ELT for the Future: Navigating the Possibilities

Thailand TESOL Conference Proceedings 2023

27 - 28 January 2023

The Association of English Teachers in Thailand (Thailand TESOL)

Established under the Patronage of Her Royal Highness Princess Galyani Vadhana Krom Luang Naradhiwas Rajanagarindra

THE ASSOCIATION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN THAILAND is a professional non-profit and non-political organization established under the patronage of H.R.H. Princess Galyani Vadhana Krom Luang Naradhiwas Rajanagarindra. Its purposes are to support English language teaching and learning at all levels, to act as one of the ELT professional organizations, and to strengthen networking with ELT organizations nationally and internationally.

THE ASSOCIATION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN THAILAND is an affiliate of TESOL, Inc. located in the United States of America; the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), located in Great Britain; JALT and JACET, located in Japan; Korea TESOL, KATE and ALAK, located in South Korea; PALT, located in the Philippines; ETA-ROC, located in Taiwan; FEELTA, located in Russia; TEFLIN, located in Indonesia; MELTA and PELLTA, located in Malaysia.

Thailand TESOL Conference Proceedings 2023 Team	Singhanat Nomnian	Mahidol University
	Athip Thumvichit	Mahidol University
	Thanis Tangkitjaroenkun	King's Mongkut University of Technology Thonburi
	Wutthiphong Laoriandee	Chulalongkorn University

CONTENTS

Notes from the President

Notes from the Editor

ARTICLES

Assessing English Language Teachers' and Students' Intercultural Awareness: Viewpoints on Language Ownership and Cultural Integration 1
Cheska Kimberly B. Estrella

Challenges and Attitudes towards Using English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in the General Education Courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University 18
Preeyapha Wangmanee & Worapon Toopmongkol

Textuality in ISI and Non-ISI Mathematics Research Article Introductions: A Genre Analysis 27
Mobina Rahnama, Fazlolah Samimi & Vahid Yarahmadi

Enhancing achievement and self-regulation among Thai EFL learners through provision of feedback and retrieval practices 43
Meechai Wongdaeng & Sulaiya Hajihama

Raising Language Awareness with Near-Synonyms in English and their English Loanword Equivalences 53
Sumie Akutsu

EFL Learning Using the Linguistic Landscape of Sacred Space: A Case of a Shinto Shrine 64
Ryan Barnes

Language Anxiety and Academic Performance among Thai University Students in Learning English 76
Bobbie Mata Guzman

Learning New Vocabulary through Meaning-Focused Input 88
Hiroki Uchida

Learning to Listen: A Look at English Listening Strategies 95
Joseph C. Wood

Thailand TESOL Executive Committee

Notes from the President

Even though, we conclude the 42nd Thailand TESOL International Conference 2023, the presence of informative presentations, insightful discussions, engaging workshops, and the companionship among passionate educators remains vivid in our thoughts. As the President of The Association of English Language Teachers in Thailand or Thailand TESOL, it is an honor to extend my warmest greetings to you through the page of our Conference Proceedings. The conference marked a significant milestone, bringing together passionate educators, scholars, and practitioners in a celebration of English language teaching and educational excellence. I would also like to extend my thankfulness to our sponsors, speakers, volunteers, and the entire organizing committee members for their untiring efforts in arranging a seamless and impactful conference. On behalf of Thailand TESOL, I would like to congratulate to all authors who have contributed their practical and significant papers to this e-Proceedings of the 42nd Thailand TESOL International Conference under the theme "ELT for the Future: Navigating the Possibilities" between 27th and 28th January 2023.

The content of the Proceedings has undergone a thorough peer review process, precisely assessed by experts and reviewers both locally and internationally, ensuring its alignment with rigorous academic and research criteria. The papers included in this Proceedings address key issues, highlight significant discoveries, and offer essential theoretical and pedagogical implications that can potentially lead to the betterment of English language teaching and learning to all practitioners, policymakers, researchers, and scholars in our fields and communities at the domestic and international scales.

Before ending my note, I would like to express my appreciation to our editors: Associate Professor Dr. Singhanat Nomnian, Assistant Professor Dr. Wutthiphong Laoriandee, Assistant Professor Thanis Tangkitjaroenkun, and Assistant Professor Dr. Athip Thumvichit, whose valuable expertise and tremendous efforts are highly appreciated and recognized. Besides the Proceedings, those who wish to disseminate their research, they can also submit their research papers to our THAITESOL Journal indexed by ERIC and TCI (Tier 2), which welcomes high-quality papers all year round.

For your information, our upcoming conference under the theme "Reconnecting ELT Professionals for Glocal Sustainability" will be held at The Empress Hotel in Chiang Mai, Thailand from 26th – 27th January 2024. Once again, thank you for being an integral part of the Thailand TESOL activities.

We are looking forward to meeting you in person and welcoming you to Thailand. Thank you for joining us in this exciting journey of professional growth and shared learning.

With warm regards,

Thanakorn Thongprayoon, Ph.D., SFHEA
President, Thailand TESOL

Notes from the Editor

On behalf of the editorial team, it is my honor to write this Foreword to the Proceedings of the 42nd Thailand TESOL International Conference 2023 under the theme "ELT for the Future: Navigating the Possibilities" from 27 - 28 January 2023 at The Ambassador Hotel Bangkok, Thailand.

The conference particularly gathered leading scholars and promoted their interactions of research and future collaborations with the more established TESOL communities in Thailand and beyond. Their contributions helped to make the Conference as outstanding as it has always been.

This Proceedings contains nine papers from Iran, Japan, Oman, Philippines, Thailand, which have reflected a wide array of up-to-date topics and practical pedagogical implications that can be beneficial and applicable to your professional contexts. Here they are as follows:

First, Cheska Kimberly B. Estrella focused on assessing English language teachers' and students' intercultural awareness in terms of language ownership and cultural integration. The study suggests the need to develop an intercultural curriculum, context-specific learning materials, and teacher training programs to enhance intercultural awareness in the English language teaching and learning process.

Second, Preeyapha Bishop explored challenges and attitudes towards using English-medium Instruction (EMI) in the general education courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University and offered the need for developing language policies in the EMI context and incorporating them into professional development plans and curriculum development in Thailand's higher education institutions.

Next, Mobina Rahnama, Fazlolah Samimi, and Vahid Yarahmadi employed a genre analysis to investigate textuality in ISI and Non-ISI mathematics research article introductions. The study provides a better learning of academic writing by implementing more effective instructing academic writing sessions by EFL/ESL teachers and lecturers, designing a curriculum that leads from more spoken to more written modes by ESP (English for Specific Purpose) and EAP (English for Academic Purpose) curriculum designers.

Meechai Wongdaeng and Sulaiya Hajihama aimed at enhancing achievement and self-regulation among Thai EFL learners through provision of feedback and retrieval practices. They highlighted that both feedback provision and retrieval practices could support learners with useful information for regulating their own learning.

Fifth, Sumie Akutsu raised language awareness with near-synonyms in English and their English loanword equivalences. The pedagogical implementations of the lexical approach using near-synonyms and loanword equivalents can assist and benefit teachers as well as learners to become more aware of language in a wider context.

Sixth, Ryan Barnes employed the linguistic landscape of sacred spaces based on a case of a Shinto Shrine and discussed the pedagogical possibilities of language order in a sacred space. He found that the positive attitude of learners connecting the target language to their daily lives.

Bobbie Mata Guzman researched language anxiety and academic performance among Thai university students in learning English and suggested that a positive classroom environment and appropriate teaching strategies could alleviate learners' foreign language anxiety.

Eighth, Hiroki Uchida explored the way of learning new vocabulary through meaning-focused input. The study recommended that chatbots could significantly help teachers when they made a paragraph with a context.

Last but not least, Joseph Wood found out that Japanese students employed modern technological devices, particularly smartphones and online resources, to practice their listening skills in their own time to become better listeners in English.

These nine state-of-the-art articles have shared and provided interesting insights into the advancement of ELT and TESOL professional development at local and global communities. The Proceedings could not have been achieved without the synergy of our editors: Assistant Professor Dr. Wutthiphong Laoriandee, Assistant Professor Dr. Athip Thumvichit, and Assistant Professor Thanis Tangkitjaroenkun, whose intellectual contribution, valuable expertise, and tremendous efforts are highly appreciated and recognized.

Enjoy reading!

Associate Prof. Dr. Singhanat Nomnian, Ed.D., SFHEA
Chair of Thai TESOL Proceedings

Assessing English Language Teachers' and Students' Intercultural Awareness: Viewpoints on Language Ownership and Cultural Integration

Cheska Kimberly B. Estrella

cheskaestrella@yahoo.com.ph

Senior High School Teacher, San Beda University, Manila, Philippines;
Graduate Student, Philippine Normal University, Manila, Philippines

---

Abstract

The 21st-century world has provided higher demands with regard to establishing connections, building relationships, and bridging gaps within and among nations of the world. It is in this context that the role of the English language as means of communication is universally accepted and fully utilized. This study aims to know and reveal the different viewpoints and perspectives of English teachers and language learners on intercultural awareness, language ownership, and integration of culture in English language classes in a private educational institution in the Philippines. The present study is a piece of quantitative-qualitative research that collected data from the participants using (1) survey questionnaires, (2) semi-structured interviews and (3) focus group interviews. Based on the findings, it is revealed that teachers have positive perspectives of intercultural awareness regarding ownership of English and cultural integration in English language classes in the Philippines. While there were student respondents that prefer the accents of native speakers, they were open to the idea that exposure to other cultures would be of benefit rather than just focusing on native speakers' culture. The findings yielded several significant implications including the need to develop an intercultural curriculum, context-specific learning materials, and teacher training programs to enhance intercultural awareness in the English language teaching and learning process.

Keywords: Native English Speakers (NESs), Non-native English Speakers (NNESs), Cultural integration, Intercultural awareness, World Englishes

INTRODUCTION

English has become the most widely used language that the world has ever known, considering it as a universal language (Ahmed & Ganapathy, 2021, as cited in Vadivel et al., 2022) utilized for teaching, reading, and speaking. This is due to numerous factors such as colonization, immigration, and globalization. The Philippines, for example, is known as a country that is leading when it comes to English proficiency in Asia. Indeed, the English language has greatly contributed to the overall progress of the academe, business, and other aspects of the nation's growth. However, when it comes to English language teaching and learning in such a diversified culture, there seems to be a continuous discussion and discourse. If such a mindset of reliance on native-speaker norms persists, it will only affect the self-esteem and confidence of educational stakeholders with regard to English language teaching and learning. With the uniquely distinct sociolinguistic profile of Filipino learners, the English that should be taught should be relevant to them (Kirkpatrick, 2018), the one that is considerate of the multilingual and multicultural context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The global status of English and the world Englishes paradigm

The spread of English as a universally known language has transformed our beliefs and understandings of the language and pedagogy. With more nominative than vernacular speakers of English, the ownership of English has been the subject of many arguable discussions that led Kachru (1985; Kachru et al., 2009) to the idea of the World Englishes (WE). This theoretical model indicates the spread and emergence of localized and indigenized varieties that developed in countries that were colonized and influenced by native speakers of the English language. This model consists of three (3) concentric circles, namely, the inner circle (the United States of America and the United Kingdom), the outer circle (India, Singapore, Philippines, and Nigeria), and the expanding circle (China, Japan, South Korea, and Indonesia). At present, English goes by many names, and the global status of English has created non-native contexts that aim for non-native speakers not to embrace the different communicative norms of the native speakers of English. While the consideration of WE in language pedagogy has enabled the emphasis on communication and discourse strategies, and alteration of teaching models, methods, and curriculum designs that cater to the needs and demands of non-native English speakers (Rahmatillah et al., 2022), in the question of ownership, native English speakers somehow get the credit for such an advancement. Native speakers, according to Graddol (1999, as cited in Bhowmik, 2015), get a "special status" in terms of psychological, as well as material benefits when it comes to the utilization of English in their daily living. This kind of perspective is also reflected in English language teaching (ELT), as it is still the most controlled by native-speaking countries, of which those belonging to the inner circle. Such control, for instance, determining teaching norms, syllabus design, and materials development, among others, is prevalent.

Fortunately, there is more awareness today as to how the utilization of language greatly intermingles with global trends in economy, demography, and culture, respectively. With these aspects, the clarifications on ownership and the further understanding of the varieties of English could be addressed by raising intercultural awareness among those who are using the language regardless of nationality.

Intercultural awareness in English language teaching

Truly, language is inextricably linked to culture and cannot be separated without losing its meaning. The terminology, "intercultural awareness" is defined comprehensively by Korzilius, van Hoft, and Planken (2007, as cited in Yilmaz & Ozkan, 2016):

> *Intercultural awareness is the ability to empathize and to decenter. More specifically, in a communication situation, it is the ability to take on the perspective(s) of (a) conversational partner(s) from another culture or with another nationality, and of their cultural background(s), and thus, to be able to understand and take into consideration interlocutors' different perspective(s) simultaneously. (p. 2)*

In the study of Byram and Wagner (2018), they strongly claimed that English language instruction must include intercultural awareness that must be developed on the part of the learner, most especially the educators. As an initial step, there must be a prior assessment of the understanding of culture and the level of cultural awareness of both language educators and learners for that matter.

The Philippines at present is in a current discourse of reconceptualizing and rethinking how English should be learned and taught in the classroom. In actuality, learning the English language is lacking and weak at the foundational level and therefore resulting in a negative impact on tertiary and post-graduate education. Rahmatillah et al. (2022) claimed that the application of intercultural principles such as World Englishes (WE) is difficult due to the fact that teachers and students themselves show a positive preference toward native norms of English and still prefer British or American English.

Another point of concern was revealed in the study of Li (2016), which asserts that at the pedagogical level, most teachers have just a very rough idea of what culture should be and what should be taught in terms of cultural components. Due to lacking systematic training and principled methodology in promoting students' intercultural awareness, teachers tend to turn deaf to the new trend and somehow fall back to the more traditional but effective grammar-translation approach. Gu (2016) also revealed that despite the willingness to assess their intercultural awareness and competence, the teachers lack a clear conception of such a concept. Furthermore, in the study of Oranje and Smith (2018), it was revealed that there is an apparent mismatch between beliefs and practices, with teachers being favorably disposed towards intercultural language teaching but not practicing the approach in their classrooms.

With this in mind, Borlongan (2011, as cited in Martin, 2014) emphasized that there should be a retraining of English teachers, developing of new and improved instructional materials based on current and existing corpus data, and improving instructional leadership when comes to innovations in English language teaching (ELT). It can be said that the essential components of ELT should be supportive of the notion of language diversity and its variations.

Hence, there is a need to design language instruction that is aligned from a dynamic and contextualized perspective, therefore letting students and teachers have access to how the English language is used in different social contexts (Widodo et al., 2022). Matsuda (2003, as cited in Bhowmik, 2015) further stated that when English is taught based on the norms that native speakers follow, the result will be (1) neglect of local learners' linguistic needs, (2) ignorance of the learners' education about the sociopolitical and historical contexts regarding the language, and (3) failure in empowering learners regarding language ownership. If there is an opportunity that English language learners around the world to be more exposed to learning that is localized, culture-, and context-specific in classrooms, they will be able to relate and respond better to the target language. In this way, teachers and learners alike can display their respective cultures and identities and have shared meaning in several communication situations. Lifelong learning, especially in language acquisition, will be best attained if ELT, on aspects such as pedagogy, materials, and resources is context-specific, comprehensible, and relatable to human experiences (Suganob & Oliva, 2021, as cited in Adlit, 2022).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

There is a pressing need to assess language teachers' and learners' intercultural awareness and integrate it into their instruction that aids in learning the language. This study aims to know and reveal the different viewpoints and perspectives of English teachers and language learners on intercultural awareness, language ownership, and integration of culture in the English language classes in the Philippines. It intends to promote English in the Philippines as an empowered and empowering language.

In addition to this, promoting and respecting interculturality would help in breaking the stereotype of "native-non-native dichotomy" and broaden the perspectives of English speakers, regardless of which "circle" they belong to.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the teachers' perceptions of intercultural awareness regarding English language ownership and cultural integration in English language education?
2. What are the students' perceptions of intercultural awareness regarding English language ownership and cultural integration in English language education?

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The study followed an explanatory sequential mixed-method design. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) have elaborated that this type of design follows a procedure of gathering quantitative data first and then proceeding with qualitative data to further expound and give pertinent details on the quantitative results. This type of research design is favorable to employ in this study for it can capture the best of both worlds – while qualitative data will offer in-depth perspectives on people's voices and experiences, quantitative data will enable outcomes that demonstrate generalizable trends. (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, as cited in Creswell & Creswell, 2005). That is, by combining their advantages, these two approaches strengthen and deepen the analyses and insights into the data. (Ivankova et al., 2006).

Sample and sampling

The study was conducted with teachers and students at San Beda University, in which the main campus is located at San Miguel, City of Manila, and the other campus at Taytay, province of Rizal, Philippines. The institution follows an integrated basic education scheme. Sixteen (16) teachers and forty (40) students were targeted as respondents in this study.

The selection of respondents was done through purposive sampling, which is based on accessibility and purposiveness (Creswell, 2013) that matches the objectives of the study. The respondents of the study were identified and selected based on their understanding and proficiency of the phenomenon, referring to the criteria established by the researcher. The teacher-respondents should match the four (4) criteria: (1) heterogeneously working in the selected research locale; (2) educating at different levels of senior high school; (3) having a degree in Education or Arts major in English or Literature; and (4) being of different genders. On the other hand, the student-respondents should also match the criteria: (1) studying in the selected research locale; (2) taking English language subjects at the senior high school level; and (3) being of different genders.

Methods of data collection

The present study is a piece of quantitative-qualitative research that statistically analyses data collected through (1) questionnaires, (2) semi-structured interviews, and (3) focus group interviews. The fundamental instrument for the investigation of students' and teachers' intercultural awareness was a survey questionnaire adapted from the study "An Investigation into English Language Teachers' and Students' Intercultural Awareness" by Yilmaz and Ozkan (2016), with questions anchored on Sercu et al.'s (2005) international questionnaire, Almawoda's (2011), and Wang's (2014) studies on the significance of intercultural awareness in foreign language teaching and learning. The questionnaire was divided into three parts: the first part is composed of questions concerning demography, the second part is a short checklist with several open-ended questions, and the last part is a 5-point Likert scale that will reveal the respondents' views toward intercultural awareness. The questionnaires were tailored for the separate groups of students and teachers. In the qualitative part of the study, the teachers will take part in the semi-structured interview, and students will be undergoing focus group interviews at separate times and locations.

The interview questions were also adapted from the studies mentioned and were contextualized for the respondents. The teacher-respondents were asked the following:

1. Do you believe that there exists a standard English and accent? Why?
2. Do you focus on teaching culture in your classrooms? If yes, which cultures do you tend to teach?
3. How often do you introduce the cultures of non-native speakers of English to your students?
4. How do you incorporate "intercultural awareness" into your language teaching?

The student-respondents that participated in the focus-group discussion answered the following questions:

1. The importance of learning English is beyond argument. People have different purposes for learning English. What is your purpose in learning English, and what do you plan to do with this language in the future?
2. There are many people speaking English and many varieties of English. Many people consider certain types of English more attractive than others. What is your preference in this aspect?
3. When we refer to culture, which culture do you think students should learn about in our classes?
4. How do your native and non-native English-speaking teachers teach culture? How are they different or the same in this aspect?

Data analysis

The quantitative data that were obtained from this study were processed through a descriptive statistical technique. Frequency and percentage were used to give an account of the sample and to visualize the responses of the participants. These data were entered and processed using Microsoft Excel 365. The semi-structured and focus group interviews were transcribed and subjected to a thematic analysis using NVivo Qualitative Research Data Analysis Software. The transcripts were imported to NVivo, and themes were developed in order to investigate and assess the respondents' intercultural awareness.
Results

The results of the study will be displayed with reference to the research questions.

Research Question #1: What are the teachers' perceptions of intercultural awareness regarding English language ownership and cultural integration in English language education?

English language ownership

The teachers indicated their views towards the ownership of English by responding to the three questionnaire items about their attitudes towards native English speakers (NESs) and non-native English speakers (NNESs) in English language teaching. Their preferences were asked related to their aims to teach English, the culture, and the accents they introduce students to. Table 1 table reports the frequencies for related items in the questionnaire.

Table 1
Teachers' views towards NESs and NNESs in aspects of ELT objective, culture, and accent

		NES		**NNES**		**Others**	
		f	***%***	**f**	***%***	**f**	***%***
Q1	Teachers' English language teaching aim is to motivate learners to communicate	2	*12.5*	14	*87.5*	0	*0*
Q2	Teachers' preference for culture to expose learners in class	7	*43.75*	9	*56.25*	0	*0*
Q3	Teachers' preference for accent to expose learners in class	6	*37.5*	9	*56.25*	1	*6.25*

87.5% of the teachers reported that they motivated learners to communicate with native and/or non-native English speakers. However, this number decreased to 56.25% with regard to their preferences for culture to expose learners in class. In relation to their preference for accent to teach learners, the number remained the same at 56.25%. It was clearly seen that both the native speaker and non-native speaker accents were favored by most of the teachers. The teachers were also asked to indicate reasons for these choices in the open-ended part of the questionnaire.

Among the three options provided for Q1, Q2, and Q3 (NESs, NESs, and/or NNESs, and others), the participants were asked to indicate their reasons to choose that option. The reasons they specified were categorized under themes, which are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Teachers' reasons for their ELT objectives, cultures, and accents to teach

Questions Categories/Themes	Code Frequencies
1. What is your objective of teaching English?	**16**
A. To motivate my students to communicate native speakers of English	***1***
Idealized status of NESs	1
B. To motivate my students to communicate with people from different cultures (native and non-native)	***15***
Motivation	1
Overcoming biases	3
Practical reasons	11
2. Which cultures do you expose your students to in English language classrooms?	**16**
A. The cultures of NESs	***5***
Familiarity with the culture	1
Ownership of English	2
Syllabus and textbook	2
B. The cultures of NESs and NNESs	***11***
Broadening students' horizons	3
Overcoming biases	1
Practical reasons	4
World language status of English	3
3. Which accents do you expose your students to in English language classrooms?	
A. The accents of NESs	***2***
Intelligibility	2
B. The accents of NESs and NNESs	***9***
Practical reasons	6
Teacher's accent	2
World language status of English	1
C. Other	***5***
No required accent	5

Regarding Question #1 on their objective for English language teaching, most of the participants answered that their objective is to motivate students to communicate with native and non-native cultures, with the most frequently given reasons being due to "*practicality and necessity*". This shows how English language instruction is meant for students to be equipped with intercultural communication skills. On the other hand, the emerging theme of overcoming biases comes second. When it comes to the objective to communicate with native speakers, one respondent claim that due to the idealized status of native English speakers, the goal is to "*[…] be at par with the native speakers of English.*"

With reference to Question #2 on which cultures they expose the students, three themes emerged under the category of culture of native English speakers, while four themes were found under the category of culture of native and non-native English speakers. Syllabus and textbook, and ownership of English tied as the emerging theme for the first category. When it comes to ownership of English, one respondent remarked, "*I teach American standard English to students. This is the most accepted kind of English so far.*" Consequently, on the former theme, "*usually these are the ones (native English speakers) easily available in terms of materials.*"

On the other hand, the theme of practical reasons was the most frequent theme under the second category. "*What I teach them is functional English regardless of its origin. I am not a purist, so I expose them to a variety without boundaries. Either speaking, listening, reading, writing, as long as it is functional.*" In addition, the themes on the world language status of English and broadening students' horizons came in as the second emerging theme from the second category. "*English is not owned by a specific race/culture which is why I want them to see the beauty and complexity of English across cultures.*"

Comparable with the previous categories, the theme of practical reasons was the recurrent theme under the third question on what accents they expose students to by the respondents who prefer accents of both native and non-native English speakers. Conversely, in the other category, there are respondents who do not prefer any accent. "*No need to teach other accent. Just develop and improve their own accent.*" With respondents who prefer native accents of English speakers, the theme of intelligibility is highlighted. They believe that the native speaker's accent is "*where the students are comfortable.*"

The teachers who participated in the semi-structured interviews were asked about their views on the ownership of English. The question was "***Do you believe that there exists a standard English accent? Why?***". The responses of the participants are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Themes based on teachers' responses for ownership of English

Categories/Themes	**Code Frequencies**
1. Ownership of English	**16**
A. Intercultural perceptions toward different accents	***5***
B. Intercultural view of English	***7***
Intercultural perceptions toward English	7
C. Standard English and Accent	***4***
Idealization of native speaker accents	1
Strict definition of standard English	3

As shown in Table 3, the category of intercultural view of English is the most frequent, along with its theme. The following excerpt is taken from the semi-structured interview that claims, "*I have never believed in the idea of standardizing English, more so the use of accent. In my opinion, world regions create their own English to suit their language needs. So long as we maximize the English language in a positive way, I am good with it.*" However, some teacher-respondents believe that there exists a standard English and accent.

Cultural integration in English language education

The teachers indicated their views towards cultural integration in English language teaching by responding to positive and negative statements in the questionnaire.

Table 4 displays participants' responses to positive statements about cultural integration.

Table 4
Teachers' responses to positive statements about cultural integration in ELT

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q1	In the language classroom, teaching culture is important.	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	3	*18.75*	13	*81.25*
Q2	The more students know about other cultures the more tolerant they are.	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	6	*37.5*	10	*62.5*
Q3	All teachers and students should acquire intercultural competence.	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	3	*18.75*	13	*81.25*
Q4	Providing cultural information enhances motivation towards learning English.	0	*0*	0	*0*	1	*6.25*	8	*50*	7	*43.75*
Q9	Culture teaching should be integrated into English language teaching.	1	*6.25*	0	*0*	0	*0*	5	*31.25*	10	*62.5*

As demonstrated above, teachers' responses revealed a high level of agreement with all these statements. The most agreed statements were in Q1 and Q3 which suggest students' tolerance increases as they get to know other cultures and both teachers and students need to have intercultural competence.

Responses to negative statements are shown in Table 5 below. For these statements, strongly agree and agree choices were regarded as reflecting negative opinions, and disagree and strongly disagree choices were considered as positive opinions.

Table 5
Teachers' responses to negative statements about cultural integration in ELT

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q5	Intercultural skills cannot be acquired at school.	4	*25*	6	*37.5*	1	*6.25*	3	*18.75*	2	*12.5*
Q6	Teaching intercultural competence is important only if it is necessary for the students (e.g., travelling)	5	*31.25*	7	*43.75*	0	*0*	3	*18.75*	1	*6.25*

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q7	Only when there are international students in your classes do you have to teach intercultural competence.	10	*62.5*	5	*31.25*	1	*6.25*	0	*0*	0	*0*
Q8	Language and culture cannot be taught in an integrated way. You have to separate the two.	6	*37.5*	8	*50*	0	*0*	2	*12.5*	0	*0*

The responses to negative statements are in line with the findings in Table 6. There was a high level of disagreement with these statements, which showed participants' positive views toward cultural integration. The most strongly disagreed statement was the one claiming that only when there are international students in classes do teachers have to teach intercultural competence.

For a more detailed account of teachers' views reflecting intercultural awareness, during the interviews, the participants were asked about which culture they taught in class. This allowed us to see whether they focused mostly on native English speakers' cultures or not.

Table 6 presents instructors' views about which culture to teach in English language classes.

Table 6
Themes based on teachers' responses for their culture teaching experience

Categories/Themes	**Code Frequencies**
Which culture to teach?	16
A. Culture addressed in the textbook	*0*
B. Cultures of NESs	*1*
C. Cultures of NESs and NNESs	*12*
D. Other	*4*

The most prevalent theme was the culture of native and non-native English speakers. Few illustrative responses characterize teachers' preferences on culture. Other participants stated that in the language classroom, they do not necessarily focus on teaching culture, but they "integrate and expound on it is necessary" when students ask questions about it.

To shed light on teachers' classroom practices, they were asked to respond to the statements about classroom activities to enhance intercultural awareness listed in the questionnaire. Table 7 illustrates teachers' responses in this respect.

Table 7
Teachers' classroom practices to raise intercultural awareness

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q14	I ask my students to compare an aspect of their own culture with that aspect in the English-speaking cultures.	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	8	*50*	8	*50*
Q15	I use pictures, videos, etc. to introduce my students to other cultures.	0	*0*	0	*0*	0	*0*	4	*25*	12	*75*
Q16	I decorate my classroom with posters illustrating particular aspects of different cultures around the world.	3	*18.75*	0	*0*	6	*37.5*	7	*43.75*	0	*0*

The responses showed the majority of the teachers employed most of these activities in their classes. Asking students to compare different cultures was the highest-rated activity that teachers responded to as being done in their classes. However, few teachers disagreed with the idea of decorating the classroom with posters illustrating different cultural aspects around the world which suggests that there are some teachers who do not pay enough attention to the physical learning environment in the classes.

The participating teachers in semi-structured interviews were also asked to answer the question: ***"How do you incorporate "intercultural awareness" into your language teaching?"***, in which they explained what kind of classroom activities they did to raise students' intercultural awareness. Table 10 indicates the themes that emerged in this question.

Table 8
Themes based on teachers' responses for classroom activities

Categories/Themes	**Code Frequencies**
Classroom activities to enhance intercultural awareness	16
A. Asking students to share their experiences	*5*
B. Comparing and contrasting cultures	*2*
C. Reading news or stories	*3*
D. Sharing their cultural knowledge and experience with the students	*4*
E. Use of visual images, audios, and videos	*2*

The teachers enumerated some of their time-tested methods when it comes to teaching culture. They are mostly focused on asking the students to share their experiences in the culture they belong to, as it is the most frequent theme in their responses, while the second most frequently referred theme was the sharing of their cultural knowledge and experience with the students.

Research Question #2: What are the students' perceptions of intercultural awareness regarding English language ownership and cultural integration in English language education?

English language ownership

The students also indicated their views towards the ownership of English by responding to the three questionnaire items about their attitudes toward native English speakers (NESs) and non-native English speakers (NNESs) in English language teaching. Their preferences were asked related to their aims to learn English, the culture, and the accents they prefer to be exposed to. Table 9 reports the frequencies for related items in the questionnaire.

Table 9
Learners' views towards NESs and NNESs in aspects of ELT objective, culture, and accent

		NES		NNES		Others	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Q1	Learners' English language learning aim is to communicate	5	*12.5*	34	*85*	1	*2.5*
Q2	Learners' preference for culture to be learned in class	21	*52.5*	19	*47.5*	0	*0*
Q3	Learners' preference for accents to be exposed in class	18	*45*	22	*55*	0	*0*

Table 9 presents that there was a decrease in the rankings for NESs and NNESs as the aspects of culture and accent were included. While 85% of the learners specified their aims to communicate NESs and NNESs, this number decreases to 47.5% in culture they want to be exposed to. However, with regard to accent preference, it decreases to 55%.

Parallel to the findings in teachers' responses, a great majority of the students pointed out that they wanted to learn about the accents of native English speakers in their English language classrooms. The students were also asked to indicate reasons for these choices in the open-ended part of the questionnaire. The themes emerged from their responses are shown in Table 10.

Table 10
Students' reasons for English language learning objectives, and culture and accent preferences

Questions Categories/Themes	**Code Frequencies**
1. What is your objective of learning English?	**40**
A. To communicate with NESs	***5***
Personal interest	5
B. To communicate with NESs and NNESs	***34***
Broadening one's horizon	7
Career	2
Personal interest	7
Practical reasons	18
C. Other	***1***
Obligation	1
2. Which culture do you want to be exposed to in English language classrooms?	**40**
***A.* The cultures of NESs**	**22**
Ownership of English	6
Personal interest	8
Practical reasons	8
B. The cultures of NESs and NNESs	***18***
Broadening one's horizon	9
Motivation	2
Personal interest	7

Questions Categories/Themes	Code Frequencies
3. Which accent do you want to be exposed to in an English language classroom?	**40**
A. Accents of NESs	***18***
Aesthetical reasons	5
Familiarity	1
Intelligibility	3
Ownership of English	3
Practical reasons	6
B. Accents of NESs and NNESs	***22***
Intelligibility	4
Practical reasons	18

With reference to the first question about the reason why they study English, the first category on communicating with native English speakers had one emerging theme on personal interest, while the second category on communicating with both native and non-native English speakers had four emerging themes and one theme was found on the other category. The theme under the first category is the respondents' personal interest. While on the second category, most of the respondents learn English due to practical reasons. Other themes including broadening one's horizon, and personal interest were recurring in the students' responses. It is also worth noting that there are students who see learning English as a preparation for their future careers.

When it comes to the cultural preferences to be exposed to, three themes were found under the category of native speakers' culture, and three themes under the category of native and non-native speakers' culture. Under the first category, practical reasons and personal interest were the recurring themes. Broadening one's horizon was the most frequent theme under the second category. The respondents believe that exposure to other cultures would be of benefit rather than just focusing on native speakers' cultures.

On the last question about the accents that students prefer to have in the English language classroom, the first category had five emerging themes, and the second category had two themes. Practical reasons emerged once again as the most frequent theme in the first and second categories, respectively. In the first category, respondents still have the notion that the native speakers' accent is "clearer and easier to understand" and that it is "more correct" and "more formal."

Cultural integration in English language education

The students pointed out their views towards cultural integration in English language teaching by responding to positive and negative statements in the questionnaire. Table 11 displays their responses to positive statements about cultural integration.

Table 11
Students' responses to positive statements about cultural integration in ELT

		Strongly Disagree		**Disagree**		**Not Sure**		**Agree**		**Strongly Agree**	
		f	***%***	**f**	***%***	**f**	***%***	**f**	***%***	**f**	***%***
Q1	In the language classroom, learning about cultures is important.	1	*2.5*	0	*0*	0	*0*	12	*30*	27	*67.5*
Q2	The more I know about other cultures, the more tolerant I am.	1	*2.5*	0	*0*	3	*7.5*	21	*52.5*	15	*37.5*

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q3	All students should acquire intercultural competence.	1	*2.5*	0	*0*	2	*5*	13	*32.5*	24	*60*
Q4	Teaching English should focus on helping students to develop an open mind towards unfamiliar cultures.	1	*2.5*	0	*0*	2	*5*	12	*30*	25	*62.5*
Q5	Learning about other cultures enhances my motivation to learn English.	1	*2.5*	1	*2.5*	1	*2.5*	21	*52.5*	16	*40*
Q9	Culture teaching should be integrated into English language teaching.	1	*2.5*	3	*7.5*	11	*27.5*	20	*50*	5	*12.5*

Like the teachers' responses in the related part of the questionnaire, most of the learners agreed with all these statements. The highest-rated item was that learning about cultures is important and following that the item saying teaching English should focus on helping students to develop an open mind towards unfamiliar cultures was the second highest-rated one. These items also got the most agreed statement in the teachers' questionnaire, as well.

Responses to negative statements are shown in Table 12. For these statements, strongly agree and agree choices were regarded as reflecting negative opinions, and the disagree and strongly disagree choices were considered as positive opinions.

Table 12
Students' responses to negative statements about cultural integration in ELT

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q6	Learning intercultural competence is important only if it is necessary (e.g., travelling)	8	*20*	19	*47.5*	2	*5*	5	*12.5*	6	*15*
Q7	Students should learn about intercultural competence only when there are international students in the classes.	17	*42.5*	13	*32.5*	2	*5*	2	*5*	6	*15*

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q8	Language and culture cannot be taught in an integrated way. You have to separate the two.	6	*15*	16	*40*	12	*30*	4	*10*	2	*5*

Similar to the teachers, students also mostly disagreed with these negative statements about cultural integration. The most disagreed statement was the one saying learning intercultural competence is important only if it is necessary (e.g., travelling).

Students were also asked whether their teachers were teaching them the cultures of NESs or both NESs and NNESs in their classes. Table 13 presents their responses in this respect.

Table 13
Students' views towards teachers' cultural teaching

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Not Sure		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Q11	My teachers talk to us about their own experiences in the English-speaking countries	1	*2.5*	7	*17.5*	10	*25*	15	*37.5*	7	*17.5*
Q12	My teachers ask us about our experiences in English-speaking countries.	1	*2.5*	3	*7.5*	6	*15*	27	*67.5*	3	*7.5*
Q14	My teachers ask us to compare an aspect of our own culture with that aspect in English-speaking cultures.	2	*5*	0	*0*	4	*10*	23	*57.5*	11	*27.5*
Q15	My teachers use pictures, videos, etc. to introduce us to other cultures.	2	*5*	0	*0*	0	*0*	19	*47.5*	19	*47.5*
Q16	My teachers decorate my classroom with posters illustrating particular aspects of different cultures around the world.	1	*2.5*	10	*25*	18	*45*	4	*10*	7	*17.5*

The findings in Table 13 demonstrate that students mostly agreed that their teachers did most of the activities listed in the questionnaire, yet there were some students who answered "disagree" most especially in the items saying that their teachers talk to them about their own experiences in the English-speaking countries. Several students chose "not sure" and expressed their disagreement regarding the idea that the teachers decorate their classrooms about the cultures around the world which means that they didn't think teachers decorated the classroom with adequate materials to expose them to different cultures.

During the focus group interviews, the students were asked to indicate their preferences for teachers when it comes to culture teaching inside an English language classroom. Since they didn't have experience having a native speaker teacher, the responses weren't categorized according to native and non-native English teachers. Their responses are shown in Table 14.

Table 14
Students' preferences for teachers in terms of culture teaching

Categories/Themes	**Code Frequencies**
Students' preferences for teachers in terms of culture teaching	40
A. Comparing and contrasting cultures	*13*
B. Reading news or stories	*5*
C. Students sharing their experiences	*2*
D. Teachers sharing their experiences	*8*
E. Use of visual images, audios, and videos	*8*
F. Other	*4*
No preference	4

The themes that emerged frequently were the method of comparing and contrasting cultures, teachers sharing their experiences, and the use of visual images, audios, and videos. Students responding to the first theme mostly stated that "*they tend to mention the difference between other cultures from their own local culture, but also focus on their own culture without having to mention others.*" This response is also noteworthy that they teach culture by displaying the similarities and differences between the various cultures in the world. They are all able to teach their lessons through this style. While a number of student respondents said that their teachers make use of instructional aids and materials in terms of culture teaching.

DISCUSSION

This study aims to know the teacher and student perspectives on intercultural awareness regarding ownership of English and cultural integration in English language classes in the Philippines. The research questions were presented and analyzed through the perspectives of English language teachers and senior high school students.

With the data gathered, it is found that teachers show a positive perspective toward ownership of the English language. These findings support the study of Byram and Wagner (2018) which claims that language teaching must include intercultural communicative competence that must be developed in both teachers and students. Moreover, it could also be noted that the results might be influenced by the social demographics of the participants. This is further supported by the study of Moore and Diaz (2019) which highlights that teachers' interpretations and approaches were influenced by their teaching and learning histories. It is also a good indicator that despite the neocolonial effects of language and culture in the Philippines, both students and teachers are gearing toward openness to other cultures and developing more intercultural awareness.

However, when asked about which culture they wanted to be exposed to in their English language classroom, students and teachers' preferences did not match for even though the teachers want to expose the class to the cultures of both NES and NNES, most of the students prefer the culture of NES. This result is in line with the study of Martin (2014) that the teaching approaches that were introduced and continuously utilized in the English language classroom persist in the reliance on native-speaker norms. With regard to their accent preference, most of the student-respondents chose the accent of both NES and NNES with the highest scores for practical reasons and broadening their horizons. Meanwhile, it could also be taken into consideration that there are still a number of students who preferred the NES accent.

On the other hand, concerning cultural integration in English language education, there was a high level of agreement with the positive statements and a high level of disagreement with the negative statements about cultural integration in ELT. This could mean that both teachers and students have positive views toward cultural integration. Moreover, there is a high preference for exposing the culture of NES and NNES in the classroom. It could also be noted that while teachers use the strategies of sharing their own cultural knowledge and experience with the students and asking students to share their experiences; students, on the other hand, have a high preference for comparing and contrasting cultures. Also, some of them still prefer knowing the sharing of their teachers' experiences and even using visual images, audios, and videos in culture integration in teaching.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of assessing language teachers' and learners' knowledge of language ownership and cultural integration must be carefully and consciously considered when determining the kinds of skills, attitudes, and content knowledge required for effective intercultural language teaching and learning. Indeed, English should be a channel that allows us to progress toward global exchange, bond, and solidarity within and among the different institutions in our society at large. This will only be possible by catering to the needs and demands of non-native English speakers through intercultural awareness.

The findings of the study faced certain limitations such as the number of respondents, alongside their respective demographic and social profiles. With these limitations, it is recommended that there should be an increased number of participants for more reliable results. Also, knowing the intercultural awareness of both teachers and students should not just be limited to a private institution for it could be a good study to know the perspectives of both public and private educational institutions and see if there might be a possible comparison and relationship. This could further help the status of the teachers and students in an ESL setting. Additionally, through classroom observations, a more detailed interpretation could be provided to check the perceptions of the ownership of English and intercultural awareness of the participants. Lastly, another recommendation is on materials development for English language learners, as it is a need for senior high school learners to be exposed to instructional materials integrating intercultural knowledge and awareness.

REFERENCES

Adlit, M. F. (2022). Harmonizing materials and practices of senior high school teachers: A conceptual paradigm for contextualization across K12 curriculum. *Puissant, 3*, 488-502. https://www.ssoar.info/ssoar/bitstream/handle/document/78590/ssoar-puissant-2022-adlit-Harmonizing_Materials_and_Practices_of.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y&lnkname=ssoar-puissant-2022-adlit-Harmonizing_Materials_and_Practices_of.pdf

Baker, W. (2015). Research into practice: Cultural and intercultural awareness. *Language Teaching, 48*(1), 130-141. 10.1017/S0261444814000287

Bhowmik, S. K. (2015). World Englishes and English language teaching: A pragmatic and humanistic approach. *Colomb. Appl. Linguist. J., 17*(1), 142-157. https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.1.a10

Byram, M., & Wagner, M. (2018). Making a difference: Language teaching for intercultural and international dialogue. *Foreign Language Annals, 51*(1), 140-151. http://0-dx.doi.org.lib1000.dlsu.edu.ph/10.1111/flan.12319

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2005). Mixed methods research: Developments, debates, and dilemmas. *Research in Organizations: Foundations and Methods of Inquiry, 2*, 315-326.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage publications.

Dhami, B. (2022). Global Englishes in ELT: Unpacking university English teachers' perceptions in Bangladesh. *THAITESOL Journal, 35*(1), 91-112.

Dypedahl, M. (2022). Exploring the systematic use of intercultural encounters in the English. In M. Dypedahl (Ed.), *Moving English language teaching forward* (pp. 91–115). Cappelen Damm Akademisk. https://doi.org/10.23865/noasp.166.ch5

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4.

Gimenez, T. (2001). ETS and ELT: Teaching a world language. *ELT Journal, 55*(3), 296-297. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.3.296

Gu, X. (2016). Assessment of intercultural communicative competence in FL education: A survey on EFL teachers' perception and practice in China. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 16*(2), 254-273. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2015.1083575

Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field Methods, 18*(1), 3-20. https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05282260

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 157-181. https://doi.org/10.2307/40264515

Kachru, B. (1992). World Englishes: Approaches, issues and resources. *Language Teaching, 25*(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444800006583

Kachru, B. B., Kachru, Y., & Nelson, C. L. (Eds.). (2009). *The handbook of World Englishes* (Vol. 48). John Wiley & Sons.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2018). English in multilingual settings: Features, roles and implications. In *Reconceptualizing English education in a multilingual society* (pp. 15-28). Springer, Singapore.

Li, Y. (2016). Intercultural awareness in foreign language teaching: A Chinese perspective. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 7*(4), 768-772. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0704.18

Martin, I. P. (2014). English language teaching in the Philippines. *World Englishes, 33*(4), 472-485.

Martin, I. P. (Ed.). (2018). *Reconceptualizing English education in a multilingual society: English in the Philippines* (Vol. 13). Springer.

Masangcay, G. G. (2022). Cultural identity: Contextualizing and scaffolding language learning process. *International Journal of Advanced Research and Publications*, 58-62.

Moore, P. J., & Díaz, A. (2019). Conceptualizing language, culture and intercultural communication in higher education languages programs. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 42*(2), 192-213.

Oranje, J., & Smith, L. F. (2018). Language teacher cognitions and intercultural language teaching: The New Zealand perspective. *Language Teaching Research, 22*(3), 310-329.

Rahmatillah, R., Rahma, E. A., Jakfar, A. E., & Oktavinanda, G. (2022). Current challenges and benefits of teaching World Englishes. *EnJourMe (English Journal of Merdeka): Culture, Language, and Teaching of English, 7*(1).

Vadivel, B., Khalil, N. R., Tilwani, S. A., & Mandal, G. (2022). The educational and psychological need for learning the English language and understanding the different anxieties. *Education Research International, 2022*. https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/4679788

Wa-Mbaleka, S. (2014). Teaching English to speakers of other languages: The case of the Philippines. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, 3*(3), 64-78. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v3-i3/952

Widodo, H. P., Fang, F., & Elyas, T. (2022). Designing English language materials from the perspective of Global Englishes. *Asian Englishes*, 1-13.

Yilmaz, B., & Ozkan, Y. (2016). An investigation into English language instructors' and students' intercultural awareness. *The Qualitative Report, 21*(10), 1932-1959. http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol21/iss10/12

Challenges and Attitudes towards Using English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in the General Education Courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University

Preeyapha Wangmanee*
preeyapha.bis@crru.ac.th
Faculty of Humanities, Chiang Rai Rajabhat University

Worapon Toopmongkol
Ing_worrapol@crru.ac.th
Faculty of Humanities, Chiang Rai Rajabhat University

Abstract

The adoption of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in Thailand's higher education has become widespread to meet the demands of both domestic and international labor markets, which require graduates with strong English communication skills. To address market needs, numerous international programs, including the English for International Communication (International Program) at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University, have incorporated the EMI approach into their plans and policies. However, implementing EMI does not guarantee immediate success and presents challenges for non-native lecturers, especially in content-based classrooms. This study aims to investigate lecturers' attitudes and perspectives on the challenges of using EMI in General Education Courses. A qualitative research method employing a purposive sampling technique was employed, utilizing a focus group interview with six lecturers responsible for teaching the general education courses in the EIC curriculum. Thematic and descriptive content analysis were applied to examine the interview data. The findings revealed positive attitudes among lecturers towards the use of EMI and provided reflections and suggestions for future classroom practices. Moreover, the study highlights the need for developing language policies in the EMI context and incorporating them into professional development plans and curriculum development in Thailand's higher education institutions.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, General education, Challenge, Attitudes

INTRODUCTION

Internationalization is currently a high priority for universities in Thailand, and English Medium Instruction (EMI) has emerged as a key focus in various contexts, particularly in the field of educational business. The English language plays a crucial role in facilitating international communication and advancing professional development, which has led to the widespread popularity and global growth of EMI programs, particularly in higher education (Macaro et al., 2018). Dearden (2014) defines EMI as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries where the first language (L1) is not English." EMI has been found to enhance overall learner competence in English language skills, improve self-confidence, and enhance competitiveness in the job market (Yilin, 2021). In Thailand, there are currently 884 international programs at the higher education level that employ EMI (Lingrui & Maneerat, 2017; 226). However, it is important to note that the implementation of EMI can vary across Thai universities due to differences in administration and policy, resulting in different characteristics and realities of EMI across institutions.

Previous research on the use of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in international programs in Thailand includes studies conducted by Sirinthorn et al. (2021), who investigated the use of EMI in the Mechanical Engineering program at Suranaree University of Technology; Nipapat et al. (2022), who studied a partial EMI nursing program at Suranaree University of Technology; and Lingrui & Maneerat (2017), who examined teachers' beliefs and practices regarding EMI at Mae Fah Luang University. These studies have revealed the benefits of EMI in enhancing students' English proficiency while learning subject content. However, both content lecturers and students face numerous challenges and limitations, such as a lack of time to prepare teaching materials in English, limitations in teaching techniques, and practical implications. Macaro et al. (2018) highlights the significant barrier of inadequate English language proficiency, which hinders students' comprehension of content knowledge, particularly in complex or technical topics due to insufficient language skills and linguistic differences between the students' first language (L1) and English. On the other hand, effective pedagogical practices are considered crucial for successful EMI instruction, as emphasized by Chen, Han, & Wright (2020). In addition to English proficiency and second language (L2) instructional skills, EMI instructors must possess academic practice instruction skills. They need to understand the needs of their students, provide constructive classroom instruction, design creative learning environments, implement effective approaches to lesson organization, and assist students in achieving a deeper understanding of the subject matter. Challenges to the implementation of EMI also include a lack of proper EMI training and inadequate institutional or stakeholder support (Sirinthorn et al., 2021).

Background of EMI implementation in the EIC curriculum at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University

The English for International Communication (EIC) International Program at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University has been revised and developed to meet the needs of labor markets and target learners from both Thailand and abroad, along with the rapid changes in the world of technology and a society without borders where people can communicate more widely than in the past with a new way of life (the "New Normal"). People in this era need more language skills, and borderless communication requires people to learn a second and third language. Of course, English is considered one of the world's communication tools that we can use globally. Looking ahead 5–10 years to meet international needs and the opportunity to get a job after graduating, it is a huge challenge to develop curriculum to meet the international standard in the labor market, which is becoming highly competitive in the education business. These competitions require people with language ability and cultural knowledge. Therefore, the EIC curriculum focuses on promoting the quality of graduates' knowledge and ability to use English in a multicultural context. Access to more international markets provides a competitive advantage and increases readiness to enter the labor market, which aligns with the university's mission of producing graduates with academic and professional competence. In order to prepare students for their futures, EMI has been implemented into the EIC curriculum to clarify the internationalization of the curriculum itself. In terms of curriculum development planning, the university has been closely focused on the human resource management and quality of lecturers, especially for the general education courses of the curriculum. The university provided an intensive training course on the 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project, for three weeks (from May 21st to June 12th, 2022) in Melbourne, Australia, that curriculum lecturers and general education course lecturers were required to fully participate in to prepare and serve the quality of the curriculum and the improvement of teaching strategies needed. All lecturers have received an orientation on the course they are teaching on the new EIC curriculum in order to understand the concept of using EMI; therefore, everyone is on the same page. In regard to the EIC students' characteristics, currently, there are three types of student population. 1) EIC first-year student classroom consisting of a total of 21 Thais, 1 Chinese, and 2 Nigerians 2) 30 Myanmar MOU students from Shan State, and 3) 13 Chinese MOU students from China.

English-medium of instruction (EMI)

English-Medium Instruction (EMI) refers to the teaching method that uses English as the medium of instruction in all subject-matter classrooms. Many universities English teachers utilize this approach. For instance, teachers may provide students with articles to read and analyze, using English as the primary means of communication. Teachers can organize warm-up activities, distribute handouts, provide word banks, and engage students in discussions to facilitate their learning. Moreover, successful EMI classrooms employ a variety of techniques and methods for teaching content in English, such as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) teaching techniques, CBI (Content-based Instruction), CBLT (Content-based Language Teaching), EAP (English for Academic Purposes), and English for Specific Purposes. In terms of EMI classroom management, lecturers should possess content knowledge, understand the principles of using EMI, employ effective teaching pedagogy, demonstrate accuracy in voice and body language, facilitate effective content-oriented communication, and employ appropriate teaching structures.

Objectives

1. To investigate the attitude of lecturers towards the use of EMI in General Education courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University
2. To investigate the challenge of using EMI in General Education courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University.

METHODOLOGY

This research used a qualitative research design to investigate the attitudes of lecturers toward the use of EMI for general education courses and the challenges of using EMI in general education courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University.

Informants

The informants were twelve lecturers from the English for International Communication (International Program) curriculum (EIC) who participated in the 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project for three weeks (from May 21st to June 12th, 2022) in Melbourne, Australia. All lecturers are non-natives who have more than 5-10 years of general education course content-based and English teaching experiences. They consist of four assistant professors, three PhDs, and five master's degree holders. A purposive sample was used to gather data involving six lecturers who were responsible for teaching the general education courses of the EIC curriculum and implemented the EMI technique in their classrooms (both their EIC general education and regular classrooms) during the first semester of the academic year 2022 (June–October 2022). The key informants participated on a voluntary basis.

Instruments

A focus group interview and a self-reflective report were employed in this study to investigate EMI's lecturers' attitudes toward using EMI in their general education courses and the challenges of implementing EMI into the general education courses at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University. Semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were designed according to the objective of the study and examined for content validity (IOC) and reliability by three experts from the English teaching field, education, and curriculum development fields. The findings revealed that open-ended questions in the interview form were rated higher than 0.5. This means that the instruments were acceptably congruent with the objective of the study.

Data collection

Data collection was conducted at the end of the first semester of the academic year 2022 in October, 2022. The key informants in this study were those who participated on a volunteer basis. Before arranging an interview session, researchers collected and studied data from the self-reflective reports of 12 participants who participated in the 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project for three weeks (from May 21st to June 12th, 2022) in Melbourne, Australia. Second, researchers coordinated and asked participants to have an interview session. Then, an informal focus group interview with open-ended questions was arranged, allowing participants to express their input to meet the research objectives on the following topics: 1) the implementation of EMI into the classroom; 2) the attitude toward using EMI; 3) the challenge of using EMI in the classroom; and 4) the suggestion for future development. During the interview session, researchers also asked permission to record the audio, and take notes. After that, researchers gathered all the data from the self-reflective report, the interview note, and the interview transcript. The data was then analyzed, synthesized, and summarized using content analysis in thematic format to investigate lecturers' attitudes toward using EMI and their challenges of using EMI in general education courses at CRRU.

RESULTS

1) Self-reflective report

The self-reflective report of 12 lecturers reveals a positive attitude toward the implementation of EMI into the EIC curriculum. The overview of the results of the reflections can be summarized into three categories: the development of language skills, the development of teaching and learning skills, and the benefit of professional development. Firstly, according to the development of language skills, it was pointed out that EMI shows a different perspective of using English in teaching academics with a clearer definition and a focus on communicating and comprehension through different language skills in the classroom, the various techniques that can be used for students, and the process of creating student participation in the classroom without worry about the language limitation for both lecturer and learner. EIC lecturers all stated that they increased their potential and gained more confidence in using English for communication in the classroom. In addition, being able to practice in an atmosphere where English speakers communicate in a foreign country is also very conducive to practicing English skills, as using English in daily life requires communication with people of various nationalities. All of the lecturers' efforts to learn and improve their English language skills were worthwhile. Secondly, in terms of the development of teaching and learning skills, the EIC's lecturers found that emphasizing understanding the context of students is very important in planning instructional management. With an emphasis on knowledge and understanding of the content, students will receive knowledge rather than the correctness of the English language. This is because EMI teaching will focus on teaching content by using English in countries where English is not the official language. In the context of students who come to study in the classroom, they will find that there is cultural diversity. Enhancing the knowledge of the content and increasing the English ability of the learners at the same time will encourage them to learn and pay more attention to learning. So, learning the EMI technique prompted them to be more attentive to the students' well-rounded information and focus on helping students develop their potential in both English and university life in Thailand. Lastly, it considers the benefits of professional development. Professional development is very beneficial for the university and the curriculum in terms of strengthening the quality of the curriculum and needs to be implemented continually. According to the university's 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project, it gives an opportunity for lecturers from different faculties and different fields of expertise to develop their expertise and language skills together. This project allowed all lecturers to learn from each other, get to know each other, and create a good working atmosphere together. In conclusion, the self-reflection report shows all positive feedback; therefore, all lectures have a positive attitude toward the use of EMI in general education courses at CRRU.

2) Focus-group interview

An informal focus group interview was arranged with six lecturers who were responsible for teaching and had all implemented the EMI into the general education courses of the EIC curriculum and their regular courses after participating in the university's 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project. During the interview, all interviewees were eager to share their positive class experiences and opinions on the EMI implementation. All of them strongly agreed that they enjoyed the use of English in teaching and learning with the EMI technique and were confident in using English in the general education subjects they were responsible for teaching. They were enthusiastic about the EMI teaching preparation, and they designed and updated their teaching materials to be more relevant with active-learning strategies; they all stated that English is not a serious impediment to teaching and learning in general education subjects. Thus, it clearly shows that EIC's lecturers have positive attitudes toward the use of EMI in the General Education Course at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University. The result of the interview can be summarized as follows:

2.1 The implementation of EMI in the general education courses

EIC's lecturers have implemented EMI into their classrooms, integrating it with the knowledge they gained from participating in the university's 21st Century Teaching and Learning Professional Development Training Project. There were seven subjects: 1) Digital Technology for Communication and Learning; 2) Thai for Communication in the 21st Century 3) Exercise for life; 4) The King's Philosophy 5) Law in Daily Life, 6) Good citizen, and 7) Creative Aesthetics. For teaching strategies, the lecturers inform students about the overall approach to teaching and learning, including the duration of study, so that students know the process and methods of organizing their own learning as well. They considered the needs of the students and tried to make pedagogical choices to reach the students' language needs, and they used different ways to present new vocabulary from the course content, with design slides and visuals in English. A reminder or repeated speech was used so that the students could absorb it and make it a routine. They identify the main topics and ideas in the selected text that contribute to the lesson and prioritize conversation more, listening more, and discussing before writing activities. In addition, they still have the limitation of having to keep following the same pattern for each step consistently due to the time-consuming activities, too much content, and extra activities.

2.2 The attitude toward EMI for the general education course

According to the interview results, when asking EIC's lecturers how they felt when they were assigned as lecturers for teaching a general education course of the English for International Communication (EIC) Program, all responses showed the lecturers' positive attitudes. They were proud and honored to be a part of the university's reputation and development. They were very pleased to have a great opportunity to strengthen their skills and abilities in different ways and genuinely believed that they had developed challenging knowledge and abilities that they could apply to their teaching and learning. In terms of the strengths of the EMI teaching and learning strategies used in the general education course subjects of the EIC curriculum, all of EIC's lecturers mentioned that the English language used is the strongest part of the curriculum, followed by the implementation of active learning in every subject and the flexibility based on both students' and lecturers' understanding and development. Moving on to what impresses EIC's lecturers the most about EMI teaching and learning, it seemed that the increased student interaction and participation in the classroom impressed them the most. The students seemed to be more active with all active learning activities; however, they also mentioned that it takes a lot of energy to prepare the lesson and arrange the lesson. They pointed out that active learning is difficult for the large classroom to manage as well.

2.3 The challenge of using EMI in the general education classroom

In regard to the challenge of using EMI in the classroom, after one semester of experience, most mentioned the classroom population with various types of students in terms of different English proficiency levels, cultural and background knowledge of students from different majors in one classroom, the difficulty of the content itself, time management, and student awareness and understanding of the course and its information provided, respectively. However, since the lecturers fully understand the concept and principles of the EMI, which focuses more on the communicative than the language structure, they all agreed that their English abilities are not considered an obstacle for teaching and learning management of the lecturer. Nevertheless, the intelligibility between lecturers and students should be a greater focus, followed by the mix of language proficiency in the classroom, time management, and the energy of the lecturer themselves. Some of the lecturers admit that they still use Thai during the class.

Moreover, challenge is inevitable when EIC's lecturers try to implement EMI and active-learning activities in a large classroom in a normal general education class with non-major students. Many limitations occurred, such as students' participation in classroom activities, the language difficulty in the classroom, and the learning styles of students from different study fields and cultural backgrounds. As a result, they seek appropriate techniques for managing learning in large classrooms for effective student learning with a variety of activities other than lecture and power point presentation, such as games, use of collage, bundling technique, structure overview activity, and arranging a field trip to the university's library or art exhibition hall so that students can learn outside the classroom. While teaching, they used language that is easy for learners to understand and increased group work, discussion activities, and speaking activities that allow students to practice speaking and focus more on comprehension.

According to the intelligibility, EIC's lecturers were aware of the different student language abilities and learning styles. They didn't have any concerns about the Myanmar students because this group of students were able to communicate effectively in English and fully participate and interact in class. The major concern was directed directly at Thai students with different English abilities and their characteristics, who still prefer to present themselves as passive learners. Code-switching was used frequently in the classroom to make sure that they fully understood the content. One of the challenges is with Chinese students because of the linguistic differences between their and their teachers' first languages (L1) and what they consider English to be their third language (L3). Most of the lecturers except that they were identify and take their role as a mixed between the explainer and involver, not yet the enabler. Even though the textbook, the media, and the presentation were all in English, and lecturers used English, some students still did not meet the requirement and the teacher's expectation. Moreover, due to the COVID-19 circumstances, sometimes the class had to switch to the online classroom, which had an effect on lesson management and did not allow students to practice properly. Referring to the course subject "The King's Philosophy" it was pointed out that due to the characteristics of the course, the content deals with specific content on the king's philosophy, technical terms, and official language, so the lecturer has to make sure that the students fully understand the technical term vocabularies. In addition, with the subject "Law in Daily Life" not being available in the first semester of academic year 2022 of the EIC curriculum, the lecturer tries to implement EMI and active-learning into one of his general courses for non-EIC students in the law subject and expresses that the character of the course itself limits the active-learning activities.

2.4) The suggestion for future development

The suggestion for future developments is as followed. First, for effective implementation of EMI, it is recommended that subjects such as mathematics, science, and social studies also incorporate EMI on a continuous basis, as this will not only enhance language proficiency but also facilitate deeper conceptual understanding. Second, to support teachers in developing their English language skills and pedagogical expertise, the university should consider offering specialized courses or workshops specifically designed to improve their ability to use English effectively in the classroom, ensuring a strong foundation for successful EMI implementation. Next, the periodic training courses should be scheduled twice a year, aligning with the academic calendar, to allow lecturers to further develop their EMI skills, exchange best practices, and address any emerging challenges or changes in the curriculum. Then, to address language comprehension issues, EIC lecturers can employ various strategies such as reviewing key lesson content more frequently, providing clear topic outlines to aid student preparation, maintaining a consistent teaching structure, and dedicating time to address and improve language errors that may impede understanding. Lastly, drawing from the work of Kao and Wang (2014), it is recommended that EIC lecturers utilize simple vocabulary, focusing on direct experiences and using professional language sparingly, to ensure learners can grasp and apply language concepts effectively. Emphasizing clear communication and connecting simple yet balanced concepts will contribute to achieving the communication objectives. In addition, hopefully the findings of this study can provide some guidelines for any school in an institution interested in employing the EMI approach in their plans and policies. But it is recommended to explore all stakeholder needs and opinions, then implement in accordance with the context of their school or university.

DISCUSSION

Implementing EMI in the general education courses at CRRU relies heavily on the development of well-structured, coherent professional development programs that are designed with a clear understanding of how lecturers should utilize EMI in their classrooms for the most effective way. This study's findings are very similar to those of Macaro et al. (2018) and Chen, Han, and Wright (2020), who also discovered that inadequate language skills and linguistic differences between students' first languages (L1) and English present a significant challenge for EMI programs. When students lack sufficient English skills, it is difficult for them to comprehend content knowledge, especially when it involves a complex topic or technical term. Consequently, lecturers in their respective fields must be proficient in pedagogical content knowledge as well as integrated language learning content. Because the content of the general course is more specific and deals with technical terms, EIC's lecturers should study and emerge up with strategies for reducing language errors related to Kao and Wang (2014), who noted that simple vocabulary should be used, with 85 percent of the basic language originating from direct experience and 15 percent of the professional language used to create learning for the learners. The study also revealed that the advantages of an English-only environment are consistent with university policy, but researchers discovered that some EMI lecturers are concerned with ensuring that their instruction meets the requirements to policy requirements. There is a perception that students are "guaranteed" that the course will be taught in English, and references to the university's "English-only" policy achievement further investigation. The limitations of this study include the absence of observations and an investigation of institutional policies and student' responses to compare with teachers' responses; therefore, it should be conducted for further research.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. A long-term study is necessary to examine trends and developments in the subject, encompassing various stages such as education at different academic year levels or per semester, as well as specific courses for in-depth analysis.
2. A qualitative, in-depth study should be provided to fully understand what is happening so that the results can be used as a solution or a guideline for future course management and administration plans and policies.
3. It should have a study on the students' attitudes and perspectives as well to confirm the effectiveness of the EMI on student learning outcomes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is considered as a part of curriculum development of the English for International Communication (International Program), The Western Languages Program, Faculty of Humanities at Chiang Rai Rajabhat University.

REFERENCES

Chen, H., Han, J., & Wright, D. (2020). *An investigation of lecturers' teaching through English medium of instruction-A case of higher education in China Sustainability, 12*(10), 4046.

Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon*. British Council.

Jiang. Y. (2021). *Investigating Thai University Learners' Attitudes towards English as a Medium of Instruction*. Thesis. Mahasarakram University.

Kao, Shin-Mei, & Wang, Wen-Chun (2014). Lexical and organizational features in novice and experienced ELF presentations. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca, 3*(1), 49-79. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2014-0003

Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium interaction in higher education. *Language Teaching, 51*(1), 36-76.

Pomat, N., Jannok, A., Buripakdi, A., & Wiliang, J. D. (2022). Partial EMI nursing program: Insights from student and teachers in Thailand. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 12*(7), 1386-1396. http://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1207.19

Sahan, K., Galloway, N., & McKinley, J. (2022). 'English-only' English medium instruction: Mixed view in Thai and Vietnamese higher education. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211072632

Schmidt, N. A., & Brown, J. M. (2017). *Evidence-based practice for nurses: Appraisal and application of research* (4th ed.). Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC.

Sripho, S., Jampaket, T., Ngamjatturat, T., & Noophong, S. (2021) *English-Medium Instruction: SUT Sci-tech classes (Engineer)*. Research report. Suranaree University of Technology.

Xu, L., & Chuaychoowong, M. (2017). *A case study of teachers; beliefs and practice with English-Medium Instruction (EMI) at Mae Fah Luang University*. Online proceeding of the International Conference: DRAL 3/19th ESEA 2017. 264-279.

APPENDIX 1

Examples of type I activities

1. target word: **duty**
As a high school student, it is your ( ) to attend your class regularly, finish your homework on time, and actively participate in class activities. It is also your ( ) to ask questions when you don't understand something.

2. target word: **statistics**
( ) is a way to understand what is going on in the world. If you can read graphs, charts, and tables correctly, the skills will help you better grasp the situations. The internet provides a lot of data on various subjects, but only those who have studied ( ) can look at them critically.

3. target word: **ancient**
The pyramids in Egypt were built thousands of years ago. They are as tall as modern buildings, and nobody knows exactly how they were made. People are always curious about what they cannot explain. That is why many people love stories about ( ) times. When you have a look at a list of popular travel destinations, you find the names of the ruins of ( ) cities.

Appendix 2

Examples of type I quiz questions

4. target word: **contain**
A) This stylish water bottle can ( ) different types of drinks, such as water, juice, or even soda. However, it's important to note that metal bottles may not be suitable for acidic liquids as they can cause food poisoning. This new product is designed to be compatible with a range of beverages, including juice and soda. The bottle can ( ) any drink of your choice.
B) These cleaning products should be kept out of reach of children as they ( ) harmful chemicals.

5. target word: **tiny**
A) The caterpillar was on a leaf of the plant when I noticed a ladybug on another leaf. Even though it was ( ), the ladybug's bright red and black colors stood out against the green leaves
B) I made a ( ) mistake at the beginning of my math homework, but it caused a big problem. I had to do everything from the very beginning of the problem.

6. target word: **precious**
A) My grandmother gave me a ( ) necklace that has been passed down through generations of our family. I felt very proud of having it around my neck.
B) I spent one whole week with my parents at a resort hotel in Hawaii when I was 55 years old. We talked for a long time about what happened to us in the old days. Both of them passed away, but I often remember the ( ) time with them on the remote island.

Word bank

embarrass precious cruel contain tiny predict anxious attention

Textuality in ISI and Non-ISI Mathematics Research Article Introductions: A Genre Analysis

Mobina Rahnama
mobina.rahnama@ibrict.edu.om; mobina.rahnama@gmail.com
English Language Centre, University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Ibri, Oman

Fazlolah Samimi
fazl.samimi67@gmail.com
Department of English, Bandar Abbas Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas, Iran

Vahid Yarahmadi
Department of English, Bandar Abbas Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas, Iran

---

Abstract

Recently publishing articles in academic journals has become a universal and strong desire for all researchers. However, there is an extensive belief based on which more degree and quality is given to Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) research articles. A question raised in this regard is whether the ISI research articles have noticeable difference from non-ISI ones, in terms of content and rhetorical styles, regarding a move analysis perspective. The aim of this study was to seek differences between the frequency of rhetorical moves /sub-moves employed in ISI and non-ISI mathematical RA introduction sections and seeking a model for mathematics RA introductions according to Nwogu's (1997) model for RA introductions. To achieve this purpose, the researchers applied a genre analysis on the 90 randomly selected mathematics RA introductions in two groups, ISI and non-ISI mathematics research articles, published between 2007- 2018. The results of Chi-Square, Mann-Whitney U-test, and correlational tests showed that the moves and sub-moves have been used in relatively similar manner in both groups of articles except in sub-move 2, and sub-move 6. The implications are achieving a better learning of academic writing, implementing more effective instructing academic writing sessions by EFL/ESL teachers and lecturers, designing a curriculum that leads from more spoken to more written modes by ESP (English for Specific Purpose) and EAP (English for Academic Purpose) curriculum designers.

Keywords: Move/Genre analysis, Mathematical ISI/Non-ISI articles, Introduction sections, ESP/EAP

INTRODUCTION

Many recent studies have focused on cohesion and coherence in different types of writing. Lee (2002) stated that haphazard meaning is transferred by an incoherent text. About the main factors that make a text coherent, Lee (2002) pointed to (a) cohesion (b) metadiscourse (c) information structure (d) macrostructure, and (e) propositional relationships.

Recently there has been growing interest in the overall organization of RAs. Swales (1990), Nwogu (1997), Holmes (1997), Hopkin and Dudley Evanes (1998), Peacock (2002), Kanoksilapatham (2005), tried to provide a model for RAs writing.

According to Flowerdew and Wan (2009) move analysis is important for pedagogical goal because it can effect development of teaching writing skills.

According to Samraj (2008), recent studies in ESP have focused on the writing of students, mainly concentrating on decisive genres of doctoral dissertations and theses of master students and to a lesser extent focusing on writing of undergraduate students. Since the work of Swales (1981) and his later (1990, 2004) researches on the rhetorical move analysis of introduction of research articles and presenting frameworks for writing introduction section of RAs, genre analysis became a very good instrument for text analyzing and there has been noticeable interest in using the presented model to other kinds of texts for the fact that text analysis "provides insights into important characteristics of genres" (Lee & Harrington, 2015, p. 45).

Within ESP genre analysis, there is limited number of study in the field of writing of mathematics. Artemeva and Fox (2011) searched the genre of writing that were used in the under graduated level mathematics teaching, and Lin and Evans (2012, p. 157) cited that there were not major structural models that repeat frequently in the applied mathematical RAs.

In the development of mathematics knowledge, scientific productivity of researchers and university professors is measured by number of articles that they have published in national and international English journals, specifically ISI journals.

Some researchers (Holmes, 1997; BerkenKotter & Hakin, 1995; Peacock, 2002) worked on rhetorical moves in different sections of various disciplines, yet there are few studies on the ISI and non-ISI mathematics research article introductions; moreover, no attention was paid to seeking a model for mathematics RA introductions writing, and rhetorical differences between ISI and non-ISI RA introductions.

The findings of this study show if there are significant differences between the moves/sub-moves employments in the two groups of articles. In general, the results of the present study can be beneficial for mathematical students to better learning of academic writing, academic writing teachers to more effective instructing, curriculum designers to design a curriculum that leads from more spoken to more written modes.

The present study aimed to investigate differences between the frequency of rhetorical moves/sub-moves employed in mathematics RA introductions published in ISI and non-ISI journals, and sought a model for mathematics ISI and non-ISI RA introductions.

Concerning the objectives of the study, the following questions were formulated:

1. Is there any significant difference between ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs regarding the frequency of each individual moves/sub-moves employed in their introduction sections?
2. Is there any significant difference between ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs regarding the overall frequency of moves/sub-moves employed in the introduction sections?
3. Is there any linear relationship between ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs regarding the overall frequency of moves/sub-moves used in their Introduction sections?

The given questions above are changed to the following directional hypotheses:

Hypothesis1: There is no significant difference between the frequency of each individual move/sub-move used in the introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs.

Hypothesis2: There is no significant difference between the overall frequencies of move/sub-move used in the introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs.

Hypothesis3: There is no significant correlation between the overall frequency of the moves as well as the sub-moves used in introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematical RAs.

According to Bawarishi and Reiff (2010) the meaning of genre has been observed in various ideas that has been expressed by different traditions, and mainly meaning is a device of maintaining "type" of "class" of texts that work dynamically to generate various discourse actions.

Martin (1992, p. 2), defines genre as “a category that describes the relation of the social purpose of text to language structure”. Swales (2004, p. 29) referred to the ‘move’ in genre analysis as “a discoursal or rhetorical unit that perform a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse”. Yang and Allison (2003) defines “move” as “captures the function and purpose of a segment of text at a more general level, while step spells out more specifically the rhetorical means of realizing the function of move” (p. 370).

Nwogu (1997) referred to move as “a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meaning, proposition at meanings illocutionary force, etc.) which give the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content of discourse in it” (p. 122) in continue Nwogu (1997) argues that moves are established outlines, including hierarchically arranged knowledge constructions and their constitutional components are sub-moves. Skelton (1994) defines that moves are logical established forms which are parts of their unconscious information which could be distinguished by analyze of move structure.

In order to construct models and materials, ESP/EAP (English for Academic Purpose) tried to analyze the moves and sub-moves or kinds of information in each text for describing texts of different disciplines.

In this study, in order to compare introduction sections of mathematics RAs, the present study seeks the rhetorical differences existing between two groups of 90 mathematics RAs randomly selected from ISI and non-ISI journals in English published between 2007 and 2018, through genre analyzing relaying on the framework introduced by Nwogu (1997).

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Studies analyzing genre types

Swales (1990) developed a CARS (create a research space) model (table 1), this model represents a number of properties of RA introduction sections.

Table 1
The CARS model for RA introduction sections (Swales, 1990, p. 141)

Move 1	Establishing a territory	
	Step 1	Claiming centrality
		And/or
	Step 2	Making topic generalizations
		And/or
	Step 3	Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2	Establishing a niche	
	Step 1A	Counter-claiming
		or
	Step 1B	Indicating a gap
		or
	Step 1C	Question-raising
		Or
	Step 1D	Continuing a tradition
Move 3	Occupying the niche	
	Step 1A	Outlining purposes

Much research has been done on models of organization of RAs. Swales(1981) presented four move analysis frameworks for introduction sections, later (1990, 1991) developed the create research space (CARS) model that help researchers to identify common moves for specific genres and researchers use the CARS model to write introduction section of research articles, and this model tried to define genre which briefly can be presented as special forms of discourse which shared style, structure, intended audience, and content that a specific discourse community used in order to achieve clear communicative goal through socio-rhetorical activities of writing. Then a functional framework developed by Martin (1992) and his students, and the meaning of 'genres' defined as "staged, goal oriented social process structural forms that cultures use in certain contexts to achieve various purposes". Nwogu (1997) presented a model for writing an introduction section of medical research articles.

Some researchers have explored how genres varied across disciplines (e.g Swales & Najjar, 1987; Samraj, 2002; Safouri, 2009; Khany, 2016; Zand Moghadam & Mihami, 2016) while some others have focused on variation of genres across cultural and linguistic community (Connor, 1996; Soodmand Afshar & Ranjbar, 2017; Noorizadeh-Honami & Chalak, 2018).

Many researchers worked on organizational patterns of RAs. There are works on the result section (Brett, 1994), introduction section (Nwogu,1997; Samraj, 2005, 2008; Kawase, 2018), abstracts (e.g Behnam & Golpour, 2014; Omidian, Shahriari et al. 2018), discussion section (Holmes,1997; Hopkin & Dudly Evans, 1998; Liu & Buckingham, 2018), titles (Soler, 2007, in selected disciplines of social sciences and biological sciences), and conclusion section (Jahangard, Rajabi-Kondlaji et al. , 2014). There are works on all sections (Kanoksilpatham, 2005, in biochemistry; Stoller & Robinson, 2013).

Nwogu (1997), sought the moves used in various sections of medical RAs, using Swales (1981, 1990) genre analysis framework (model). Nwogu (1997, p. 120) claims, his paper illustrates moves with greater linguistic depth and is more precise than others.

Table 2
Moves/sub-moves of three sections of medical RAs presented by Nwogu (1997, p. 120)

Introduction
Move 1: Presenting background information:
1. Reference to established knowledge of the field
2. Reference to main research problems
Move 2: Reviewing related research:
1. Reference to previous research
2. Reference to limitations of previous research
Move 3: Presenting new research:
1. Reference to research purpose
2. Reference to main research procedure
Methods
Move 4: Describing data collection procedure:
1. Indicating source of data
2. Indicating data size
3. Indicating criteria for data collection research
Move 5: Describing experimental procedure:
1. Identification of main research apparatus
2. Recounting experimental process
3. Indicating criteria for success

Move 6: Describing data analysis procedures:
1. Defining terminologies
2. Indicating process of data classification
3. Identifying analytical instrument procedure
Results
Move 7: Indicating consistent observation:
1. Highlighting overall observation
2. Indicating specific observations
3. Accounting for observations made
Move 8: Indicating non-consistent observations

Sayfouri (2009) compared the rhetorical moves of introduction and discussion sections of medical RAs published in ISI and non-ISI journals in English by means of ESP move analysis of 2 groups of 32 Iranian RAs published in ISI and non-ISI medical journals, relaying on Nwogu's (1997) model. The results showed that moves and sub-moves in the introduction and discussion sections of medical RAs published in ISI and non-ISI journals, are used quite similar frequencies. However, they compared introductions and discussions of medical ISI and non-ISI RAs, yet they did not present a model to describe introduction and discussion sections of medical RAs.

2. Studies on genre/move analysis of mathematics RAs

Mathematics is a neglected discipline, from an ESP view. Swales (1998) searched imperatives in mathematical RAs. And (Graves, Moghadasi & Hashim, 2013; 2014, McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012; Kuteeva & McGrath, 2014) have provided a more elaborated study of RAs. Graves et al. (2013) searched for overall construction of mathematical RAs and found that an "Introduction-results" organization is so mated to mathematical RAs, but IMRD is not adopted. Recently some papers (Graves, Moghaddasi & Hashim, 2013; Kuteeva & Mcgrath, 2015) have presented description about structure of RAs. Kuteeva and Mcgrath (2015) used the term "contextual background section" in order to explain sections of RAs, while Graves et al. (2013) identified "complementary introduction" sections including some introduction moves and sub-moves.

According to Kuteeva and Mcgrath (2015), in mathematics RAs, the overall organization of sections seems to be relatively non-standardized. While for the theoretical RAs, include at least a prototypical structure, a proof and opening section is not easy to establish. Graves et al. (2013) found that mathematics RA sections can be classified as "Introduction-result" organization and not match with IMRD structure. The fluid specification of mathematics RAs can help to adapt between RA, reader, and context (Graves et al., 2013; Kuteeva & Mcgrath, 2015).

Moghaddasi (2017) searched for options to establish a niche for mathematics RA introductions by analyzing 30 RA corpus from 5 leading journals in discrete mathematics of 67 authors from 21 countries from English and non-English speaking institutional backgrounds, relaying on Swales model (1990) and Swales CARS model (2004). As the result 6 options in discrete mathematics for establishing a niche were presented.

According to Becher and Trowler (2001) in the field of pure mathematics the information produced cumulatively and for verifying this information there are clear criteria. And the results of mathematical research are independent of interpretation and the outputs are limited to a binary false or true.

O'Halloran (2005) has studied symbolism and language that have been used in discourse of mathematics. Burton and Morgan (2000) have studied the language in 53 mathematics RAs (pure, applied, and statistics).

METHODS

In this study, the researchers investigated the rhetorical differences between mathematics RAs published in ISI and non-ISI journals and tried to develop a framework for mathematics ISI and non-ISI RA introductions. The design of this study is a mixed method based on the nature of the study. For finding the differences between ISI and non-ISI RAs, quantitative design has been used because of considering frequency of a move. On the other hand, in order to find a preferred pattern for describing introductions of ISI and non-ISI mathematics RAs, a qualitative design has been used as well.

1. Corpus

The corpus consisted of 90 mathematics RAs in two groups published in ISI and non-ISI journals. To enhance the validity of the study, all RAs have been selected from ISI and non-ISI journals published in English language over the years 2007-2018.

2. Theoretical framework

The present study is a move analysis of the corpus of mathematics discipline. This study used bottom-up and top-down approaches to identify moves and sub-moves relying on the content of the text in the Introduction section of mathematics RAs. In the top-down stage Nwogu's (1997) model for move, and sub-move identification of introduction sections of RAs were used. Because Nwogu (Nwogu1997, p. 120) claims, his paper illustrates moves with greater linguistic depth and is more precise than others.

In bottom-up stage all moves and sub-moves of Nwogu's (1997) model used by the writers were coded and their frequency were counted. Those moves and sub-moves which were not presented in Nwogu's model were considered as new moves and sub-moves.

2.1 Nwogu's model

The model for analyzing the introduction section of RAs has been adapted from Nwogu (1997). In this study, the move identification has been established relying on Nwogu's (1997) model.

Table 3
Moves and sub-moves of the introduction section of research articles (Nwogu, 1997)

Moves and Sub-moves
The Introduction Section
1. Presenting Background Information (move 1)
1.1 Reference to established knowledge in the field (sub-move 1)
1.2. Reference to main research problems (sub-move 2)
2. Reviewing Related Research (move 2)
2.1 Reference to previous research (sub-move 3)
2.2 Reference to limitations of previous research (sub-move 4)
3. Presenting New Research (move 3)
3.1 Reference to research purpose (sub-move 5)
3.2 Reference to main research procedure (sub-move 6)

3. Instruments

Data collecting instruments have been consisted of “stattrek” random sampling online software, and Nwogu (1997) framework for RA introductions.

4. Data collection

In order to choose RAs, with the consultations of experts in the field, a list of some ISI and non-ISI journals that were published in English language were gathered, then RAs were randomly selected from these journals, and because of the dynamic feature of written genres, the corpus has been limited to a period of 11 years (2007-2018). At the end, the corpus consisted of 90 RAs that were divided into two groups: RAs published in ISI, and the other which were published in non-ISI journals.

Indeed, each group of the corpus has been comprised of 45 RAs. Then, the RAs have been coded in each group from 1 to 45 (ISI: 1-45, non-ISI: 1-45).

Random selecting of RAs has been performed by “stattrek” stratified random sampling software which is available online at: http/stattrek.com/Tables/Randomaspx.

5. Move analysis

A text segment has been considered as a move when there was a relationship between linguistic clues and a function. Moreover, the occurrence of a function must be over 50% regularity in the corpus for considering the function as a stable move (Nwogu, 1997). It is remarkable that clear sub-moves were repeated in the introduction sections of two groups. The criteria for any article inclusion in the frequency table of the move has been considered just one time use of these moves/sub-moves.

To prevent the study from subjectivity, the complete introduction sections of 15 articles which had been selected randomly, were analyzed by the researchers twice. In addition, two MA candidates (rater 2 and 3), who both have been instructing mathematics in English for several years, were asked to analyze the introduction sections of 15 randomly selected mathematics RAs. The reliability of the researcher’s judgments in analyzing the texts is reported in table 4 As can be observed, the high reliability of researcher judgment’s in analyzing the text was obtained.

Table 4
Intra-rater and inter-rater reliability of moves and sub-move identification

Reliability	Raters	Reliability
Intra-rater	1(1)-1(2)	0.994
Inter-rater	1-2	0.981
	1-3	0.971
	2-3	0.982

In the second stage, moves and steps were identified by matching with Nwogu’s (1997) model, and the frequency and rate of all the moves and steps were counted. New moves and steps were defined as those moves and steps which were not explained in the model (framework). If a move occurred more than 50% of the corpus, according to the Swale’s (1990) that move was labeled as “obligatory”, otherwise, it was labeled as “optional”.

In order to answer the research questions of the present study, non-parametric tests were required to be applied on the data due to the categorical variables of the moves and sub-moves having been counted based on the nominal scale. For non-parametric techniques, required three suppositions (Coakes, Steed, et al., 2009, p. 162), including similar shape and variability across distributions, random sampling, and independence (subjects appear in only one group and the groups are not related in any way) have been observed in this study.

In this study for comparison between ISI and non-ISI mathematical research article introductions, a set of statistical tests were required as follows:

1. Nine chi-square tests for goodness of fit each have been applied on a pair of frequency counts related to each move or sub-move of introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematical articles to observe possible differences between the frequencies.

2. Two Spearman's rank-order correlation tests have been applied on the two sets of the frequency counts derived from ISI and non-ISI articles to identify if there are significant relationships between two groups regarding the frequency counts of the moves of the mathematical RA Introduction sections and the sub-moves of mathematical RA introduction sections.

3. Two Mann-Whitney U tests have been applied on two sets of frequency counts, including the overall number of the moves of introduction sections, and the sub-moves of the introduction sections, derived from ISI and non-ISI mathematical articles to observe possible differences between the frequencies.

By using various (three) tests, Mann-Whiteny U test for the two groups, Spearman's correlation test to determine the possible differences between the frequencies, and Chi Square test for goodness of fit can be justified by the fact that although either one of the tests would be inadequate to do the task of relevant comparison due to different functions of three tests.

Non-parametric tests are not as precise as parametric tests, but by applying various non-parametric tests can act as a sort of triangulation which can increase the preciseness of these tests, and as the result, enhance the rigor of the reliability of the methodology, and statistical reasoning. For example, Chi-square test for goodness of fit only can identify the probable differences between sub-moves or moves, but is unable to identify the probable differences between the two groups related to the sets of the overall frequencies (Coakes et al., 2009, p.163). Instead this task was performed by Mann-Whitny U test (for the two groups' comparison).

However, this comparison could not clarify the differences or similarities unless it could be demonstrated if any increment or decrement in the frequency of one set were observed as well as in the other set(s) too. The identification of these relationships was performed by Spearman's rank order correlation test due to categorical variable natures.

RESULTS

The present study tried to compare the mathematical RA introductions published in ISI and non-ISI journals according to Nwogu's (1997) model for introduction section with the general purpose of determining the possible differences between ISI and non-ISI RA introductions, and with aim of developing a model for introduction section of mathematical RAs, based on Nwogu's (1997) framework.

1. The results of the analytical approach to move analysis

In this study, the introductions of all selected articles were analyzed and the frequency of moves and their sub-moves used in the articles of two groups was calculated separately, table 5 and table 6 present the move and sub-move frequencies in both groups, the results of the move analysis of the selected mathematical RAs, being subjected to the research questions, called for statistical analysis, hence required to define groups to report the related results. The results are related to comparisons between mathematics ISI and non-ISI RA introductions.

To answer the first research question, which searches for the differences between ISI and non-ISI articles according to the frequency of each individual move or sub-move used in the introduction sections, a set of chi-square tests for goodness of fit were executed, table 7 presents the results of the first set including three tests applied on the moves of the introduction sections. The table shows that the differences between the ISI and non-ISI RA introductions are not significantly different because the levels of significance are 0.317, 0.299, and 0.157, respectively (ρ≥0.05 for all the three tests).

Table 5
The frequency of the moves used by ISI and non-ISI RAs

Group	Move1	Move2	Move3
ISI RAs	45	41	42
Non-ISI RAs	41	39	30

Table6
The frequency of the sub-moves used by ISI and non-ISI RAs

Group	S-M1	S-M2	S-M3	S-M4	S-M5	S-M6
ISI RAs	45	30	41	0	42	42
Non-ISI	41	15	39	0	30	18

Table 7
Results of Chi-Square tests for goodness of fit for the moves used in ISI and non-ISI RAs Introductions

	move1	move2	move3
Chi-Square	1.000[a]	1.080[b]	2.000[c]
df	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.317	.299	.157

The other sets of Chi-Square tests for goodness of fit were employed to compare the frequencies of ISI and non-ISI RAs, the use of the sub-moves of the introduction sections by applying 6 independent tests on introduction sections, which have searched the differences between the frequency of each individual sub-move used in introduction section of two groups. The results are illustrated in Table 8 The table shows that the differences for sub-move 1, sub-move 3, sub-move 4, and sub-move 5 are not significant, because the amount of ρ value for these comparison (0.666, 0.823, 1.00, 0.157) are larger than 0.05, yet, for sub-move 2, and sub-move6 , and for these sub-moves there are significance differences between the frequency of using submove 2, and sub-move 6 in the introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematics RAs.

Table 8
The Results of Chi-Square tests for goodness of fit for the sub-moves used in Introduction section of mathematics ISI and non-ISI RAs

	Submove1	Submove2	Submove3	Submove5	Submove6
Chi-Square	.186[a]	5.000[b]	.050[c]	2.000[d]	9.600[e]
df	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.666	.025	.823	.157	.002

The second research question searching for the differences between ISI and non-ISI RAs regarding the overall frequency of Moves/Sub-moves used in introduction section, have been explored through two Mann-Whitney U tests. As it has been presented in table 9 and 10, the ρ values for the comparison made between the two groups, overall frequency of moves and sub-moves used by mathematical ISI and non-ISI RA introduction sections (0.126, and 0.77) are not significant ($\rho \geq .05$ in all the two tests); therefore, there are no significant differences between overall frequency of move/sub-move used in the introduction section of RAs.

Table 9
The results of Mann-Whitney U test for moves used by mathematical ISI and non-ISI RA Introduction sections

Mann-Whitney U	8.500
Wilcoxon W	29.500
Z	-1.532
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.126
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.132[b]

Table 10
The results of Mann-Whitney U test for sub-moves used by mathematical ISI and non-ISI RAs Introduction sections

Mann-Whitney U	.500
Wilcoxon W	6.500
Z	-1.771
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.077
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.100[b]

As presented in table 11, very high positive correlation coefficients are observed for the relationships between the frequencies derived from ISI and non-ISI RAs uses of the moves of the introduction sections ($r=0.812$, $\rho=0.05$) and the third null hypotheses for move employment in ISI and non-ISI RAs was rejected.

Table 12 shows very high positive correlation coefficients for the relationships between the frequencies derived from ISI and non-ISI RAs use of the sub-moves in the introduction sections ($r=0.5$, $\rho=0.667$), but because of $\rho=0.667 > 0$, the third null hypotheses for sub-moves was confirmed.

These significant relationships confirm that there are significant correlations between the overall frequencies of moves used in introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs, but there is no linear relationship (no correlation) between the overall frequencies of sub-moves used in introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs.

Table 11
The results of Spearman Rho's correlations of the frequencies of moves used in the introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs

			ISI	NonISI
Spearman's rho	ISI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.812*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.050
		N	6	6
	NonISI	Correlation Coefficient	.812*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.
		N	6	6

Table 12
The results of Spearman Rho's correlations of the frequencies of sub- moves used in the introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs

			ISI	NonISI
Spearman's rho	ISI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.500
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.667
		N	3	3
	NonISI	Correlation Coefficient	.500	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.667	.
		N	3	3

2. Developing a model for introduction section

In order to develop a model for introduction section of mathematical RAs, by matching all moves and sub-moves with Nwogu (1997) model, which occurred in more than 50% of the counts, identified as a move or sub-move for mathematical RA introductions, on the other hand, some segments of information observed in mathematical RA introductions, which did not match with the Nwogu model, and occurred in more than 50% of the counts, these segments considered as a move or sub-move for the model of mathematical RA introductions.

The suggested model by researchers is as illustrated in table 13:

Table 13
Moves and sub-moves of the mathematical RA introduction sections developed in the present study

Move 1. Presenting Background Information
1. Reference to established knowledge in the field (sub-move 1)
2. Reference to main research problems (sub-move 2)
Move 2. Reviewing Related Research
1. Present the history of the study in brief (sub-move 3)
2. Reference to previous research (sub-move 4)

Move 3. Presenting New Research
1. Reference to research purpose (sub-move 5)
2. Reference to structure and content of the present study (sub-move 6)

DISCUSSION

1. Quantitative phase

The results of the move analysis of the selected mathematical RAs, being subjected to the research questions, called for statistical analysis, hence required to define groups to report the related results. The results are related to comparisons between mathematics ISI and non-ISI RA introductions.

The findings show that the differences between frequency of moves used by the ISI and non-ISI RA introductions are not significantly different, and for sub-moves it is shown that the differences for sub-move1, sub-move3, sub-move4, and sub-move5 are not significant, yet for sub-move2, and sub-move6, there are significance differences between the frequency of using submove2, and sub-move6 in the introduction sections of ISI and non-ISI mathematics RAs.

The second research question searching for the differences between ISI and non-ISI RAs regarding the overall frequency of Moves/Sub-moves used in introduction section, the results show that there are no significant differences between overall frequencies of move/sub-move used in the introduction section of RAs.

The findings confirm that there are significant correlations between the overall frequencies of moves used in introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs, but there is no linear relationship (no correlation) between the overall frequencies of sub-moves used in introduction section of ISI and non-ISI RAs.

Comparing the results of this study with the findings of Sayfouri (2009) study, it can be understood that frequencies of move1, move2, and move3 (table 5) used in mathematical ISI RAs in comparison with non-ISI RAs, have been relatively similar with the frequencies of move1, move2, and move3 used in medical ISI RAs and non-ISI ones in Sayfouri's (2009) study.

The results of sub-move1, submove3, sub-move4, sub-move5 frequency count used by mathematical ISI and non-ISI RAs, in present study, relatively are similar with the results of frequencies of employing these sub-moves in medical ISI and non-ISI RAs, in Sayfouri's (2009) study. Yet the findings of Sayfouri's (2009) study deal with sub-move2, and sub-move6 frequencies used in medical ISI and non-ISI RAs which are not similar with the results of these sub-moves frequency counts used in the mathematical RAs in the present study. The above findings state the similarity existence between frequencies used in ISI and non-ISI RAs for both studies.

2. Qualitative phase

In the qualitative phase, a model was presented based on Newogu's model (1997) that is illustrated below:

2.1 Move 1: Presenting background information

Introduction sections usually begin with background information about scope of the topic that require understanding the following information that presented in RA introductions, in this study move1 appeared in 86 out of 90 RAs that have been analyzed and considered as an obligatory move1 and sub-move1 (M1S1) , obligatory move1, and sub-move2 (M1S2), and considered as obligatory move1, in the suggested model this move include presenting the established knowledge in the field which provided and accepted for a long period of time (M1S1) or include the main research problem (M1S2), or both steps, this move considered as an obligatory constant move, because of over reputations of 50% in total of RAs. M1S1 is conventionalized in both ISI and non-ISI RAs, yet M1S2 appeared less in non-ISI RAs (15 out of 45 RAs) in comparison with ISI RAs. Move 1 of the suggested model is a constant rhetorical characteristic of the introduction sections.

Below some instances of move1are presented and its sub-moves from the two groups in the corpus:

1. The most important and easy equation is the Laplace equation. The homogeneous version of Laplace's equation is

$$\Delta u = 0.$$

It is often written with minus sign since the (delta-operator) with this sign becomes strict monotone operator in the operator theory, which means that it has a unique solution.

2. A (simple) graph is called a threshold graph if its degree sequence is not majored by the degree sequence of any other graph. A (degree) maximal graph is a threshold graph which is connected.

2.2 Move 2: Reviewing related literature

Move 2 includes presenting the study's history in brief (M2S1) or reference to previous knowledge (M2S2) or both. These moves give useful information about previous knowledge, and the history of them. This move clears the position of present study between the related studies and shows the condition of this study.

In this study, move2 is conventionalized in both ISI and non-ISI RAs, this move labeled as obligatory (80 out of 90 RAs), M2S1, and M2S2 is conventionalized in both ISI and non-ISI, and labeled as obligatory sub-move.

2.3 Move 3: Presenting new research

In this study move3 is conventionalized in ISI and non-ISI RAs and considered as obligatory move because of 72 out of 90 RAs. Nwogu (1997), sought the moves used in various sections of medical RAs, using Swales (1981, 1990) genre analysis framework. In comparison with the Nwogu (1997) model, the findings of this study show that move1, move2, move3, submove1 (M1S1), submove2 (M1S2), and submove5 (M3S1) are in line with Nwogu's (1997) model, yet submove3 (M2S1), submove4 (M2S2), and submove6 (M3S2) are not in line with Nwogu's (1997) model.

CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to compare the rhetorical features of mathematical research articles (RAs) published in ISI and non-ISI journals and tried to develop a model for introduction section of mathematical RAs, by means of move analysis of the introduction sections of the ISI and non-ISI English mathematical RAs based on Nwogu (1997).

By comparing the results of this study with the finding of Sayfouri's (2009) study, that frequencies of move1, move2, and move3 (table 4.1) used in mathematical ISI RAs in comparison with non-ISI RAs can be understood. In the present study, it has been relatively similar with the frequencies of move1, move2, and move3 used in medical ISI RAs and non-ISI ones in Sayfouri's (2009) study.

The results of sub-move1, submove3, sub-move4, sub-move5 frequency counts used by mathematical ISI and non-ISI RAs, in the present study, relatively are similar with the results of frequencies using these sub-moves in medical ISI and non-ISI RAs, in Sayfouri's (2009) study. Yet the findings of Sayfouri's (2009) study deal with sub-move2, and sub-move6 frequencies used in medical ISI and non-ISI RAs are not similar with the results of these sub-moves frequency counts used in the mathematical RAs in the present study. The above findings show similarity existence between frequencies used in ISI and non-ISI RAs from both studies.

In an RA writing classroom, it is important to explain the permissible types of flexibility that a creative writer can follow when applying various kinds of information in mathematical RA introduction sections. In general, the findings of the present study can be beneficial for mathematical students, to achieve a better learning of academic writing, academic writing teachers and lecturers to implement a more effective instructing, ESP (English for Specific Purpose) and EAP (English for Academic Purpose) (English for Academic Purpose) curriculum designers to design a curriculum that leads from more spoken to more written modes.

The present study has applied only move analysis on ISI and non-ISI mathematical RA introduction sections. There could be other future studies seeking other possible rhetorical differences. In this study, only introduction sections of mathematical RAs examined by move analysis, the further research could seek other sections of mathematical RAs by genre analysis. In other disciplines move/sub-move employment between ISI and non-ISI RAs could be utilized for further research.

In order to display a more profound description of mathematics research articles, the cross-cultural study can be applied on mathematical RAs for further research.

REFERENCES

Afshar, H. S., et al. (2018). A genre analysis of the introduction section of applied linguistics and chemistry research articles. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics (IJAL), 21*(1), 163-214.

Artemeva, N., & Fox, J. (2011). The writing's on the board: The global and the local in teaching undergraduate mathematics through chalk talk. *Written Communication, 28*(4), 345-379.

Bawarishe, A. S., & Reiff, M. J. (2010). *Genre: An introduction, history, theory, research, and pedagogy*. Parlor Press & the WAC Clearinghouse (in pdf format) Retrieved May 12, 2010, from http://wac. colostate. edu/books/bawarshi_reiff/

Bazerman, C. (1997). *The life of genre, the life in the classroom*. Retrieved May 22, 2010 from http:// education.ucsb.edu/bazerman/chapters/56.lifegenre2.doc

Becher, T., & Trowler, P. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the cultures of disciplines*. SRHE, Open University Press.

Behnam, B., & Golpour, F. (2014). A genre analysis of English and Iranian research articles abstracts in applied linguistics and mathematics. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 3*(5), 173-179.

Berkenkotter, C., & Huckin, T. N. (1995). *Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication: Cognition/culture/ power*. Hillsdale, NewJersy: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Brett, P. (1994). A genre analysis of the result sections of sociology articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 13*(1), 47-56.

Burton, L., & Morgan, C. (2000). Mathematicians writing. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education,* 429-453.

Coakes, S. J., & Steed, L. (2009). *SPSS: Analysis without anguish using SPSS version 14.0 for Windows*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Connor, U., Davis, K., & De Rycker, T. (1995). Correctness and clarity in applying for overseas jobs: A cross-cultural analysis of U.S. and Flemishapplications. *Text, 15*(4), 457-476.

Flowerdew, J., & Wan, A. (2009). The linguistic and the contextual in applied genre analysis: The case of the company audit report. *English for Specific Purposes, 29*, 78-93.

Graves, H., et al. (2013). Mathematics is the method: Exploring the macro-organizational structure of research articles in mathematics. *Discourse studies, 15*(4), 421-438.

Graves, H., et al. (2014). "Let G=(V, E) be a graph": Turning the abstract into the tangible in introductions in mathematics research articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 36*, 1-11.

Holmes, R. (1997). Genre analysis, and the social sciences: An investigation of the structure of research article discussion sections in three disciplines. *English for specific purposes, 16*(4), 321-337.

Hopkins, A., & Dudley-Evans, A. (1988). A genre-based investigation of the discussion sections in articles and dissertations. *English for Specific Purposes, 7*, 113-122.

Jahangard, A., et al. (2014). A comparison of moves in conclusion sections of research articles in mechanical engineering and applied linguistics. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World, 5*(2), 346-359.

Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(3), 269-292.

Kawase, T. (2018). Rhetorical structure of the introductions of applied linguistics PhD theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 31*, 18-27.

Khany, R. (2017). Textuality in EAP research articles: A genre analysis. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics, 8*(1), 165-189.

Kuteeva, M., & McGrath, L. (2014). *Taming Tyrannosaurus rex: English use in the research and publication practices of humanities scholars in Sweden*. De Gruyter Mouton.

Kuteeva, M., & Mcgrath, L. (2015). The theoretical research article as a reflection of disciplinary practices: The case of pure mathematic's. *Applied Linguistics, 36*(2), 215-235.

Lee, I. (2002). Teaching coherence to ESL students: A classroom inquiry. *Journal of second language writing, 11*(2), 135-159.

Le, T. N. P., & Harrington, M. (2015). Phraseology used to comment on results in the Discussion section of applied linguistics quantitative research articles. *English for specific purposes, 39*, 45-61.

Lin, L., & Evans, S. (2012). Structural patterns in empirical research articles: A cross-disciplinary study. *English for specific purposes, 31*(3), 150-160.

Liu, Y., & Buckingham, L. (2018). The schematic structure of discussion sections in applied linguistics and the distribution of metadiscourse markers. *Journal of English for academic purposes, 34*, 97-109.

Martin, J. R. (1992). Genre and literacy-modeling context in educational linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13*, 141-172.

Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. John Benjamins.

McGrath, L., & Kuteeva, M. (2012). Stance and engagement in pure mathematics research articles: Linking discourse features to disciplinary practices. *English for specific purposes, 31*(3), 161-173.

Moghaddasi, S., & Graves, H. A. (2017). "Since Hadwiger's conjection… is still open": Establishing a niche for research in discrete mathematics research article introductions. *English for specific purposes, 45*, 69-85.

Noorizadeh-Honami, L., & Chalak, A. (2018). Comparative Analysis of Architecture Research Article Abstracts Written by Native and Non-native Authors: A Cross-linguistic, Cross-cultural Study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 8*(3), 325-330.

Nwogu, N. K., (1997). The medical research paper: Structure and functions. *English for Specific Purposes, 16*(2), 119-138.

O'Halloran, K. (2005). *Mathematical discourse: Language, symbolism and visual images*. London and New York: Continuum.

Omidian, T., et al. (2018). A cross-disciplinary investigation of multi-word expressions in the moves of research article abstracts. *Journal of English for academic purposes, 36*, 1-14.

Peacock, M. (2002). Communicative moves in the discussion section of research articles. *System, 30*, 479-497.

Sayfouri, N. (2009). "Iranian ISI and Non-ISI medical research articles in English: A comparative ESP/EAP move analysis." *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning, 1*(212), 135-160.

Samraj, B. (2002). Introductions in research articles: Variations across disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes, 21*(1), 1-17.

Samraj, B. (2005). An exploration of a genre set: Research article abstracts and introductions in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*, 141-156.

Samraj, B. (2008). A discourse analysis of master's theses across disciplines with a focus on introductions. *English for Specific Purposes, 7*, 55-67.

Skelton, J. (1994). *Analysis of the structure of original research papers: An aid to writing original papers for publications*. British Journal of General Practice.

Soodmand Afshar, H., & Ranjbar, A. (2017). A comparative study of rhetorical moves adopted in research questions and method sections of applied linguistics research articles. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics, 8*(1), 46-71.

Soler, V. (2007). Writing titles in science: An exploratory study. *English for Specific Purposes, 26*(1), 90-102.

Swales, J. M. (1981). *'Aspects of article introductions' in ESP Research Reports*. Aston University, Birmingham, U. K.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M. (1991). *Genre analysis, English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M. (2004). *The manuscript version of chapter seven of Research genres: Explorations and application*. Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M., et al. (1998). Consider this: The role of imperatives in scholarly writing. *Applied linguistics, 19*(1), 97-121.

Swales, J. M., & Najjar, H. (1987). The writing of research introductions. *Written Communication, 4*, 175-191.

Stoller, F. L., & Robinson, M. S. (2013). Chemistry journal articles: An interdisciplinary approach to move analysis with pedagogical aims. *English for specific purposes, 32*(1), 45-57.

Yang, R., & Allison, D. (2003). Research articles in applied linguistics: Moving from results to conclusions. *English for Specific Purposes, 22*(4), 365-384.

Zand-Moghadam, A. (2016). A rhetorical move analysis of TEFL thesis abstracts: The case of Allameh Tabataba'i University. *Issues in Language Teaching, 5*(1), 23-21.

Enhancing achievement and self-regulation among Thai EFL learners through provision of feedback and retrieval practices

Meechai Wongdaeng*
corresponding author: thehumblemankb@gmail.com
Prince of Songkla University Demonstration School

Sulaiya Hajihama
sulaiyahama@gmail.com
Prince of Songkla University Demonstration School

Abstract

Numerous studies have reported evidence that feedback provision is beneficial for English language learners as it can guide them in realising and correcting their mistakes. In a similar vein, recent studies have emphasised the advantage of retrieval practices or information-recall activities as they can enhance one's metacognitive awareness. These strategies, i.e., feedback provision and retrieval practices can develop learners' self-regulation which will, in turn, improve their learning outcomes. However, studies investigating the use of these two strategies in Thai EFL contexts remain scarce. Thus, this study aims to examine whether appropriate provision of feedback can improve learning achievement and whether a combination of the two strategies can lead to greater improvement. With such aims, two groups of secondary EFL learners were recruited to an intervention group (n=31) where both feedback provision and retrieval practices were implemented and a comparison group (n=26) where feedback provision was used as an alternative treatment. English tests and questionnaires were employed for data collection. The results suggested that provision of feedback is effective for improving the learning outcome with an effect size (ES) of 0.54 but the use of both strategies, i.e., feedback provision and retrieval practices can lead to a substantially larger improvement with a post-test ES of 0.78 and a gain score ES of 0.62. Implications for pedagogy and further research are also discussed.

Keywords: Self-regulation, Feedback, Retrieval practice, English as a foreign language

INTRODUCTION

The potential of corrective feedback (CF) in second language development has been widely investigated and acknowledged (e.g., Ellis, 2009; Lim & Renandya, 2020; Russell & Spada, 2006). CF provides information about learners' performance. Such information can guide the learners on their actual competence and ways to achieve improvement. The role of CF has been recognised in most theories and perspectives of second language learning (Ellis, 2009). For instance, from an interactionist perspective, feedback can be an important source of comprehensible input for learners. The input from feedback can guide them in producing a language output which is more accurate and comprehensible (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Meanwhile, advocates of cognitive perspective perceive CF to be facilitative of language acquisition as it can help learners to notice the target language forms, internalise them and produce them more appropriately (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

Apart from rich theoretical basis, extensive empirical evidence has been reported on the advantage of CF for language learning. Countless number of primary studies have exhibited the benefit of CF on various language skills such as writing (e.g., Van Beuningen, 2010), oral skills (e.g., Zhai & Gao, 2018), grammar (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006) and vocabulary (e.g., Dilans, 2010). Moreover, several synthesis studies affirm the potential impact of CF especially on grammatical accuracy (e.g., Lim & Renandya, 2020; Russell & Spada, 2006). As grammatical competence is one of the building blocks of language development, the present study sought to investigate the efficacy of CF provision on grammatical accuracy of a group of Thai EFL learners.

Retrieval practices (RP) as a tool for promoting learning, as opposed to evaluating learning, is another growing area of research with expanding evidence of its potential for improving learning. From a language learning perspective, retrieving the learnt information can enhance memory (Barcroft, 2007) which is essential for vocabulary retention (Candry et al., 2020; Nakata et al., 2021), comprehension (Wongdaeng, 2021) and other language skills. Some evidence suggests that RP which includes provision of corrective feedback can enhance retention of the learnt information especially among low-confidence learners (Butler et al., 2008) and improve metacognitive awareness (Bjork and Bjork, 2011). Such awareness can lead to the leaners' enhancement of their self-regulated learning (Wongdaeng, 2022). Therefore, the present study sought to explore whether the use of CF in combination with retrieval practices can be an efficient strategy to improve grammatical accuracy of the Thai participants who learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Corrective feedback and language learning

Feedback or information given to the learners about their performance can be positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a linguistic production of a learner is correct while negative feedback signals that a learner's production of a language form is deviant from the target language norm (Ellis, 2009). Negative feedback is corrective in intent and is, therefore, called corrective feedback. In short, corrective feedback (CF) refers to a signal given to a learner to indicate that his/her language production may be erroneous in some way (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

Provision of corrective feedback has long been acknowledged to play a crucial role in language acquisition (e.g., Bitchener, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Because learner beliefs can influence both the process and outcome of language learning (Dörnyei, 2005), how a learner's language production is dealt with will inevitably affect the learners' beliefs about the erroneous piece of language they produce. Therefore, fine-tuned feedback provision such as clear and consistent correction can contribute to students' linguistic development (Ferris, 1999). Corrective feedback promotes noticing of the language forms the students are learning which can result in the students' modified output (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

To assure benefits of feedback provision, there are several factors to consider. Feedback can be oral or written. Thus, it is important to contemplate what type of feedback would be appropriate for the target learners. In addition, how explicit the feedback should be is another essential point to concern. While both implicit and explicit feedback can support acquisition, numerus studies suggest that explicit feedback tends to create more positive perception among EFL learners (Zhang & Rahimi, 2014) and can be more effective for improvement (Lim & Renandya, 2020). Another aspect to be considered is the elements of the feedback to be given. Ellis et al. (2006) asserted that corrective feedback can consist of 1) an indication of where an error has been committed, 2) provision of correct answer and 3) metalinguistic explanation about the error. It is the teachers' responsibility to decide which elements should be included in their feedback provision to suit their teaching context.

2. Retrieval practices

Retrieval can be defined as the attempt to recall previously learned or stored information (Barcroft, 2007). Retrieval practice, therefore, refers to the use of recall activities such as quizzes or exams to provoke the retrieving of the learnt information to support learning. To complete such retrieval tasks, students need to pull out or 'retrieve' knowledge and information in their memory. In doing so, students exercise their brain and strengthen memory (Agarwal et al., 2017). Moreover, retrieval practices that provide feedback can enhance learners' knowledge retention, especially for those with low confidence (Butler et al., 2008).

Additionally, retrieval practices can improve learners' metacognitive awareness because it allows learners to examine whether the target information has or has not been understood or learned (Bjork & Bjork, 2011).

A growing body of research suggests that retrieval practices have the potential to enhance second language learning (Candry et al., 2020; Nakata et al., 2021; Wongdaeng, 2022). When learners are involved in retrieval tasks, they not only access the stored information but may also modify their existing knowledge (Barcroft, 2007). Retrieval tasks facilitate the learning of a second language especially in terms of vocabulary because they can direct L2 learners' attention to the target word forms (Candry et al., 2020). In addition, retrieval practices support the transfer of the newly learnt language items or strategies to the long-term memory (Wongdaeng, 2021).

3. Self-regulation

The term self-regulation refers to the process through which learners employ their self-awareness to monitor and direct their strategies or learning behaviours to achieve learning goals (Zimmerman, 2002). Self-regulation concerns how individuals are active participants in their own learning beyond the realm of mere focus on learner strategy (Dörnyei, 2005). In educational terms, self-regulation can be defined as "the extent to which learners are aware of their strengths and weaknesses and the strategies they use to learn" (Quigley et al., 2018 p. 8). By this definition, the learners' awareness of their own knowledge and skills plays a crucial role in self-regulation. Therefore, the feedback provided to the learners regarding their knowledge and performance is a significant source of information for learners to regulate their own learning.

For language learning, the notion of self-regulation is also highly upheld. Language learners have different beliefs about appropriate ways to learn a language and are capable of reflecting on their own language learning process (Wenden, 1987). This suggests that, to learn effectively, language learners will involve in self-regulated thinking to apply different strategies in various aspects such as cognition, metacognition, motivation and affection so that they can achieve their learning goals (Oxford, 1990). Such self-regulatory capacity can help language learners to figure out what to do when facing difficulties which can lead to improved language performance (Anderson, 2002).

4. Previous studies

Extensive evidence has been reported on the positive impact of corrective feedback (CF) on second language learning. From a synthesis of 56 primary studies on effectiveness of CF for L2 grammar acquisition, Russell and Spada (2006) found that, among 15 studies with sufficient data for effect size calculation, most studies found CF effective for improving L2 grammar with an overall effect size of 1.16 (what an effect is and how to interpret it is discussed in section three). In a recent meta-analysis by Lim and Renandya (2020) on written CF in writing instruction from 35 primary studies, a moderate overall effect size was reported. The authors concluded that written CF has the potential to improve L2 written grammatical accuracy and that direct feedback has a stronger impact than indirect feedback.

A number of studies on corrective feedback have been conducted in Thai contexts. Tangkiengsirisin and Kalra (2016) investigated Thai students' perceptions on direct and indirect written feedback. It was found that the students in the direct feedback group perceived their direct feedback positively and exhibited better improvement than the other group receiving indirect feedback. Meanwhile, Tan and Manochphinyo (2017) compared the effectiveness of direct and indirect written corrective feedback (WCF) on grammatical accuracy in Thai learners' writing. They reported that WCF is generally effective for improving grammatical accuracy but the WCF types, i.e., direct or indirect can have different effects on different grammatical aspects. In a recent study, Jinowat and Wiboolyasarin (2022) investigated 96 Thai EFL learners' preferences of WCF. It was found that direct feedback was mostly preferred by the students. They elaborated that direct feedback has higher clarity for pinpointing the grammatical errors and appropriate correction which can result in writing improvement.

From the studies recently discussed, it is apparent that the provision of written corrective feedback is effective for EFL learners in the development of their grammatical accuracy which is fundamental for writing and other language skills. Some debates remain about whether direct or indirect feedback should be optimal. However, larger and stronger evidence is in favour of direct feedback especially when accuracy and learners' preference are concerned. Therefore, direct CF was applied in the present study.

While the advantages of written corrective feedback (WCF) are substantially upheld in the SLA and ELT literature, studies investigating the provision of WCF in combination with retrieval practices remain minimal in EFL contexts and are hardly seen in Thai contexts in particular. In addition, such studies with Thai learners tend to pay inadequate attention to the potential of feedback provision for developing self-regulation. Therefore, the present study sought to explore the efficacy of the use of WCF provision in combination with retrieval practices (RP) on improving grammatical accuracy and self-regulation capacity of a group of EFL learners. The following research questions were addressed.

1. To what extent does the use of Corrective Feedback (CF) plus Retrieval Practices (RP) have an impact on the learners' achievement of grammatical accuracy?
2. What are the students' perceptions towards the use of Corrective Feedback (CF) plus Retrieval Practices (RP)?
3. What are the students' perceptions of the use of corrective feedback and retrieval practices in relation to their self-regulation?

METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

Two groups of grade-12 students at a secondary school in the south of Thailand were recruited to an intervention group (n=31) and a comparison group (n=26). Both groups of students were enrolled in a science-math programme. Regarding their proficiency levels, most students were in A2-B1 levels. In other words, they were mostly in pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. From their pretest scores (which will be presented in section four), the mean scores of the two groups are similar, indicating an acceptable degree of comparability between groups.

2. Research design and the intervention

The study was based on a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design with two groups of participants, i.e., the intervention and the comparison groups. To examine the impact of any intervention, it is vital to incorporate a control or a comparison group so that counterfactual evidence can be obtained for investigation (Gorard, 2013). The intervention was the use of written corrective feedback in combination with retrieval practices. The feedback was given on a grammaticality judgement task while the retrieval practice tasks consist of a summary chart completion and a mini-practice test. In the comparison group, students were exposed only to feedback provision to the grammaticality judgement task as an alternative treatment. The implementation of the intervention as well as the alternative treatment spanned over 9 weeks in one semester.

3. Ethical considerations

Instead of comparing the intervention group with a control group in a business-as-usual setting, the study opted to provide an alternative treatment to the comparison group for ethical purposes. This can minimise resentful demoralisation among the participants especially those not receiving the intervention (Torgerson, Torgerson & Taylor, 2015). The investigation did not require students to study extra hours in unusual school time to minimise the chances of invading the participants' privacy. In addition, the participants were informed of their freedom to choose whether to respond to the questionnaire.

4. Data collection instruments

For the primary outcome, which is the students' learning achievement of grammatical competence, English tests were used to capture how the participants in both groups have changed or improved over the implementation phase. The pre-tests and the post-tests were adapted from four past papers of the standardised English tests, developed by Thailand's National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS). Both tests contained 20 items with equal proportion of vocabulary and grammar items.

For the secondary outcome which is the participants' perception towards the two treatments and how it can benefit their self-regulation, a questionnaire developed by the researchers were employed. The questionnaire contained 5-point opinion scale items which asks the respondents to rate their perception of the treatments and open-ended questions to elicit further explanations and reflections.

5. Data analysis

Descriptive statistics, i.e., means and standards deviations of the English test scores were used to calculate effect sizes. Effect sizes provide an estimate of the difference between different sets of data from the participants (Coe, 2002). Such estimate can indicate if the outcome or the performance of one group is different from the other group. At the same time, it can indicate how large such difference is (Higgins, 2018) which can inform the size of the effect. According to Cohen (1988)'s guideline for interpreting effect sizes, 0.2 shows a small effect size, 0.5 is a medium size and 0.8 is a large size. Such analysis can provide the answer to the first research question about the impact of the intervention on learners' achievement.

Means and standard deviations were also calculated from the responses to the questionnaire's opinion scale items. The open-ended responses underwent coding and categorising to develop key themes. These analyses could shed light on the second research question concerning the participants' perception towards the intervention and the third research question on the participants' perception in relation to self-regulation.

RESULTS

1. Results of learning achievement

Table 1
Effect size comparing the pretest and posttest scores of the intervention group (IG)

Group	Pretest Scores			Posttest Scores			Effect Size (ES)
	Mean	n	SD	Mean	n	SD	
IG	11.68	31	2.48	16.23	31	2.7	1.73

Table 2
Effect size comparing the pretest and posttest scores of the comparison group (CG)

Group	Pretest Scores			Posttest Scores			Effect Size (ES)
	Mean	n	SD	Mean	n	SD	
CG	11.69	26	2.81	13.58	26	4.01	0.54

The pretest scores shown in Tables 1 and 2 indicate that no significant difference is observed between the IG and CG students on average (means of 11.68 and 11.69 respectively) before the study. After the experiment, both groups performed substantially better in the posttest but the improvement of IG students was clearly larger (ES 1.73) than the improvement of CG students (ES 0.54).

Table 3
Effect size comparing the gain scores of the intervention group (IG) and the comparison group (CG)

Group	Gain Scores			Effect Size (ES)
	Mean	n	SD	
IG	4.55	31	3.69	0.62
CG	1.88	26	4.89	

From the gain scores derived by subtracting the pretest scores from the posttest scores, the overall improvement made by IG students was also clearly larger than the overall improvement of CG students with an ES of 0.62.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, the pretest scores of the IG and CG students are essentially similar. This suggests that the two groups are not meaningfully different in terms of the pre-existing English proficiency. Therefore, a comparison of their improvement based on the posttest scores is also sensible and is presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4
Effect size comparing the posttest scores of the intervention group (IG) and the comparison group (CG)

Group	Posttest Scores			Effect Size (ES)
	Mean	n	SD	
IG	16.23	31	2.7	0.78
CG	13.58	26	4.01	

Taking the posttest scores into consideration, Table 4 suggests that the post-intervention performance of the IG students is markedly better than their CG peers with an ES of 0.78.

2. Results of students' perceptions

2.1 Comparison (CG) students' perceptions towards corrective feedback (CF)

Table 5
CG students' responses to the questionnaire

Questions	Strongly disagree (1)	Fairly disagree (2)	Not sure (3)	Fairly agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Mean	SD
1. Provision of written feedback is beneficial for improving learning	-	-	-	7	17	4.71	0.46
2. Provision of feedback should be used again in the future.	-	-	-	9	15	4.63	0.49

The comparison students' responses to the questionnaire in Table 5 clearly show that the participants viewed the provision of feedback as highly advantageous for improving their learning with an average rating of 4.71. When asked if the technique should be used again in the future, most respondents voiced a very strong agreement (mean= 4.63).

From the responses to the open-ended question, the main reasons associated with the benefits of CF are its potential to enhance students' awareness of their mistakes. Another frequently mentioned benefit of CF is its information and guidance for improvement.

2.2 Intervention (IG) students' perceptions towards the use of feedback and retrieval practices

Table 6
IG students' responses to the questionnaire

Questions	Strongly disagree (1)	Fairly disagree (2)	Not sure (3)	Fairly agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Mean	SD
1. The provision of written feedback in combination with retrieval practices are beneficial for improving learning	-	-	-	7	16	4.70	0.47
2. Instead of using both techniques, providing feedback only may be more beneficial for improving learning	1	10	7	4	1	2.74	0.96
3. Instead of using both techniques, using retrieval practices only may be more useful for improving learning	4	10	5	4	-	2.39	0.99

As seen in Table 6, most intervention students strongly agreed that the provision of written CF in combination with retrieval practices are beneficial for improving their English learning with an average rating of 4.70. On the contrary, when asked whether using only feedback or using only retrieval practices would be more advantageous for learning, most respondents voiced disagreement. This echoes the potential of providing feedback in combination with retrieval practices.

Similar to the open-ended responses of the comparison students about the provision of feedback, the intervention students also expressed the view that the intervention gave them better awareness of their mistakes and areas to develop. In addition, some students reasoned that the intervention allowed them to self-evaluate and enhanced the retention of what they learnt.

The presented participants' views demonstrate that the feedback they receive from retrieval practice tasks empowers them to become more aware of what they know and what they still misunderstand. Such awareness enables them to appropriately reflect on and evaluate their own learning. Indeed, the awareness of one's own knowledge and skills and the ability to employ such awareness to evaluate their learning to guide improvement is a critical process in self-regulated learning (Oxford, 2016; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994).

DISCUSSION

The results presented in section four affirms the positive impact of feedback provision for EFL learners. Both groups of participants which were provided with feedbacks throughout the semester have made a substantial improvement in their posttest, in line with the findings reported in most other studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006; Russell & Spada, 2006). Moreover, the participants in this study who were in secondary education level tend to have positive perceptions towards the provision of CF.

As expressed by the participants through the questionnaire, the main benefit of feedback provision is the enhanced awareness of their mistakes and how to improve them. This perception corroborates the potential of direct feedback for improving grammatical accuracy (Lim & Renandya, 2020). In addition, the feedback given in this study included an indication of an error, a correct alternative and metalinguistic explanation about the error. Such explicit feedback can be more favourable to and helpful for EFL learners than implicit feedback (Zhang & Rahimi, 2014).

From all comparisons presented in section four, the intervention group has made significantly higher improvements. This illustrates the potential of retrieval practices for improving EFL students' learning outcomes. The retrieval practices facilitated students to recall what they have learnt and the feedback given in relation their performance of the retrieval tasks can help them develop a precise realisation of their knowledge and understanding of the taught contents (Barcroft, 2007). In other words, the feedback from retrieval practices can enhance students' metacognitive awareness (Karpicke, 2009) and self-regulation (Candry et al., 2020).

The results from the questionnaire are in tandem with the results from English test scores. The intervention students perceived that the use of both techniques may benefit their learning more than using feedback alone. This accords with the test results where the intervention students managed to obtain bigger improvement, compared to the comparison peers who only received feedback provision as a treatment.

As expressed in the open-ended questionnaire, some intervention students believed that the intervention allowed them to self-evaluate and enhanced the retention of what they have learnt. This could be due to the fact that retrieval practices, namely, summary chart completion and mini-practice tests were included in the intervention. The tasks themselves which asked students to recall what they have learnt can exercise students' memory, resulting in better retention (Agarwal et al., 2017). Meanwhile, the feedback given to these retrieval tasks provides precise information for students about what they know and what they need to improve. As Butler et al. (2008) suggested, retrieval practices that provide corrective feedbacks can enhance retention of the learnt information and skills. In addition, the learners' self-evaluation based on the feedback they received from their teachers or higher proficient peers support them to make a more relevant and accurate decisions for personal development (Nakata et al., 2021; Wongdaeng, 2022).

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

As the advantage of CF is evident in this study, it is practical to suggest that provision of feedback should be encouraged in EFL classrooms. For optimum impact on improvement, the feedback should consist of three elements, namely, an indication of where an error has been committed, provision of correct answer and metalinguistic explanation about the error. It is particularly helpful for learners in secondary education when the feedback provision is explicit.

The introduction of retrieval practices could also be advantageous to EFL learners. As revealed by the participants in the intervention group, the retrieval practice tasks which provide feedback enable them to self-evaluate better. Therefore, retrieval practices such as quizzes or other recall activities which tend to be commonly used for evaluative purposes can be utilised as a tool for promoting learning. The feedback students received from retrieval practices can enhance their self-reflection and self-regulation (Karpicke, 2009).

Despite the observed impact of incorporating retrieval practices as a way to provide feedback on students' performance and achievement, the evidence of this study remains equivocal because the data were drawn from a rather small sample size. With such limitation, the result of this study is by no means definitive in terms of the effectiveness of retrieval practice application in EFL contexts. Nonetheless, it can demonstrate the promise of this recall technique for supporting EFL learners. Therefore, more comparative studies on the topic with a larger sample size would be necessary to provide stronger evidence of the impact of retrieval practices as a task or a mechanism for providing feedback to EFL learners. Another limitation is the use of opinion scale questionnaire which may not be the optimal instrument to derive reliable data about learners' self-regulation. Alternatively, questionnaires or other techniques which ask students about their learning behaviours related to self-regulation can be used instead.

CONCLUSION

From the theoretical background, the results from the study and evidence from other sources, the advantages of corrective feedback for language learning and for grammatical accuracy are substantial. This means that careful consideration of feedback provision can be a meaningful pedagogical practice to promote learning. What makes this study distinguished from most studies on the same topic is the incorporation of retrieval practices with feedback provision. The results from the intervention group illustrate the efficacy of the intervention for improving grammatical accuracy of the participants. Moreover, the questionnaire responses suggest that the learners have a highly positive perception towards the use of CF in combination with retrieval practices. They also perceived that both feedback provision and receival practices provide them with information useful for regulating their own learning. Such findings can provide a basis for teachers, learners and researchers to apply feedback and retrieval practices in their attempts to improve the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language.

REFERENCES

Agarwal, P. K., Finley, J. R., Nathan S. Rose, N. S., & Roediger III, H. L. (2017). Benefits From retrieval practice are greater for students with lower working memory capacity. *Memory, 25*(6), 764-771.

Anderson, N. J. (2002). *The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning*. ERIC Digest. Washington, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Barcroft, J. (2007). Effects of opportunities for word retrieval during second language vocabulary learning. *Language Learning, 57*(1), 35-56.

Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 17*, 102-118.

Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing.* Routledge.

Bjork, E. L., & Bjork, R. A. (2011). Making things hard on yourself, but in a good way: Creating desirable difficulties to enhance learning. *Psychology and the Real World: Essays Illustrating Fundamental Contributions to Society, 2*(59-68).

Butler, A. C., Karpicke, J. D., & Roediger III, H. L. (2008). Correcting a metacognitive error: Feedback increases retention of low-confidence correct responses. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 34*(4), 918.

Candry, S., Decloedt, J., & Eyckmans, J. (2020). Comparing the merits of word writing and retrieval practice for L2 vocabulary learning. *System, 89*, 102206.

Coe, R. (2002). It's the effect size, stupid: What effect size is and why it is important. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the British Educational Research Association, Exeter, 2002. Retrieved December 21, 2019. http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00002182.htm

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale, Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dilans, G. (2010). Corrective feedback and L2 vocabulary development: Prompts and recasts in the adult ESL classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 66*(6), 787-816.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal, 1*(1), 3-18.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in second language acquisition, 28*(2), 339-368.

Ferris, D. R. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: A response to Truscott (1996). *Journal of Second Language Writing, 8.1*, 1–11.

Gorard, S. (2013). *Research design: Creating robust approaches for the social sciences*. Sage.

Higgins, S. E. (2018). *Improving Learning: Meta-analysis of Intervention Research in Education*. Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.) (2006). *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues*. Cambridge University Press.

Jinowat, N., & Wiboolyasarin, W. (2022). Investigating learner preferences for written corrective feedback in a Thai higher education context. *TEFLIN Journal, 33*(2), 386-402.

Karpicke, J. D. (2009). Metacognitive control and strategy selection: Deciding to practice retrieval during learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 138*(4), 469-486.

Lim, S. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2020). Efficacy of written corrective feedback in writing instruction: A meta-analysis. *TESL-EJ, 24*(3), n3.

Nakata, T., Tada, S., Mclean, S., & Kim, Y. A. (2021). Effects of distributed retrieval practice over a semester: Cumulative tests as a way to facilitate second language vocabulary learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 55*(1), 248-270.

Nassaji, H., & Kartchava, E. (2021). Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching (pp. 1-20). Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Newbury House.

Oxford, R. (2016). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context*. Routledge.

Quigley, A., Muijs, D., & Stringer, E. (2018). *Metacognition and Self-regulated Learning*. Education Endowment Foundation. Available at https://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/public/files/Publications/Metacognition/EEF_Metacognition_and_self-regulated_learning.pdf

Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for acquisition of L2 grammar: A meta-analysis of the research. In J. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.) *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133-164). John Benjamins.

Tan, K. E., & Manochphinyo, A. (2017). Improving grammatical accuracy in Thai learners' writing: Comparing direct and indirect written corrective feedback. *Journal of Asia TEFL, 14*(3), 430.

Tangkiengsirisin, S., & Kalra, R. (2016). Thai students' perceptions on the direct vs. indirect written corrective feedback: A Thai university context. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ), 7*(3), 161-176.

Torgerson, C. J., Torgerson, D. J., & Taylor, C. A. (2015). Randomized controlled trials. In K. E. Newcomer., H. P. Hatry & J. S. Wholey, (Eds.), *Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation* (4th ed) (pp. 158-176). Jossey-Bass.

Van Beuningen, C. (2010). Corrective feedback in L2 writing: Theoretical perspectives, empirical insights, and future directions. *International Journal of English Studies, 10*(2), 1-27.

Wenden, A. (1987). Metacognition: An expanded view on the cognitive abilities of L2 learners. *Language Learning, 37*(4), 573-597.

Wongdaeng, M. (2021, November). Improving learning through a metacognitive intervention for tertiary Thai EFL learners: Evidence from a cluster randomised controlled trial. In *Conference Proceedings. Innovation in Language Learning 2021*.

Wongdaeng, M. (2022). The role of metacognition in the learning of English as a foreign language. In N. Siddiqui & S. Gorard (Eds.), *Making your doctoral research project ambitious* (pp. 103-116). Routledge.

Zhai, K., & Gao, X. (2018). Effects of corrective feedback on EFL speaking task complexity in China's university classroom. *Cogent Education, 5*(1), 1485472.

Zhang, L. J., & Rahimi, M. (2014). EFL learners' anxiety level and their beliefs about corrective feedback in oral communication classes. *System, 42*, 429-439.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a Self-Regulated Learner: An Overview. *Theory Into Practice, 41*(2), 64-70.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal, 31*(4), 845-862.

Raising Language Awareness with Near-Synonyms in English and their English Loanword Equivalences

Sumie Akutsu

akutsu@toyo.jp

Faculty of Design for Welfare Society,
Toyo University

Abstract

This paper discusses how near-synonyms in English and their English loanword equivalences can be better targeted and utilized in order to increase students' language awareness for learners of English. In order to describe the similarities and differences of near-synonyms in the meaning elucidated based on corpus analysis and to examine the possible influence on their equivalent English loanwords in Japanese, this study focuses on the three keywords: *welfare, well-being,* and *wellness* as near-synonyms in English. The British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) are used for this analysis with the aim of studying and generating a list of typical use cases while revealing their use in terms of word collocation and word context. The results are then discussed with findings from the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ) to put the typical use cases in perspective. The findings suggest that these outwardly similar words have clear differences in terms of their frequency of use and collocation, and that the possible negative connotations of the word *welfar*e are deemed to be a possible cause of the increasing popularity of the usage of *well-being* and *wellness* in the news media as English loanwords in Japanese. While analyzing how these words can be a useful learning tool, this paper discusses pedagogical advantages and implications for utilizing corpus based lexical analysis and loanwords in the teaching of English in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

Keywords: ELT, Lexical analysis, Loanwords, Corpus, EFL

INTRODUCTION

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has impacted the teaching of English by prioritizing the communicative and practical use of English; however, certain issues such as disregarding the teaching environment and learner variables remain and these are still worth investigating more deeply especially in countries and regions where English is taught as a foreign language. As the Communicative Approach has become more prominent and prevalent, the use of L1 in the language classroom has subsequently become less accepted as a teaching tool, with CLT promising increased communicative interaction. In Japan, the language education field has denounced the traditional grammar-translation approach, which has been widely used in general English teaching for many years (Cook, 1998; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) defines translation as both an effective means of language learning and as a mediation skill in an increasingly globalizing world (Council of Europe, 2001). Cook (2010) also re-evaluates the use of Translation in Language Teaching (TILT) as there is academic literature that supports the use of L1 as an effective teaching and learning tool in foreign language teaching (Witte et al., 2009; Zojer, 2009). In order to stimulate the cognitive potential of learners, the use of L1 should be utilized effectively rather than strictly prohibited in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

This study addresses the pedagogical benefits of using near-synonyms in English along with their loanword equivalences in Japanese with the aim of raising language awareness for learners of English with L1 being

Japanese while developing mediating and interpreting skills. Although there are arguments against the use of learners' first language in the teaching of English, multilingualism in ELT is becoming not only more popular but also required area to develop and promote in an increasing global and diverse society. By applying the lexical analysis outcomes, this paper will discuss that raising Japanese students' awareness of loanwords in Japanese, with an emphasis on linguistic discrepancy, can be an effective means to help students improve their proficiency as well as mediation skills.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. From translation skills to mediation skills

While developing educational intercultural awareness, translation and mediation can play an important role in communicative language activities as part of intercultural communication skills. It is important to raise awareness of the fact that a language has a culture behind it, and that word-by-word translation between two languages or cultures is not always possible, but there are methods and skills to learn on how to handle these linguistic and cultural discrepancies. As Camerer and Made (2010) point out, in the CEFR, mediation is sometimes considered to mean translation and interpretation, whereas sometimes the focus is on intercultural context. North (2014) anticipated this shortage of scales for mediation in the original CEFR where by mediation has a restricted view limited to the transmission across languages of the information held within the text. In 2016, North and Piccardo re-defined cognitive and pedagogical mediation into the following categories:

- translation and interpretation (which are specialised types of mediation);
- online interaction (which involves some aspects related to mediation);
- pluricultural and plurilingual competences (often drawn on in mediation);
- reactions to literature - both personal interpretation and critical analysis (which requires an ability to mediate a text).

As CLT became widely accepted as a mainstream method in the teaching of English in Japan, the idea of translation seen as an old-fashioned method has prevailed and created a negative image of translation mainly because an emphasis was placed on learning grammar rules and vocabulary, usually without providing authentic examples and context.

Partly due to this unfavorable reputation, translation skills are not discussed as one of the important communicative competencies. However, considering that communicative competence usually includes four aspects as goals of language teaching: grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence (Hymes, 1966; Canale & Swain, 1980), translation competence or mediation skills seem closely connected to and valued as an important part of general linguistic skills in foreign language teaching and learning. As it is becoming the accepted norm that an increasing number of people use multiple languages in global communication, mediation skills in foreign language learning can also involve translation skills in order to enhance communicative language skills across languages. Chesterman (1998) defines translation competence as the ability to mediate linguistically between two cultures, while Malmkjaer (2009) rightly summarises that translation has been re-defined as a language skill to be measured and assessed as part of communicative language skills. As CEFR descriptors include translation activities as mediating language activities in the normal linguistic functioning of our societies, the use of translation through L1 in a language class is an effective means at learning to mediate linguistic and cultural gaps and to cultivate overall communicative and mediating competence.

With limited exposure to the practical use of the English language in daily life in an EFL context, the grammar-translation method is still predominately used in the teaching of English in Japan. This seems partly due to an education system based on entrance examinations and partly because of the traditional grammar-translation method being widely applied in the teaching of English in mainstream education in Japan. As students, especially with a generally lower proficiency level, have a tendency to constantly translate from L1 to L2 as a means of building communicative competence, it is meaningful to attempt to focus on the use of L1 as an additional valid learning skill through realizing linguistic and cultural differences between Japanese and English.

2. English loanwords and English language learning

In the Japanese language, "loanwords" are playing an increasingly significant role in society with a variety of new terms and examples appearing frequently on a wide range of media platforms. This proves loanwords are also an integral part of major functions in Japanese society (Miura, 1979; Stanlaw, 1992; Daulton, 2007, 2011). Most of the frequently used loanwords entering modern Japanese come directly from English and it is said that loanwords consist of over ten percent of everyday, common Japanese vocabulary in business and in media (*Sanseido's Concise Dictionary of Katakana Words*, 2020). Having an extensive history of adopting words from foreign languages, the Japanese language uniquely employs and exploits this linguistic characteristic (Shibatani, 2008; Coulmas, 1989). Therefore, it is natural and somewhat unique that students' L1 and L2 learning is influenced by this language characteristic in the Japanese EFL context.

Loanword vocabulary as a whole, mainly from English, continues to increase, expand and evolve; therefore, the changing linguistic needs of contemporary Japanese language study should also be supported in ELT in Japan. Daulton (1998) endorses loanwords usage in ELT, suggesting the possibility of utilizing available English loanwords in order to maximize English vocabulary and thus improving proficiency in English. Furthermore, Nation (2003; 2005) suggests that loanwords should be part of an effective strategy in terms of vocabulary expansion in order to discover and reduce the "learning burden" in language learning. While pointing out some difficulties caused by certain types of loanwords with regards to vocabulary retention, Uchida (2001) describes the positive transfer of true cognate loanwords with the same English source words to increase L2 vocabulary.

On the one hand, learners can be expected to utilize their existing knowledge of English loanwords to improve their English proficiency, but on the other hand, loanwords can be a source of potential hinderance and a cause of frustration due to their linguistic and phonetical aspects for learners of English with L1 being Japanese (Carroll 1992; Daulton 2011). Even though some knowledge of loanwords can help learners increase their vocabulary, the use of English loanwords can also be a common source of errors, especially where the meaning has shifted when added to the Japanese lexicon (Mochizuki, 2012). Therefore, an understanding of the reasons behind these types of errors, seemingly caused by confusing the root origin of loanwords, has the potential benefit of promoting better language awareness and thus the knowledge and awareness of English loanwords can help improve overall language competence.

3. Lexical analysis and collocation

In the field of corpus linguistics, the cross-linguistic analysis of collocation and semantic prosody of near-synonyms have been used to study the equivalence between synonyms or correspondences (Biber et al., 1998). With the introduction of large corpora and analytical text mining software, lexical studies have been extensively developed to enable more sophisticated analysis of collocations or typical word combinations which sound more natural and appropriate. As Partington states, collocation choices are considered "part of a native speakers' communicative competence … to know what are normal and what are unnatural collocations in given circumstances" (Partington, 1998, p. 16). In the EFL context, near-synonyms are one of the most confusing areas for learners of English and the nuanced similarities and differences of near-synonyms are one of the most difficult areas in the teaching of English. Especially when words claim to have negative or unpleasant meanings, collocations and semantic prosody provide valuable insights along with proper vocabulary study. The collocations have increasingly been recognized as connected with semantic prosody, or the attitudinal and pragmatic meaning of a lexical item (Hoey, 2005). Therefore, an analysis of collocation and semantic prosody in a bilingual context would be useful to L2 learners to illustrate this linguistically significant function (Xiao & McEnery, 2006). As Stubb (2001) suggests, there is a tendency for words to co-occur with certain other words, and "culturally and communicatively competent native speakers of English are aware of such probabilities and of the cultural frames which they trigger" (p. 17). Therefore, it appears worthwhile to attempt to include near-synonyms in the teaching and learning of English as well as in linguistic research studies.

METHODS

Even though there are some commonalities between English loanword root origins and their Japanese usage, there are also some confusing elements for learners of English especially with regards to semantic changes where loanwords have had meaning shifts when introduced into Japanese (Ishikawa & Rubrecht, 2007). This paper seeks to broach these issues by examining the corpus analysis results of near-synonyms and their loanwords equivalences in Japanese to examine the similarities and differences in the use of these similar words.

In this current study, an analysis was conducted on the seemingly synonymous words: *welfare, well-being* and *wellness*, all of which take on the general meaning "happiness" as English loanwords in the Japanese language and in Japanese society, with the purpose of the study being to raise language awareness and increase vocabulary understanding. These near-synonyms were chosen not only because they are frequently used key terms in domestic and international society as well as in social work studies and Japanese industry as a whole in recent years, but also because *welfare* seems to have some negative connotations whereas their near-synonyms *well-being* and *wellness* seem to be used in more positive contexts. In this paper, these words are investigated in terms of word collocation and word context with the aim of examining the similarities and differences in meaning elucidated based on corpus analysis as well as finding ways to help learners use their existing knowledge of loanwords to raise language awareness.

For the purpose of this study, the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) are used for an analysis of these words in terms of frequency, collocation and register to describe linguistic and semantic aspects of their variations in usage, which are compared to the definitions in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), the primary comprehensive resource of the English language and also Google Search Engine results as representative usage on the Internet. A principal data analysis is conducted using English-Corpora.org, a lexical concordance tool for text mining, to explore the corpora while seeking to identify and compare similarities and differences regarding language usage. Both of these corpora, which are available online free of charge, are considered to be well-balanced corpora in terms of sub-genres and complement each other. With a diverse selection of written and spoken texts from different genres and time periods, they provide a well-rounded, comprehensive research and learning tool that offers great insight into and a better overall understanding of modern English language usage, regardless of which variety of English is being used. Finally, the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ) by the National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics are referred to, in order to compare and discuss the loanword usage of the targeted terms in a Japanese context.

ANALYSIS

1. Dictionary definitions and Google search engine results

In order to investigate the usage and meanings of *well-being, wellness* and *welfare*, the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), the principal comprehensive resource of the English language, is first employed to describe the basic and universal definitions in context. The OED entry has the 14th century Middle English definition of *welfare* whose meanings are well-being and happiness. In the late 19th century, the word meaning started to include the act of organized financial provision mainly in the United States of America, whereas in the 20th century, it began to mean welfare in terms of support organizations or systems for people in need. Compared to *welfare, well-being* and *wellness* are rather generally defined with reference to health and happiness. Moreover, *wellness* has a somewhat different history of usage when compared with *welfare* and *well-being*. From the middle of the 20th century, the word *wellness* started to be used mainly in the United States of America to describe being physically, mentally and spiritually healthy.

With regards to the frequency of each English word, a simple Google search of each word in English, as of March 2023, indicates the most frequently used word is *well-being*, followed by *wellness* and lastly *welfare*. On the contrary, as a Japanese loanword, "wellness (ウェルネス)" has about seven times more hits compared to "welfare (ウェルフェア)" and about four times more than "well-being (ウェルビーイング)" as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Google search engine results (as of March 2023)

English	No. of hits	Loanwords in Japanese	No. of hits
welfare	972,000,000	ウェルフェア	3,860,000
well-being	9,550,000,000	ウェルビーイング	6,120,000
wellness	4,590,000,000	ウェルネス	26,900,000

Even though these three words share the core, general meaning of "happiness", there seems to be some distinct difference in inferred meanings and usage trends.

2. Corpus analysis: Word frequencies

With regards to a normalized frequency, describing how many times a particular word would occur in a text sample set of one million words, the frequency per million or relative frequency is separately calculated using the total number of tokens in the whole corpus and the raw frequency.

Table 2
Comparison of word frequencies

	BNC	per million	COCA	per million
welfare	4,731	48.10	35,666	35.56
well-being	852 (well-being 707) (wellbeing 145)	8.66	13,047 (well-being 11,671) (wellbeing 1,376)	13.01
wellness	12	0.12	3,861	3.85

Using the frequency per million for comparing occurrences across corpora with varied sizes in contrast to the total number of occurrences, the results show that *welfare* has the highest frequency while *well-being* and *wellness* are not as frequent.

Genre analysis illustrates a different distribution of each word in different genres in the BNC and COCA. While in the COCA corpus, *welfare* and *well-being* seem to be used in academic fields as well as in media such as blogs, web-based magazines and news outlets, they are most commonly found in the academic genre in the BNC. This could be due to the fact that the BNC is a project which was completed in 1994, whereas the COCA is an ongoing project which continues to be updated as a monitor corpus. This also explains why the frequencies of *well-being* and *wellness* are extremely low while many more examples are found in the COCA, and accounts for newer trends where *welfare* has a longer history with a much higher frequency while *well-being* and *wellness* appears to be a relatively recent trend. It is clear that the frequencies of these English words indicates distinctive differences in usage.

3. Corpus analysis: Collocations

In order to put the word usage in perspective, word collocation and word context are analyzed in each corpus in order to describe the similarities and differences in the usage of these outwardly similar words. N-gram or Multiword Expressions (MWEs) analysis is often utilized in language teaching and learning to identify discourse markers or chunks of language to improve language fluency. These are also referred to as lexical bundles, which usually requires three or more words at a time. In the context of corpora and corpus linguistics, the most frequent 4-grams are deemed useful collocations or MWEs to find certain linguistic phenomena while gaining further insight into the usage of the target words in context (Biber et al., 2004). In this study, the Mutual Information (MI) scores are used in combination with a minimum frequency threshold of two as the default setting, since some collocations identified by high MI scores could be low in frequency and thus they may not serve as representative examples (Schmitt, 2010).

The results show that *welfare* seems to refer to a public or state system to support people or children, while implying that *welfare* also means people's health and happiness (Table 3).

Table 3
4-Grams including *welfare [Emphasis added]*

	BNC	Freq.	COCA	Freq.
1	the welfare of the	120	welfare as we know	133
2	of the welfare *state*	104	welfare of a *child*	104
3	for the welfare of	74	*promote* the general welfare	91
4	to the welfare of	41	welfare of the *people*	87
5	the welfare *state* and	31	concern for the welfare	81
6	welfare of the *child*	30	in the *child* welfare	79
7	the welfare of *children*	27	for the general welfare	77
8	the welfare of their	20	*public health* and welfare	59
9	about the welfare of	18	*food stamps* and welfare	58
10	the *health* and welfare	18	concerned about the welfare	44
11	with the welfare of	18	welfare and *food stamps*	43
12	the *provision* of welfare	18	welfare of the child	43
13	on the welfare of	17	department of *public* welfare	37
14	the welfare of his	17	*people* off of welfare	34
15	*promote* the welfare of	17	to the general welfare	30
16	welfare *state* and the	16	concerned with the welfare	29
17	of the welfare of	16	get off of welfare	27
18	and the welfare of	15	who are on welfare	27
19	in the welfare of	15	to the *child* welfare	27
20	in the welfare *state*	13	welfare of the *nation*	27

According to the concordance lines, *welfare* collocates with services or benefits implying the provision of some kind of systematic support. On the other hand, *well-being* seems more solely concerned with physical and mental health of people in general (Table 4).

Table 4
4-Grams including *well-being [Emphasis added]*

	BNC	Freq.	COCA	Freq.
1	the well-being of the	41	well-being of the *people*	41
2	to the well-being of	33	concern for the well-being	39
3	for the well-being of	31	*physical and mental* well-being	34
4	a *sense* of well-being	15	*physical and psychological* well-being	34

	BNC	Freq.	COCA	Freq.
5	*health* and well-being of	15	*physical and emotional* well-being	33
6	the *health* and well-being	14	well-being of the *community*	33
7	and well-being of the	13	well-being of the *nation*	29
8	the *economic* well-being of	10	*mental health* and well-being	27
9	the well-being of their	9	overall health and well-being	27
10	the well-being of *society*	8	contribute to the well being	24
11	and the well-being of	8	level of *economic* well-being	23
12	a *feeling* of well-being	7	interest in the well-being	23
13	important to the well-being	7	for *health* and well-being	23
14	well-being of the *community*	7	well-being of the *family*	21
15	with the well-being of	7	well-being justice-involved *women*	19
16	essential to the well-being	6	*human health* and well-being	18
17	the well-being of our	6	responsible for the well-being	18
18	the well-being of *children*	6	concerned about the well-being	18
19	of the well-being of	6	overall *sense* of well-being	18
20	concern for the well-being	6	*economic and social* well-being	18

According to Table 4, the difference between *welfare* and *well-being* becomes more prominent in that *well-being* is more to do with feelings and senses implying something to enhance or maintain.

With regards to *wellness*, no collocation or bundles were found in the BNC, which validates the results regarding the frequency of this word being a more recent trend. In the COCA, *wellness* is used in such 4-grams as "to health and wellness", "in health and wellness", "on health and wellness", "about health and wellness", and "for health and wellness". These 4-grams underscore the fact that *wellness* denotes more personal, well-balanced conditions, and that *wellness* is a synonym for health in a stricter sense.

DISCUSSION

Analyzing the collocations, it is possible to plot the context in which the word is typically appearing as well as potential attitudes towards the word. By comparing the near-synonyms using the corpora in this way, more detailed or nuanced results are revealed in terms of frequencies and collocations. The results demonstrate that *welfare* seems to be referred to as a public or state system to support people or children, while implying that *welfare* also means health and happiness. On the other hand, *well-being* seems more solely concerned with the physical and mental health of people in general. With regards to *wellness*, no collocation or bundles were found in the BNC, which validates the low frequency of this word being related to its usage as a more recent trend.

These tendencies prove that *welfare* is used in the context where social support primarily means public and economic support for people in need rather than supporting the health and happiness of the people who are entitled to receive it. While *welfare* is more related to welfare systems meaning a provision of support as a system to make the related services or benefits available, *well-being* and *wellness* are more strongly associated with a personal state of health in terms of physical, psychological, emotional and mental health condition. This can be related to the negative connotations of *welfare* in Japanese and the fact that it has been appearing in the Japanese language as a loanword less frequently over time. On the contrary, *wellness* and *well-being*, which are relatively new trendy loanwords also used in Japanese, are now more often used in a rather positive way. They are referring to a person or a community being in a healthy state, and this seems to reflect an increasing trend in the current social environment where being in good health requires being physically and mentally fit.

Japanese loanwords show more distinctive differences in usage and context compared to the corpus analysis done in the previous section. According to the BCCWJ, ウェルネス [wellness] is the only word that can be researched with some meaningful examples. While ウェルフェア [welfare] and ウェルビーイング [well-being] are only found in public reports and academic papers with only eight hits and three hits respectively, ウェルネス [wellness] has twenty-five hits. The concordance lines illustrate a definitive tendency in which ウェルネス [wellness] is mostly used in a medical context or as promotional or public relations terminology. This seems to explain the increasing popularity of ウェルネス [wellness] as a positive term, whereas ウェルフェア [welfare] and ウェルビーイング [well-being] have not grown in usage as loanwords probably due to negative connotations implying or addressing certain social and mental health issues that have long existed in Japanese society (Inazawa, 2022).

One of the reasons for this tendency can also be traced to the original definition of welfare in Japanese, in which fukushi (福祉) [welfare] originally meant happiness of the people, but combined as shakai fukushi [social welfare], the meaning changes to the systems to provide people with necessary support. While ウェルフェア [welfare] as an English loanword is replacing 福祉 [welfare] as was previously represented using Chinese characters, ウェルネス [wellness] and ウェルビーイング [well-being] are deemed to be overtaking ウェルフェア [welfare] in popularity representing a more positive image of the social welfare industry. It appears that a vision of societal welfare has shifted from systematic services to providing for peoples' needs to society as an entity where everyone is entitled to pursue self-realization. As a characteristic of word usage trends seems to be resulting from some semantic preferences and their inevitable resulting connotations, the word usage in context and frequency is expected to influence the views and attitudes towards each word among people in society while reflecting the social environment and human behavior. The corpus analysis results cannot elucidate all the changing characteristics and trends of words; however, the potential benefits of corpus-based analysis are to include the possibility of describing habitual word usage as well as portraying the changing social environment. By providing deeper insights and wider perspectives for interpreting social changes, Japanese loanwords can be an invaluable resource for better language awareness.

Teaching English focusing on near-synonyms and English loanwords has the potential to find alternative ways to help students improve their English skills by acknowledging lexical differences. By mediating between the Japanese and English equivalences, it is also expected that students will find linguistic and cultural gaps and to try to find ways to use loanwords in a more appropriate context. There is a possibility that students can learn better ways to develop interpretative language competence, and thus build their vocabulary utilizing existing vocabulary knowledge in L1. Japanese learners of English tend to depend on loanwords familiar to them and tend to use them frequently as they know and recognize them from L1. Their lack of grammatical knowledge and some negative influence from L1 such as unnatural collocations can be targeted in ELT by analyzing or using near-synonyms of their familiar English loanwords. Not only by instructing based on familiar Japanese loanwords and their English equivalences, but also by focusing on the parts of speech and natural collocations of loanwords, CLT can be benefitted by gaining wider linguistic perspectives.

The corpus analysis results cannot reflect all the changes and trends of each word; however, the potential benefits of corpus analysis results can include the possibility of not only describing habitual word usage but also the changing social environment while providing deeper insights and wider perspectives for interpreting social changes. The word usage in context and frequency is expected to influence the views and attitudes towards each word among people in society, reflecting the current social environment and human behavior. The characteristics of word usage trends can also be caused by some semantic preferences and their inevitably associated connotations, which is surely of pedagogical value for learners as well as for teachers.

CONCLUSION

This paper discussed how lexical analysis can aid in CLT using near-synonyms in English and their English loanword equivalences in order to cultivate linguistic and cultural awareness. This bilingual approach has the potential to cultivate mediation skills between Japanese (L1) and English (L2), possibly bridging the gap between culturally specific language use. In the Japanese language and culture, lexical borrowing has created a wealth of English-based loanwords, which can either be considered greatly helpful in various aspects of learning English or as an obstacle to the acquisition of the English language. Although the grammar-translation approach has been criticised as a major factor for Japanese students' poor communicative competence, there are benefits to having a wider range of bilingual loanword vocabulary knowledge. While learners of English are not necessarily aware of the differences in meaning between the language of origin and the foreign loanwords in Japanese, this paper concludes that raising students' awareness of loanwords in Japanese, with an emphasis on collocations and context, can be an effective means to aid in their vocabulary building and also to help students improve their English proficiency.

This research project focusing on loanwords is still in progress with some results to be included in the general curriculum of English education in Japan as a different form of teaching from the traditional grammar-translation approach. Nevertheless, corpus-based ELT with near-synonyms and loanwords has several benefits to enhance learner awareness of language differences as well as to aid the development of pedagogically valuable and engaging materials that target and utilize the specific linguistic characteristics of learners' language abilities and learning environments. It is expected that this approach, if deftly employed, could prove useful and effective in the teaching of mediating, intercultural communicative language skills in English and in Japanese while fostering the importance of natural collocations.

The implication of this study suggests that the use of corpora can be an effective supplementary tool not only for teachers but also for learners specifically regarding lexical choices and near-synonyms. By applying corpus-based analysis to practical language teaching, linguistic research and classroom-based education will become even more tightly interwoven and complementary and potentially contribute to the analysis of interlanguage development in return (Aijmer, 2009). As Granger (2011) states that "the most exciting methodological contribution of the lexical approach … is its promotion of language awareness activities," this approach can aid vocabulary learning with more authentic usage and illustrations of the context (p. 132). Attempting to fill in the gap between foreign language teaching and the reality of the classroom, pedagogical implementations of the lexical approach using near-synonyms and loanword equivalents can assist and benefit teachers as well as learners to become more aware of language in a wider context.

There are limitations to how English loanword usage can be used to compare the original English words to the adopted loanwords in Japanese. Nevertheless, by becoming more aware of the large volume of English loanwords as a part of the total vocabulary, Japanese learners of English as a foreign language can potentially develop more positive views towards English language learning and their mediating skills as bilingual learners. Further investigation of additional sets of loanword synonyms is necessary, while at the same time generating and optimizing frameworks to be used in classrooms in an EFL context. Future research into how to implement concordance lines in classroom teaching is also required to create stronger arguments for using a bilingual approach and for utilizing English loanwords in the teaching of English. With the rapid increase of English loanwords in Japanese society, it is expected that this line of research can make an invaluable contribution to raising language awareness.

REFERENCES

Aijmer, K. (Ed.). (2009). *Corpora and language teaching*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Cortes, V. (2004). If you look at …: Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks. *Applied Linguistics, 25*(3), 371–405.

Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Reppen, R. (1998). *Corpus linguistics: Investigating language structure and use*. Cambridge University Press.

Camerer, R., & Mader, J. (2010). Intercultural competence and the CEFR – What's the connection? *IATEFL TEA SIG-EALTA Barcelona Conference Proceedings*, 11-26.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*, 1-47.

Carroll, S. E. (1992). On cognates. *Second Language Research, 8*(2), 93-119.

Chesterman, A. (1998). *Contrastive functional analysis*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Cook, G. (1998). Use of translation in language teaching. In M. Baker (Ed.), *Routledge encyclopaedia of translation studies* (pp. 277-280). Routledge.

Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Coulmas, F. (1989). *Language adaptation*. Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe (2001). *The common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf

Daulton, F. (1998). Loanword cognates and the acquisition of English vocabulary. *The Language Teacher, 20*(1), 17-25.

Daulton, F. (2007). *Japan's built-in lexicon of English-based loanwords*. Multilingual Matters.

Daulton, F. (2011). On the origins of gairaigo bias: English learners' attitudes towards English-based loanwords in Japan. *The Language Teacher, 35*(6), 7-12.

Granger, S. (2011). From phraseology to pedagogy: Challenges and prospects. In T. Herbst, S. Faulhaber & P. Uhrig (Eds.), *The phraseological view of language: A tribute to John Sinclair* (pp. 123-146). Mouton de Gruyter.

Hoey, M. P. (2005). *Lexical priming: A new theory of words and language*. Routledge.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269-293). Penguin Books.

Inazawa, K. (2022). *Fukushi no Ronri [The Fundamental Theory of Welfare]*. Seishinshobo.

Ishikawa, K., & Rubrecht, B. (2007). English loanword use on Japanese television. *JALT Conference Proceedings 2007*, 307-316.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Malmkjaer, K. (2009). What is translation competence? *Revue Française de Linguistique Appliquée, XIV*(1), 121-134.

Miura, A. (1979). *English loanwords in Japanese: A selection*. Charles E. Tuttle Company.

Mochizuki, M. (2012). Learning and teaching material development for katakana loanwords: Feedback and design. *Journal of Foreign Language Studies, 6*, 1-16.

Nation, I. S. P. (2003). The role of the first language in foreign language learning. *Asian EFL Journal 2003*, 1-8.

Nation, I. S. P. (2005). Teaching vocabulary. *Asian EFL Journal 2005*, 1-9.

North, B. (2014). *CEFR in practice*. Cambridge University Press.

North, B., & Piccardo, E. (2016). Developing illustrative descriptors of aspects of mediation for the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). *Language Teaching, 49*(03), 455-459.

Partington, A. (1998). *Patterns and meanings: Using corpora for English language research and teaching.* John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Sanseido Co., Ltd. (2020). *Sanseido's concise dictionary of katakana words*. Sanseido.

Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Shibatani, M. (2008). *The languages of Japan*. Cambridge University Press.

Stanlaw, J. (1992). English in Japanese communicative strategies. In B. B. Kachru, (Ed.), *The other tongue* (pp. 178-208). University of Illinois Press.

Stubbs, M. (2001). *Words and phrases: Corpus studies in lexical semantics*. Blackwell.

Uchida, E. (2001). *The use of cognate inferencing strategies by Japanese learners of English*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Essex].

Witte, A., Harden, T., & Ramos de Oliveira Harden, A. (Eds.). (2009). *Translation in second language learning and teaching*. Peter Lang.

Zojer, H. (2009). The methodological potential of translation in second language acquisition. In A. Witte, T. Harden & A. Ramos de Oliveira Harden (Eds.), *Translation in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 31-52). Peter Lang.

Xiao, R., & McEnery, T. (2006). Collocation, semantic prosody, and near synonymy: A cross-linguistic perspective. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(1), 103–129.

EFL Learning Using the Linguistic Landscape of Sacred Space: A Case of a Shinto Shrine

Ryan Barnes

ryan@ngu.ac.jp

Faculty of Economics, English as Foreign Language,
Nagoya Gakuin University

Abstract

Linguistic landscape (LL)—publicly displayed signs, billboards, street names, and other forms of symbolic inscription—is a relatively new field. Although original studies focused on language policy and language vitality, recently there has been a recent trend toward using the LL as effective, real-world, out-of-the-classroom input for language learning. This paper investigates what happens when EFL learners engage with the multilingual LL of a 2,000 year-old Shinto shrine, an important historical location and sacred space in the Japanese indigenous religion. By creating and analyzing their own learner-generated multimodal artefacts, this paper takes a geosemiotic approach to focus on how the LL can apply to second language development, as well as how language learners make use of multimodality to question and challenge texts in their daily lives. Contributions include the study of the LL and language learning in sacred spaces.

Keywords: Linguistic landscape, Outside-of-class learning, EFL

INTRODUCTION

The field of Linguistic Landscape (LL) studies—examining publicly displayed signs, billboards, street names, and other forms of symbolic inscription—has recently seen a trend toward using the LL as effective, real-world, of-out-the-classroom input for language learning (e.g., Burwell & Lenters, 2015; Chern & Dooley, 2014; Huyer, 2019; Malinowski, 2015; Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). "The linguistic landscape can provide input for second language learners and it can be particularly interesting for the development of pragmatic competence" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p. 274). An interest in authentic materials, the affordances of learning outside the classroom, and the wealth of material embedded in public texts led to studies investigating using the LL as input for second language teaching and learning.

This study investigates what happens when Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners engage with the multilingual LL of a 2,000 year-old Shinto[1] shrine, an important historical location and sacred space in the Japanese indigenous religion. By creating and analyzing language learners' own generated multimodal artefacts, this paper focuses on how the LL can apply to second language development, as well as how language learners make use of multimodality to question and challenge texts in their daily lives.

Context/setting of the study

Atsuta Shrine is one of the three holiest shrines in Shinto. Located in the central city of Nagoya, the shrine's history dates back 2,000 years, holds around 60 festivals a year, and around 10 important Shinto rituals. The premises itself is about 19 hectares, not counting another hectare of associated shrines outside the premises. More than 9 million people visit the site each year for such things as tourism, festivals, New Year, and weddings (Atsuta Jingu, 2009).

---

[1] Shintō 神道, literally, "the way of the gods," is the indigenous religion of Japan

This context is unique in that most LL studies are undertaken in urban, commercialized areas. A Shinto shrine, being almost totally devoid of commercial signage, is an interesting case to gain some insight into the LL outside of normally studied realms. To the best of my knowledge, very few studies (e.g., Coluzzi & Kitade, 2015; Doering & Kishi, 2021; Hiramatsu, 2021; Woldemariam & Lanza, 2012; Yusuf & Putrie, 2022) have looked at the LL of sacred spaces, and none using the LL of sacred spaces for language learning.

The linguistic landscape in Shinto shrines tends to be quite sparse, but public signage is necessary for touristic as well as ritualistic information and instruction. Additionally, although Japanese is the liturgical language of Shinto, some multilingual signage is necessary primarily due to the presence of tourists from foreign countries who may not know much about Japanese language and culture.

Purpose and significance of study

The purpose of this study is to describe ways that Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) university students interacted with the multilingual linguistic landscape of an important Shinto shrine to construct their second language learning. By providing evidence of language learning outside of the classroom, this study may benefit other teacher-researchers who can avail themselves of authentic, situated language, providing students the resources and opportunities to connect with language in a local context.

Research question

How do Japanese university EFL students use the multilingual linguistic landscape in their language learning?

Authentic input

Many EFL textbooks in Japan follow drill-and-kill formulaic patterns prioritized on individual cognition, eschewing the unplanned social interaction “in the wild” (Thorne, 2010). Introducing less deterministic learning materials could create more dynamic possibilities for experiential learning. By exploring the world of language around them, learners have the opportunity to connect their language learning to the world at large. This study moves the learning beyond the classroom and into the real world (Benson & Reinders, 2011; Nunan & Richards, 2015).

The linguistic landscape is “authentic, contextualized input” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p. 273), where the meaning is not only derived from the linguistic elements, but also “the physical, material and symbolic aspects of places … producing meanings for the signs and practices that are found in them” (Nichols, 2014, p. 177). Working from this multimodal perspective, learners can take into account not only the inherent message of the text, but also make larger connections to the materiality and spatiality of the use of public language, building up their pragmatic competence (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008).

Learning in the real world

In a heterotopical place, “every space and place in the world becomes readable or interpretable as a classroom” (Soja, 2004, as cited in Malinowski, 2015, p. 109). With a digital camera, student-researchers are able to quickly learn to collect LL data on their own. By going out and collecting images of the LL, finding sources of authentic input becomes simple and straightforward, especially in locales where the target language is not often encountered in daily life (e.g., English in Japan).

As the LL is located in the physical world, learners’ experiences in the material world also provide opportunities “to consider their own affective responses and ethical stance toward the people and places around them” (Malinowski et al., 2020a, p. 2). In addition to the pure images of captured data, using the public space creates more social and political consciousness through language awareness, linguistic activism, and self-conceptions of citizenship (Malinowski et al., 2020a).

Language skills benefits

The affordances of exploring the LL has been studied for its possibilities in language learning (e.g., Dumanig & David, 2019; Li & Marshall, 2020). In Japan, Rowland (2013) building off Cenoz and Gorter (2008) and Sayer (2010), asserts six pedagogical benefits in working with the LL and EFL learners' language learning:

1. developing skills in critical literacy
2. improving pragmatic competence
3. increasing incidental language learning opportunities
4. facilitating multimodal literacy skill acquisition
5. stimulating multicompetence
6. enhancing connotational sensitivity in language

LITERATURE REVIEW

Linguistic landscape (LL) is a relatively new field. The term was first coined in the seminal paper by Landry and Bourhis (1997) as "the study of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings" (p. 25). This sociolinguistic study's theoretical framework was rooted in ethnolinguistic vitality (Giles et al., 1977), measuring the strength of language and its associated ethnic group in a multilingual environment where language contact was a point of contention in local politics and societies.

Early pioneers were interested in identifying social "boundaries of linguistic territories" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 24) in multilingual areas where language contact was a point of contention in local politics and societies such as Brussels, Belgium (Verdoot, 1979) and Montréal, Québec, Canada (Corbeil, 1980). This was done in an attempt to gather real-world repercussions of language policy, such as which language was privileged to appear above another on a sign, or measuring the salience of minority languages in contested areas (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Gorter et al., 2012).

Common methods were to take a distributive approach by counting the occurrences of languages or scripts on signs to measure "the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or area" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 23), using these numerical tokens (Zabrodskaja & Milani, 2014) to signify the presence or absence of greater political, linguistic, and ideological systems in a space, a methodology that is common in the literature to this date (e.g., Auleear Owodally & Peeroo, 2021; Esteron, 2021; Restrepo-Ramos, 2020; Yusuf & Putrie, 2022).

The linguistic landscape as input for second language

Over the past few years, there has been a growing interest in using the linguistic landscape for teaching and learning second and foreign languages (Burwell & Lenters, 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Chern & Dooley, 2014; Huyer, 2019; Malinowski, 2015; Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). This has included an edited volume (Malinowski et al., 2020b) and applied studies in foreign language learning in London, England (Hernández-Martín & Skrandies, 2020); the Greater Tokyo, Japan region (Rowland, 2013); Oaxaca City, Mexico (Sayer, 2010); Jerusalem, Israel (Aladjem & Jou, 2016); Al Buraimi, Oman (Dumanig & David, 2019); and Vancouver, Canada (Li & Marshall, 2020). Much of the research connects with multimodality as learners venture beyond the classroom (Benson & Reinders, 2011; Lai, 2017; Nunan & Richards, 2015) and connect with the landscape in their contextualized spaces.

One of the first applications of what would be known today as linguistic landscape in the literature of second language development was Hudelson (1984), who studied environmental print, “surrounding non-continuous print (e.g. words, letters, numerals and symbols) that is encountered in a particular context and fulfils real-life functions” (Neumann et al., 2012, p. 232), in developing reading and writing skills in children learning English as a Second Language. The focus was mainly centered on household logos, but recognized the value of utilizing “students’ lives and living environments for literacy experience” (p. 235), building on their own funds of knowledge (Moll et al., 1992), rather than drawing purely from textbooks.

As the study of environmental print in second language teaching branched out to look at other public places where signs were common in young learners’ environments (e.g., Kuby & Aldridge, 1997; McGee et al., 1988; Proudfoot, 1992), Orellana and Hernández (1999) created the “literacy walk,” leading language learners through the multilingual linguistic landscape of Los Angeles, California, USA. Critiquing that environmental print in literacy studies had focused primarily on what print could be found in suburban, middle-class homes and schools, they made a case “that local urban communities offer a rich resource for the teachers of millions of children who attend city schools” (p. 612), while remarking on the power of “linking the reading of words to the reading of *worlds*” (p. 619, emphasis in original) and drawing from competencies found in learners’ every-day lives.

Although they seem to be unaware of contemporary studies such as Landry and Bourhis (1997), Orellana and Hernández (1999) appear to be the first to have come up with going out and engaging with the linguistic landscape as a tool in second language development. Later highly-cited studies (e.g., Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Rowland, 2013; Sayer, 2010) consciously invoke the concept of the linguistic landscape while considering the role of it as a source of input, by providing opportunities to engage with multiple modalities in examining how meaning is constructed (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008), to question why multilingualism is used in different contexts (Sayer, 2010), and in building learners’ symbolic competence and multiliteracy skills (Rowland, 2013).

Sayer (2010) examined the role of English in the linguistic landscape of Oaxaca de Juárez, Oaxaca, Mexico and implications for its use in teaching English as a Foreign Language, having the students act as “language detectives” (p. 152) to take photographs of their environments and categorize them, “reading the city” like a textbook (Burwell & Lenters, 2015; Dagenais et al., 2009).

The linguistic landscape as a means for learning about social, economic, and political issues

The linguistic landscape can provide a clear mirror of society (Shohamy, 2018; Trumper-Hecht, 2010), can be a critical resource to learn about the culture of the target language “by focusing on diversity, discrimination, exclusion, controversies, ideologies and justice” (Shohamy, 2018, p. 32). Students have learned which languages are privileged and which are marginalized (Brown, 2007), where groups of people, e.g., newly arrived immigrants and refugees, live and why they live there (Dagenais et al., 2009), and who has a voice to participate and why (Huyer, 2019). Teacher trainees have also been taught to examine their own attitudes about multilingualism in the linguistic landscape (Hancock, 2012). If society is unjust, Shohamy (2018) asks if the LL could “be changed and used to transform societies, cities and neighbourhoods?” (p. 32).

In English as a Foreign Language study, one pedagogical application of this reality is “exposing learners to the silences within and related to texts of the LL, in order that they become active participants in meaning making and negotiation” (Richardson, 2020, p. 250). Teachers and learners could encounter the multilingual linguistic landscape through this critical lens, noting the spaces where these languages are found, and where they are absent. Where can these be found? Who is producing them? Who is silencing them and why?

METHODOLOGY

Study participants

Seven females and six male first-year students majoring in Commerce from at a nearby university voluntarily took part in the study. Participants were recruited through snowball sampling. All were native Japanese speakers and were aged 18–19 years old. My estimates of proficiency based on face-to-face evaluation in the classroom as well as a series of in-class assignments would place them at A1–A2 levels in a CEFR-based scale, indicating that that their proficiency was quite low. Some participants said they were somewhat familiar with the shrine, but for all of them, this was their first visit to the shrine.

Data collection procedures

Data was publicly available. The shrine is free to all and open 24 hours a day. Some places in the shrine are off-limits to all but the highest priests and the imperial family, and other places prohibit photography. All photos taken were in places where photography was permitted.

Following a brief introduction to linguistic landscape and its basic concepts, I guided the participants on a walk to the shrine, and had learners take pictures of the multilingual LL and fill out a brief survey. Soundscapes are also an important part of the semiotic landscape (Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010; Rudby & Ben Said, 2015), not just in terms of environmental sounds, but also the sounds of the participants' voices during "commented walks" (Stroud & Jegels, 2014), taking in "the importance of social action for the making of space" (Mondada, 2011, p. 291). Stroud and Jegels (2014) highlighted spatial practices, namely walking, as "both a praxeological construal of local place and an understanding of locality in terms of mobility" (p. 183). As the participants commented on the signage around the shrine, I noted their spatial narratives as they moved through it, taking field notes as I interacted with learners about what they were seeing.

In addition to taking notes of participant narration, I also collected participant-generated photographs of signs, and asked participants to respond to an open-ended questionnaire to gain deeper insights on the project's pedagogical aspects. The questionnaire was adapted from Qi et al. (2020), and asked about prior exposure to interacting with multilingual LLs, the multilingual LL situation in the participant's hometown, the perceived utility of LL in foreign language learning, what the participant felt they learned from this activity.

Data analysis

In geosemiotics, "aspects of place must be analyzed in terms of the meanings and modes of participation that they make available" (Nichols, 2014, p. 179). Scollon and Scollon (2003) examine three layers of meaning in analysis: semiotics of place (how both the built and natural environment produce meanings), texts, and material objects in space. Thinking about the flows through the shrine and signage therein helped me ground the study and think about where participants would be interacting with the LL. Leading them to the shrine, and having them enter through West Gate, where the tour buses park, gave them the vantage point of a first-time group visitor with all the attendant signs that greet disoriented holiday-makers.

After this initial step of familiarizing myself with the space and signage, I began a thematic analysis by reviewing my spatial narrative notes on participant narration, the participant-generated photographs, and the questionnaire in NVivo 14, a qualitative data analysis software package. From the initial coding, I developed four themes that emerged from the data, as detailed below.

1. Initial Familiarity. Beginning from my own observations from introducing the topic, to discussions during the process, the participants' ease of locating signage, and their own comments in the questionnaire, this theme was relatively easy to recognize. first theme indicated that multilingual signs are a familiar sight, and highlights the participants' awareness of the multilingual linguistic landscape around them. As discussed

below, the initial familiarity helped to ground the topic, and serves as a promising starting point for introducing it in the classroom.

2. Language in Everyday Life. This theme emerged participants' comments about how this activity guided them to them accessing authentic multilingual materials in their daily lives, and some

Figure 1 This kind of display of multilingual text would be very familiar to many learners.

reflected on how this motivated them in their studies. Several commented on how this could potentially assist in their vocabulary acquisition.

3. Blurring of Discrete Language Boundaries. This theme emerged through my own notes and through looking through the submitted photos. As discussed below, the texts were written in English, but participants did not register this as English. Although the Japanese writing system uses a combination of logographic *kanji* and syllabic *kana*, there is also a frequent use of the Latin alphabet, for example, English-based words used in advertising. As these words are used in Japanese sentences, the line quickly blurs between what is Japanese and what is foreign-language. For example, one participant did not feel the sign in Figure 3 was in a foreign language.

4. Critical Use of Code Preference: This theme focuses on the critical analysis of code preference in the linguistic landscape. The participants observed the inclusion and exclusion of languages. As discussed below, I took note of the order that languages were displayed, opening up plenty of spaces for critical inquiry about which languages were present and which languages came before and after others.

DISCUSSION

As discussed above in the description of study participants, all 13 participants were low-proficiency EFL learners, approximately A1–A2 levels in a CEFR-based scale. Feedback from this number of participants approached data saturation, where responses provided a sufficient richness and depth (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) that aligned with the specific research objectives, methodology, and the principles of this study. All participants responded to the survey. I suspect much of their responses was written through machine translation. This small-scale study does not aim to compare to other groups.

Figure 2 The sign at the park outside the shrine. One participant commented on how "football" was used, rather than the more commonly used "soccer."

The following paragraphs discuss this study's findings on how Japanese university EFL learners use the multilingual linguistic landscape in their language learning. Learners were quick to grasp the concept of LL and made connections to their everyday lives. Some surprising findings include the blurring of discrete language boundaries, i.e., what is Japanese text and what is not?, and some implications for pedagogical application.

Initial familiarity

Although this was a new concept, the participants were aware of the multilingual LL around them, and most remarked these signs are a familiar sight in their hometowns. This awareness-raising activity of exposing learners to the multilingual linguistic landscape may benefit their learning by noticing, i.e., "language learners learn only that which they have first 'noticed' or become aware of in the input" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 221). "In my hometown, there are many signboards around the station and the cultural center. Those signs have Japanese text on the top, Chinese text in the middle, and English text on the bottom." This initial familiarity helps ground the concept, and help with introducing the topic. For other EFL educator-researchers interested in incorporating pictures of LL signage as authentic materials in teaching, this initial familiarity may be a promising starting point in the classroom.

Figure 3 A participant saw this sign as written in the Japanese language.

Language in everyday life

Some learners found this as a useful tool for authentic input. One participant stated that they were "able to visualize what kind of English there is in everyday life." With "authentic, contextualized input" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p. 273), the LL provides many locations for learning, giving learners a choice to find a space that matches their interests. As another participant said, "Since I can touch English in my daily life, I would like to continue using it as an efficient way to study English." Another noted that they found "opportunities to come into contact with the language I was learning." These opportunities situated in every-day life may be motivating for EFL learners who otherwise may not have much contact with foreign languages.

Blurring of discrete language boundaries

A surprise in this study was that although some texts, such as Figure 4, page 72, were multilingual, the participants did not immediately associate it as such. English words are often used a decorative rather than communicative function in Japan, and although the information may be relayed in English, the participants did not see it as a foreign language. This may be due to the common perception of Japan as an ethnically homogeneous country (e.g., Gottlieb, 2008; Weiner, 2009), where both the speaker and audience are assumed to be Japanese—even if communicating through English words. Additionally, although Japanese and Chinese share many of the same written language and the four-Chinese characters phrase can be parsed together by a Japanese speaker, the Chinese phrase is not commonly used in Japanese. It was surprising to see that three languages on this sign were perceived to be only in Japanese. By looking critically at which languages are being used, the multilingual linguistic landscape may benefit language learners by having them "notice" authentic language, and thus become aware of the input (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 221). In the EFL classroom, this authentic use of blurred language boundaries may be of interest in discussing pragmatics, to help understand the reasons behind language choices such as addressing a particular target audience or conveying a particular message effectively.

Critical use of code preference

Although one participant, in their first exposure to LL studies, saw "cross cultural understanding," it may benefit learners to encourage critical thinking about the sign. In this multilingual sign (see Figure 5, page 72), there are four languages: Japanese, English, Traditional Chinese[2], and Korean. Additionally, by examining the materiality of the sign, we can see that the English word "sacred" has been modified. It may be useful to have learners critically discuss their findings, as well as to analyze modifications to signs and the sign's materiality in general.

In the smoking area sign (Figure 6, page 73), the code preference is Japanese, English, Simplified Chinese[3], Korean, and Portuguese. Learners may take a critical view here on the inclusion and exclusion of languages as well as the choices of alternative scripts, such as Simplified and Traditional Chinese scripts. For example, we may situations in which Traditional Chinese scripts (mainly for visitors from Hong Kong and Taiwan) are used and when Simplified Chinese scripts (mainly for visitors from the People's Republic of China) are used, and critically analyze the reasons for those choices. As for other languages, the only occurrence of (presumably Brazilian) Portuguese that participants documented at a smoking area just outside of the shrine. The Korean language appeared on signs that had more detail put into graphic design and material construction, signs that were presumably more expensive to produce. The choice of languages used in certain areas, why some are ignored in other areas, and the order that the languages appear in would be an interesting critical lens to follow-up with language learners.

---

[2] 正體字 zhèngtǐzì used in Hong Kong, Macau, Taiwan, and sometimes South Korea, as well as many Chinese-speaking communities abroad

[3] 简化字 jiǎnhuàzì, the standardized Chinese characters used in the People's Republic of China

CONCLUSION

This paper has described ways that Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) university students interacted with the multilingual linguistic landscape of an important Shinto shrine to construct their second language learning. Through examining participant narratives, submitted photographs of the linguistic landscape, and a follow-up survey, I found the affordances of using the LL discussed the pedagogical possibilities of language order in a sacred space, the positive attitude of learners connecting the target language to their daily lives, and the blurring of language boundaries. Contributions to the literature include the study of the LL and language learning in sacred spaces.

Figure 4 "Have a nice trip!" written in simplified Chinese (旅行愉快！), Japanese (ステキな旅行を。), and English. In this case, the simplified Chinese characters get the top-billing in code preference (Scollon & Scollon, 2003).

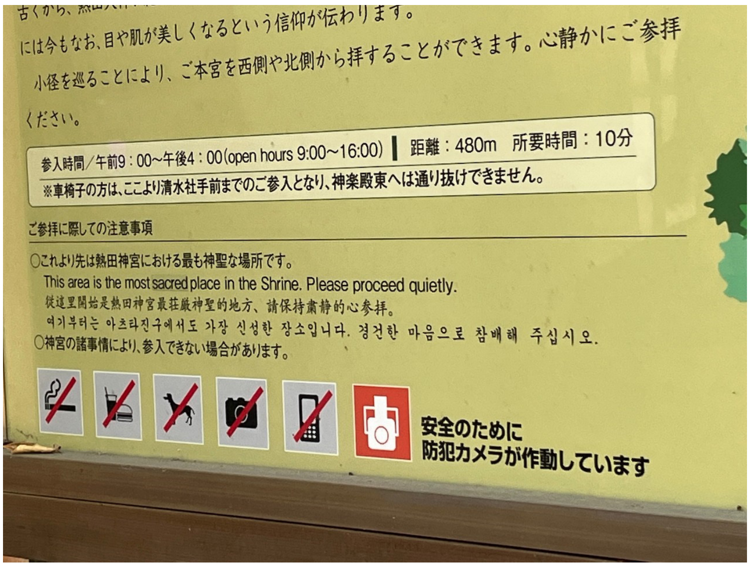

Figure 5 心の小道 Kokoro no Komichi: The Pilgrimage Path. The most sacred place in the shrine.

Figure 6 Smoking area at the edge of the shrine.

REFERENCES

Aladjem, R., & Jou, B. (2016). The linguistic landscape as a learning space for contextual language learning. *Journal of Learning Spaces, 5*(2), 66–70.

Atsuta Jingu. (2009). *Introduction*. Retrieved March 18, 2020, from https://www.atsutajingu.or.jp/en/intro/

Auleear Owodally, A. M., & Peeroo, S. (2021). Multilingualism in Mauritius: Using a virtual linguistic servicescape lens. Linguistic Landscape. *An International Journal, 7*(1), 6–36. https://doi.org/10/gjhb58

Benson, P., & Reinders, H. (Eds.). (2011). *Beyond the language classroom*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education.

Burwell, C., & Lenters, K. (2015). Word on the street: Investigating linguistic landscapes with urban Canadian youth. *Pedagogies: An International Journal, 10*(3), 201–221. https://doi.org/10/ghj5gf

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2006). Linguistic landscape and minority languages. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 3*(1), 67–80. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668386

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2008). The linguistic landscape as an additional source of input in second language acquisition. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 46*(3), 267–287. https://doi.org/10/cfpz5g

Chern, C. l., & Dooley, K. (2014). Learning English by walking down the street. *ELT Journal, 68*(2), 113–123. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cct067

Coluzzi, P., & Kitade, R. (2015). The languages of places of worship in the Kuala Lumpur area: A study on the "religious" linguistic landscape in Malaysia. Linguistic Landscape. *An International Journal, 1*(3), 243–267. https://doi.org/10.1075/ll.1.3.03col

Corbeil, J. (1980). *L'Aménagement linguistique du Québec*. Guérin.

Dagenais, D., Moore, D., Sabatier, C., Lamarre, P., & Armand, F. (2009). Linguistic landscape and language awareness. In E. G. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery*. Routledge.

Doering, A., & Kishi, K. (2021). "What your head!": Signs of hospitality in the tourism linguistic landscapes of rural Japan. *Tourism Culture & Communication*. https://doi.org/10.3727/109830421X16296375579561

Dumanig, F. P., & David, M. K. (2019). Linguistic landscape as peadgogical tools in learning English in Oman. *Modern Journal of Studies in English Language Teaching and Literature, 1*, 1–13.

Esteron, J. J. (2021). English in the churchscape: Exploring a religious linguistic landscape in the Philippines. *Discourse and Interaction, 14*(2), 82–104. https://doi.org/10.5817/DI2021-2-82

Giles, H., Bourhis, R. Y., & Taylor, D. (1977). Towards a theory of language in ethnic group relations. In H. Giles (Ed.), *Language, ethnicity and intergroup relations* (pp. 307–348). Academic Press.

Gorter, D., Marten, H. F., & Van Mensel, L. (Eds.). (2012). *Minority languages in the linguistic landscape*. Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Gottlieb, N. (2008). Japan: Language policy and planning in transition. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 9*(1), 1–68. https://doi.org/10/d65ssx

Hancock, A. (2012). Capturing the linguistic landscape of Edinburgh: A pedagogical tool to investigate student teachers' understandings of cultural and linguistic diversity. In C. Hélot, M. Barni, R. Janssens & C. Bagna (Eds.), *Linguistic landscapes, multilingualism and social change* (pp. 249–266). Peter Lang.

Hernández-Martín, L., & Skrandies, P. (2020). Taking the foreign out of language teaching: Opening up the classroom to the multilingual city. In D. Malinowski, H. H. Maxim & S. Dubreil (Eds.), *Language teaching in the linguistic landscape* (pp. 293–325, Vol. 49). Springer International Publishing. https:// doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-55761-4_13

Hiramatsu, Y. (2021). A study of linguistic landscape in Nikko at a view point of cultural elements. *Thought and Language, 121*, 34–37.

Hudelson, S. (1984). Kan yu ret an rayt en ingles: Children become literate in English as a Second Language. *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(2), 221–238. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586691

Huyer, M. (2019). Linguistic landscaping at school - A teaching design. *Journal for Geographic Information Science, 1*, 206–212. https://doi.org/10.1553/giscience2019_02_s206

Jaworski, A., & Thurlow, C. (2010). Introducing semiotic landscapes. In A. Jaworski & C. Thurlow (Eds.), *Semiotic landscapes: Language, image, space* (pp. 1–40). Continuum.

Kuby, P., & Aldridge, J. (1997). Direct versus indirect environmental print instruction and early reading ability in kindergarten children. *Reading Psychology, 18*(2), 91–104. https://doi.org/10/b8spnd

Lai, C. (2017). *Autonomous language learning with technology: Beyond the classroom*. Bloomsbury Academic.

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 16*(1), 23–49. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X970161002

Li, J., & Marshall, S. (2020). Engaging with linguistic landscaping in Vancouver's Chinatown: A pedagogical tool for teaching and learning about multilingualism. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 23*(8), 925–941. https://doi.org/10/gg27br

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Malinowski, D. (2015). Opening spaces of learning in the linguistic landscape. Linguistic Landscape. *An international journal, 1*(1-2), 95–113. https://doi.org/10.1075/ll.1.1-2.06mal

Malinowski, D., Maxim, H. H., & Dubreil, S. (2020a). Introduction. In D. Malinowski, H. H. Maxim, & S. Dubreil (Eds.), *Language teaching in the linguistic landscape: Mobilizing pedagogy in public space* (pp. 1–13). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-55761-4_1

Malinowski, D., Maxim, H. H., & Dubreil, S. (Eds.). (2020b). *Language teaching in the linguistic landscape: Mobilizing pedagogy in public space*. Springer.

McGee, L. M., Lomax, R. G., & Head, M. H. (1988). Young children's written language knowledge: What environmental and functional print reading reveals. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 20*(2), 99–118. https://doi.org/10/dvcttn

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Moll, L. C., Amanti, C., Neff, D., & Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory Into Practice, 31*(2), 132–141. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405849209543534

Mondada, L. (2011). The interactional production of multiple spatialities within a participatory democracy meeting. *Social Semiotics, 21*(2), 289–316. https://doi.org/10/c9vszt

Neumann, M. M., Hood, M., Ford, R. M., & Neumann, D. L. (2012). The role of environmental print in emergent literacy. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 12*(3), 231–258. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468798411417080
Nichols, S. (2014). Geosemiotics. In P. Albers, T. Holbrook & A. S. Flint (Eds.), *New methods of literacy research* (pp. 177–192). Routledge.
Nunan, D., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (2015). *Language learning beyond the classroom*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
Orellana, M. F., & Hernández, A. (1999). Talking the walk: Children reading urban environmental print. *The Reading Teacher, 52*(6), 612–619. http://www.jstor.com/stable/20202135
Proudfoot, G. (1992). Pssst! There is literacy at the laundromat. *English Quarterly, 24*(1), 10–11.
Qi, W., Zhang, H., & Sorokina, N. (2020). Linguistic landscape for Korean learning: A survey of perception, attitude, and practice of Korean beginners at a Korean university. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 11*(6), 956. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1106.12
Restrepo-Ramos, F. D. (2020). Public signage in a multilingual Caribbean enclave: The linguistic landscape of Old Providence and Santa Catalina, Colombia. In D. Pascual y Cabo & I. Elola (Eds.), *Issues in Hispanic and Lusophone linguistics* (pp. 273–294, Vol. 27). John Benjamins Publishing Company. Retrieved November 11, 2020, from https://benjamins.com/catalog/ihll.27.13res
Richardson, D. F. (2020). Floating Traffic Signs and the Ambiguity of Silence in the Linguistic Landscape. In D. Malinowski, H. H. Maxim & S. Dubreil (Eds.), *Language teaching in the linguistic landscape* (pp. 163–182, Vol. 49). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-55761-4_8
Rowland, L. (2013). The pedagogical benefits of a linguistic landscape project in Japan. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 16*(4), 494–505. https://doi.org/10/gg27b8
Rudby, R., & Ben Said, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Conflict, exclusion and dissent in the linguistic landscape*. Palgrave Macmillan.
Sayer, P. (2010). Using the linguistic landscape as a pedagogical resource. *ELT Journal, 64*(2), 143–154. https://doi.org/10/c7qbsn
Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourses in place: Language in the material world*. Routledge.
Shohamy, E. (2018). Linguistic landscape after a decade: An overview of themes, debates and future directions. In M. Pütz & N. Mundt (Eds.), *Expanding the linguistic landscape: Linguistic diversity, multimodality and the use of space as a semiotic resource* (pp. 25–37). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788922166-004
Shohamy, E., & Waksman, S. (2009). Linguistic landscape as an ecological arena: Modalities, meanings, negotiations, education. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 313–331). Routledge.
Stroud, C., & Jegels, D. (2014). Semiotic landscapes and mobile narrations of place: Performing the local. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 2014*(228), 179–199. https://doi.org/10/f3n3f4
Thorne, S. L. (2010). The 'intercultural turn' and language learning in the crucible of new media. In F. Helm & S. Guth (Eds.), *Telecollaboration 2.0 for language and intercultural learning* (pp. 139–164). Peter Lang.
Trumper-Hecht, N. (2010). Linguistic landscape in mixed cities in Israel from the perspective of 'Walkers': The case of Arabic. In E. Shohamy, E. Ben-Rafael & M. Barni (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape in the city* (pp. 235–251). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692993-015
Verdoot, A. (1979). *La protection des droits de l'homme dans les états plurilingues*. Femand Nattan.
Weiner, M. (Ed.). (2009). *Japan's minorities: The illusion of homogeneity* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
Woldemariam, H., & Lanza, E. (2012). Religious wars in the linguistic landscape of an African capital. In C. Hélot, M. Barni, R. Janssens & C. Bagna (Eds.), *Linguistic landscapes, multilingualism and social change* (pp. 169–184). Peter Lang.
Yusuf, K., & Putrie, Y. E. (2022). The linguistic landscape of mosques in Indonesia: Materiality and identity representation. *International Journal of Society Culture and Language*. https://doi.org/10.22034/ijscl.2022.550006.2570
Zabrodskaja, A., & Milani, T. M. (2014). Signs in context: Multilingual and multimodal texts in semiotic space. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 2014*(228), 1–6. https://doi.org/10/ghmkct

Language Anxiety and Academic Performance among Thai University Students in Learning English

Bobbie Mata Guzman

bobbie_guzman@yahoo.com

Language Institute,
Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University

Abstract

This study investigated the level and sources of foreign language classroom anxiety among Thai learners of English as a foreign language at the university level. It also aimed to examine the difference between the level of foreign language anxiety and the student's academic performance in English. The study followed an explanatory-sequential design. The data of 195 second-year students from the faculty of education at Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University during the school year 2021–22 was gathered through an adapted Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), their English class grades, and from an interview. The overall result showed that the Thai language learners had moderate language anxiety in English and identified the fear of negative evaluation as a significant source of anxiety. Most Thai language learners performed better despite anxiety-provoking situations. There was a difference between foreign language anxiety levels and students' academic performance in English. The findings indicate the importance of creating a positive classroom environment and developing teaching strategies to alleviate foreign language anxiety.

Keywords: FLCAS, Language anxiety, Foreign language

INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language can be a delightful experience, but it can be challenging. One of the most stimulating obstacles language learners confront is foreign language anxiety, making studying, practicing, and communicating in a new language difficult. This anxiety may stem from a fear of appearing thoughtless or unaware, concern about making a mistake and being unable to communicate, or a lack of confidence while using English (Al-Khasawneh, 2018). In Thailand, foreign language education has multiplied in recent decades, and many English language classes are now available at many schools, ranging from primary to advanced levels. The Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551 (Ministry of Education in Thailand, 2008) for foreign languages in Thailand is designed to help students develop a positive attitude toward foreign languages and the ability to use them to communicate in various situations, seek knowledge, earn a living, and pursue higher education.

Despite the Ministry of Education's aspirations, the present level of proficiency in most English classrooms in Thailand remains in sharp contrast to the curriculum's stated goals. According to Ashworth (2020), Thailand's English skills have declined for the third year, with a "very low" English language proficiency score. Thailand's ranking has declined from 74 to 89 out of 100 countries in the last year. According to the latest report of the (English Proficiency Index, 2022), Thailand received a score of 423 out of 800, which is deemed "extremely low." Thailand is ranked 21st out of 24 Asian countries examined and 7th out of 8 Southeast Asian countries. According to the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS), the newest (Ordinary National Education Test, 2019) results of students who failed remain alarmingly high, with an average score of 29.45 percent for the English subject. Furthermore, according to the Common

European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), Thai university students' English proficiency levels were at the level of basic users (A1 and A2). These abilities are comparable to those of primary and junior high school students.

Thai students were undeniably straining to acquire a foreign language. Moreover, according to some studies, many Thai pupils struggle with writing, reading, listening, and, most notably, speaking skills (Khamprated, 2012; Noom-ura, 2013; Panthito, 2018). Moreover, they are generally hesitant to talk in English because they fear making mistakes and receiving negative feedback from peers and teachers (Khamprated, 2012).

To explore students' foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest three components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Anxiety over learning a foreign language is especially noticeable in the classroom, and anxiety is a powerful predictor of academic achievement. Anxiety has been demonstrated to harm students' self-esteem, confidence, and degree of participation. During spontaneous speaking activities, anxious learners negatively affect their performance, affective reactions, and general attitudes toward learning their target language. Foreign language anxiety is a significant factor in foreign language acquisition. Therefore, this research study would like to investigate the students' foreign language anxiety levels, the sources of their anxiety, and the relationship between foreign language anxiety and academic performance.

Research questions

The study aspired to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the language anxiety level of Thai university students in learning the English language?
2. What is the academic performance of Thai university students in English?
3. Is there a difference between the academic performance of Thai university students in English with a high, mid, or low level of language anxiety?

Hypothesis

To fulfill problem three of this study, the researcher constructed the null and alternative hypotheses according to the study's assumptions.

Null Hypothesis: H0: There is no difference between the academic performance of Thai university students in English with a high, mid, or low level of language anxiety.

Alternate Hypothesis: Ha: There is a difference between the academic performance of Thai university students in English with a high, mid, or low level of language anxiety.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study is anchored on the original foreign language anxiety concept postulated by Horwitz et al. (1986). They provide that language anxiety comprises the following components: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

The first component is communication apprehension. It is a subtype of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about interpersonal communication. Difficulty speaking in pairs or groups (oral communication anxiety), in public ("stage fright"), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety) are all symptoms of communication apprehension (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125). The second component is test anxiety. This arises from a fear of failure and is motivated by a fear of failure. Students who suffer from test anxiety become concerned about and burdened by foreign language tests. Due to the frequent administration of tests or quizzes in foreign language classes, test-anxious students will encounter numerous performance difficulties (Horwitz et al., 1986). The third component is the fear of negative evaluation. This emphasizes how we feel about other people's judgments or expectations. This anxiety is magnified in social evaluation situations like interviews, oral presentations, or public speaking contests. Thus, fear of negative evaluation is not limited to classroom test-taking situations. The individual who is fearful of negative evaluations may be susceptible to the perspectives of others in the classroom, including teachers, native speakers, fluent L2 speakers, and peers (Horwitz et al., 1986).

The concept of Horwitz et al.'s (1986) original model of language anxiety is classified as an attempt to combine two perspectives. The first perspective views language anxiety as a manifestation of other forms of anxiety, such as test anxiety and communication apprehension in language learning performances. It views language anxiety as a distinctive form of anxiety, also known as state anxiety, which makes someone nervous about learning a language. The second perspective views language anxiety as the worry and adverse emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language. This anxiety may occur in a specific situation, such as in a classroom context. The situation-specific perspective develops at a specific time due to a particular circumstance (Spielberger, 1983). This concept was converted into a survey questionnaire, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986), categorized into communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. These three components identified the reasons for the participants' apprehension when learning a foreign language.

Horwitz et al. (1986) say that language anxiety is a unique set of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and actions related to learning a language in a classroom. Also, this is because the process of learning a language is unique. Similarly, MacIntyre (1999) defines foreign language anxiety as feelings of disquiet, tension, worry, anxiousness, and dread when learning or utilizing a second or foreign language. The feelings may originate from any second language situation involving productive speaking and writing skills or receptive reading and listening skills. Psychologically, anxiety has been categorized into three aspects: 1) trait anxiety, 2) state anxiety, and 3) situation-specific anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). Trait anxiety is a persistent tendency to become anxious in any situation (Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety is a moment-to-moment experience of anxiety that varies in intensity and duration over time (MacIntyre, 1999). Situation-specific anxiety is similar to trait anxiety but is context-specific. Finally, situational anxiety is persistent over time but is not transferable across situations (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Foreign language anxiety demonstrates that it has a detrimental effect on foreign language learning. Also, this means that the higher an individual's level of language anxiety, the lower their academic performance will be (Horwitz et al., 1986; Maclntyre, 1999; Marwan, 2016). Aida (1994) reports a moderate negative correlation between language anxiety and course grades in Japanese language learning among college students. Additionally, Zhao (2007) discovered in her study that anxious students do not achieve much, and their low achievement contributes to their anxiety during the language learning process. Numerous studies demonstrate a negative correlation between language anxiety and course proficiency (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1991; Na, 2007; Paranuwat, 2011). Additionally, Gardner, Lalonde, and Smythe (1984, as cited in MacIntyre, 1999, p. 34) argue that language anxiety may be associated with learner perceptions of actual second language competence. In other words, language anxiety can result in impaired performance or low achievement.

According to some research, virtual classes are conducive to such interaction (Mather & Sarkans, 2018). Ng (2007) gathered qualitative data from interviews with students and tutors at the Open University of Hong Kong regarding using a virtual classroom for tutoring. The participants perceived the virtual classroom as an effective learning environment that aided their L2 acquisition. Lan (2015) discovered that a virtual environment could improve students' English performance and provide an environment conducive to rich student interaction in an experiment with elementary students in Taiwan. Melchor-Couto (2017) discovered that the FLA levels of virtual learners decreased over several weeks. The virtual students recognized that the anonymity of the learners in virtual classrooms could contribute to an increase in self-confidence and a decrease in nervousness. Côté and Gaffney (2021) stated that learners in online classes were significantly less anxious than in traditional classrooms and conversed more.

METHODOLOGY

Research design

This research is a mixed-methods study that uses the explanatory-sequential approach. First, quantitative data was collected and analyzed, followed by qualitative data collection and analysis. Then, descriptive statistics were applied utilizing mean, standard deviation, variance, frequency, and percentage for the other variables. Furthermore, this research was also conducted using the descriptive-comparative survey method to discover the relationships between variables.

Participants

The participants for this study included second-year undergraduate students under the faculty of education at Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University who studied English Usage for Communication (1500103) in the academic year 2021–22. It came up with a final sample of 195 students as participants from a total population of 396 second-year education students.

Research locale

This study was conducted at Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University in Thailand. The Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University (NPRU) offers English subject programs in different areas under the Language Institute (LI). These programs are categorized as old, general, and education curricula.

Instruments

Questionnaire

The instrument used in this study was adapted from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). The FLCAS was translated into Thai to avoid misinterpretations before it was given to the participants. FLCAS included 33 items that measured three dimensions of foreign language learning anxiety. These dimensions were (a) communication apprehension, (b) fear of negative evaluation, and (c) test anxiety. This questionnaire version was selected because it has been tested for reliability and validity under many circumstances, such as different cultural groups, settings, and ages (Paneerselvam & Yamat, 2021).

Semi-structured interview

A list of thirteen open-ended questions was modified from the interview questions developed by Yan and Horwitz (2008) and Price (1991). However, after identifying the participants' foreign language anxiety levels from the FLCAS survey questionnaire, some interview questions were irrelevant to the current results. Therefore, the new interview questions were formulated based on the overall results of the FLCAS. In addition, the three experts had validated the modified interview questions before they were conducted on the selected participants.

Procedures

The FLCAS questionnaires were delivered and collected at scheduled times online. After identifying the participants' levels of foreign language anxiety, the researcher randomly selected some participants from the high, moderate, and low anxiety groups and contacted each participant for the scheduled online interview with a Thai language teacher. To determine their academic performance, participants' grades in the course English Usage for Communication (1500103) were collected from the instructors of different classes. In this subject, the participants were rated according to the following criteria: speaking and writing tasks, listening assessments, quizzes, oral presentations, and final exams. The researcher identified the grade, achievement, final score, grade point average, and descriptions of the grade achievement to clarify the participants' overall performance. The grading system and grade equivalents are shown in Table 1, and the lists of achievement descriptions for each grade are shown in Table 2.

Table 1
Grading system and grade equivalent

Grade	Achievement	Final score (% range)	GPA
A	Excellent	80-100%	4.00
B+	Very Good	75-79%	3.50
B	Good	70-74%	3.00
C+	Fairly Good	65-69%	2.50
C	Fair	60-64%	2.00
D+	Poor	55-59%	1.50
D	Very Poor	50-54%	1.00
E	Fail	0-49%	0.00

Table 2
Descriptors of the grades' achievement

Achievement	Descriptors
Excellent	Learners communicate with clarity and fluency, handle ideas effectively and skillfully with active and complex interaction, indicating an excellent command of vocabulary with a consistently high level of grammatical accuracy, and convince the listeners.
Very good	Learners communicate fluently and naturally, handle ideas effectively with active and full interaction, indicating a very good command of vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, and express their ideas and organize their work comprehensibly and convincingly.
Good	Learners communicate mostly clearly and fluently, handle ideas most effectively with general whole interaction, indicate a good command of vocabulary with good grammatical accuracy, and express their ideas comprehensibly.
Fairly good	Learners generally communicate clearly, handle ideas adequately with whole interaction at times, indicate reasonably good command of vocabulary with an adequate level of grammatical accuracy, and express their ideas and organize their work appropriately.
Fair	Learners communicate hesitantly and, at times, unclearly, handle ideas with some difficulty with somewhat limited interaction, indicate a fair command of vocabulary and some awareness of grammatical structure, and attempt to express their ideas.
Poor	Learners communicate hesitantly and generally unclearly, handle ideas with difficulty, and restricted interaction, indicating a poor command of vocabulary and little awareness of grammatical structure, and content is rarely convincing.
Very poor	Learners communicate hesitantly and unclearly and handle ideas with great difficulty and with very restricted interaction, indicating an inferior command of vocabulary, little awareness of grammatical structure, and lack of organization to the extent that the content is unconvincing.
Fail	Learners communicate thoughtfully and adequately, with no evidence of critical awareness or insight, no evidence of independent thought, and many grammatical errors compromised by a lack of content or complete absence.

Data analysis

To examine anxiety, the questionnaire was valued according to the Likert Scale with five score levels: 5: strongly agree, 4: agree, 3: neutral, 2: disagree, and 1: strongly disagree. For research problem one, frequency distribution was used using the mean and standard deviation to identify the participants' foreign language anxiety levels in the three components. For research problem two, frequency and computation of the average grade using the mean were used to identify the overall average grades of participants in English Usage for Communication (1500103). Finally, for research problem three, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the difference in academic performance among students with a high, mid, or low level of language anxiety. The measuring criteria and levels of foreign language learning anxiety applied in the questionnaire are shown in Table 3. Also, the descriptions of foreign language anxiety levels are shown in Table 4.

Table 3
Measuring criteria and levels of foreign language learning anxiety by the mean and the questionnaire score

Scale	Mean	Qualitative description	Level of anxiety
5	4.50-5.00	Strongly agree	Strongly high anxiety
4	3.50-4.49	Agree	High anxiety
3	2.50-3.49	Neutral	Moderate anxiety
2	1.50-2.49	Disagree	Low anxiety
1	1.00-1.49	Strongly disagree	No anxiety or strongly low anxiety

Table 4
Descriptors of the levels of foreign language anxiety

Levels of anxiety	Descriptors
High anxiety	They lack self-confidence and low self-esteem and employ avoidance strategies such as skipping class, being quieter, less willing to communicate, being tenser, less interested in learning, feeling terrified of making mistakes, and not being satisfied with their language abilities.
Moderate anxiety	Adequate in worrying about the consequences of failing during language tests, less uneasiness during a language class, less worried about pronunciation, grammatical mistakes, and understanding long written sentences, minimal anxiety in speaking a language without preparation, and comfortable around native speakers of English.
Low anxiety	Maintain high self-confidence, high self-esteem, and balanced emotions toward English language learning; handle healthy communication tasks, tests, and evaluations; not worry about making mistakes in English class and be open to corrections. An anxious feeling in learning a foreign language is not a common phenomenon.

RESULTS

Foreign language anxiety was categorized by different components, such as fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, and test anxiety, to show the overall results of the participant's anxiety level and to identify the most anxiety-provoking situations while learning a foreign language in the classroom. The summary of the three components is shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Foreign language anxiety components

No.	Component	Total item	$\bar{x}$	SD	Level of anxiety
1.	Fear of negative evaluation	7	3.52	1.02	High anxiety
2.	Communication apprehension	11	3.22	1.03	Moderate anxiety
3.	Test anxiety	15	3.21	1.06	Moderate anxiety
	Overall	33	3.33	1.04	Moderate anxiety

Table 5 shows that the participants in this study showed moderate anxiety levels in foreign language learning. Therefore, the participants in this study felt a reasonable amount of fear about these elements when studying a foreign language in the classroom. However, the data demonstrated that the individuals experienced extreme anxiety when making errors and receiving poor assessments and thought it would affect their self-confidence and self-esteem. For example, the participants stated during the interview that "I felt scared when giving an incorrect answer to the question asked by the teacher," "The moment the teacher would call me and answer some questions which I am not prepared to answer," "I do not like when the teacher would call me and ask me to answer some questions in English," "when my teacher would complain about my wrong answer," and "the teacher always complained about anything and was very strict." This situation added extra pressure while learning the lessons. Moreover, the participants were highly anxious when speaking English without preparation in a language class and feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students. Some of them specified during the interview that "The moment I would communicate with my English teacher. Because I am not that confident in speaking English," "I am afraid of speaking English. I know my English accent is not good and I am also afraid I might make grammar mistakes," and I am afraid of speaking English because I do not know how to arrange words into a sentence." It was also described that highly anxious participants were not satisfied with their language abilities, were less willing to communicate to avoid negative comments from their teachers and classmates, were quitters, tense, less interested in learning and employed avoidance strategies such as skipping class. Table 6 shows the mean and standard deviation of the cross-tabulation table of participants' grades.

Table 6
Cross tabulation table of participants' grades

	Grade equivalent	F	%	$\bar{x}$	SD
1.	Excellent	120	61.54%	88.75	5.49
2.	Very good	19	9.74%	76.94	1.47
3.	Good	20	10.26%	72.15	1.54
4.	Fair good	19	9.74%	67.31	1.33
5.	Fair	7	3.59%	63.00	1.00
6.	Poor	4	2.05%	56.00	0.81
7.	Very poor	4	2.05%	52.00	1.41
8.	Failed	2	1.0%	36.00	2.83
	Overall	195	100%	80.92	1.98

Table 6 reveals the overall academic achievements of the participants in English Usage for Communication (1500103), with an average mean of 80.92 (A), with a grade equivalent to excellent. Therefore, based on the descriptors of the grades' achievement, most of the participants in this study communicate with clarity and fluency and handle ideas effectively and skillfully with active and complex interaction, indicating an excellent command of vocabulary with a consistently high level of grammatical accuracy, and convince and influence the audience. Table 7 indicates the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on academic performance in English according to anxiety levels.

Table 7
One-way analysis of variance on academic performance classified according to the levels of anxiety

Anxiety level	$\bar{x}$	SD	*F*-value	p-value	Remark
Low anxiety	85.00	4.69			
Moderate anxiety	82.29	11.93	3.818	.024	Significant
High anxiety	77.15	12.32			

As shown in Table 7, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the difference in academic performance among students with a high, mid, or low level of foreign language anxiety. This indicates a significant relationship between the levels of foreign language anxiety and the student's academic performance in English. This finding means that their level of foreign language anxiety may influence the student's academic performance in English. Table 8 shows the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on academic performance and language anxiety.

Table 8
One-way analysis of variance in the academic performance on the three components of language anxiety

Variable	Level of anxiety	$\bar{x}$	SD	*F*-value	p-value	Remarks
Fear of negative evaluation questions	Low anxiety	92.00	.	1.288	.280	Not significant
	Moderate anxiety	82.09	12.04			
	High anxiety	79.93	12.39			
	Strongly high anxiety	75.29	8.54			
Communication apprehension questions	Low anxiety	81.73	9.51	4.133	.007	Significant
	Moderate anxiety	82.66	11.48			
	High anxiety	75.49	13.50			
	Strongly high anxiety	81.00	.			
Test anxiety questions	Low anxiety	83.18	9.00	.702	.497	Not significant
	Moderate anxiety	81.34	12.40			
	High anxiety	79.32	12.04			

Table 8 shows the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the student's academic performance on the different components of foreign language anxiety. Also, this illustrates that the academic performance of Thai university students in English revealed a difference across the various levels of anxiety in terms of communication apprehension questions. On the other hand, the academic performance of Thai university students in English revealed no significant relationship across the various anxiety levels in terms of fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety questions. Finally, the multiple comparisons of means and summary of means with the corresponding anxiety level are shown in Table 9.

Table 9
Tukey's multiple comparison test on the academic performance classified according to the levels of anxiety

Anxiety level	Anxiety level	Mean difference	Std. Error	p-value	Remark
Low anxiety	Moderate anxiety	2.71	6.07	.896	Not significant
	High anxiety	7.85	6.20	.416	Not significant
Moderate anxiety	Low anxiety	-2.71	6.07	.896	Not significant
	High anxiety	5.14*	1.92	.022	Significant
High anxiety	Low anxiety	-7.85	6.20	.416	Not significant
	Moderate anxiety	-5.14*	1.92	.022	Significant

** The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.*

Table 9 reveals that the multiple comparison tests show that moderate anxiety and high anxiety levels differ in their academic performance in English since the p-value of .022 is less than the 0.05 significance level. Furthermore, this shows that the higher the participants' anxiety, the less they performed than low anxiety participants.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study found that Thai language learners had moderate anxiety when learning a foreign language and that the fear of being judged negatively caused the most anxiety. The participants were highly anxious when given negative evaluations and thought that it would affect their self-confidence and self-esteem. It was also described that highly anxious participants were not satisfied with their language abilities, were less willing to communicate, and were less interested in learning. Also, the participants were highly anxious about their classmates or teacher, especially when they made mistakes when being asked in class. This most likely occurred during interviews, oral presentations, public speaking contests, recitations, or lectures when their teacher called them to answer specific questions and would evaluate them negatively if they gave incorrect answers or performed poorly on the task.

Some classroom activities, such as oral production activities that require students to speak in front of the class, cause and enhance anxiety in students (Abrar et al., 2018; Anandari, 2015; Paranuwat, 2011; Sayuri, 2016). They said that the dread of negative evaluation encompasses all evaluative scenarios that arise within and outside the classroom due to a fear of criticism or judgment from others. For example, error correction is a part of the learning process in language classes. Furthermore, communicative efforts may be subjected to the teacher's or peer's evaluation and judgment. As a result, this factor may substantially influence language anxiety among students (Horwitz et al., 1986).

It was revealed that even though the students were moderately anxious about learning the foreign language and were discovered to be highly anxious when given negative evaluations, they still performed excellently in English. On the other hand, one thing to consider that could be relevant to the result of this study is that the participants completed the course online during the second semester of 2021–22 due to the COVID-19 pandemic in which this study was conducted. Therefore, there was no actual assessment or face-to-face contact with their language teacher and peers, which may have led them to achieve higher grades in English. It was discovered that a virtual environment helped improve students' English skills and provided a setting that allowed for rich student interaction. Also, the virtual learners' FLA levels decreased as time passed. The virtual students recognized the learners' anonymity in virtual classrooms as a good element that could help to an improvement in self-confidence and a reduction in uneasiness (Côté & Gaffney, 2021; Lan, 2015; Melchor-Couto, 2017; Ng, 2007).

It was discovered that this study indicates a difference between the levels of foreign language anxiety and the student's academic performance in English. Therefore, this study would abolish the null hypothesis, which states that H0: There is no difference between the academic performance of Thai university students in English with a high, mid, or low level of language anxiety. This finding means that their level of foreign language anxiety may influence the student's academic performance in English.

The higher anxiety levels are, the higher it hinders performance, which means high levels of language anxiety could be associated with poor levels of academic achievement in second or foreign language classes. In effect, they develop more anxiety while learning the language. Similarly, language anxiety is linked to learner perceptions of second language ability and measures of actual second language competence. In other words, difficulties experienced throughout the learning process might lead to poor performance or low achievement in a language subject (Gardner et al., 1984; Na, 2007; Young, 1999).

This study also revealed differences across the various anxiety levels regarding communication apprehension questions and no difference across the various anxiety levels regarding fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety questions. Aida (1994) claims that communication apprehension is detrimental to language learning because individuals with high communicative apprehension experience tension while speaking with others and tend to avoid communication. This hesitation has also been noticed in foreign language classes. Students were shown to be afraid of doing things they did not know how to do and worried about not being able to say what they thought. Also, some participants reiterated that they were more concerned with their pronunciation and accent.

The multiple comparison tests reveal that students with moderate anxiety and those with high anxiety have distinct academic performances in English. Moreover, the data demonstrates that the more anxious the participants were, the less they performed than those with minimal anxiety. According to the theory of the affective filter hypothesis established by Krashen (1986), learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, a low level of anxiety, and extroversion are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Also, low motivation, self-esteem, anxiety, introversion, and inhibition can raise the affective filter and form a "mental block" that stops comprehensible input from being used for learning. Also, this can make it challenging to learn new things. He also added that students should not be frightened to make errors in a secure classroom.

According to the discoveries of Na (2007), high anxiety discourages students from learning a foreign language and causes them to lose confidence and trust in their abilities to perform better in the classroom. As a result, students withdraw from classroom activities, and the worst-case scenario is that they refuse to learn the language. Furthermore, students with low academic achievement frequently experience foreign language anxiety due to poor academic performance. Thus, most research on foreign language anxiety concludes that foreign language anxiety has the opposite effect on learning a foreign language (Horwitz et al., 2010; Maclntyre, 1999; Marwan, 2016).

It was found that the second-year education students at Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University had moderate anxiety about foreign language learning. Therefore, the participants in this study were moderately worried about the consequences of failing language tests, less worried about their pronunciation, less concerned about grammatical mistakes, less anxious about understanding long written sentences, and less nervous about speaking the English language without preparation, and even feel comfortable around with native speakers of English. Therefore, the participants viewed foreign language anxiety as relating to the second perspective, which views language anxiety as the worry and adverse emotional reaction aroused when learning or using the second language, also known as situation-specific anxiety. The students communicate with clarity and fluency, handle ideas effectively and skillfully with active and complex interaction, indicating an excellent command of vocabulary with a consistently high level of grammatical accuracy, and convince and influence the listeners. Also, it was revealed to have a difference between the student's academic performance in English and their foreign language anxiety levels. As a result, the greater the level of foreign language anxiety, the more it has a chance to affect the level of learning performance. Also, this was discovered to be true for groups with both high and moderate performance levels.

To help the students be less anxious about learning a foreign language, they should be informed of what they are expected to do to prepare themselves in advance. For example, before asking students to perform publicly, the teacher may want to ensure they have practiced enough. Furthermore, to reduce students' communication apprehension when speaking in class, the teacher may regularly employ various communicative activities such as role-plays and group discussions to develop fluency and confidence. In addition, it is better to promote a fun and sociable atmosphere by watching some movies, listening to songs, and playing games related to the lessons. Also, teachers can do more pair work or small group work to reduce foreign language anxiety. Likewise, in giving feedback to students, the teacher may give an encouraging, positive, and appropriate feedback response that will not discourage the students. In short, we may say it is the teacher's job to help learners minimize their anxiety and keep it at a moderate pace, which can motivate learners to perform better in language class. Also, to improve the student's confidence, it may be better for them to take extra English classes to prepare them to be more positive and effective language learners. For example, students may join English clubs, take reading and speaking short courses, participate in speaking activities, and attend plays, workshops, seminars, and webinars. These activities would encourage them to learn and appreciate foreign languages without apprehension. Finally, the administrators and program coordinators may establish a course syllabus that will develop the student's appreciation of language learning through the new strategies and techniques to improve their performance and design training for teachers so that they need to keep pace with the current trends of approaches and methodologies in language teaching to avoid foreign language anxieties among the learners.

REFERENCES

Abrar, M., Mukminin, A., Habibi, A., Asyarafi, F., Makmur, & Marzulina, L. (2018). "If our English isn't a language, what is it?" Indonesian EFL student teachers' challenges speaking English. *The Qualitative Report, 2*3(1), 129–145.

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155–168.

Al-Khasawneh, F. M. (2016). Investigating foreign language learning anxiety: a case of Saudi undergraduate EFL learners. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 12*(1), 137-148.

Anandari, C. L. (2015). Indonesian EFL students' anxiety in speech production: Possible causes and remedy. *TEFLIN Journal, 26*(1), 1–16.

Ashworth, C. (2020). *Thailand's English level drops from the third year-English Proficiency Index*. http://thethaiger.com/news.

Cote, S., & Gaffney, C. (2018). The effect of synchronous computer-mediated communication on beginner L2 learners' foreign language anxiety and participation. *The Language Learning Journal, 49*, 1–12.

Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., & Lalonde, R. N. (1984). *The nature and replicability of factors in second language acquisition*. Research Bulletin No. 605, Department of Psychology, University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.

Horwitz, E. K., Tallon, M., & Luo, H. (2010). Foreign language anxiety. In J. C. Cassady (Ed.), *Anxiety in schools: The causes, consequences, and solutions for academic anxieties*. New York: Peter Lang.

Horwitz, E. Horwitz, M., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70*, 125–132.

Khamprated, N. (2012). *The problems with the English listening and speaking of students studying at a private vocational school in Bangkok*. Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok.

Krashen, S. D. (1986). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Lan, Y. J. (2015). Contextual EFL learning in a 3D virtual environment. *Language Learning & Technology, 19*(2), 16–31.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning* (pp. 24–45). Boston: McGraw–Hill.

Marwan, A. (2016). Investigating students' foreign language anxiety. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research, 3*(1), 19.

Mather, M., & Sarkans, A. (2018). Student perceptions of online and face-to-face learning. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction, 10*(2), 61–76.

Melchor C. S. (2017). Foreign language anxiety levels in Second Life oral interaction. *ReCALL, 29*(1), 99–119.

Ministry of Education in Thailand. (2008). *The basic education core curriculum B. E. 2551*. Bangkok: Agricultural Co-operative Federation of Thailand, Ltd. Publishing.

Na, Z. (2007). A Study of High School Students' English Learning Anxiety. *Asian EFL Journal, 9*, 22–34.

Ng, K. C. (2007). Replacing face-to-face tutorials by synchronous online technologies: Challenges and pedagogical implications. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning, 8*(1). https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v8i1

Noom-ura, S. (2013). English-Teaching Problems in Thailand and Thai Teachers Professional Development Needs. *English Language Teaching, 6*, 139–147.

Paneerselvam, A., & Yamat, H. (2021). Validity and Reliability Testing of the Adapted Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 11*(4), 209–216.

Panthito, M. (2018). A study of the problems of English-speaking skills of the first-year students at Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University. *Journal of MCU Humanities Review Vol. 4 No. 2* (2018).

Paranuwat, J. (2011). *A study of foreign language learning anxiety of the first-year students at Srinakharinwirot University*, Bangkok.

Price, M. L. (1991). The subjective experience of foreign language anxiety: Interviews with highly anxious students. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 101–108). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the state-trait anxiety inventory (Form Y)*. Palo Alto, Consulting Psychologists Press.

Yan, J. X., & Horwitz, E. K. (2008). Learner's perceptions of how anxiety interacts with personal and instructional factors to influence their achievement in English: A qualitative analysis of EFL learners in China. *Language Learning, 58*, 151–183.

Young, D. J. (1999). Giving priority to the language learner first. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in Foreign language and second language learning* (pp. 241–256). Boston: McGraw–Hill.

Learning New Vocabulary through Meaning-Focused Input

Hiroki Uchida

uchida1659@aiu.ac.jp

Graduate School of Global Communication and Language,
Akita International University

Abstract

Vocabulary teaching can be as simple as just presenting a word with a translation in students' L1, which is among standard practices in the classroom. However, it is critically important for the learners to be interested and engaged in the new language item. Learners need to be willing to learn what is presented to them. This study will discuss how teachers can create a situation where students want to know the word. Learning vocabulary in a context is a crucial idea, and learning new words also functions as an opportunity for meaning-focused input. In this research, 40 students at a high school in Japan learned 60 words in total in two different approaches. In the first approach, a vocabulary word was presented in a sentence with a context, and the target word was blanked out. Students were asked to guess the word to be in the blank in their L1 before they saw the English word. The second approach presented words with matching translations in the students' L1. All the words were tested twice (after five days and thirty-five days) to compare the effectiveness of the two approaches. The results revealed that the first approach has a better effect on maintaining new words.

Keywords: Vocabulary teaching/learning, Meaning-focused input/learning

INTRODUCTION

English education at the middle school level in Japan has been experiencing a rapid transformation in which more classroom interaction is encouraged. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) presented a new course of study for high school education in 2009, and it is clearly stated that classes, in principle, should be conducted in English (MEXT, 2009). The new course of study for junior high school education (MEXT, 2017) included the same statement. Balancing four skills in the classroom is a key factor. The four strands, which include language-focused learning, meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, and fluency development (Nation, 2007) also need to be considered when teachers plan their teaching. One of the major problems in Japan may be the selection of a textbook to be used at each school. Middle schools in Japan are required to use one of the textbooks approved by MEXT, which itself is not a big issue, but many schools tend to choose one whose level is way higher than the actual students' English proficiency. The main reason for the problem is that university entrance examinations are generally competitive. The teachers think they need to use a textbook that may cover the knowledge and skills necessary for this purpose. Such books cause the following problems:

1) Interaction between a teacher and students in English is not likely to take place as the students need much help in their L1 to understand what is discussed in the reading.
2) Students encounter more new language items on each lesson page.
3) Students lose opportunities to improve their guessing skills.

This article will mainly discuss 2) and 3) because they are the main reasons for problem 1). As Nation (2021a) pointed out, most of what learners are listening to or reading should be already familiar to them. In this i

+ 1 setting, only a small portion of the language features are unknown to the learners, and 95 to 98 percent of the whole running words are within the learners' previous knowledge (Hu & Nation, 2000). The learners can gain some knowledge of the unknown language items through context clues and background knowledge (Nation, 2021a).

I started my teaching career at a high school in Japan where most of the students wished to go on to higher education. The textbooks were full of new language items so that the students could be equipped with all the necessary language knowledge for entrance examinations. Teachers had so much to teach in every class that vocabulary teaching was minimized, especially in terms of time allotment. It was widespread for the teachers to present all the new words before the students read the text. The typical approach was to present a new word with its meaning in the students' L1 and let them say it loud. It has been decades since then, but the situation with vocabulary teaching has not changed much.

Vocabulary teaching is one of the most critical components of language education. However, less attention might have been paid to how it should be done because the whole procedure can be as simple as just showing the translation of the target word in the learners' L1. In acquiring L1, young children learn a new word in a context where they need to know it. They always have a good reason to learn the word. Learners need self-motivation and engagement (Blachowicz, Beyerdorfer, & Fisher, 2006). In L2 learning, on the other hand, especially in an EFL setting, they are often not interested in the list of words to learn. In other words, they do not need them on the spot.

It is common to teach vocabulary at the beginning of class because teachers believe that knowing vocabulary words before the learners encounter them in the context should be helpful. It may reduce the stress on the learners but involves a critical disadvantage: a lack of learners' engagement in learning the words. However, in a natural language learning process, learners encounter a new word in a comprehensible input, which is equivalent to meaning-focused learning. This study will discuss how English teachers can put vocabulary learning in a contextual setting where learners have a reason to know a new word.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Seeing the word form and a definition of its meaning is not as effective as having to make an effort to recall its meaning before being shown the definition as feedback. (Nation, 1990). Hulstijn (1992) said that learners are more likely to remember the form and meaning of a word when they have inferred its meaning by themselves than when the meaning has been given to them. These factors imply that it is essential for the learners to be engaged in vocabulary learning.

Kachroo (1962) found out that words that occurred seven or more times in the course book were known by most of the learners. There are several different reports on the number. Salling (1959) said at least five repetitions were necessary. A recent study by Francis et al. (2006) said that between twelve and fourteen exposures in multiple contexts are necessary. Considering these facts, repetition and learners' engagement are the major concepts in exploring ways for more effective vocabulary teaching.

In a recent study, Webb and Nation (2017) said that vocabulary learning depends primarily on repetition of vocabulary and the quality of mental processing of each repetition. Nation (2021b) also argued that without properly controlled material, too much time is spent on vocabulary that is way beyond learners' present needs and vocabulary,z which will not be met again before it is forgotten. Thus, it should be critically important for teachers to create an environment for meaning-focused learning in most teaching settings in Japan, where teaching materials include too many unknown words. In this situation, students have limited opportunities to be exposed to previously learned vocabulary words in comprehensible input.

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The research in 2019 employed two groups of high school students at a high school in Japan, each of which consisted of twenty learners. The students took a placement test before being assigned to one class of forty students, the second-highest class among four. In the course where this experiment took place, the class was divided into two groups to make more oral interactions among students happen. The student with the highest score was placed in Group 1 and the second-highest in Group 2—the third-highest student in Group 2 and the fourth in Group 1. Thus proficiency levels of the two groups were similar, although the gap in proficiency level would not be critical in this experiment.

During the first semester of the academic year, students encountered the new vocabulary words in two different ways:

1) Words were presented in contexts.
2) Words were presented with a translation in the students' L1.

After introducing the new words, students were asked to reproduce the words in a quiz twice, in five days and thirty-five days. The results were compared for discussion.

Presentation of new words (Type I: L1 cloze procedure)

A new word was presented in a paragraph/sentence(s) with a context in which the target word was blanked out. Students were asked to guess the word to come in the bank in their L1. Students shared their ideas with their classmates to decide on one or two possible Japanese word/words. Then the teacher presented the word in English (See Example 1). Students also had a chance to listen to and repeat the target word. Thirty words in List A (See Figure 1) were given to student Group 1 (twenty students), and a different set of thirty words in List B (See Figure 2) were given to student Group 2 (twenty students). I call this approach "L1 Cloze Procedure," as the learners are requested to fill in the blank by guessing from the remaining context as they do in cloze tests. The critical difference between cloze tests and L1 Cloze Procedure is that the learners are asked to indicate their guess in their L1 instead of in English. The words in List A were given to student Group 1, and those in List B were given to student Group 2.

Example 1

1) I (   ) too many e-mails every day, and I sometimes miss an important message.
2) When I was little, I (   ) much love from my parents. I am thirty years old and have three children to love.

target word: receive/received

Presentation of new words (Type II: Simple presentation)

A new word was presented with a translation in L1. Students listened to and repeated the word, and the same paragraph/sentence(s) used in Type I was/were provided for reference. Although the approach was conventional, the amount of information remained the same as in Type I. The words in List A were given to students in Group 2, and those in List B were given to students in Group 1.

receive selfish symptom infectious normal broadcast ordinary murder seize obtain replace
adopt furniture duty organize wealth tiny admission thermometer colleague angle embarrass
statistics institution astonish prevail proceed industrious colleague fasten

Figure 1 Words list A

plant	obey	resemble	continent	complain	appear	generation	public	common	anxious	envy	
cost	waste	voyage	attention	contain	encourage	oblige	permit	frame	precious	ancient	crowd
determine	identify	explode	disease	cruel	struggle	appreciate					

Figure 2 Word list B

Evaluation

In order to measure the retention level, students were asked to reproduce the vocabulary words twice, five days, and thirty-five days after the introduction of the words. In this series of follow-up quizzes, a short sentence/paragraph was given to each word, and the word was blanked out. The students were asked to choose the word for the blank from a word bank, which had some distractors. Note that the sentence/paragraph used for the quiz differed from the one used for the word presentation. The percentage of correct answers was calculated for comparison of the two approaches.

RESULTS

The answers from the students were marked, and the percentages of the correct answers were compared to see if there was a significant difference between Type I and Type II. The result shows that in both types, the retention levels were lower after 35 Days than those after five days, which had been pretty much predicted. The test results from five days after the introduction of the new words indicated that Type I was slightly more effective than Type II. On the other hand, when it came to the test results after 35 days showed more visible superiority in Type I.

Test Date	**After Five Days**		**After 35 Days**	
Test Type	Type I	Type II	Type I	Type II
Group 1	73.2	62.3	65.1	38.1
Group2	68.4	54.2	60.2	29.3

Significant at p<.01

Figure 3 Percentage of correct answers

DISCUSSION

In the K-12 classroom settings in Japan, students are not necessarily willing to learn new vocabulary words, especially in a class using a textbook. The content of each lesson suddenly talks about what the students do not expect. A lesson may talk about some environmental issues or discuss animal behaviors. The new vocabulary words on each page of the lesson are often not what the students need to know on the day. This may be a critical difference between the process of learning L1 and that of L2 in a classroom setting. In L1, new words are primarily learned when a child needs a specific word. When kids want more milk, they learn to say “another glass.” In other words, a kid is interested in the situation and is engaged in learning the new expression. My study aimed to create an environment where students are more likely to be interested and engaged in vocabulary learning.

Interviews with the students involved in this research revealed some essential facts. Yuto said there were so many words to learn that he did not know which words should be more important. Each lesson in a textbook has a specific topic, and the topic has terms and expressions unique to the content. They may not be high-frequency words, and their effort to learn those words is only sometimes rewarded.

Another student Futaba said he always did not understand why they had to know the words presented to him each day. Even if a word is high-frequency, a learner may not be willing to learn it. Only those with a lottery ticket are eager to know the winning number. I apologize for my vulgar expression, but this explains the whole design of my vocabulary teaching.

Type I aims at providing students with a learning environment where they are more interested in the target word. When a mutilated passage is given to the students, they read the whole paragraph to figure out what kind of word should be in the blank. They are asked to describe the word in their L1, which reduces the students' anxieties toward the English language. Rio mentioned that it was easier because she was allowed to say the word in Japanese (her L1). As a word to come in the blank is a new word, it should be impossible for the students to say the exact word in English. When a student has guessed the word for the blank in their L1, the situation is equivalent to having a lottery ticket. The student is willing to know the winning number, which is the target word that the student is supposed to learn on the day. This framework seems to have increased the students' engagement.

Words glossed in L1 were always retained better than words glossed in L2 (Laufer & Shmueli, 1997). In Type I, the students need to read a paragraph in English, but their idea is confirmed in their L1. Kaito said in the interview that he felt secure because the whole class discussed and agreed on the definition in Japanese. While in the Type I activities, the teachers paid attention not to leading the students to one specific Japanese word. They embraced all the definitions within the same semantic field of the target word. In a typical classroom in Japan, a teacher often teaches one definition of the meaning in L1 that best matches the context of the reading material. This is, in fact, very risky because the students are likely to believe an English word has one exact match in their L1. This one-on-one match belief causes a huge problem when the students encounter the same word in a different context. One word in students' L1 does not always cover the whole meaning of the word. Embracing approximate definitions of the target helps the students know that each English word often has a broader semantic field than a Japanese word.

Another benefit of Type I is that students can have more opportunities to encounter the vocabulary words that they learned previously. Teachers can provide students with more opportunities for repetition. In preparing a paragraph for presenting a new word, I tried to avoid using words unknown to the students, which created an i+1 setting or comprehensible input. Students are likely to successfully guess the meaning of an unknown word from the remaining context. As mentioned in Introduction, many schools in Japan choose a textbook whose level is way higher than the students' proficiency level. In this situation, students have too many unknown words in the reading materials and do not have a chance to learn guessing strategies, which is a highly demanded reading skill.

Adding a sentence context did not raise learners' retention of these words (Prince, 1995). Azusa's words in the interview supported this statement. She said that it was **more** exciting to read the paragraph and guess a word to come in the blank **befor**e she saw the English word. As in Type II, an example sentence with a new target word is presented after the introduction of the word. Students seem to pay less attention to an example sentence when it comes after they see the word.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to list possible difficulties/problems that learners may experience in learning new vocabulary words and explore an effective way to introduce them. The typical difficulties/problems collected in the interviews with the students include:

1) Learners do not have good reasons to learn the new words for the day.
2) Learners are not interested in the words.
3) Learners do not know which words should be learned first among many new words.

As the results of the experiment show, Type I surpassed Type II in terms of retention of the target words in both short and long-term periods.

The conventional Type II introduction provides almost no solutions to the problems above. On the other hand, in the Type II activities, learners try to guess the word that should be in the blank in their L1. They are eager to know if it is correct when they come to their own conclusion. A word introduced right after their effort seems to help the word stay in the learners' memory longer. Sora and five other students mentioned that it was fun to do the activities because it was like playing a guessing game. This situation can be a solution to problems 1) and 2).

Teachers may be focusing on teaching all new vocabulary words on a textbook page, but as seven students mentioned in the interview, there were always some words that they may not use in the future. However, the students are usually incapable of judging the importance/frequency of words in the new vocabulary list, and they sometimes learn low-frequency words instead of high-frequency words, which can stress them. It may be a good idea to use the Type I activities only for high-frequency words which students need to know. The words introduced through Type I will likely be fixed in the learners' memory. It is a solution to problem 3). This is also related to feasibility and sustainability. Making a paragraph with a good context is not easy, especially for non-native speakers of English. If the application of Type II is limited to high-frequency words, it will reduce the burden on the teachers. Also, class time is limited, and spending much time using Type II for all new vocabulary words on a textbook page is not a good idea.

Chatbots can significantly help teachers when they make a paragraph with a context. Currently, the functions of chatbots available may not be excellent, and their productions often include some errors. It may be well said that writings by chatbots are more accurate and better organized than those by non-native speakers. Another benefit of chatbots is that teachers can deliberately let their students encounter previously taught words. Chatbots are capable of making a paragraph with a natural context, including some designated words. This is critically important when a teacher is using a difficult textbook. Less repetition can occur when a textbook is on a higher level than students' proficiency. A teacher can use chatbots to create a reading/listening environment where students can meet the same words repeatedly. Type II activities can be a part of this process, and thus students will be able to learn how to guess a meaning of an unknown word.

REFERENCES

Blachowicz, C. L., Beyersdorfer, J., & Fisher, P. (2006). Vocabulary development and technology: Teaching and transformation. *International Handbook of Literacy and Technology*, Eds. M. McKenna, L. D. Labbo, R. D. Kieffer, & D. Reinking, 341–48. Mahwah.

Francis, D. J., Rivera, M., lesaux, N., & Rivera, H. (2006). *Research-Based Recommendations for Instruction and Academic Interventions* (1). Center on Instruction.

Hulstijn, J. (1992). Retention of inferred and given word meanings: Experiments in incidental vocabulary learning. In P. Arnaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.). *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 113-125). Macmillan Academic and Professional Limited.

Kachroo, J. N. (1962). Report on an investigation into vocabulary teaching in the first year of English. *Bulletin of the Central Institute of English, 2*, 67-72.

Laufer B., & Hadar, L. (1997). Assessing the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual, and "bililingualised" dictionaries in the comprehension and production of new words. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(2), 189-196.

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, & Technology (MEXT). (2009). *Course of study for high school education*. https://erid.nier.go.jp/files/COFS/h20h/chap2-8.htm

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, & Technology (MEXT). (2017). *Course of study for junior high school education*. https://erid.nier.go.jp/files/COFS/h29j/chap2-9.htm

Hu, M., & Nation, I. S. P. (2000). Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 13*(1), 403-430.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Longman.
Nation, I. S. P. (2007). The four strands. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(1), 1-12.
Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
Nation, I. S. P. (2021a). *Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
Nation, I. S. P. (2021b). *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
Prince, P. (1995). Second language vocabulary learning: The role context versus translation as a function of proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal, 80*(4), 478–493.
Salling, A. (1959). What can frequency counts teach the language teacher? *Contact, 3*, 24-29.
Webb, S., & Nation, I. S. P. (2017). *How vocabulary is learned*. Oxford University Press.

Learning to Listen: A Look at English Listening Strategies

Joseph C. Wood

josephcharleswood@gmail.com

Nanzan University, Nagoya, Japan

Abstract

This study examines the ways in which Japanese university students took it upon themselves to improve their English listening skills outside of the classroom in their own time. Specifically, it looks closely at the various listening strategies students used and highlights their views regarding which strategies worked or did not work for them in terms of improving their listening in English. Data from the study come from 42 university students in Japan who were enrolled in intermediate-advanced English courses and surveyed about their English-listening habits outside of class. Furthermore, a sample of students were also interviewed in which they were asked more in-depth questions based on those posed on the original survey. The study found that although more students believed that speaking was more important in terms of learning English, the overall majority still reported using listening strategies outside of class to improve their listening skills in the language. Essentially, the data collected show that students understood the importance of improving their English-listening skills and that most took the initiative to try out various English listening strategies to help them do so in their own time outside of school. The study also found that students embraced the use of modern technology and relied heavily on their smartphones and online resources to become better listeners in English.

Keywords: Listening strategies, Language learning strategies, Autonomous learning

INTRODUCTION

In foreign language classrooms, listening may not always get the attention it deserves. Course curriculums often stress the importance of speaking, reading, and/or writing, but listening can sometimes get pushed to the sidelines or perhaps not deemed important enough for the use of valuable class time. Listening may at times be viewed simply as a skill which students are expected to passively pick up as they are engaged in other various classroom activities or during discussions with classmates in the language. If we want students to truly strengthen their listening skills, however, this may not be enough on its own and it would benefit learners if we can help to raise their awareness of the importance of listening in English and perhaps even offer them suggestions or strategies to help them succeed in the process. By examining the various listening strategies successful learners have used to become proficient listeners in English (i.e., the conscious actions and practices purposely taken to improve their listening ability), we can then use those insights to help our own students strengthen their listening skills.

Listening strategies used by language learners can cover a wide area of usage. Strategies can range anywhere from learning to predict what one will hear based on situational context to simply searching for more ways to expose oneself to the language. Furthermore, connecting listening in the target language to one's hobby can also be considered a listening strategy. According to Oxford (1990), finding ways to make language learning "more enjoyable" is a strategy in itself (p. 8). What kinds of listening strategies are more motivated or autonomous learners using though and what can we learn from these types of learners and their success in language learning?

Learning to listen in a second or foreign language is a vital skill, and it would be useful to know how students are able to improve their listening skills on their own outside of the classroom. In most language classes students must rely on their listening comprehension skills every time the teacher explains something in the target language or when they are working on a task with partners in class. This is the case regardless of whether or not improving listening skills is one of the course goals. Discussing the importance of listening, Rost (2001) states that “Listening, the most widely used language skill, is often used in conjunction with the other skills of speaking, reading and writing. Listening is not only a skill area in language performance, but it is also a critical means of acquiring a second language” (p. 7). It is such a critical means of acquiring a language that in most cases, we must first spend time listening to the language we are learning before we are able to speak it with any fluency or confidence. This would be similar to how we learn our first language, where we passively take in listening input until we are able to eventually begin reproducing the language ourselves little by little over time. In most circumstances, listening is where language learning naturally begins for native learners. White (2008) writes of the natural order of learning one’s native language, stating that “In a first language, listening is the first skill which learners usually develop: they listen to an utterance, then they repeat it, later they learn to read it, and finally they learn to write it” (p. 208).

Language learners often use various kinds of strategies to help them improve their language skills. Interest in the study of these types of language learning strategies (LLSs) first began to take off in the mid 1970s when Rubin (1975) wrote what would become a very influential and often cited paper which examined the various strategies that more successful language learners used at that time. Following Rubin’s seminal paper, more papers, articles, and books began to be written examining the various types of purposeful actions and steps that learners take to aid in their learning of languages. In 1990, two highly influential books were published on LLSs: O’Malley & Chamot (1990) *Learning Strategies in a Second Language and Oxford* (1990) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. These two books helped to inspire a resurgence of interest and research in the field of LLSs and gave the area of study a second, more energized, life.

According to Oxford (1990), LLSs are “steps taken by students to enhance their own learning” and “are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” (p. 1). Although LLSs can cover all areas of language learning, the current study will focus specifically on the various listening strategies that Japanese university students have either used in the past or are currently using to improve their English listening skills. Not all listening strategies are equally effective, however. According to White (2008), “there seem to be some strategies which are more closely associated with successful listening than others, particularly prediction, inferring, monitoring, and clarifying” (p. 216).

Although listening strategies can be used to deal with specific issues such as incoming speech, monitoring, clarifying, etc., it is important to also keep in mind the general definition of LLSs given by Oxford (1990). Under Oxford’s definition, any steps a learner takes on their own to improve their language learning can be viewed as strategic. Furthermore, in a list of LLSs provided by Rubin (1981), “Creates opportunity for practice” was included as a type of strategy. She gives the examples of watching TV or movies in the target language as strategies that can lead to indirect learning. Therefore, this study considers any steps students consciously and purposefully took on their own to improve their English listening as listening strategies, even if these actions were as simple as actively searching for more ways to expose themselves to the language outside of the classroom in their free time.

Research questions

For the current study, three research questions were formed and examined:
Q1 - How motivated are students to improve their listening skills in English?
Q2 - What kinds of listening strategies do students use outside of class?
Q3 - Which do students think is more important for learning English, listening or speaking?

METHODS

Participants in the study included 42 Japanese university students who were enrolled among three intermediate-advanced level English classes. Although listening activities were occasionally done in class, listening was not a main focus or goal for the course curriculum. To better understand how students work on improving their listening skills in their own time, a survey was administered which asked them about their listening habits outside of class. Specifically, the survey asked students if they used listening strategies and, if so, to report on which ones worked best for them as well as which ones they had tried but felt did not work as well. The survey featured both closed and open-ended questions and was collected anonymously from students. Following the survey collection, four students volunteered to sit down for an interview with their instructor in which they were asked more in-depth questions based on the survey that they had taken. In the interview data presented in this paper students' names have been changed in order to ensure their anonymity and privacy. Furthermore, students who were interviewed signed consent forms allowing things that they said in their interview to be used for research purposes.

Table 1
Survey results (see Appendix for sample answers to open-ended questions)

1. How motivated are you to improve your English listening abilities? Circle one:

Not very motivated: **1** a little motivated: **8** Motivated: **22** Very motivated: **11**

2. Do you have strategies you use to improve your listening in English?

Yes: **24** No: **18**

3. If you use English listening strategies, what are some of the most useful for you? Please write a few examples down:

4. Are there any listening strategies you tried before that were not very useful or did not work?

5. Do you feel more confident with your listening skills in English or your speaking skills?

Listening: **21** Speaking: **20** N/A: **1**

6. For you personally, which is more important when it comes to learning English?

Listening: **16** Speaking: **25** N/A: **1**

7. Which is easier to improve and why?

Listening: **26** Speaking**: 14** N/A: **2**

Why?

8. What's the most difficult thing about improving your listening skills in English?

9. How do you use technology to help improve your English listening?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Survey results found that most of the students were either motivated or very motivated to improve their English listening skills. According to the survey and interviews, most students reported being motivated enough to take it upon themselves to use listening strategies to help them become better listeners in the language and appeared to understand the overall importance of strengthening their English listening skills. Furthermore, many were able to make the connection between listening skills and overall successful communication in the language. According to Yukihiro, "I think listening is quite important for communication" (interview). Students also made similar comments on the surveys. For example, one student wrote that "My listening skill is not good, and when I talk to somebody, I think listening skill is quite important" (survey comment).

As for the second research question, students reported using several different listening strategies outside of class to strengthen their English listening skills. On the survey students listed such strategies as listening to podcasts or audiobooks in English, watching movies, etc. (see Appendix for more examples provided by students on the survey). These types of strategies provided students more opportunities to listen to English outside the classroom and more language exposure overall. During interviews, students were able to give more in-depth information about the listening strategies they have used over the years. Mayu stated that she uses "audiobooks on YouTube because we can choose the levels of the books. If you want, we can do shadowing on the PC or smartphone" (interview). Maki, another student who was interviewed, also discussed using shadowing as a strategy at home and said she likes listening to the radio in English and repeating things that are said. In her words, "I listen to the radio in English. Two or three speakers talk about a topic and they discuss it. I listen at 1.2 speed and repeat what they said. They use business English, so I can learn appropriate English" (interview). Yukihiro prefers to practice his listening by watching movies in English. According to him, he likes to strengthen his English-listening skills by "watching movies or dramas with subtitles, English or Japanese" (interview).

The third research question examined which skill students thought was more important in terms of language learning, listening or speaking. According to the survey data, the majority of students believed that speaking was more important than listening when it comes to learning English but felt that it was easier to improve their listening skills. On the survey, students pointed out such things as being able to work on improving their listening skills anywhere anytime by using their smartphones, whereas for improving their English speaking, they would need a partner to interact with. One student commented simply "I have few chances to speak English" (survey comment). Although speaking was deemed more important by students on the survey, some of the students who were interviewed, however, did feel that listening was more important and explained their reasoning behind their views. Yukihiro believes that even if you cannot speak well, you can still get by if you are able to listen and understand. According to him, "listening is more important…If you can't speak English, but you can use something like gestures. If you don't have the ability to speak, it's okay I think" (interview). Maki, holding a similar view, stated that "listening is the most important because when we go to other countries we need to listen and understand what people say" (interview). Although Yukihiro and Maki believe listening to be more important, Mayu, who was also interviewed, disagreed with their view, stating that "I think speaking is the most important because I learned we should show what we think in English" (interview). In her interview, Ryoka reported that both listening and speaking were important to her. She believed that watching TED Talks online was useful, since she could gain listening practice while also gaining speaking and presentation skills. According to her, "I think TED Talks are useful because they're not only listening, but also about how to speak, how to make presentations…it's important to use gestures and I think TED is a useful way to learn them."

Research limitations

Like virtually all studies conducted within a language learning setting, this one is also not without its limitations. For instance, the number of participants in the study could have been larger. For research purposes, 42 participants can only be considered as a modest size at best. Furthermore, only four students were interviewed by the instructor. Interviewing a larger number of students could have provided even more understanding towards the various listening strategies students use in their language learning. Lastly, all participants in the study were Japanese, therefore the data may not be culturally relevant to learners outside of Japan, who perhaps have different preferred ways to improve their listening skills in English.

CONCLUSION

Although the data showed that students believed improving their speaking skills was more important overall for their language learning, the study found that students understood the importance of strengthening their listening skills as well. The study provided evidence of students being motivated enough to take it upon themselves to work at improving their English listening abilities on their own outside of class and sheds light on the various effective listening strategies they used to do so. Importantly, the data provided a glimpse into the learning process of students and showed how they personally preferred to learn in their own time and in their own way. With these strategies, we can encourage our students to become more autonomous in their language learning after leaving our classrooms each week as well as encourage them to take advantage of modern technological advances which make learning to listen possible in ways that were not readily available in the past. Many of these resources, such as podcasts, are free, yet many students have yet to embrace them for language learning purposes or simply do not know enough about them yet or know how to use them. As educators, we have an opportunity to raise our students' awareness of listening strategies and to help them find new ways to improve their listening outside of class.

Although this study provided some insights into how students learn to listen, more research is needed to better understand the overall process and to further identify the most effective types of listening strategies used by learners. While this study highlights some of the ways in which students learn to listen in a foreign language, there are still many unanswered questions regarding the subject. As Rost (2001) stated, "In many language curriculums, listening is still considered a mysterious 'black box', for which the best approach seems to be simply 'more practice'. Special skill instruction as well as strategy development still need greater attention in order to demystify the listening process" (p. 13). Stressing the importance of listening strategies as well as raising awareness of them to our students can benefit them greatly and possibly help them in becoming more autonomous learners. We can learn what listening strategies have been the most successful for proficient listeners and then channel those strategies into our classrooms and teach them to our students.

REFERENCES

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Rost, M. (2001). Listening. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge University Press.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us. *TESOL Quarterly, 9*, no. 1 (March): 41-51.

Rubin, J. (1981). Study of Cognitive Processes in Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 117-131.

White, C. (2008). Beliefs and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners*. Cambridge University Press.

Appendix
Example answers from the survey's open-ended questions

3. If you use English listening strategies, what are some of the most useful for you? Please write a few examples down:

- "Watching movies with subtitles. Talking with somebody in English."
- "Listening to a native speaker's voice many times and then speaking same speed and pronunciation."
- "I watch and listen to YouTube. For example, how to improve English skills."
- "Podcast is very useful. I can listen to English at the speed native people speak."
- "Watching foreign YouTubers and TED talks."
- "Listening to the radio while training at the gym."
- "Just listening a lot."
- "Shadowing."
- "Listening to English every day."
- "Watch something I like in English. For example, MLB [Major League Baseball]."
- "I listen to radio in English every day. I like this radio because they use appropriate English and I can also learn about the topic."

4. Are there any listening strategies you tried before that were not very useful or did not work?

- "Watching movies."
- "For me, listening to music was not good because it's too fast and I can't understand the meaning."
- "I tried to watch English dramas before, but I looked at Japanese letter [subtitles] a lot of time, so it wasn't good to study for me."
- "Listening to American news. The vocabulary was too difficult."

7. Which is easier to improve and why?

Listening: 26 Speaking: 14 N/A: 2

Why?

- "Improving my listening skill I can do by myself. Improving speaking skill needs a partner."
- "I have to think a lot when I speak."
- "We can practice listening whenever and wherever we want to."
- "Listening is passive."
- "Speaking needs practice. We have to speak a lot of time with other people by using the language."
- "People can't speak without listening."
- "I don't get nervous when I'm just listening."

8. What's the most difficult thing about improving your listening skills in English?

- "Always English pronunciation is connected. For example, 'an apple' is 'anapple'."
- "Vocabulary which I don't know the meaning."
- "I can listen to the words, but I don't understand the meaning."
- "People speak fast and connect words. I don't have enough vocabulary to understand."
- "I think it's difficult to get used to the speed of conversation."
- "Listening makes us really sleepy."
- "It's difficult to measure whether you are improving or not."
- "It's speed. When I watch movies in English, I always feel it's too fast. So I can't watch movies without subtitles."

- “Native speaker speaks fast so it is difficult to understand.”
- “There is no friends that can speak English. I can’t try to speak English.”
- “It is hard for me to understand what British or some non-American English speakers say.”

9. How do you use technology to help improve your English listening?

- “We can easily access YouTube, podcasts, and western movies, so we can hear English whenever.”
- “I listen to English on the train [on my phone].”
- “Listening to podcasts as much as we can.”
- “Apps (YouTube, Duolingo, Netflix, Google Translation).”
- “I use my smartphone to listen to English music.”