit to present 7) ______________.

**Home Task: Searching for Information Online**

a) *Search the Internet for potential sites for study visits related to your academic discipline.*

Make a list of five sites.

b) *List the benefits of visiting each site.*
Abstract

English research article (ERA) abstracts have received considerable attention from second language (L2) scholars, and a number of academic genre analyses have been done to ERA abstracts in recent years. Earlier research has examined ERA abstracts from various disciplines, across disciplines or across cultures. Yet, the comparison between two types of research (qualitative and quantitative) in applied linguistic (AL) has not been paid sufficient attention (Tseng, 2011). In addition, despite the growing importance of genre analysis, the job of describing genres “has become extremely challenging lately” due to the evolvement of new genres and the combination of various modalities and semiotic resources (Canagarajah, 2016, p. 22). By carrying out an intensive genre analysis of a small corpus of 20 abstracts from ERA in AL, this study attempts to identify the differences between the rhetorical moves of qualitative and quantitative ERA abstracts in AL and explore the use of hedging in this genre to understand how rhetorical moves and hedging words are structured to accomplish their communicative purposes in the two types of ERA. The results suggest that the qualitative and quantitative ERA abstracts are different in the frequency and sequence of moves and sub-moves. Interestingly, the results indicate that the quantitative ERA abstracts tend to use more hedging strategies than the qualitative ERA abstracts. The findings are discussed and suggestions are made for L2 teachers, advanced L2 students, and especially for novice L2 researchers in the field of LA.

Keywords: genre analysis, research article abstracts, rhetorical organization, language teaching
Introduction

Genre, genre analysis and L2 language teaching and learning

Linguists and language educators have long been aware of the benefits of the knowledge about the structure and patterns underpinning texts. Various attempts to designate the underlying structures (schema theory), to seek common rhetorical patterns of diverse types of texts (generalization-example) have been made revealing some common patterns on how texts are organized and structured, but they fail to approach the specific use of language in a particular context, by a certain community. In the late 1980s and 1990s, the academic interest “has been shifted to a contextual approach, to analyses of the situations in which writing takes place” (Johns, 2002, p.3). This approach of genre analysis identifies structures and patterns of particular genres and how specific discourse communities often structure these to fulfill their communicative purposes (Paltridge, 2006). Since then, genre analysis has been considered as an effective way to identify structures and patterns of particular genres used by a specific discourse community.

What is genre?

One of the most comprehensive definitions of genre from Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.224) is “a type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting, that has distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure and that has particular and distinctive communicative functions”. In other words, genre can be understood as the way people construct their communication in different communicative events (Paltridge, 2006b). Hyland (2006, p.237) defines genre as a set of texts built on the way writers use language “to respond to and construct texts for reoccurring situations” while Patridge emphasizes the social dimension of genre by simply stating that genres are the ways people do things through the use of language in certain contexts. A book review can be considered an example of a genre since it has a distinctive recognizable pattern structure (an introduction, a brief plot summary, comment on author’s style and conclusion) which can be found in other book reviews. From the above definitions, genres are communicative, conventional, goal-directed, highly structured and academic-oriented.

Since genre can take on diverse meanings in various contexts, the notion of genre is generally ambiguous and should only be understood with regards to its contextual information (Paltridge, 2006). In addition, although the communicative and conventional features of genre may decide a certain pattern for the writers to follow, these conventions do not indicate that there is no room for writers’ creativity within each genre (Xu, 2005, p.23) but encourages them to make use
of language resources to accomplish their communicative purposes without violating the genre conventions.

**Genre Analysis**

Since knowledge about genres can provide “a communication system for the use of writers and writing, and readers and critics in reading and interpreting” (Swales, 1990, p.42), genre analysis could be beneficial for various groups of audiences such as writers, readers and especially those in the field of second language education like teachers, students and researchers.

There are two commonly-used procedures of doing genre analysis. Bhatia’s (1993) steps for doing genre analysis include investigating the existing knowledge on the genre, refining the analysis and selecting the collection of text. These steps, however, are not rigid but flexible depending on the objectives, and the focus of the analysis as well as the prior knowledge of the researcher. Swales (1990) proposes four stages in analyzing the schematic structure of genre: classify the text with common communicative purposes, label the moves with functional titles, decide which are optional and obligatory moves, and finally identify the steps the writer makes to realize the moves. Additionally, a genre can also be viewed from a linguistic stance. Researchers can analyze one or more specific features of language (e.g. lexis, syntax) which are largely or characteristically used in a particular genre to highlight the strategic features of regular language use. In this study, we followed the stages suggested by Swales since we would like to come to identify the schematic structures of ERAs with a fresh mind to avoid presumptions before analyzing the text.

**Moves and steps in genre analysis**

To apply Swale’s suggestions, an adequate understanding of moves and steps in genre analysis is necessary. Swales defines a move as a “discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse” (2004, p. 228). Moves deliver the central theme of the text and help the reader in understanding meaning units of the text (Endres-Niggemeyer, 1998). Each individual move, according to Santos (1996) and Pho (2008), holds its own communicative aim, and moves combine together to accomplish the broad communicative purpose of the genre. These moves are then fulfilled by one or more steps (sub-moves), and both moves and steps are functional elements which can be either obligatory (occurring frequently) or optional (occurring less frequently) in a genre (Li, 2011). Swales (2004)
states that identifying moves and setting the boundaries between moves are critical steps in genre analysis and is established by “a mixed bag of criteria” (p. 229).

**Genre analysis and L2 Learning and Teaching**

Genre analysis is often claimed to facilitate students’ obtaining access to texts and discourse and then participating successfully in L2 interactions (Paltridge, 2006). According to Hyland (2003), discussing and negotiating with their teachers or with more experienced people on certain genres, as a scaffolding strategy, can help learners develop their knowledge about these genres. However, some other scholars (Luke, 1996; Kay and Dudley-Evans, 1998; Myskow and Gordon, 2009) expressed their skepticism in that teaching genre may create mimicking among students, lacking the students’ own voice, and hence, the genre-based approach may be prescriptive rather than descriptive. They argue that prescribing rigid textual patterns might hinder students’ capability to employ their knowledge to a more complicated mixture of generic forms. Critical theorists also claim that genre teaching can accommodate learners to established modes of practice and to the dominant standards and ideologies (Benesch, 2001). In defence, Hyland (2007) maintains that genre learning does not prohibit critical analysis but in fact supplies students with an essential foundation for critical engagement. However, for doing that and using the genre knowledge successfully in various social purposes, learners have to acquire “a high level of cognitive flexibility” (Myskow and Gordon, 2009, p. 285). This necessary knowledge makes genre analysis more valuable for advanced students and teachers than for students at beginning levels. Moreover, in this article we would argue that an understanding of academic genres could be very valuable for novice L2 researchers who want to publish their work in international peer-reviewed journals.

**English research article abstracts**

Due to the burgeoning growth in the number of ERAs published around the world every day (Larsen & Von Ins, 2010), it is impossible for the readers to survey all the relevant literature in their field. Hence, they have to rely on the concise and condensed information from RA abstracts which are also the standard gateways into research literature (Hartley, Sydes and Blurton, 1996). Consequently, an abstract has become a vital part of any ERA; the first part to be read (Hartley, 2003). With a well-written abstract, an ERA can appeal to diverse readers and have many opportunities to be cited. Conversely, a flawed abstract can negatively influence its usefulness and the ERA. Tibbo (1993) points out that a poorly constructed abstract may fail to
mirror the structure of the original article and to adequately explain core concepts so influence the precision of the research.

Many scholars have provided definitions of abstracts. The American National Standards Institute (ANSI) defines abstract as “an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication with it” (Lorés, 2004, p.281). Abstracts are defined as condensed document representations (Cross & Oppenheim, 2006) which deliver the main arguments made in research articles, reflecting their format and style, and normally appear at the beginning of the research articles to sell (Pho, 2008, p. 231) the research articles. Cross & Oppenheim (2006) state that abstracts are useful in a number of ways: saving time for the readers in making decisions on reading the full text, or not; preparing readers (especially L2 readers) with language for the text; facilitating the readers in fully understanding the arguments of the articles; serving as reminders to help consolidate ideas and opinions in the post reading phrase. Hence, acquiring the skills of writing abstracts is essential; especially to novice writers/researchers who wish to join the discourse community of their subject. For researchers who are not from English backgrounds but want to submit their articles in an English academic journal, the knowledge of macrostructure and linguistic realizations of abstracts are of supreme importance (Ventola, 1994).

Since English is the world’s language of scholarship, and most major scientific knowledge is presented in English, ERA genre has almost become a compulsory genre in research-finding communication and received considerable attention from L2 scholars and its academic community. Similar to many other genres of the RA (introduction, literature review, result, discussion), a number of academic genre analyses have been conducted on abstracts. Earlier research has examined abstracts from broad areas (humanities, social sciences and natural sciences (Graetz, 1985; Stotesbury, 2003), particular disciplines: medicine (Busch-Lauer, 1995a, 1995b; Salager-Meyer, 1990, 1992), biomedicine (Huckin, 2001), and psychology (Hartley, 2003), or across cultures (Hyland, 2000; Melander, Swales & Fredrickson, 1997). In AL, Santos (1996) investigated the move structures in 94 RAs, and Pho compared the abstracts in with those in education (Pho, 2008). More recently, Ozmen (2016) investigated the rhetorical analysis of the AL doctoral abstracts in Turkey while some Chinese authors (Niu, 2013; Ren & Li, 2013; Tseng, 2011) analysed research article abstracts in AL Journals and AL Master’s theses. According to Tseng (2011), the comparison between two types of research (qualitative and quantitative) in AL has not been sufficiently studied.
By carrying out a genre analysis of a small corpus of abstracts from research articles (RA) in Applied Linguistics (AL), this study attempts to label the rhetorical moves of RA abstracts and explore a salient linguistic feature in this genre to understand how they are structured to accomplish their communicative purposes. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the schematic structures of qualitative and quantitative RA abstracts in this small corpus?
2. What are the prominent linguistic features that can differentiate the two types of RA abstracts in this corpus?

Methodology

The corpus

The small corpus includes twenty abstracts of articles from two branches of AL and language teaching: vocabulary in language teaching (ten quantitative RAs) and narrative inquiry in language teaching (ten qualitative RAs). The abstracts were chosen with regard to the comparison between quantitative and qualitative ERAs. They were chosen from recent publications (between 2001 and 2016) in journals with high impact factor in their respective branches (TESOL Quarterly, Applied Linguistics, Journal of Language Teaching Research, and The Modern Language Journal). These journals are commonly cited and have high impact factor for their quality of articles. Thus, although our corpus includes ERAs written by non-native researchers, their English writing competence can be considered as native or near-native standard. Each abstract is made up of one paragraph with an average of 171 words. The difference between numbers of words, however, does not significantly affect the quality of the abstracts or the genre analysis.

The system analysis & the procedure

According to Ventola (1994), apprentice writers need to know both the global structure of abstracts and the conventional linguistic realizations of the genre. Following this advice, the current study explores the discourse pattern and structure of ERA abstracts at two levels: the macro-linguistic level (analyzing the schematic structures through identifying moves and sub-moves) and the micro-linguistic level (analyzing one linguistic feature).
Before deciding on the method of system analysis, all abstracts were skimmed for general ideas of their organizations. After considering the moves presented in Bitchener (2010), Swales (1990), Santos (1996), Cross & Oppenheim (2006), and Hyland (2000), the researchers decided that the macro-level of textual organizations would be best analyzed by using Santos’ (1996) framework as this was also used for abstracts in AL and covered nearly all the moves described in other studies. However, small adaptations were made to this framework following Pho (2008) and Bitchener (2010). The adaptation framework is presented as follows.
Table 1. The framework for analyzing ERA abstracts (adapted from Santos (1996), Pho (2008), and Bitchener (2010))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Function/ Description</th>
<th>Sub-moves</th>
<th>Question asked</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Situating the research</td>
<td>Setting the scene for the current research (topic generalization)</td>
<td>a. Stating the current knowledge and/or</td>
<td>What has been known about the field/topic of research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Citing previous research and/or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Extended previous research and/or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>d. Stating the problem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Presenting the research</td>
<td>Stating the purpose of the study, research questions and/or hypotheses</td>
<td>a. Indicating main features and /or</td>
<td>What is the study about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Indicating main purpose and/ or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Hypothesis raising</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Describing the methodology</td>
<td>Describing the materials subjects, variables, procedures...</td>
<td>a. Identify overall approach/ design and/or</td>
<td>How was the research done?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Identify key data source(s)/ parameters and/ or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>c. Identify data analysis process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Summarizing the results</td>
<td>Reporting the findings of the study</td>
<td></td>
<td>What did the researcher find?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Discussing the research</td>
<td>Interpreting the results/ findings and/or giving recommendations, implications/ applications of the study</td>
<td>a. Drawing conclusions and/or</td>
<td>What do the results mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Giving recommendations</td>
<td>So what?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To exemplify the coding system, the abstract of Schmitt, Jiang and Grabe’s (2001) article is taken as an example as follow:

M= Move, Sm = Sub-move;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Separated sentences in abstracts of Schmitt, Jiang and Grabe’s article (2001)</th>
<th>Move/ Sub-move</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>This study focused on the relationship between percentage of vocabulary known in a text and level of comprehension of the same text</strong></td>
<td>M2, Sm-a (See table 3 – For instance, M2 = Presenting the research; Sm-a = indicating main features)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earlier studies have estimated the percentage of vocabulary necessary for second language learners to understand written texts as being between 95% (Laufer, 1989) and 98% (Hu &amp; Nation, 2000)</td>
<td>M1, Sm-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this study, 661 participants from 8 countries completed a vocabulary measure based on words drawn from 2 texts, read the texts, and then completed a reading comprehension test for each text</td>
<td>M3, Sm-bc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The results revealed a relatively linear relationship between the percentage of vocabulary known and the degree of reading comprehension. There was no indication of a vocabulary “threshold,” where comprehension increased dramatically at a particular percentage of vocabulary knowledge</td>
<td>M4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results suggest that the 98% estimate is a more reasonable coverage target for readers of academic texts.</td>
<td>M5, Sm-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Identifying moves can be assisted by analyzing micro-level linguistic features of RAs (Pho, 2008). In terms of linguistic feature, after investigating the corpus thoroughly, we decided to focus on the hedging strategy of the corpus of abstracts. Hedging strategy is one of the essential metadiscourse markers for writers “to mark their epistemic stance and position writer–reader relations” (Hu & Cao, 2001, p.2795) and to convey their claims in an unobtrusive manner. Hedges
enable the writer to express uncertainty about a proposal, to withhold their full commitment to a position, and to soothe an illocutionary force (Holmes, 1984; Millan, 2008) and hence allow alternative voices to come into play (Gillaerts & Velde, 2010). A skilled writer should manipulate hedges in academic writing to indicate epistemic stance effectively and to properly state any scientific claims.

Our taxonomy to detect hedges (Table 2) is based mainly on the works of Hyland’s (2005a), Hyland and Tse (2004) and (Hu & Cao, 2001). We scrutinized all the abstracts with this taxonomy in mind then tabulated our finding in Table 4.

Table 2. Hedging makers for analyzing abstract (adapted from Hyland’s (2005a), Hyland and Tse (2004) and (Hu & Cao, 2001))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hedging markers</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal auxiliaries</td>
<td>Might, could, would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives and adverbs</td>
<td>Possibly, likely, perhaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>Seem, appear, suggest, tend to, attempt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>In general, assumptions (that), to certain extent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

The macrostructure

A general inspection of twenty abstracts reveals that each contains from three to five moves; vocabulary abstracts often have five moves while narrative abstracts normally have four. Also, it is not surprising that Move 2, 3 and 4 appear in all abstracts while Move 1 and 5 are more optional, especially as Move 1 only appears in nine abstracts. A closer investigation is presented in Table 3. Since some moves contain more than one sub-move and some moves recur in one abstract the total number of sub-moves may not be equal to that of moves.
Table 3. Frequency of the occurrences of moves and sub-moves in twenty abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Sub-moves</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Narrative</th>
<th>Total Sub-moves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Situating the research</td>
<td>a. Stating the current knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Citing previous research</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Extended previous research</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Stating the problem</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Presenting the research</td>
<td>a. Indicating main features</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Indicating main purpose</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Hypothesis raising</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Describing the methodology</td>
<td>a. Identify overall approach/ design</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Identify key data source(s)/ parameters</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Identify data analysis process</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Summarizing the results</td>
<td></td>
<td>11*</td>
<td>12*</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Discussing the research</td>
<td>a. Drawing conclusions</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Giving recommendations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In one abstract Move 4 recurs once

Table 3 presents the results from twenty abstracts, which were categorized into two groups for comparison. The table reveals that abstracts from both sub-disciplines generally contain all the moves although while the vocabulary abstracts cover all sub-moves, the narrative ones do not contain 1c. Sub-moves 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b, 3c and 5a are the most popular in both sub-disciplines. Since Move 1 only appears in half of the abstracts, Sub-moves under Move 1 are less popular (especially in 1a and 1c). Sub-moves 1a, 1c, 2c and 5b are not as frequently found in both sub-disciplines. Overall, although the abstracts from these two sub-disciplines are relatively alike in their rhetorical organization, subtle differences between two sub-disciplines could still be identified.

Generally, the moves in twenty abstracts follow the order of moves presented in the framework (i.e. they appear orderly from one to five) with some exceptions in both sub-disciplines. While in vocabulary abstracts Move 2 precedes Move 1 once, Move 1 appears last
once; in narrative abstracts all moves appear orderly although Move 1 and 5 do not appear in four abstracts each. Interestingly, narrative abstracts contain some hybrid and cyclic moves. For example we examined a Simon- Maeda’s abstract (2004), where Move 2, 3 and 4 are hybrid, and Move 2, 4 and 5 recur twice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This article reports on the life history narratives of nine female EFL teachers working in higher education in Japan.</td>
<td>M2, sm-a, hybrid M3, sm-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An interpretive qualitative analysis of the stories suggested that gender cannot be viewed as a free-floating attribute of individual subjectivities but rather must be seen as one of many components in an ever-evolving network of personal, social, and cultural circumstances.</td>
<td>M4, hybrid M3, sm-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequently, this study does not provide a unitary description of how gender intersects with English language teaching and learning. It offers a more complicated version of female teachers’ lives, and in so doing, it challenges and expands prevalent TESOL education theories that do not fully address the confusions and transitions in teachers' career trajectories.</td>
<td>M5, sm-ab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was especially interested in how, in the face of ideological constraints, the participants engaged with sociocultural circumstances, constructed their identities as educators, and mobilized available resources to contest oppressive forces in their professional lives.</td>
<td>M2-sm-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The in-depth, open-ended life history interviews enabled me to write and to understand work identities dialogically.</td>
<td>M4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using local social actors' narratives to foreground how their interpretations of work contexts interrelate with hegemonic ideologies provides access points that will help the field reconceptualize TESOL’s goals.</td>
<td>M5, sm-a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, most of the moves were realized by one or some sentences. Nevertheless, in some cases a move is realized by a phrase or clause, and some moves are integrated because of the
condensed nature of abstracts. In the following example, the author embedded Move 2 and 3 in a sentence.

*This articles explores teachers’ identity formation through a narrative inquiry of the professional identity of an EFL teacher, Minfang, in the People’s Republic of China* (M2, sm-a, hybrid M3, sm-b). *(Tsui, 2007)*

Investigating other hybrid cases reveals that Move 3 is most often embedded in other moves, especially Move 2 and 4. The finding also reveals that Santos’ framework makes it difficult to clarify the difference between Sub-moves 2a and 2b (to differentiate between descriptive and purposive statements) and to distinguish between Move 4 and 5 in practice. Lastly, following Move 5 below, an unusual sentence does not correlate with other moves and is counted as an exception.

*This suggests that a single glossed sentence context may have little effect on vocabulary knowledge* (M5, sm-a). *The effects each task had on the different aspects of vocabulary knowledge are discussed in detail.* *(Webb, 2007)*

**Linguistic realizations**

The result of applying the taxonomy to scrutinize all abstracts in terms of hedging markers is presented as follows:
Table 4. The list of hedging markers in twenty abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hedging markers</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Narrative Inquiry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Modal auxiliaries</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should, might<em>2, would, may</em>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>cannot/ can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epistemic adjectives and adverbs</strong></td>
<td>relatively, reasonable</td>
<td>relatively rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little*2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likely</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Epistemic lexical verbs</strong></td>
<td>estimate, suggest*2</td>
<td>suggest, address, agree, propose, draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recommend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tend to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seem*2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous</strong></td>
<td>assumption that</td>
<td>no significant difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no significant difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The number of appearance

Table 4 reveals that vocabulary abstracts contain a large number and variety of hedging markers as opposed to narrative abstracts. Unsurprising, *might, may, little, suggest and seem* are the most popular markers for vocabulary abstracts, and they are also relatively equally allocated in four groups. The finding also indicates that the hedging markers are mostly used in Move 2, 4, and they often appear together in a sentence as in these two examples:

1. *This result suggests that the AWL might not be as general as it was intended to be and, more importantly, questions the widely held assumption that students need a single core vocabulary for academic study.* (Hyland & Tse, 2007)

2. *This suggests that a single glossed sentence context may have little effect on vocabulary knowledge.* (Webb, 2007)

However, the narrative abstracts contain low numbers of hedges which do not cover all the categories, as all three hedges come from three out of ten abstracts, which means that no hedging markers were found in the seven others.
Discussions and applications

Discussions

The comparison of the macro-organization and hedging strategies of abstracts from the two sub-disciplines under AL shows some minor differences in terms of generic structure and the use of hedges. For macrostructure, our corpus indicates that while vocabulary abstracts use a wider range of moves and sub-moves, narrative abstracts are more flexible and often contain move cycles and hybrid moves. This may reflect the flexibility of qualitative research in comparison with the quantitative one. It also reveals that Move 2, 3 and 4 are obligatory whereas Move 1, and 5 are optional and sometimes missing in the narrative articles. These findings are relatively consistent with those from Pho (2008) and Santos (1996). The popularity of Move 2, 3 and 4 can be explained as they are the most significant parts of RAs, especially Move 4. The difference is that only 80 percent of the abstracts in Santos’s corpus contain Move 4, which appears in all the abstracts of this study. Thus, Santos’ claim that among five moves, only Move 2 and Move 3 are compulsory should be added with Move 4.

The sequence of moves in this corpus also in line with Pho’s finding and Santos’ finding in which Move 2 occasionally precedes Move 1 or the omission of Move 1 or 5 although Santos claims that 64 percent of abstracts in his corpus open with Move 2 (the percentage is much larger than that in this study). The fact that Move 3 is often embedded in other moves can be explained as this is “the relative flexibility of the realization of this move” therefore it can be realized by a phrase serving as a constituent of either Move 2 or 4 (Pho, p.238). The embedding of this move, as Santos argues, is a “typical phenomenon” across the abstracts (p.429).

In terms of sub-moves, the finding is in line with Santos’ findings in the sense that Sub-moves 5a outnumbers 5b, 2a outnumbers 2b, 2c. However, different from Santos’ findings, this study does not show that Sub-move 1a prevails its partners. Also, hypothesis raising cannot be found in this small corpus while it accounts for 20 percent in Santos’ corpus. However, this finding should be interpreted cautiously due to the small number of abstracts.

In comparison with Bitchener’s (2010, p. 11) category, this study’s category can be considered to be parallel although different names are used in the two systems (e.g. Introduction equals Situating the research and Purpose equals Presenting the research etc.). This study’s findings reveal that the Bitchener’s Sub-move 1b, identifying motivation for the research, is quite
general and hence not aligned to any sub-move in this study. Also, the Sub-move identifying and developing hypotheses is not found in this study and Sub-move 3d, identifying the data analysis process is found less in this corpus. Since Sub-move 4a and 4b in Bitchener’s research are quite indistinctive, they are not clarified in this study (although a skimming reveals no clue of subsidiary findings). Lastly, both Sub-moves 5a and 5b are found in this corpus, although under different names. To sum up, this study hasn’t found all the sub-moves mentioned by Bitchener. This may because Bitchener’s study is on abstracts of theses, which are not strictly restricted to the number of words and, hence, often contain more information.

In terms of linguistic features, the distribution patterns of hedging devices are very different in the two sub-disciplines. The low number of hedging markers in these qualitative abstracts and the prevalence of them in the quantitative abstracts may be explained by the fact that theoretical RAs are more likely argumentative and, hence, the writer should be more assertive, so they tend to use fewer hedges while empirical ERAs are more likely objective and impersonal and hence tend to use more hedges (Pho, 2008, p.243). Another possibility is quantitative abstracts are based on hard science, which requires more scholarly credibility from “a deliberate, cautious expression of scientific claims”, instead of “the authoritative stance of an ‘omniscient’ academic” (Gillaerts and Velde, 2010, p.137). On the other hand, since qualitative abstracts are aimed at convincing readers that the studies are worthwhile to read, the claims are less likely to be “downplayed by hedges” (Gillaerts and Velde, p.132). Additionally, the finding is also in line with Pho’s (2008), Salager-Meyer (1992), and Behnam, Naeimi & Darvishzade (2012) in claiming that hedges mostly found in Move 4 and especially Move 5. This may be because of the researchers’ tentativeness in interpreting their research findings.

Overall, the metadiscourse of hedging indicates a similar claim to that in Hu and Cao (2011) that the researchers often do not just describe their findings objectively but also manipulate various rhetorical strategies to mark their epistemic stance.

Teaching suggestions

The analysis of macrostructure can be applied in teaching advanced students and novice researchers in numerous ways. Firstly, as recommended by Flowerdew (1993), students are asked to self-discover the abstract structure to find out the moves in the abstracts (by matching the name of the move and the sentences; for instance, and students may be encouraged to make their own small corpus of abstracts). Secondly, the activities can be designed as a reordering of moves and
sub-moves of abstracts where students are asked to reconstruct the jumbled moves and sub-moves. Another idea is to use a flow chart in which moves and sub-moves and sequences between them are explicitly illustrated to create a vivid image about their sequential relationships. Fourthly, teachers can cross out one or two moves or sub-moves from the abstracts and ask students to identify the missing moves or sub-moves.

The findings of hedges can complement the rhetorical structure in teaching writing academic articles in AL, especially quantitative ones (to teach students to realize Move 5, for example). The first task can be designed as a consciousness-raising task (Hyland, 1996; Isabel, 2001) in which students compare different claims (with and without hedges) and notice the difference in the certainty degree of the claims. The second activity asks students to make the argument less subjective by using the given hedging markers to rewrite the claims.

For the learning purpose, especially for novice researchers, this study provides a good reference for apprentice L2 researchers in the field of AL, especially those who are writing research articles in vocabulary study and narrative inquiry. These researchers could use the findings for their future submission in English peer-review journals. For instance, while novice researchers in quantitative approach should try to cover all the moves and use a variety of hedging markers, beginner researchers in qualitative approach should use more hybrid and cyclic moves and carefully consider the use of hedges to convince readers. In addition, apprentice researchers could also analyze the abstracts in their own corpus to learn different genres in academic articles. A similar analysis of academic genres could be done by novice researchers in other fields so that they can be better prepared for their future submission in academic journals.
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**Linguistics Research Abstract References**

**Vocabulary Research Articles**


**Narrative Inquiry Research Articles**


THAI EFL UNIVERSITY TEACHERS’ CONCEPTIONS OF CRITICAL THINKING

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Abstract

Critical thinking is a key term in Western academic philosophy, and its origin and practice can be traced back to approximately 2500 years ago in Socrates' time. Although this thinking is claimed to include generic skills transferable across disciplines and to everyday life, it has been argued that it is perhaps culturally and contextually bound (Fox, 1994; Brookfield, 2003); consequently, the application of critical thinking in an Asian context seems questionable. In Thailand, despite a government policy to cultivate critical thinking, research suggests that Thai students lack critical thinking ability. It may be that Thai teachers' conceptions of what critical thinking is have some influence on this, but there has been scant research in this area, particularly at tertiary level.

Utilizing a phenomenological research design using semi-structured interviews, this preliminary study explores how nine Thai university teachers teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in a southern province of Thailand conceptualize critical thinking and compares their conceptions to definitions of critical thinking in Western literature. In addition, it seeks to identify these teachers' perceptions of their students' critical thinking and the contextual factors influencing their students' critical thinking.

The study found that Thai EFL university teachers' conceptions of critical thinking were largely similar to those stated in Western literature, although interesting differences were found stemming from distinctly Thai cultural roots.

Keywords: Critical thinking, Teachers' conceptions, Thai EFL teachers, Thai EFL students
Introduction

Critical thinking (CT) is a vital life skill for students who will soon become members of society (Süto & Suto, 2013). In the educational domain, whether or not these students can be taught with CT is a subject of ongoing debate. While Sternberg and Williams (2002) claim that all people naturally possess CT and that it might not be necessary to teach students such thinking in class, Duron, Limbach & Waugh (2006) assert that this natural process must be nurtured to avoid being harmed by bias, distortion and prejudice. The latter position appears to have become the preferred one, particularly given the fact that promoting students' thinking skills, notably their CT skills, has become a goal for all educational levels (Lipman, 2003; Siegel, 1988). This is considerably emphasised for those studying at tertiary level (Halpern, 1998) as all students at this level are encouraged to be independent learners, and CT plays a key role in this independence (Open University, 2008).

In language teaching, CT plays no less significant a role. Indeed, a shift from traditional language teaching to communicative approaches has seen authentic materials come into common use. These materials contain real world propaganda and bias with the result that, in addition to equipping students with language skills and knowledge, language teachers should also equip their students with CT skills (Hughes, 2014). Furthermore, language and thinking skills are theorised as being related to each other (Piaget, 1971). That is, CT skills or higher-order thinking skills can facilitate the achievement of a higher level of language proficiency (Liaw, 2007).

In Thailand, the concept of promoting students to think is not new. According to the Office of the National Education Centre 1996 (as cited in Office of the National Education Commission, 2003), Thai students' abilities to reason, criticise, and solve problems are to be enhanced, and they are encouraged to apply these skills to their real life situations. A similar concept on strengthening Thai students' CT skills is also stated in the National Education Act 1999 (Office of the National Education Commission, 2003). Still, most Thai teachers prefer a traditional teaching style whereby knowledge is directly transferred and fed to the students while the students are seen as submissive receivers (Tripatara, 2000; Wiratchai, 2002). This teaching style provides few opportunities for students to practice CT; as a result, Thai students seem to lack important
learning skills such as questioning, discussing and improving their creative thinking (Chareonwongsak, 2002). These impede not only Thai students' curiosity development, but also their thinking process in terms of criticality and creativity (Wright, 2004).

There are two justifications for the study reported here. Firstly, Thai government policy is to develop CT in Thai students, and this has become part of school curricula. However, in order to evaluate the teaching of CT and understand its success or failure, it is of the utmost importance to know what Thai teachers actually think CT is. As argued by Tillema (2000), teachers' conceptions shape their teaching. Secondly, most studies on CT in Thailand's educational domain have been conducted at primary school level while most of those studied at tertiary level are in the nursing field (Buranapatana, 2006).

**Literature review**

CT is defined differently depending on the discipline. Facione (1990) suggests that CT should be viewed in two dimensions: cognitive skills and affective dispositions. While the former includes skills such as reasoning, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis; the latter reflects an individual's tendencies while engaging in CT, such as being open-minded and flexible to other alternatives. Even if various definitions have been offered, a number of overlaps among said definitions can be found (Tsui, 2006). Some examples are below.

Reasoning is probably the foremost element found in CT definitions. Ennis (1987), McPeck (1981), and Siegel (1988) state that reasoning is a group of conscious mental operations leading to CT, which then results in human responses or behaviours. Nickerson (1986, pp.1-2) explains reasoning in terms of "the production and evaluation of arguments, the making of inferences and the drawing of conclusions, the generation and testing of hypotheses. It requires both induction and deduction, both analysis and synthesis, and both criticality and creativity". Halpern (1998) and Paul (1993a) agree that reasoning is required when an individual tries to think critically.
Interestingly, CT and creative thinking are considered as types of high-order thinking (Ten Dam & Volman, 2004). Hartman and Sternberg (1993) and Perkins (1990) perceive the difference between CT and creative thinking in terms of their generated outcomes: the former comes up with evaluated ideas while the latter produces originality. However, both types of thinking are interdependent (Passmore, 1972; Paul, 1993b). According to Ennis (1987), a number of cognitive skills, such as forming hypotheses and planning for action, are perceived as being part of CT, and these skills make use of creativity. Similarly, Halpern (2007) and Paul (1993b) point out that creativity is obviously used when thinking critically. That is, a thinker tries to imagine him/herself from other perspectives and reflects on these perspectives using reasoning, analysis and evaluation. Through this processing, he/she will be able to make a decision. Furthermore, Paul (1993b) asserts that criticality is also an essential tool applied in constructing creativity. However, Broom (2011) claims that criticality and creativity might work separately, giving the example of Mozart and his art masterpieces. According to Broom, Mozart referred to his works as a product of creativity, and not something consciously produced.

Additionally, CT skills are sometimes considered as problem-solving abilities. Paul (1993b) states that CT and problem-solving are different claiming that the former deals with a collection of skills which will be selected and applied as appropriate and when necessary while the latter involves the steps employed in order.

Somewhat similar to problem solving, CT is described in terms of purposeful thinking as obviously mentioned in the definitions proposed by Facione (1990) and Halpern (1996). Moreover, CT with an aim in mind is also indirectly referred to in some definitions. For example, Ennis (1987) mentions CT which is “focused on deciding what to believe or do” while Paul (1993a) refers to it “as a guide to belief or action.”

With respect to specific purposes, CT is claimed to be related to norms and that a judgement must be made on them (Daniels, 1998; Paul, 1993a). Lipman (2003) adds that criteria and context are also crucial when CT is taken into consideration.
Moreover, CT is relevant to both the cognitive thinking process and the internal force of an individual. According to Wade and Tavris (2008), CT is the ability and willingness to evaluate something and make a decision in relation to it using reasonable and sufficient evidence. These affective aspects are closely related to dispositions as they influence a personal tendency to engage in CT. Additionally, the dispositions are relevant to and influenced by cultures, so different thinking dispositions can probably be found in different cultures (Guo, 2013).

Apart from these overlaps, Broom (2011) argues that most of the definitions proposed thus far emphasise intellectual processes which are applied to the human mind, while other human natures which are interdependent and affecting CT of human beings are underrated. Broom points out that ineffective processes of CT could even occur with bright students who have good logical and reasoning abilities but probably lack in affective areas such as self-confidence and passion for learning.

In conclusion, even though many definitions have been suggested by several scholars, there are certain overlaps amongst these definitions, thus signifying that CT could be a universal process for human beings. However, the most significantly different aspect in the definitions is likely related to CT dispositions. As posited by Guo (2013), the dispositions can be influenced by culture. Moreover, when considering CT, all aspects of human beings, such as cognition, affections and emotions should be taken into account.

Research Questions

This study explored Thai EFL university teachers' conceptions of CT, their perceptions of their students' CT, and their perceptions of the contextual factors influencing their students' CT. Therefore, the research questions are:

1. What are Thai EFL university teachers' conceptions of CT?
2. What are Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of their students' CT?
3. What are Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of the contextual factors influencing their students' CT?
Methodology

A constructivist paradigm was used to guide this study. Based on constructivism, social reality can be multiple depending on the interpretation of each individual (Riegler, 2012). In this study, Thai EFL university teachers' conceptions of CT were assumed to be varied depending on their experience and their interpretation of such experience, so it was not possible to quantify and hypothesize this in advance. Here, a qualitative research design was deemed appropriate.

As the focus of the study was the lived experience of the participants, a phenomenological strategy was applied so as to explore and describe “what all participants have in common as they experience a phenomenon” (Creswell 2013, p. 76). This experience can be understood through investigating their perspectives (Patton 1990) and their consciousness (Eagleton 1996).

Regarding the sample size, fifteen potential participants teaching English courses at a university in a southern province of Thailand were approached, and nine agreed (male - 4, female - 5). This was in line with Creswell (2013) who suggests five to twenty-five participants as sufficient to reach data saturation when conducting a phenomenological study. In this current study, the participants’ age ranged from 30 to 65 years old (X̅ - 42), and their teaching experience ranged from one to 42 years (X̅ - 15). The research instrument was semi-structured face-to-face interviews conducted during the first semester of the academic year 2015. The data were collected in two stages:

Stage One: The participants were asked to bring a textbook and discuss how they used it, e.g. what language aspects and activities were emphasised and how they arranged time and activities in class. This generated further questions, for example:

- How do you use the textbook in class?
- What activities do you use in class?
- Do you prefer particular types of activities?
- How do you see your role as a teacher?
- What do you expect from your students?
- How do you manage your teaching in a limited classroom time?
These questions were designed to indirectly elicit data on the participants’ conceptions of CT, for example by talking about what they expected from their students, the research could understand how they perceived their students’ CT abilities.

Stage Two: The participants were asked questions directly related to the research questions. Some examples of such questions were as follows:
- What does CT mean?
- How important is it to teach students CT in the Thai educational context?
- What do people do when they think critically?
- Are your students critical thinkers? What makes you think they are not?
- What, in your opinion, are the factors influencing your students’ abilities to think critically?

The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. The transcripts were analysed to discover themes using Ryan & Bernard (2003) as a guide for data analysis. Although the participants were teachers of English, Thai was used when interviewing as it was the researcher’s and the participants’ mother tongue. This enabled the interviewees to express themselves more fully and freely (Rossman and Rallis 2003), and thereby increasing the quality of the data obtained (Esposito 2001).

Results

The results of this study will be presented according to each research question.

Research question 1: What are Thai EFL university teachers’ conceptions of CT?

Their conceptions of CT were examined in regard to two aspects: its definition and its importance. The definition of CT was viewed in two dimensions (cognitive skills and affective dispositions) based on Facione (1990).

In general, the participants regarded CT as high-order thinking which was logical, systematic, purposeful and moral. Interestingly, all of them mentioned morality as a crucial part of
One participant noted that morality was especially important for Thai people and Thai students:

“I am sure morality is very important for Thais. What we think should be on good things. I mean it should not get others including us in trouble. This is very much important. If we do not emphasise this to our students, their thinking skills might be misused in their future life”.

Although all of them agreed that morality was vital for CT, one participant raised a concern regarding this matter:

“Morality plays a big role in CT. However, it depends on the morality each context defines. Different contexts possess different worldviews and cultural perspectives which are closely related to their own moral conceptions. This is about subject position: from what stance you are looking at. Morality can be variously interpreted, so the one valued in a particular context should not be used for judging all”.

Concerning the cognitive skills required for information processing of CT, the participants claimed that the skills included judgment of credibility with regard to the information’s sources, reasoning, utilisation of evidence, synthesis, analysis, utilisation of background knowledge, creativity, interpretation, problem solving, evaluation, hypothesis-testing, and examination of causes and consequences.

In terms of CT dispositions, they suggested that critical thinkers should be open-minded, calm and patient, persistent in thinking, and have a sceptical mind. Moreover, these thinkers should not be careless or hasty, self-centred, or too obedient.

Besides this, all participants agreed that CT was very important for several reasons, such as promoting people’s creativity, preventing people (especially the young) from being misled, helping people tackle online information, facilitating decision-making and problem-solving skills, helping reduce social problems, and preventing people from being media victims. Moreover, six of the participants stressed that CT was crucial for students, especially those in higher education.
Research Question 2: What are Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of their students' CT?

Eight participants claimed that most of their students lacked CT. For instance, one participant claimed that

"A few of Thai students are a bit critical thinkers. Most students are not. Most of my students are still unable to understand logical connections between ideas, construct and evaluate arguments and reflect on the justification of their beliefs or answers."

Another participant explained why she thought her students lacked CT:

"I sometimes gave my students tasks for discussion, and pretended to express my own ideas. It appeared that almost all of them thought the way I did. Nothing was different. They might believe that everything produced by their teachers was totally right. The input I provided to them and the output they produced were the same. So, what is the learning? Learning should come out as a product of thinking process. Also, when I asked my students why they thought that way, they could not explain it. Moreover, their answers are usually in forms of yes-no answering. Only a few of them could explain their answers clearly showing reasons behind their thinking."

While these eight participants mentioned their students' lack of CT, one participant insisted that it was difficult to judge whether or not Thai students lacked that thinking. This participant stated that

"If Thai students do not talk, it does not mean they do not or cannot think. To some, silence means thinking. It might be their learning style and preference. Sometimes their behaviours and what they actually have in their minds are different. It depends on the criteria we use to evaluate them."

Research Question 3: What are Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of the contextual factors influencing their students' CT?

The participants suggested several factors possibly affecting their students' CT. These factors could be categorised into four groups: pedagogical factors, individual factors, cultural factors, and other factors.
1. **Pedagogical factors**

The pedagogical factors included curriculum design, teaching methods, teaching plans, teaching and learning materials, nature of classroom assessment, educational atmosphere, nature of courses, and educational restrictions such as time constraints and classes with a large number of students.

2. **Individual factors**

In reference to individual factors, these were mainly relevant to two individuals: teachers and students. The factors pertaining to the teachers could include their intellect, their resourcefulness and their lack of understanding of CT. Three participants claimed that some teachers might think CT was fanciful and a waste of time and energy. Additionally, one participant noted that

> "I know some teachers do not like CT instruction and activities as it is difficult for them to control their classes. Moreover, the questions posed by students during CT activities are unpredictable. The teachers might not feel comfortable coping with these."

Two participants mentioned the teachers' open-mindedness which, it could be argued, may be closely linked to these teachers' attitudes. One participant stated that

> "If some teachers do not open their minds, those being talkative or having different opinions might be perceived as being aggressive. Teachers are humans. They can be biased, they can be narrow-minded, and they can even influence the whole class to be against some students they do not like."

Another participant raised a similar issue on this matter:

> "Some teachers might be angry if their students argue and say something different from theirs or insist that what they are teaching is not correct. Therefore, the students tend to believe that it is easier not to think. If there are any mistakes occurring, they will not be blamed. They can simply say that it is from the teachers and it is not from their own thinking. This obviously transforms our students to be negligent beings."
Interestingly, one participant claimed that the teachers’ misunderstanding of the concept of teaching and learning may well represent a significant barrier standing in the way of students’ CT development. This participant explained that “Some teachers might believe that their students successfully learn only when they can exactly repeat what their teachers say and teach them.”

The factors related to the students might include their intelligence, their types, their levels of background knowledge, their learning attitudes, their intentions to study, their reading ability, their motivation for learning and success, their anxiety, their worries on learning or personal matters, their learning preferences, child rearing, peer pressure, and their fear of losing face. Moreover, one participant stated that many Thai students were afraid that their scores might be reduced if they expressed ideas which differed from those of their teachers.

3. Cultural factors

Cultural factors could be grouped into two values in Thai society: keeping silent and paying respect.

Concerning keeping silent, three participants agreed that silence was valued in Thai society with one participant mentioning a Thai saying “Phuut Pai Song Phai Bia, Ning Sia Tamlung Thong” which means “Speech is silver, but silence is golden.” The participants claimed that silent individuals seemed to be perceived as being smart; moreover, students who were silent and obedient seemed to be admired by some teachers. Another participant said it was an attribute of an intellect. This participant described intellectual individuals as those who were humble and did not reveal their greatness to others. Indeed, the participant alluded to a Thai proverb “Khom Nai Faak” which refers to an intellect who hides his intelligence but shows it only when appropriate.

Five participants mentioned showing respect to adults as a cultural factor which impeded the students’ CT. They stated that most Thais were taught, and even had it instilled within them, to follow and pay respect to adults and authorities. Two of them claimed that this was probably influenced by Thai feudalism. Moreover, one participant related this value to an old Thai saying “Walk behind adults and the dog won’t bite you” which meant that if you followed the adults’
advice, you could avoid problems. Another participant claimed that to some students silence was probably a way of showing respect to adults and authorities.

However, one participant insisted that paying respect was a good value and should be emphasised in Thai society:

> "Paying respect to adults and others is a good value and should be valued. But Thais might need to change their attitudes on this. Paying respect does not mean we have to be blindly obedient. Respect here means being polite and humble. Respectful behaviours are considered as being a value in Thai society. This value is advantageous. It should be sincerely expressed. Have you ever noticed that sometimes our physical expressions can influence our mental perceptions? The more respectful behaviours you have, the humbler heart and mind you will possess. Humble minds can open up for any learning. These should be instilled in our students."

4. **Other factors**

In terms of other factors proposed by the participants, these pertained to media consumption. Two participants pointed out one particularly dangerous aspect of the media, namely that the information was presented repeatedly. One participant claimed that when people consumed the same information again and again, they tended to think that it was appropriate and true. Besides this, the repeated media presentation could trigger people’s emotional involvement, which was considered a bias which impeded people’s CT.

*Interesting issues found in the study*

Apart from the findings based on the research questions, the participants also suggested eight interesting ideas on CT.

First, participants viewed CT as very important, with this also holding true for traditional language teaching. One participant noted that

> "Rote learning has some advantages. Thai students get used to memorising grammatical rules. Some might think such memorisation cannot contribute to language production which I do not agree with. Given time and adequate practice, the memorised rules can be transferred and
applied in their speaking and writing. I think most Thais with grammatical mastery are also good at English writing. So, this shows that rote learning is not always useless”.

Furthermore, another participant added that memorisation in rote learning might make use of CT processing:

“In relation to the act of memorisation, human brains need to be activated so as to restore the information. It might be long-lasting or sometimes in a short-term memory. When we try memorising something, we need to use our own strategies such as creating a mental image in mind. Here, it might deal with creativity and reasoning in order to link the information with something to help us better remember and understand”.

Second, teacher training on CT instruction was deemed essential. One participant stated that

“CT instruction should be trained for the teachers. It might be in workshops or training as part of their professional development. But actually it should be one of the courses in teacher education. CT should be taught to those going to enter teaching profession”.

Third, all of the participants stressed that CT should be taught to the students, either explicitly or implicitly. They believed such thinking should be taught and practiced, claiming that CT, like other skills, needed practice. With sufficient practice, these skills would gradually and spontaneously be applied both inside and outside the classroom.

Fourth, four participants felt that CT assessments in class should address both speaking and writing in order to cater for the needs of the students who had different human types and styles of learning. Moreover, one participant suggested that the assessments should not be ended in just one semester or after a short-term evaluation, and that a long-term assessment was needed.

Fifth, one participant suggested that the students’ CT could be more developed providing that they possessed an appropriate perception toward the role of their teachers. This participant stated that many Thai students believed that responsible teachers were those who fed knowledge to them fully while teachers who had them practice thinking and discussing more than lecturing were perceived as being irresponsible, unprofessional and unprepared.
Sixth, two participants stated that intellectual ability might or might not affect the students’ CT. Moreover, some students might not respond critically because of their language barrier. However, this was not always the case. One participant stated that

“Some Thai students mastering English might face difficulty when they try to think critically. You might experience something like this in your class. Even in real life, often those completing just primary school or being uneducated might have better CT skills than those with doctoral degrees. Thinking is quite complex. It requires several complicated functions. It might not always deal with higher skills as mentioned by many educators. It might simply relate to common senses. Uneducated people can be good critical thinkers as well”.

The other participant raised a similar issue in this regard:

“The process of thinking is not merely on knowledge. Thinking abilities can be practiced. It is on how you train yourself to think. Personally, I believe that those being familiar with learning in formal education tend to be passive thinkers. Here, I try to mention the Thai formal education where Thai teachers seem to possess authoritative power. Thai students are likely to believe in everything transmitted by their teachers who have more power in class. As such, Thai students’ learning behaviours are shaped by their attitudes towards that power. Unlike uneducated people, their thinking is not framed by the behaviours. They can think freely, something like thinking out-of-the-box.”

Seventh, one participant claimed that Thai sympathy could obstruct Thai people’s CT development:

“Sometimes emotions beat reasoning. Thai people can easily ignore reasoning if they sympathise with something. This is about being biased. Let me take the case of a recent beauty queen contest. The winner was later found unqualified, but 80% of Thais on social media thought it was OK simply because she was poor. This is a sick logic. Sympathy beats reasoning sometimes. It is good that Thais are well known as being kind and sympathetic to others. But emotion should not be prioritised. If it is, the concept of
systematic thinking might be deviated and distorted. Those who stand out for rules and criteria might be seen as being mean and inconsiderate”.

Eighth, one participant stated that CT was not a new concept at all as it was taught thousand years ago by Lord Buddha. This participant explained that the Buddhist doctrine related to developing CT was ‘Kalama Sutra’:

“Kalama Sutra, Lord Buddha taught Buddhists to think critically by themselves, not simply believing it just because it was from oral traditions, books, teachers, abstract logic and so forth. The Buddha assured that humans had the right to doubt, and it was good to do so. Doubt would bring them thinking. Most importantly, all thinking must be based on goodness. When reasoning, wisdom, and goodness were taken into account, thinking could be right and appropriate. And if it was beneficial and not harmful to anyone, a decision could then be made”.

Discussion

Thai EFL university teachers possessed similar conceptions of CT compared with those proposed by scholars in different contexts. The aspects of the conceptions were, for example, purposeful thinking (Facione, 1990; Halpern, 1998), high-order thinking (Halpern, 1998), reasoning (Ennis, 1987; Halpern, 1998; Paul, 1993a), and open-mindedness (Ennis, 1987; Facione, 1990; Halpern, 1998). Notably, all participants mentioned morality as a vital aspect of that thinking, further stating that all thinking, be it spontaneous or critical, should be based on goodness. As all of them were Buddhists, this idea might be influenced by Buddhist doctrines which emphasised the development of morality in humans. Morality can also be considered as a cultural factor since it is taught in Thai schools and not necessarily in Western schools. This may be related to Buddhism or to the fact that Thailand formally integrates morality (with Buddhism and scouting taught as classes) into its educational system. Still, one participant raised a concern in this regard, suggesting that morality could be interpreted and valued in various ways across different contexts.

As demonstrated by the findings for the first research question, the participants conceptualised CT in terms of both cognitive skills and affective dispositions. This was in line with Facione (1990)’s suggestion that the thinking should be viewed in both ways.
Additionally, all participants agreed that CT was very important and should be taught either on a separated course or on an integrated course. Similarly, Howe (2004)'s study revealed that Canadian and Japanese teachers, even with different cultural backgrounds, valued CT as an educational goal. The recognition of its importance was also confirmed by Fox (1994), thus demonstrating that students from different backgrounds should be equipped with the thinking skills so as to survive in this changing world.

Moreover, eight of nine participants believed their students lacked CT. These participants judged the students' CT based on either their behaviours or their formal classroom assessment. However, one participant claimed that their observed behaviours could not always signify their actual CT abilities. Consistent with Atkinson (1997), CT behaviours were established in Western educational contexts which were influenced by Western culture, and so such behavioural norms might not practically be applied in Asian contexts.

The proposed contextual factors influencing Thai students' CT were varied, and could be grouped into four categories: pedagogical factors, individual factors, cultural factors, and other factors. Some were common factors found in other studies. The factor related to teachers' lack of understanding on CT, for example, was found in Lauer (2005) and Black (2005). Lauer mentioned teachers' insufficient understanding of how to apply CT in their lessons, while Black stated that teachers might not be able to correctly assess their students' CT just because they themselves might not understand what it was. Students' anxiety, expressed by two participants as a factor hindering the students' CT, was also stressed by Broom (2011).

Culture could, to some extent, impact the interpretation and the practice of teaching and learning (Marriam, 2007). Thai cultural factors found in this study were being silent and paying respect to authorities.

Pertaining to silence, it could be construed in various ways. As stated in the results, some participants mentioned it as a way of paying respect, as an attribute of a wise man, and as a way to help them think. These intentions of being silent can probably hinder the students' CT development as well as prevent them from expressing their CT abilities.
With regard to showing respect, two participants claimed that this was rooted in Thai society and had been influenced by Thai feudalism in the past. The Thai feudalism, or “Sakdina” in Thai, could be classified into two social statuses: the nobles and the masses. The nobles included those in possession of social powers, significant social roles or high social statuses in Thai society such as authorities, the rich, military, monks and teachers. Indeed, the masses were socially instilled to pay respect to the privileged. Even in this modern period, the Sakdina system still has an influence on Thais in several aspects. In the educational domain, Thai students are socialised to pay respect to their teachers. Apart from the influence of feudalism, Thais in general have been taught to follow adults who have experienced the world more than them. This has gradually come to be treasured as a good value in Thai society. The value could be found in what some of the participants expressed: Thai students who were obedient and paid respect to their teachers were perceived as good students.

It was claimed that these two cultural factors hinder the students' CT. However, one participant suggested that respectful behaviours should be expressed in an appropriate way so that the humble mind could be simultaneously developed. This may well be a good value that should be emphasised. Nonetheless, misinterpretation of such a value could make people's minds blind. Moreover, recognition of the fallible nature of human beings, as emphasised by Paul (1993a) as a crucial attribute of critical thinkers, could be ignored.

Conclusions and Implications

The participants in this study provided an informative and rich description of their conceptions of CT. They defined it in two dimensions: cognitive skills and affective dispositions. All of them recognised the importance of CT, suggesting that morality should be considered as its crucial aspect. This implied that they valued both intelligence and goodness when educating individuals. Although most of them believed Thai students lacked CT, one suggested that sometimes the students' behaviours could not be used to judge their CT abilities. Some contextual factors found to influence the students' CT were common when compared with other studies while other differences were influenced by Thai cultures.
Since this study was a small preliminary study using nine participants in a specific context at a university in the southern part of Thailand, its generalisability is perhaps questionable. However, as some findings were consistent with others in different settings, it could probably present some useful implications for teachers and researchers in Thailand and other contexts.

**Practical implications**

This study clearly suggests three practical implications.

First, as proposed by some participants that silence could be differently interpreted, teachers should be more careful when judging their students' CT abilities in their classes. Here, this should raise the teachers' realization on the fact that silence in the classroom cannot always be interpreted as the students' lack of CT.

Second, some Thai cultural issues, namely being silent and paying respect, imply that CT behavioural criteria such as posing questions or expressing their own ideas in class which are set by Western scholars might not effectively be applied in other different cultural contexts. So, two resolutions to this problem might be workable. One is to change teachers' and students' attitudes on CT behavioural expressions. Although nothing is more difficult than changing people's attitudes, they might need to be more open to change if it is good for them. The other is to look for alternative approaches of CT instruction and assessments to cater for the needs of students in Thai context or of those with different culturally behavioural norms.

Third, Thai EFL teachers should realize that they are in a unique position: promoting not only Thai students' English language knowledge and skills but also their criticality. Moreover, as maintained by one participant that paying respect should be valued in Thai society, these teachers might need to seek for a balanced way to simultaneously enhance the students' criticality while maintaining this Thai cultural value. It is rather ironic that silent and obedient students seem to be admired by most of their teachers but are still judged by them as lacking CT. Thus, teachers should provide learning activities which promote CT ability through students' discussions and arguments as well as assure them that any expressed ideas different from that of others or even of the teachers are not faults. The difference can help them look at an issue in other perspectives, hence learning.
Research implications

With morality having been raised as a crucial aspect of CT, moral beliefs and practices in different contexts, that is Western and Asian, should be explored and investigated. This would make it possible to gauge the resemblances and differences, as well as how these affect their English language teaching and learning.

Additionally, further studies should be conducted with more participants in different contexts. Cross-cultural studies on CT are also interesting in terms of gauging the similarities and differences of teachers' conceptions of this thinking in various educational and cultural backgrounds.

With regard to Thai cultural aspects influencing CT, these could be further researched in depth in the English language teaching field. The results of these studies could be practically constructive for improving CT instruction in English courses in Thailand over the long run.
References


THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING MODEL FOR EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

Within the context of globalization, the English language is undoubtedly used as a means of communication in multicultural situations. Accordingly, the ultimate goal of English language education has been shifted to educate learners to become intercultural speakers with intercultural communicative competence (ICC) to function well in a multicultural environment. However, English language educators in different contexts are still alien to intercultural language teaching. This paper is aimed at presenting a developed intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT) model to facilitate the integration of intercultural content into English language teaching in an attempt to enhance EFL learners’ intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Additionally, brief guidelines including principles, activities, learning materials, and assessment for ICLT are also proposed.

Keywords: model, intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT), intercultural communicative competence (ICC); EFL learners.

Introduction

In the current context of globalization, the issue of developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC) to ESL/EFL learners has been identified in the field of English language education (e.g., Byram, 1997; Deardoff, 2009; Chen & Starosta, 1999; Fantini, 2000; Lázár et al., 2007) in an attempt to present cultural differences which help learners to be interculturally aware of their own culture and the presence of otherness as well as to appreciate and respect them. Moreover, English language education should equip learners with the knowledge of intercultural communication, and the ability to use it effectively can bridge cultural
differences and achieve more harmonious, productive relations (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2012).

Nevertheless, the role of culture as well as intercultural communication in English language education is not always well acknowledged. Gonen and Saglam (2012) point out that “teachers in different classrooms in different parts of the world still ignore the importance of teaching culture as a part of language study” (p. 26). That is, teachers endeavor to promote only their learners’ language proficiency instead of endowing them with ICC in order to function effectively and appropriately in multicultural situations. The reasons underlying teachers’ ignorance of inclusion of culture and intercultural communication in English language education are that teachers are “more interested in practical aspects of communication” (Onalan, 2005, p. 217); teachers feel they do not have enough time to talk about cultural elements in their teaching practices due to the demanding curriculum (e.g., Gonen & Saglam, 2012; Hong, 2008); teachers do not know how to incorporate culture and intercultural communication in the language classroom since they lack adequate training on how to incorporate culture in their teaching practices as well as how to measure learners’ IC and changes in their attitudes as a result of culture teaching (Gonen & Saglam, 2012); most teachers have limited knowledge about intercultural communication (Sercu, 2005); and many teachers tend to teach what students will be tested on as cultural content is not usually assessed.

Given the fact that ICC is one of the key competences in the 21st century (e.g., Delors, 1996; Sudhoff, 2010; UNESCO, 2006), one of the ultimate goals in language training programs is to educate learners to become intercultural speakers who can deal with linguistic and cultural complexity and take part in multicultural situations (e.g., Deardoff, 2009; Jæger, 2001). It is, hence, imperative that developing ICC to EFL/ESL learners should be taken into serious consideration in English language training programs so as to help English learners become intercultural speakers who can function effectively and appropriately in the 21st century. This paper aims to propose a developed intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT) model to enhance EFL learners’ ICC.

What is intercultural communicative competence?

A literature review demonstrates that although the concept of ICC is coined from the combination of intercultural competence (IC) and communicative competence (CC), many elements in the definition of IC and ICC overlap with each other, resulting in the...
interchangeability of the two terms. Furthermore, the unclear difference between IC and ICC sometimes causes confusion in addressing the right phenomenon. Among some scholars who have tried to differentiate the two terms, Byram (1997) points out that ICC is an umbrella term that covers many components including linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and IC. He further explains the term ICC is the ability which enables one to interact effectively and appropriately with people from different cultures in the interlocutors’ foreign language.

Similarly, Chen and Starosta (1999) define intercultural communication (or communicative) competence as “the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviors that negotiate each other’s cultural identity or identities in a culturally diverse environment” (p. 28). IC, they argue, consists of three key components of intercultural communication competence: intercultural sensitivity (affective process), intercultural awareness (cognitive process), and intercultural adroitness (behavioral process), all of which are defined as verbal and nonverbal skills needed to act effectively and appropriately in intercultural interactions. Wiseman (2002), includes motivation as an additional element in his definition of ICC apart from knowledge and skills. This unique element, which is not commonly found in other definitions of ICC, is defined as “the set of feelings, intentions, needs and drives associated with the anticipation of or actual engagement in intercultural communication” (p. 4). He suggests motivation, knowledge, and skills are essential for effective and appropriate interaction in intercultural situations.

Based on different definitions, Lázár et al. (2007), an international team of researchers involved in carrying out projects within the framework of European Centre for Modern Languages, define ICC as “the ability to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts” (p. 9), which is used as a guideline for language teachers and teacher educators. This definition emphasizes two main components: skills and attitudes. The former involves the development “in the areas of observation, interpreting and relating, mediation and discovery” (ibid., p. 9); the latter is “to increase respect, empathy and tolerance for ambiguity, to raise interest in, curiosity about, and openness towards people from other cultures, and to encourage a willingness to suspend judgment” (ibid., pp. 9-10).

In brief, due to various definitions and constructs of ICC, scholars have not yet reached a consensus on how ICC should be defined and what constructs it should be composed of. However,
in this study, ICC can be understood as the ability which enables one to effectively and appropriately interact in a language other than one’s native language with others from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It consists of language competence (linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, & discourse competence) and intercultural competence (attitudes, knowledge, skills, & awareness) that help one to be able to successfully integrate in a multicultural society (e.g., Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Byram, 1997; Fantini, 2001; Sinicrope et al., 2008).

Models for Intercultural Communicative Competence Development

Because of the different views on ICC, various models of ICC have been proposed to address many aspects of ICC, e.g., model of ICC (Byram, 1997); IC model (Fantini, 2000); pyramid model of IC (Deardorff, 2006).

Figure 1. Model of ICC (Byram, 1997, p.73)

Byram’s (1997) model of ICC is one of the most comprehensive frameworks to develop as well as evaluate learners’ ICC in different contexts. In his ICC model (see Figure 1), Byram (1997) points out that intercultural competence (IC), which relates to other competences, namely linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence, consists of five elements: attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness/political education. Based upon this model, Byram
formulates specific educational objectives which are designed for language and culture learning and serve as guiding criteria to develop and assess learners’ IC in the foreign language class. Those educational objectives are specific and detailed, but they do not specify the different levels of IC to be obtained at different stages through the process of education since, according to Byram, establishing levels is quite problematic for the attitude factor.

Fantini’s (2000) IC model (see Figure 2) overlap with Byram’s (1997) intercultural elements because it also includes awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge. Although Fantini’s IC model does not explicitly include the element of language in his model, Fantini (1995) argues that proficiency in the language being used plays an important part in enhancing one’s IC. He adds that language education should focus more on intercultural aspects so that learners can develop “awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge that will make [them] better participants on a local and global level, able to understand and to empathize with others in new ways” (ibid., pp. 13-14). Fantani (2000) explains that awareness, which refers to self-awareness and reflection, leads “deeper cognition, skills, and attitudes just as it is also enhanced by their development” (p. 29). In other words, awareness helps to develop other components of IC while it simultaneously benefits from their development. Furthermore, he points out that the development of IC is an ongoing and lifelong process inasmuch as one is always in the process of becoming and is never completely interculturally competent. He emphasizes that although individuals may develop and expand their own competencies, new challenges always appear, and a good condition for people to develop IC is the contact and experience with people of other languages and cultures in a positive setting.

Figure 2. Fantani’s IC Model (2000)

![Figure 2. Fantani’s IC Model (2000)](image)

**Note.** A+: Awareness; A: Attitudes; S: Skills; K: Knowledge
Deardorff’s (2006) pyramid model of IC, as seen from Figure 3 is a research-based one. The pyramid model of IC has two elements of internal outcomes and external outcomes in addition to the three elements of attitudes, knowledge, and skills as in Byram’s (1997) and Fantini’s (2000) models. These five elements are arranged in levels of the pyramid with lower levels forming the basis to enhance the higher ones.

**Figure 3. Deardorff’s Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence (2006)**

In addition to the pyramid, Deardorff (2006) develops another way to organize and display the data in the process model of IC, which contains the same elements as her pyramid model of IC but attempts to describes the complexity of acquiring IC, which is “possible to go from attitudes and/or attitudes and skills/knowledge directly to the external outcome, but the degree of appropriateness and effectiveness of the outcome may not be nearly as high as when the entire cycle is completed and begins again” (ibid., p. 257).
This brief review on different models of IC/ICC development reveals that although the three abovementioned models have different shapes, they all have identical basic elements of intercultural knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Furthermore, two of the three models, which are Byram’s (1997) model of ICC and Fantani’s (2000) model of IC, have another element in common, which is intercultural awareness, and they argue that awareness is a vital element among intercultural elements (attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness) because it reflects other elements, namely attitudes, knowledge, and skills.

**Development of an Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching Model for EFL Learners**

In order to develop an ICLT model for improving learners’ ICC, the perspective of construction of instructional design (ISD) models is adopted as the nature of research on ISD models is aimed at the “production of new knowledge in the form of a new (or an enhanced) design or development model” (Richey, et al., 2011, p. 11). The construction of the ICLT model is conducted within two phases: (1) develop an ICLT model for enhancing EFL learners’ ICC, and (2) implement and evaluate the developed model. The former (Figure 5) has three stages:
reviewing literature, planning the model criteria, and developing and reviewing the model. The latter consists of two stages of implementing and evaluating the developed ICLT model. The stages of reviewing literature and planning model criteria are aimed at developing a theoretical ISD model for ICLT while those of developing and reviewing, piloting, and implementing and evaluating the ICLT model depict the five stages (Analyze – Design – Develop – Implement – Evaluate) of ADDIE which are used to develop an ISD model.

**Figure 5. Methodology of the Study**
Phase one: Developing the ICLT model

The aim of phase one was to develop an ICLT model for enhancing learners’ ICC, and it comprised three stages, namely reviewing the literature, determining the model criteria, and developing and evaluating the model.

Stage 1: Reviewing the Literature

This stage reviewed and discussed relevant literature of definitions and components of culture and ICC, models of ICC development, intercultural language teaching and learning, and existing ISD models. This stage served as a theoretical framework for the following stage.

Stage 2: Determining the Model Criteria

This stage was aimed at determining a set of model criteria specifying a detailed description of ISD model for ICLT. Based on the analysis of the four ISD models (ADDIE model, Dick & Cary model, Gerlach & Ely model, & Kemp model), a theoretical ISD model for ICLT (see appendix A) was constructed using the components of ADDIE. This linear theoretical ISD model consisted of five stages (Analyze – Design – Develop – Implement – Evaluate) with nine steps and twelve elements.

Stage 3: Developing and Evaluating the Model

This stage developed the ICLT model based on the model criteria, it was then reviewed by a panel of other researchers in the field. However, only three stages (Analyze – Design - Develop) of the ADDIE were used in phase One. The product of this stage was a developed ICLT model that is applied in phase Two.

Developing an ICLT Model

From the model criteria, the results of three stages (Analyze – Design - Develop) of ADDIE were employed to develop the ICLT model.
Analyze

In this stage of ADDIE, the learning needs and goals were first identified and discussed; then the learning context was described and discussed. Finally, the learner characteristics were analyzed.

Design

Based on the analysis of learning needs and goals, learning contexts, and learner characteristics, the general objectives and specific instructional objectives for the intercultural language course were defined in terms of ICC. Then, the learning materials were designed. Finally, the assessment tools were designed in accordance to the instructional objectives for intercultural language course.

Develop

Based on the previous two stages of reviewing literature and planning model criteria, an ICLT model for the ICC training process with its description was developed. Simultaneously, a set of lesson plans for the ICC training was also designed.

Evaluating the ICLT Model

In order to evaluate the ICLT model, a review form is designed and sent to a panel of three other researchers in the field to review. Based on the suggestions made by the reviewers, the revision of the ICLT model was made accordingly. The proposed ICLT model for ICLT training with its brief guidelines is presented in Figure 6 as follows:
The ICLT model is an on-going process of ICC acquisition. There are three parts (Figure 6): Language-Culture, the main training process (Input – Notice – Practice – Output), and the ICC, which are systematically integrated. The second part is the main part consisting of four teaching steps to facilitate learners’ ICC development, and each step reflects a step in the knowledge scaffolding and constructing process to facilitate learners’ ICC development.

**Language-Culture:** This reflects the view of language and culture being closely intertwined, and it is the foundation for the ICLT model.

**Input:** This teaching step is aimed at providing learners with language knowledge and intercultural knowledge by exposing learners to a wide range of authentic texts and sources (oral, written, and visual) about language and different cultures. The theory of Krashen’s Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) is embedded in this teaching step to increase learners’ learning motivation by exposing learners to comprehensible input that is understandable but one step beyond their understanding.
Notice: Based on their previous knowledge of language and interculture, learners are encouraged to notice and make comparisons between known features and unfamiliar ones. In addition, learners discuss the reasons for language and intercultural features as well as their personal response to those language and intercultural features. This teaching step, which is the next step in the knowledge scaffolding and constructing process, utilizes the theory of Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995, 2001, 2010) to help to raise learners’ language awareness and intercultural awareness and adjust their intercultural attitudes by exposing learners to more authentic learning tasks / activities so that they can attend to and notice unknown features of the input.

Practice: Learners have had a variety of opportunities to practice short, supported and guided communicative tasks about elements of the new knowledge in the two previous teaching steps. Moreover, they have opportunities to practice using intercultural language strategies for communication in accordance with their language and cultural needs. The theory of Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1985, 1996) employed in this teaching step fosters learners’ ICC development by assisting learners to make use of their previous comprehensible input to enhance their language skills (e.g., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) and intercultural skills (e.g., abilities to interpret the meanings in the target culture and relate them to their own culture and to interact with people from different cultures).

Output: At this stage, learners are able to produce the earlier input features and reflect on their effectiveness and appropriateness. Furthermore, learners are able to explore further in the new language and intercultural features by trying out new forms, expressions, or strategies derived from the earlier input in actual language use through language and intercultural tasks (e.g., projects, drama, presentations, etc.). The underlying learning theory is the theory of Swain’s Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2000) which aims to raise learners’ awareness of a gap in their learning process. This may trigger a new input for another process of the ICLT model as learners’ output is a process rather than a product of their ICC learning.

Intercultural communicative competence: The ultimate goal of ICLT is to help learners to become intercultural speakers with ICC who can interact effectively and appropriately with others from different cultures.
In this ICLT model, the arrows between the components indicate the sequence of the process, and the dotted arrows depict the interrelationship between the main part and the foundation and the ultimate goal of the ICLT process.

**PHASE TWO: Implementing and Evaluating the ICLT Model**

This phase aims to pilot, implement and evaluate the developed ICLT model. Within this phase, a mixed methods approach with a quasi-experiment design was employed since a mixed methods approach, which is a combination of different types of data collected at different stages within a study, can capture more details of situation being investigated (Creswell, 2007).

**Guidelines for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching**

In order to facilitate the process of the integration of intercultural content into English language teaching, the guidelines of different issues such as principles, activities, learning materials, and assessment for ICLT should be taken into account.

**Principles for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching**

Based on principles for intercultural language teaching suggested by Newton et al. (2010), the six principles for ICLT are adopted as follows:

*Principle 1: ICLT integrates language and culture from the beginning*

On the viewpoint that culture is dynamic and culture is in a dynamic interplay with language, this principle suggests that language teachers should integrate language and culture from the beginning of English language learning in order to guide learners’ conceptualizations of culture from the beginning of the language learning process. In other words, culture and language are closely interdependent, and should not be treated as separate strands in everyday language classroom.

*Principle 2: ICLT engages learners in genuine social interaction*

ICLT engages learners in interaction in two ways. First, it engages learners in interaction through exploring linguistic and cultural boundaries, and raising awareness of one’s own and others’ ways of communicating and maintaining relationships as well as dealing with cross-
cultural misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. Second, it engages learners in interaction through directly exploring the topics about cultural worlds, beliefs, values and attitudes of one’s own and others, which provide opportunities for explicit discussion of cultural comparisons.

**Principle 3: ICLT encourages and develops an exploratory and reflective approach to culture and culture-in-language**

This principle suggests that the intercultural language teaching and learning approach should shift its focus from the transmission of cultural knowledge to the exploration of both visible and invisible culture and, most importantly, to the exploration of culture-in-language. Exploring culture involves learners in the construction of knowledge from experience and reflection by starting exploring their own culture and cultural identity, raising self-awareness, and examining their attitudes toward the target language and culture.

**Principle 4: ILCT fosters explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures**

This principle highlights that the comparison of languages and cultures is a fundamental process in ICLT and makes clear that the primary goal of ICLT is to encourage learners to reflect an experience in their own culture before getting them to interpret a new experience in another culture into an equivalent one in their own culture. Hence, in order to make the learning effective, ICLT should make comparison reflective and interpretive so that learner can draw on their current knowledge as well as the new knowledge.

**Principle 5: ICLT acknowledges and responds appropriately to diverse learners and learning contexts**

ICLT needs to recognize and embrace learners’ diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds in the classroom. ICLT responds to the relationship between cultures and languages in two ways: the first way is through helping learners to contact the target language culture through interaction and cultural experience; the second way is through topics on these relationships which facilitate learning opportunities in which learners explore and learn cultures as part of language learning.
Principle 6: ICLT emphasizes ICC rather than native-speaker competence

This principle addresses the ultimate goal of ICLT and emphasizes that from an intercultural perspective, a native-speaker model for CC is incomplete since it involves only speakers within a speech community, but ICC expands the instruction goals to educate learners with attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness which enable them to meet the challenges of communication in a multicultural environment.

Activities for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching

The activities for ICLT are designed on the basis of a learner-centered approach which involves learners in most of the content so that learners can make the meaning out of the content by themselves. Most of the learning activities for ICLT are conducted in pair work or group work in order to construct learners’ knowledge by collaborating and communicating with each other. Common activities for ICLT are role-plays, simulation drama (Barrett et al., 2013), discussions (e.g., Corbett, 2003; Gudykunst et al, 1996: Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993), quizzes or multiple-choice questions (Cullen, 2000), and oral presentations.

Quizzes or multiple-choice questions

The quizzes or multiple-choice questions (Cullen, 2000) can be used to test materials that the teacher has already taught, but they are also useful for learning new information. Quizzes or multiple-choice questions are high-interest activities that can keep learners involved as learners can find the answers through reading, watching a video, or other classroom activities.

Role-play, simulation and drama

Role-play, simulation, and drama (Barrett et al., 2013) are activities in which learners imagine themselves in an intercultural situation outside the classroom and create a performance about a situation within their own culture or another culture. Through role play, simulation and drama, learners will experience what might happen in real situations, and they will develop their language proficiency and intercultural competence (attitudes of openness, curiosity and respect; skills of observation and interpretation, skills of learning about their own culture and discovering other cultures, and skills of adapting and empathy; awareness and knowledge about similarities and differences).
Discussion

Discussion (e.g., Corbett, 2003; Gudykunst et al, 1996; Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993) is an activity in which learners in pairs or groups are encouraged to discuss different topics pertinent to their interests and needs and express their views and opinions on those topics. Learners can understand the deeper content of the lesson since they can learn from the content of the discussion and from each other and develop reflective thinking through discussion.

Oral presentation

Oral presentations can be divided into two types: student presentations and debates (Iberri-Shea, 2009). The former can be either individual or group presentations based on the lessons or outside projects. The latter is an interactive task. Oral presentations provide learners with opportunities to practice all four language skills and develop their IC. In addition, oral presentations support the development of critical thinking skills and promote learning as learners are given a chance to demonstrate what they have learned (ibid.).

Learning Materials for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching

From the principles of and activities for ICLT, the learning materials for ICLT should be designed applying the learner-centered approach in English language education, seeing the interdependent relationship between language and culture, and taking the ultimate goal of English language education to educate learners to be intercultural speakers. Regarding the intercultural content, the question may arise: whose cultures should be focused on? The answer depends on the purposes of the course so that the main focus of intercultural content will be decided. For example, if the course aims to train learners to be intercultural speakers who are going to study in Australia, the main focus of intercultural content should be mainly about cultures of English-speaking countries apart from other cultures. Moreover, the learning materials should be authentic and relevant to learners’ age, needs, and interests.

Assessment for Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching

Assessment is an integral part of ICLT, and it should be an on-going process in order to promote learners’ intercultural language learning (Liddicoat et al., 2003). Assessment helps to determine how well learners are processing, what their strengths and weaknesses are, and ways of
assisting them to make further progress. Assessment for ICLT should consist of both formative and summative forms. The former is composed of structured observation of learners’ engagement in intercultural language learning tasks, role-plays, end-of-unit assessment tasks, quizzes, and projects, and folios of work including oral and written samples (Liddicoat et al., 2003). The latter is comprised of achievement tests, assignments, and end-of-course assessment tasks and projects.

In order to assess learners’ ICC effectively, there should be a set of criteria which covers both language competence and IC. The criteria for assessing ICC should focus on effectiveness of the action/product, effectiveness of the process of interaction, and effectiveness of the use of linguistic and cultural resources (Liddicoat et al., 2003).

**Conclusion**

As ICC development is a long-term process, the integration of intercultural content in ELT should be conducted from the very beginning of the English language learning so that learners will be equipped with preliminary knowledge of intercultural communication. This developed ICLT model, an evidence-based model, indicates its effectiveness in real EFL contexts (Tran & Seepho, 2016), and is hoped to fill in the gap for intercultural communication to educate learners to become intercultural speakers who can function appropriately and effectively in multicultural situations. Along with the guidelines for ICLT, this ICLT model may solve the problems in those contexts in which EFL teachers are unaware of how to incorporate intercultural content into their English language practice and to assess learners’ ICC.
References


DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS THROUGH ADAPTATION OF CULTURAL LESSONS IN A COMMERCIAL TEXTBOOK SERIES

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Abstract
The study investigates the adaptation of a culture section in a commercial textbook series to develop speaking skills for students at the English Department, in the University of Foreign Language Studies, at the University of Da Nang. The investigation examines how classroom activities of speaking skills can be enhanced through differences in cultural features of the target language and that of the local community. The study employs both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Through empirical research, students’ motivation and benefits through speaking activities involving the target language and local cultural features are revealed. Teachers’ feedback is also collected to lend support to the research. Finally, some speaking practice activities are recommended to help students improve their spoken command of English.

Keywords: speaking skill, target language cultural features, local cultural features, speaking activities.

Introduction

Rationale
For a long time, commercial textbooks, considered more reliable and convenient rather than in-house materials, have been used to teach English language skills for students at educational institutions in Vietnam. At the University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Da Nang, student books from the Solutions series from Pre-Intermediate, Intermediate to Upper-Intermediate have been adapted into the syllabus for first-year, second-year and third-year students respectively. This book series contains standard features of language skill textbooks. Practically, however, cultural materials in this series emphasize features of the target culture of Britain. As a result, British cultural features, though crucial while acquiring English are
predominantly presented and discussed with virtual disregard for the culture of the learners, which is no less important. This lack of attention can hinder students’ inner motivation to become fully engaged in the speaking lessons. In fact, speaking lessons with solely target language cultural features can do little to motivate students’ drive for speaking as the topics are not of their interests. Meanwhile, from a learner’s perspective and actual classroom observation, the discussion of both target language and local cultural features provides abundant opportunities for students to show their language performance. In addition, activities related to comparison and contrast of cultures appear more captivating to students.

Unfortunately, publishing an in-house book series is quite costly, laborious, and time-consuming as the process entails multiple complex stages including piloting and adapting. Moreover, bias of the authoring team may interfere with the practicality of the series in contrast to the universality of the commercial books. Therefore, integrating local cultural materials with the available content in these classes is deemed a plausible solution to this problem. Cultural material of both the target language and the Vietnamese in the lessons is expected to produce a more positive impact on students’ willingness and motivation to share their ideas in speaking classes than only cultural material of target language. Therefore, the investigation aims to investigate how successful speaking activities are when cultural features of both the target language and the native language of learners are integrated, discussed, compared and contrasted.

**Aim and objectives**

1. **Aim**

To find out how successful speaking activities are when cultural features of both the target language and the native language of learners are integrated, discussed, compared and contrasted.

2. **Objectives**

1. To investigate motivation created by speaking activities using both British and Vietnamese cultural materials for students.

2. To find out the benefits students’ speaking skill can gain from activities using both British and Vietnamese cultural materials.

3. To propose recommendations about speaking activities using both British and Vietnamese cultural materials.
3. Research questions

1. How motivated are students when both British and Vietnamese cultures are discussed in speaking activities?

2. What benefits can students’ speaking skill gain from activities using cultural materials of both British and Vietnamese?

3. What are useful recommendations for speaking activities using cultural materials of both British and Vietnamese?

Literature review and Theoretical background

Literature review

As English becomes more and more international, the cultures of the English-speaking countries are no longer in the limelight. Cindy Lee (2005) stated “English is situated at the interface of foreign and native cultural values to a greater extent than any other language because of its greater use around the world.” Interaction between people of different cultures other than those of English-speaking countries seems to become increasingly dominant.

In such a context, speakers will need to use English to communicate with other non-native speakers of English from many different languages and cultural backgrounds. Thus, the need to promote the culture of the learners themselves becomes more and more significant in the context of globalization and integration of the country into the world without losing its own identity.

Doganay (2013) also stressed the possible effects of integrating aspects of learners’ cultures into the English language teaching process: “It will make students become proud of their nations and it can work as a motivational tool to continue the discussion activity”. This can work as a driving force in speaking lessons as the content of the topics directly influences the willingness of students to practice. In addition to exploring their own culture through a foreign language, according to Devrim (2010) similarities and differences between English speaking countries and Turkish culture was the most interesting topic for the students in his research. As a result, it can be said that there is a need among students to have a multifaceted views from different cultural perspectives on the same issues.
Likewise, the problem of instrumental motivation should be taken into consideration. As interaction in English among non-native English speakers increases, students can no longer be interested solely in exploring cultures of English-speaking countries in class.

This study will research whether speaking skills of students can be developed through incorporating the native cultures of learners in cultural lessons in the Solutions series as a source of motivation, as the topic of incorporating learners’ culture has so far been superficially dealt with.

Theoretical background

The spread of English is considered natural, neutral and beneficial. Pennycook (1994) argues that we have to see English as an international language in terms of the cultural identities it offers its speakers. Along with this argument, there have been four main views on teaching English language:

The first one states that target language culture should be taught along with English to acculturate language learners into the cultures of English speaking countries (Byram, 1990; Byram & Flemming, 1998).

The second view claims that there should not be any teaching of the target language culture together with English in the countries where English is an institutionalized variety (Kachru, 1985, 1986; Kachru & Nelson, 1996; Canagarajah, 1999).

The third view supports the teaching of local culture in English language teaching (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; McKay, 2003).

The last view holds the position that English has become a lingua franca, and it should be taught in a culture-free context (Alptekin, 2005; Jenkins, 1996, 2000, 2002, 2005; Seidlhofer, 2001).

Among those views, the third one can be considered the guideline of the current research as it acknowledges both the role of learners’ local culture and the target language culture in language learning in the context of globalization.
Devrim (2010) claimed that the participants in his research were interested in learning about the similarities and differences between the cultures of English-speaking countries and cultures in Turkey, how the people behave in various circumstances in English-speaking countries, learning the history of English-speaking countries in relation to history of Turkey, and learning and understanding values of English-speaking countries. Broadly speaking, students come to class with their cultural background and definitely have a desire to have their culture acknowledged and nurtured in an educational environment. Cipriani-Sklar (2009) asserted becoming familiar with the backgrounds and/or prior knowledge of ELL students allowed a teacher to engage students in literacy experiences that connect with their diverse backgrounds, thereby building on this knowledge.

As regards the motivation for speaking, Liu (2010) claimed that according to a wide variety of research into foreign language learning motivation, there was an inseparable relationship between motivational strength and oral English proficiency.

These authors note that learners’ native cultures are inevitable motivational parts and so far have been acknowledged and dealt with in language classes. If properly handled, native culture can play a role as a motivation for students’ speaking performance.

Meltzer (2002) and Meltzer & Hamann (2004) generated three promising practices that teachers can use to motivate students. These include activating students real-life experience; creating interactive and open classrooms in which students’ opinions are acknowledged, and having students interact with text and with each other about text in ways that stimulate their learning process especially with authentic tasks. Such practices can be achieved, in this research, through input of both target language’s culture and native cultures of learners; negotiation with teachers and classmates, and authentic communicative input and tasks.

As regards the form under which activities are carried out communicative activities should be selected as they include any activities that encourage and require a learner to speak with and listen to other learners with the aim of finding information, breaking down barriers, talking about self, and learning about the culture. Specifically, Sysoyev (2002) did a painstaking study of role play for teaching culture or Smith (1997) proposed Virtual Realia as a tool to enhance linguistic and cultural comprehensibility as the real objects can reveal the similarities and differences between native and target language cultures and raise cultural awareness. In addition,
doing cultural presentation, the learning cycle, presentation of cultural misunderstandings, reformulation, personalizing cultural content, research and selling differing cultural views are also recommended.

Therefore, communicative speaking tasks conducted on the basis of culture-based content including target language culture and learners’ native cultures are expected to produce a good effect for English language learners.

**Research design and Methodology**

**Research design**

The investigation employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The former was used through questionnaires on students’ opinions on the culture-based approach, and the latter was through observation, (done by the research conductor) with an observation form in classes with speaking activities involving cultural aspects of local community.

To make students be unaware of being observed, the research conductor disguises as a student. For this reason, recording of class is not conducted as this may interfere with the students’ behavior.

**Task description**

Although the speaking activities in culture lessons in *Solutions* do not explicitly refer to any cultures apart from that of the United Kingdom, students’ experience, as a principle, is usually reflected on, which means there is room for native cultures of learners. Unfortunately, such reflection does not receive much preparation and is usually handled with little student awareness of its significance. As a result, classroom speaking input and discussion topics more often than not deal singly with target-language cultural features. Therefore, a more thorough approach to the lesson of culture is essential in order to find meaningful ways to in-corporate the richness of students’ cultural backgrounds into the curriculum (Sumaryono and Ortiz, 2004)

- Input activities: including reading texts or watching tape listening/video
- Output activities: Table 1
Table 1. Activity frame (Nunan, 1989)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative task</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Learners’ role</th>
<th>Teachers’ role</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To develop speaking skills</td>
<td>Content-oriented</td>
<td>Ask, answer, argue, negotiate, prepare</td>
<td>Work closely with partner (partners), negotiate agenda with teachers</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with students, give clear instructions, facilitate the activities and keep track of the mistakes</td>
<td>Pair work, group work and whole class activities</td>
<td>Exploration of target language’s culture and students’ native language’s cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and acquire cultural</td>
<td>Form-oriented</td>
<td>discourse, act discourse, present</td>
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<td></td>
<td>aspects</td>
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Table 2. Detailed description of culture-based classroom activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Learners’ role</th>
<th>Teachers’ role</th>
<th>Setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue/Speed dialogue</td>
<td>Obtain simple cultural aspects and linguistic forms</td>
<td>Topical and linguistic</td>
<td>Ask and answer questions</td>
<td>Work closely with partners</td>
<td>Observe, record problems, feedback</td>
<td>Pair work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Structured</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Obtain more complex cultural aspects and linguistic forms</td>
<td>More topical than linguistic</td>
<td>Ask and answer questions</td>
<td>Work closely with partners</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with students, record problems, feedback</td>
<td>Pair work, group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structured and semi-structured</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discussion/Debate</td>
<td>Obtain more complex cultural aspects</td>
<td>Mostly topical</td>
<td>Ask and answer questions, argue,</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with teachers and work closely with partners</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with students, advise, facilitate, record problems, feedback</td>
<td>Pair work, group work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-structured and communicative output</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compromise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role play/ Simulation</td>
<td>Obtain more complex cultural aspects</td>
<td>Mostly topical</td>
<td>Prepare discourse and act out</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with teachers and work closely with partners</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with students, advise, facilitate, record problems and feedback</td>
<td>Group work</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>Obtain more complex cultural aspects</td>
<td>Mostly topical</td>
<td>Prepare discourse and present</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with teachers and work closely with partners</td>
<td>Negotiate agenda with students, advise, facilitate, record problems and feedback</td>
<td>Individual, Group work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sampling and population**

1. **Population**

The population of the research is first-year (Pre-intermediate), second-year (Intermediate) and third-year students (Upper-intermediate) at the English Department, University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Da Nang.

2. **Sampling**

60 students were randomly selected from each level (Pre-intermediate, Intermediate and Upper-intermediate) in which 30 students at each level were included in the experimental groups (attending classes that use culture-based communicative speaking activities) and the other 30 students at each level were in the control groups.

**Data collection**

As regards qualitative instrument, observation was conducted basing on 9 criteria graded on a 5-scale level. The observation form aimed to assess the effectiveness and motivation in a speaking activity, giving qualitative information to the research questions.
### Table 3. Assessment criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching stages</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Mark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-learning</td>
<td>Students respond well to speaking activities</td>
<td>D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students actively negotiate agenda with teachers</td>
<td>D2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While learning</td>
<td>Students respond well to the introduction of the topics</td>
<td>D3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students look up dictionary for unfamiliar words</td>
<td>D4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students are willing to share their ideas about the topics being discussed</td>
<td>D5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classroom discussion is not dominated by a minority of talkative students</td>
<td>D6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students keep speaking the target language</td>
<td>D7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-learning</td>
<td>Students respond positively to the feedback from teachers and friends</td>
<td>D8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students take important notes about the previous lesson</td>
<td>D9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This observation checklist is used for observation not for statistics synthesis. Observation is then check against questionnaires to come to conclusions.*

### Table 4. Observation form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Round</th>
<th>Pre-intermediate</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Upper-intermediate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>R1</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>R1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>R1</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>R1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>R1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>R2</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of quantitative instrument, 4 forms of questionnaires were used to collect information. Three forms were used to collect information from students and the last one was used to collect teachers’ opinions.

(1) The first questionnaire surveyed students’ opinions on the culture lesson and specifically the speaking activities they had previously participated in in order to find out present students’ motivation and satisfaction. (5 items)

(2) The second questionnaire focused on students’ opinions on expected cultural lessons and speaking activities with the integration of local cultural material in order to find out how motivated students were at the thought of having local cultural material as the platform for their speaking and what benefits they expected. (5 items)

(3) The third questionnaire was aimed at ascertaining students’ opinions on the cultural lessons and speaking activities with the integration of local cultural material they had actually discussed in order to find out how motivated students were when they had attended such experimental classes and what benefits they enjoyed or problems they found. (7 items)

(4) The fourth questionnaire aimed to elicit teachers’ opinions on the integration of local cultural material into the lesson, particularly speaking activities in order to seek more findings about their attitudes. (8 items)

Teachers who were surveyed just gave their opinions according to their experience not related to the current research; therefore, the time they completed the questionnaires was not strictly bounded. Questionnaires development depended on the need to investigate aspects stated in the research questions. The questionnaire surveyed students of both control and experimental groups before and after taking the model classes within two weeks. Teachers who conducted the
classes involved in the research were aware of the research aim so that they would play the roles they actually do as usual to help minimize the biasness.

Respondents were those from the Lower Intermediate, Intermediate and Upper Intermediate classes. They were informed from the beginning of the questionnaires and all were anonymous to make sure that they really gave feedback according to what they think.

**Table 5. Key stages of the data collection and analysis process** *(Refer to the APPENDIX for numbered questionnaires)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>People involved</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants (180 students)</td>
<td>Experimental groups (90)</td>
<td>Complete questionnaires (1)</td>
<td>Attend culture-based speaking practice activities (2 weeks)</td>
<td>Complete questionnaires (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control groups (90)</td>
<td>Complete questionnaires (1)</td>
<td>Attend usual classes (2 weeks)</td>
<td>Complete questionnaires (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers (20 teachers)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Complete questionnaires (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research conductor (1 person)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Synthesize questionnaires statistics and information</td>
<td>Fill in the observation form</td>
<td>Synthesize questionnaires and observation forms statistics and information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Model lesson plan**

This is a model lesson outline.

**Unit 7: Polluting the world to rights**

**Lesson C: Culture**

*Aim:* Increase students’ understanding on matters related to endangered natural environments.

*Duration:* 50 minutes *(according to the adapted syllabus)*

**Speaking activities in an available class**

*Activity 1:* Complete the text entitled “See it – before it’s too late” concerning the problem of balancing ecology, economy and local interest groups.

*Activity 2:* Answer the questions related to the text

*Activity 3:* Match words to make compound nouns and common phrases

*Activity 4:* Listen to a radio program about 2 endangered species. What are they and where do they live?

*Activity 5:* Listen again. What do these numbers relate to?

1. 95%  
2. 5,000 – 7,000  
3. 4,300  
4. 4,000

*Activity 6:* Work in pair. Make notes and practice for a presentation that:

- Summarizes the case for and against the Via Baltica (a highway project)
- Gives your opinions on what should be done.

*Activity 7:* Teacher chooses some pairs to act their conversation in front of the class.

**Adapted activities in an experimental class**

*Activity 1:* Complete the text entitled “See it – before it’s too late” concerning the problem of balancing ecology, economy and local interest groups.

*Activity 2:* Answer the questions related to the text

*Activity 3:* Match words to make compound nouns and common phrases

**Modifications (The content as follows has been agreed on among students and teacher in the previous lesson)**

*Activity 4:* Watch a video about Son Doong Cave in Vietnam – the largest cave known to human kind up to present. (The reason to choose Son Doong Cave is that there is currently a heated debate in Vietnam around building a cable system into the cave for tourism. The problem is related to the previously read text about the highway project Via Baltica.)

*Activity 5:* Discuss the beauty, the natural value of Son Dong Cave.

*Activity 6:* Work in groups of 3 preparing for a role-play TV program debate including three characters: TV host, ecologist and project representative.

*Activity 7:* Teacher chooses some groups to act their role-play in front of the class.
In the previous lesson, students and teachers have discussed and reached an agreement about discussing a similar case in Vietnam that the authority has to put the problem of balancing ecology, economy and local interest groups into consideration.

Results and discussion

Students’ motivation in culture part according to Solutions

To find out how motivated students are when target language cultural material and Vietnamese cultural ones are discussed, an overview of students’ opinion on the cultural lessons they have attended so far is necessary.

Table 5. An overview of students’ opinions on part C: Culture in Solutions Book Series (180 students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Very much</th>
<th>Much</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>Very little</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td><strong>58.9%</strong></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
<td><strong>46.1%</strong></td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td><strong>61.1%</strong></td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-assessment of speaking activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td><strong>61.1%</strong></td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>effectiveness</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

From table 5, it is clear that more than half of the respondents have satisfaction at an average level or below when they are involved in speaking activities in culture lessons with input materials and discussion topics solely related to British culture with little association with the Vietnamese one. It should be noted that average level of satisfaction, motivation and self-assessment of speaking activities effectiveness indicates students’ indifference to the topics being discussed. They accept the lessons with a belief that they are set and rigid without any negotiation; therefore, the chances are that they will not actively participate in the activities.

Interestingly, approximately 40% of students surveyed suggested bringing Vietnamese culture to the lesson. The remaining ones opt to have more British cultural aspects in the lesson. This point of view might be attributed to a phenomenon to deliberately disregard the native culture since those surveyed think that Vietnamese culture is inferior to that of Britain.
Student's motivation in a culture-based speaking lesson

Based on the criteria in Table 4, the effectiveness of speaking activities is assessed according to a 5-grade scale from “very little” to “very much”. Classes at each level were observed and assessed twice during R1 and R2.

Table 6. Observation results (C: Criteria; G: Group; R: Round)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Pre-intermediate</th>
<th>Intermediate</th>
<th>Upper-intermediate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 6, students in the control group had almost no negotiation with teachers in the topics or aspects of cultures being discussed as the lesson content was predetermined. As a result, it can be easily seen that students did not show much interest in the input content and the speaking activities. This is in accordance with the result of the questionnaires in Table 5.

In contrast, the atmosphere of the classes in the experimental group was livelier. All nine aspects of an effective speaking lesson were fulfilled to a certain extent. From the very beginning, students were involved in the topic selection discussion activities as their opinions were appreciated by teachers. During the lessons, their motivation to speak was assisted by previous preparation; teachers’ proper feedback and interesting cultural discovery of both the target language and mother tongue. Importantly, the information arisen was sufficiently useful and interesting for them to take notes to build on their cultural knowledge.

However, it is worth noticing that there were differences in the experience of such an approach to students at different levels. Speaking activities especially with discussion/debate at B1 level were still dominated by highly competent students in the class. As a result, less talkative students showed lower willingness to voice their ideas. Meanwhile, the situation at B2 and C1 level was better, which was definitely due to average students’ higher proficiency.

Students from both groups were asked about the integration of local cultural material as input for speaking activities to find out how engaged and motivated they become. That is, the control group’s responses were their predictions and beliefs about an expected way of learning and teaching while those in the experimental group gave feedback on their actual experience.
Table 7. Opinions of control and experimental groups’ students (C: control group; E: experimental group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Yes C</th>
<th>Yes E</th>
<th>No C</th>
<th>No E</th>
<th>Uncertain C</th>
<th>Uncertain E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Vietnamese culture reduces the practicality of the lesson</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese cultural features included in communicative speaking</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities to engage students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese cultural features included in communicative speaking</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activities to boost motivation</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the survey afterwards, students in control group showed quite positive attitudes towards Vietnamese cultural features being included in the input content and speaking activities. About two-thirds claimed that they could be more engaged and motivated to speak if the speaking activities entailed both British and Vietnamese cultural aspects for comparison and exploration. However, the number of those uncertain and against the change is quite important since half of them did not think that the lack of Vietnamese culture reduced the practicality of the lesson. About 30% were both uncertain and unconvinced that they would be engaged and motivated.

Meanwhile, more than 90% of the respondents in the experimental group claimed to have been engaged in communicative speaking activities that consist of Vietnamese cultural features, and 80% found more motivation to speak. No respondent was totally opposed to this. 78.9% said their speaking activities with the integration of Vietnamese cultural features were more effective, and 97.8% stated that they would go on to attend lessons like those.
Benefits of culture-based communicative speaking activities

Apart from the obvious benefits of improving skills in speaking through communicative activities, the benefits listed below are observed and supported by the recognition of students and teachers.

Table 8. Benefits perceived by students (experimental group) and teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrich vocabulary in Vietnamese culture</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-faceted viewpoint on the same issues</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The observation stage revealed that students were more likely to look up or find for uniquely cultural words. This is the driving force for them to enlarge their vocabulary reservoir. Likewise, from such speaking activities, students should be more informed on cultural aspects of both Britain and Vietnam. These two aspects were acknowledged by 60 to 70 percent of students and teachers, respectively.

Many scholars also proposed that this way of learning was fundamental for intercultural communication (Jandt, 1995). This aspect has been popular among linguists; however, this point is subtle and requires good teachers’ orientation in exploring cultures of both Britain and Vietnam. At lower levels with limited time allotted for culture lessons in the curriculum, this intercultural comparison is quite challenging.

Teachers’ opinions were also collected as information from teachers can support the findings about the motivation and the benefits of speaking lessons with input of local cultural material.
Table 9. Teachers’ opinions (20 teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Frequency Vietnamese cultural features included in the lesson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students’ reaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher engagement</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No difference</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Students’ motivation in speaking when British and Vietnamese cultural aspects are discussed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sure if topics relevant</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cultural aspects of British and Vietnamese motivate students’ speaking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not much</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cultural aspects of British and Vietnamese benefit students’ speaking skill</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not much</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen from table 9 that all teachers surveyed did relate cultural issues discussed in the Culture Lessons to Vietnamese features. In fact, Solutions books themselves have tasks that require students to activate their personal experience, but they are not finely structured, which means the tasks do not apparently focus on native culture of learners. 85% of them reported that when local cultural aspects in relation with the lesson are discussed, students show higher engagement, and 90% said that students are motivated provided that topics are sufficiently relevant.

Questionnaires for both students and teachers did ask about benefits but they also gave open-ended questions for students to convey their thinking and no disadvantages of such an approach to speaking activities were reported.
Problems and solutions

Problems encountered during the course of the study

1. Some cultural aspects can be quite easy when discussed in English, but may entail unfamiliar vocabulary if dealing with Vietnamese culture, which makes students discouraged and find themselves stuck for ideas. One of the teacher’s comments was “In the cultural lesson “Myth or reality” (Unit 6, Solutions Intermediate Students’ book), students find it extremely challenging to talk about myths about ghosts or forest men they have heard from relatives and friends as the topic involves vocabulary about a wide range of local objects and concepts which rarely appear in texts written in English.”

2. Teachers can risk making the topic of discussion superficial and misleading when integrating Vietnamese cultural material into the lesson. For instance, in the cultural lesson on W B Yeats (Unit 7, Solutions Intermediate Students’ book), the teacher uses a poem of a Vietnamese author, also related to love as that of W B Yeats’ When you are old in the book. However, when it came to discussing the differences and similarities of the two poems, observation indicated that the activity seemed problematic, and students’ opinions, though appropriate or not, were left without feedback, as the teacher herself at the same time became confusing.

3. Students were deeply engaged in the lessons as topics were closely related to their experience; therefore, it was quite commonly observed that students spoke Vietnamese to share their experiences with friends. This problem arose in almost every class as students used speaking their mother tongue to express ideas; likely their use of Vietnamese was more relaxing than trying to speak in English especially when they were unsupervised. Many students reported that they would use Vietnamese as their peers and they themselves are too eager to have the messages delivered.

4. Negotiation of content between students and teachers can resort to teachers’ assertion or uncontrolled students’ ideas. As time allotted for the newly-added content was limited (a few minutes at the end of the former lesson to prepare for the next one), controlled activities prepared by teachers may solely depend on their own opinions. By contrast, free practice speaking activities like presentations were totally under the students’ control.
Recommended solutions to the problems

1. It is advised that students research the topic before class, and teachers prepare possible vocabulary lists beforehand. In addition, the same cultural issue can be handled differently (different aspects) at different levels to suit students’ language competence. Local cultural features can be expressed by words that are not familiar to students, so it is necessary for students to equip themselves with vocabulary before class and for the teacher to help them during class.

2. It should be noted that delicate or sensitive social issues such as religion, poetry, etc. should not be discussed superficially as it may give students misleading viewpoints on the issue. From evidence in the above-mentioned problem, the integration of local cultural material should be scrutinized so as to avoid unexpected problems while discussing cultures.

3. Teachers should prepare for the use of English during the lesson. This cannot be achieved solely by continuously assisting students with new vocabulary while they are speaking but through preparation of useful handouts in anticipation of the possible vocabulary and suitable topics for students’ levels. Suitable topics here can be seen as suitable in terms of students’ linguistic competence. It was accepted among students surveyed that if they were better-equipped with vocabulary, they would be more willing to put their effort in conveying ideas in English. Preparation beforehand among students is encouraged as topics have been agreed on in the previous class.

4. Once negotiation of content takes place, it should be treated as a part of the learning process. What cultural aspects are included in the lesson and why they are discussed should be well-reasoned to engage students from the very beginning with proper teachers’ orientation. It was reported that students find this part of the learning process captivating as they had their voice heard in what they were going to discuss with their friends.

Limitations

1. The number of observation rounds was limited so there can be some aspects that may not be tackled.

2. As the observation took place, although the observer (the research conductor) had a form to follow, ratings can be biased according to the observer’s views.
3. Teachers conducting model lessons are those experienced but it is hard to determine that they have the same ability to engage students into activities.

4. As culture is treated as a motivation for speaking, it was difficult to make assessments on particular achievements. In addition, the willingness to speak is also hard to measure exactly. Further research can look more closely into creating a framework to assess students’ outcomes of such an integration of local cultural content to speaking activities.

Conclusion

This study reflects the reality of the adaptation of a culture lesson in Solutions to teach culture-based speaking activities for first year, second year and third year students at the English Department, in the University of Foreign Language Studies, at the University of Da Nang. It was shown that speaking activities with local cultural material in combination with the target language cultures were, to a certain extent, well-received among students. From the research, the author proposes that the more exposure students have to such speaking activities, the more improvement they are likely to make naturally through higher motivation in each lesson.

Meanwhile, problems and limitations in employing this approach are exposed during the pilot research. Some solutions to the problems and proposals for further research are included. Besides, the author makes some proposals for both teachers and students with a view to helping students to enhance the effectiveness of this approach. The study hopes to provide a framework of communicative speaking activities with the integration of learners’ native culture into the lessons to avail them of both English speaking proficiency and native cultural awareness in the context of the localization of English language teaching and learning.
References


Appendix

Questionnaire (1)

We are collecting your opinions regarding speaking activities in Part C: Culture in Solutions Book. You need not write your name unless you wish to. All information you give is solely used for the research with no other purposes. Your truthful answers contribute greatly to the success of the research. Thank you.

Questionnaire

Please respond by circling the option(s) that match(es) your opinions (If you choose “other”, please specify your ideas)

1. How interested in the topics are you when learning culture part in Solutions?
   a. Very interested   b. Interested   c. Neutral
   d. Boring   e. Very boring

2. What is your opinions about the topics in Culture Part in Solutions?
   a. Very practical   b. Practical   c. Average
   d. Not very practical   e. Mostly impractical

3. How motivated you are to discuss these topics?
   a. Very practical   b. Practical   c. Average
   d. Not very practical   e. Mostly impractical

4. How effective are the speaking activities in Culture Part in Solutions you attend?
   a. Effective   b. Average   c. Ineffective   d. Other: …

5. Do you think the culture part need more British or Vietnamese culture to make it more engaging?
   a. More British   b. More Vietnamese   c. Other: …
Questionnaire (2)

We are collecting your opinions regarding speaking activities in Part C: Culture in Solutions Book. You need not write your name unless you wish to. All information you give is solely used for the research with no other purposes. Your truthful answers contribute greatly to the success of the research. Thank you.

Questionnaire

Please respond by circling the option(s) that match(es) your opinions (If you choose “other”, please specify your ideas)

1. Does the integration of Vietnamese cultural aspects into the speaking lesson increase the practicality of the lesson?
   a. Yes   b. No   c. Uncertain   d. Other …

2. Are the classes you have attended more engaging?
   a. Yes   b. No   c. Uncertain   d. Other …

3. Are you much more motivated to speak during such lessons?
   a. Yes   b. No   c. Uncertain   d. Other …

4. What benefits does the integration of Vietnamese cultural aspects into the speaking lesson bring to you? (More than one option is possible)
   a. Enrich vocabulary related to Vietnamese culture
   b. Develop multifaceted views on the same cultural issues
   c. Other: ………………………………………………………………

5. As compared to normal classes, how are such classes you have attended?
   a. More effective   b. The same   c. Ineffective   d. Other …

6. Do you want to go on attending such classes?
   a. Yes   b. No   c. Other

7. Do you have any other opinions or suggestions?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………
Questionnaire (3)

We are collecting your opinions regarding speaking activities in Part C: Culture in Solutions Book. You need not write your name unless you wish to. All information you give is solely used for the research with no other purposes. Your truthful answers contribute greatly to the success of the research. Thank you.

Questionnaire

Please respond by circling the option(s) that match(es) your opinions (If you choose “other”, please specify your ideas).

2. Do you think the absence of Vietnamese cultural features in the speaking activities in Solutions reduce the practicality of the lessons?
   a. Yes  b. No  c. Uncertain  d. Other …

2. Will you pay more attention to the speaking activities if Vietnamese cultural features are discussed?
   a. Yes  b. No  c. Uncertain  d. Other …

3. Will you be more motivated to speak if Vietnamese cultural features are discussed?
   a. Yes  b. No  c. Uncertain  d. Other …

4. What benefits will you have if speaking activities discuss both Vietnamese and English cultural features? (More than one option is acceptable)
   a. Enrich vocabulary related to native cultural features
   b. Developing multi-faceted viewpoints on the same cultural issues
   c. Other: …

5. Do you have any other opinions or suggestions?

..............................................................................................................................................................................
**Questionnaire (4)**

*This questionnaire aims at eliciting information about your opinions about the ways to teach speaking CULTURE part in Solutions Books. Thank you for your kind cooperation.*

**Questionnaire**

*Please respond by circling the option(s) that match(es) your opinions (If you choose “other”, please specify your ideas)*

1. How often do you include cultural features of Vietnam on the same topic of the lesson when you teach part C: Culture? *(Only one option)*
   
   a. Always   
   b. Usually   
   c. Sometimes   
   d. Rarely   
   e. Never

2. Why do you (always/ usually/sometimes/rarely/never) include cultural features of Vietnam on the same topic of the lesson? *(Only one option)*
   
   a. It’s always necessary   
   b. It’s unnecessary   
   c. It’s necessary (but class and preparation time limit)   
   d. Other

3. Can you recall students’ reaction when you include Vietnamese cultural features in relation with those of the British in the lesson? *(Only one option)*
   
   a. Students become more eager immediately   
   b. Students show higher engagement   
   c. There is not much difference   
   d. Students show little interest   
   e. Students show no interest   
   f. Other

4. Do you think cultural features of Vietnam in combination with those of Britain can boost students’ motivation in speaking? *(Only one option)*
   
   a. Provided that topics are relevant enough   
   b. Uncertain   
   c. Vietnamese cultural features cannot   
   d. Other
5. What benefits do you think students can gain from speaking activities which entails discussion about Vietnamese cultural features? *(More than one option possible)*
   a. Enrich vocabulary about native cultural topics
   b. Develop multi-faceted viewpoints on the same issues
   c. Fundamental for intercultural communication
   d. Other

6. To what extent do you think communicative speaking activities with both cultural aspects of Britain and Vietnam can motivate students?
   a. Very much   b. Much   c. Not much   d. Little   e. No

7. To what extent do you think communicative speaking activities with both cultural aspects of Britain and Vietnam can benefit students speaking skill?
   a. Very much   b. Much   c. Not much   d. Little   e. No

8. Can you share some interesting observation or experience when you teach a communicative speaking activity including cultural features of Vietnam?

.......................................................... ..........................................................

     Thank you
Article Review

What do you think of me? : A semi-ethnographic investigation into student stereotypes and biases towards teachers

Author: T.M. Wilkinson


Reviewed by SINGHANAT NOMNIAN
Research Institute for Languages and Cultures of Asia, Mahidol University,
Nakhon Pathom, Thailand

This research article discusses the interesting and controversial issue regarding students’ stereotypes and biases towards their teachers in terms of race, accent, and native speakerness within the context of an international university in Thailand. Due to the internationalization of Thai higher education, the author strongly believe that Asian higher educational reforms are mainly underpinned by Anglo-Saxon doctrines, ideologies, paradigms, and practices by using English as a medium of instruction, adopting Western curricula, and striving for a world-class standard. Thai students who want to gain access to international status and improve their English proficiency without going abroad normally choose to continue their higher education in international programs or an international university in Thailand.

The issues of students’ stereotypes and biases can, however, potentially lead to negative impacts on learning and student-and-teacher communication; thus, it is important to be aware of these issues in order to overcome emerging challenges regarding teachers’ racial, linguistic, and native-and-non-native speaker identities. Accents and varieties of English considered as the strongest non-content verbal cues play a significant role in students’ judgment towards their teachers leading to the stigmatization of certain accents. The dichotomy of native and non-native speaker is still controversial and questionable depending how students perceive their teachers. Interestingly, the author claimed that native-speaking teachers were perceived by his students in terms of whiteness; thus, they were reluctant to consider Asian teachers as native speakers of English. This imbalanced perception leads to the issue of race in TESOL/ELT, which needs critical understanding among TESOL/ELT professionals; otherwise, racialization and racism in our professionals will still be kept unheard and invisible. The author argued for more discussion
on these topics rather than silence since they may cause harm to the teaching professions. Race is considered meaningful and essential by the students who would associate it with their attitudes towards their teachers’ different nationalities and colors. English used by white teachers is thus viewed as native and highly valued.

Although claimed as “a semi-ethnographic investigation” in the title, the study employed interviews, communication via LINE, and focus group meetings with seven students; two males and five females; aged between 19 and 30; with different nationalities including four Thai, one Brazilian, one Taiwanese, and one Senegalese. The findings suggest that non-native speaking teachers were viewed as strict, not being open for discussion, and not proficient in English, especially Thai teachers who spoke fast and were hard to understand. In contrast, native-speaking teachers were perceived as relaxed, flexible, fun, less traditional, and open to questions and student participation. Since the study was conducted in a Thai university, a contest between native and non-native speakers was seen as Asian versus Western or foreign teachers. The most stigmatized accents were Thai, Filipino, and Indian, who were described as “not good” or “harder to understand than native speaker accents”. Another interesting observation of the author was the issue of the “bias of the blame,” meaning that the participants would blame themselves for not understanding a native-speaking teacher whereas they blamed their non-native teachers if they misunderstood. The participants also admitted racial biases between white and black teachers. Furthermore, the participants preferred what they perceived as standard English and native-speaking English teachers for English classes. Finally, none of them knew about World Englishes, which would allow them to be aware of their own linguistic identity. Start here

Three main issues discussed in this study were social connotations, communicative burdens, and perceived communication versus actual intelligibility. Social connotations were associated with the global hierarchy of Englishes in the ELT industry that promotes native-speaker English, particularly American and British; thus, Thai participants in this study perceived Thai teachers of English were not the best as their English was not clear; Thai English was rated low. Communicative burden was underpinned by a bias of the blame leading to an unequal communication effort between interlocutors and a communication breakdown. Accordingly, the difference between what people actually understand (actual intelligibility) and what they believe they can understand (perceived comprehension) may potentially interfere learning and communication. Therefore, according to the author, the social connotations of a certain accent
cause a judgment of that accent that influences the communicative burden, which will then impact perceived communication.

The author recommended that awareness raising of World Englishes and English as a *lingua franca* to students is essential; and thus, acquiring native-speaker English should not be a target. The author also argued that there is no such thing as standard English; hence, no accent can be inherently good or bad or harder to understand than any other. It is also imperative for institution recruitment policies to distinguish teacher applicants as native speaker and non-native speaker. The final recommendation by the author was that it is important for teachers to be aware of their language use in classroom teaching by being cautious not to use language that is not understood by all students; otherwise, inequality and marginalization in the classroom may be created.

This study offers interesting insights into our current issue of the native and non-native speaker dichotomy among ELT professionals. It would, however, be clearer to readers to have provided more details regarding semi-ethnography enabling readers a detailed account of how the study was done and to have presented participants’ viewpoints in terms of their perceptions toward their teachers since qualitative data can give richer information required for more understanding and further synthesis. In addition, if the participants cold have been regionally more diverse from East to West; i.e. various racial, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds, the study would have yielded results for wider and deeper discussions. To conclude, studies in this field are highly encouraged with different groups of students and teachers for better preparation and appropriate direction to assist Thai higher education in meeting international levels in ASEAN and the world.
THAITESOL Journal

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THAITESOL Journal is a semiannual, peer-reviewed, official, international journal of Thailand TESOL. It publishes articles, research papers, review articles and book reviews on applied linguistics and language learning and teaching. The journal serves as a platform for the scholars in the field to present their works to those who are interested.

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Length: Articles, research papers, and review articles should be between 3,000 and 7,000 words. Book reviews should not be longer than 2,000 words.

Title: The title should be concise and informative with all capital letters.

Authors: Give the full name of all authors and their complete addresses, as well as contact information for the corresponding author, complete mailing address, and e-mail address.

Abstract: The abstract should not exceed 250 words, clearly summarizing the important findings of the paper. It should contain hard facts such as objectives, methods and major results.
**Keywords:** Provide 4-6 keywords which help direct readers through the article.

**Introduction:** The introduction must provide the necessary background of the paper and a brief review of related literature. A clear statement of the objectives should also be included.

**Materials and Methods:** Describe the experimental procedures clearly enough for others to repeat the same experiment so that the same result could be obtained. A careful discussion of the methodology will include exactly who the population was, how many subjects participated, what the procedures were, where the research took place, how long the research procedure lasted, and all other details of the instruments (including the exact survey questions, for example). In the case of experimental research, the description should include how the control group’s instruction covered the same content, length of time, and learning outcomes as that of the experimental group(s). In general, this part of the article will be at least 25% of the total article.

**Results and Discussion:** This section should contain “Results” and interpretation of the results in relation to existing knowledge. This section should begin with exactly what the data showed and then describe the author’s interpretation of the data.

**Conclusions:** State conclusion (do not summarize) briefly. Headings and subheadings should be left aligned, with the first letter capitalized.

**Other requirements:** Indicate new paragraphs by using one extra line space. Short quotations should be incorporated into the text and enclosed with double quotation marks. Quotations of more than about 40 words should be set off from the main text body by indentation, without any quotation marks. Manuscripts should follow the APA referencing style. That is, references in the text should be ordered alphabetically and contain the name of the author and the year of publication, e.g. (Thomas, 2001). References listed at the end should be in alphabetical...
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All papers will be peer-reviewed by two readers. The DEADLINE for submitting the manuscript for the Vol.29 No.2 December 2016 issue is September 15, 2016.

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