The Proceedings of The 37th International Conference on English Teaching and Learning & The 22nd International Conference and Workshop on TESL & Applied Linguistics

第三十七屆中華民國英語文教學研究國際研討會暨第二十二屆銘傳大學國際應用英語教學研討會暨工作坊

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The Proceedings of The 37th International Conference on English Teaching and Learning & The 22nd International Conference and Workshop on TESL & Applied Linguistics

第三十七屆中華民國英語文教學研究國際研討會

暨第二十二屆銘傳大學國際應用英語教學研討會暨工作坊

論 文 集

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Preface

I extend appreciation to all invited speakers, esteemed presenters and honored guests of "The 37th International Conference on English Teaching and Learning & The 22nd International Conference and Workshop on TESL & Applied Linguistics". The theme of this year's conference was *The English Language in the Current Era of Globalization: Communication, Culture, and Context.* It is an honor for Ming Chuan University to annually host this international conference and to have the pleasure of learning from the expertise and wisdom shared by its participants.

This year, a substantial number of papers were submitted to the conference; around one half of them were selected for this volume. Topics of the papers in the proceedings comprise a wide scope of topics ranging from AI and technology and their presentation in literature, the influence of technology on translation, comparative literature and culture studies, implementation and effectiveness of digital language learning and teaching, globalization and international education, intercultural communication competence and its development, language education and intercultural communication, learner identity and L2 learning, to those related to language studies and culture (e.g. translation and business). Furthermore, contributors of these papers include both local and international scholars.

The thought-provoking findings in this volume are sure to provide many opportunities for reflection and stimulus for positive changes. On behalf of Ming Chuan University, I extend my heartfelt gratitude to all the scholars who have shared their expertise and experience with us. The fruits of their research inspire us to persevere in our research. Their valuable insights help all educators to apply the theories of language learning in teaching students English as a Foreign Language.

My best wishes to all of you for learning from this conference and happy English teaching for many years to come.

Pei-Di Shen

Pei-Di Shen, Ph.D.
President
Ming Chuan University

It is our pleasure to present *The Proceedings of The 37th International Conference on English Teaching and Learning & The 22nd International Conference and Workshop on TESL & Applied Linguistics.* Since its establishment in 1993 as the first Applied English program in Taiwan, the department of Applied English (DAE) at Ming Chuan University has been devoted to preparing students to be both competent English users and successful in their chosen fields. To achieve this goal, language and culture-related courses are emphasized, while professional courses serve as the core of the curriculum. Since 1993, major changes have taken place in English education in Taiwan. These include English education for elementary school children, implementation of new curricula for teaching English at both the junior and senior high school levels, impact of 9-year integrated education, and 12-year Compulsory Education. The Department of Applied English has been proud to bring together scholars and teachers in recent years to reflect on changes at home and issues in the international world.

This year's overarching theme of the joint conference is *The English Language in the Current Era of Globalization: Communication, Culture, and Context.* The themes include AI, technology, and their presentation in literature, the influence of technology on translation, comparative literature and culture studies, digital language learning and teaching: implementation and effectiveness, mobile Learning, English as a Lingua Franca, multi-literacies and trans-languaging, globalization and international education, intercultural communication competence and its development, language education and intercultural communication, learner identity and L2 learning, and those related to language studies and culture (e.g. translation and business).

This volume would never have come into being without the support of all involved. First, we would like to extend our gratitude to our guest speakers. We are also grateful to the English Teaching and Research Association (ETRA) for granting us the privilege of holding the 37th International Conference on English Teaching and Learning together with our own annual conference. In addition, our most heartfelt gratitude goes to all the presenters for submitting their papers and presenting their studies online.

Finally, we would like to express our sincere thanks to the editors and all DAE's colleagues as well as to the secretary of our program, Gloria Hu, student helpers, and, especially, our administrative assistants, Irene Hung and Ricky Kuo, for their hard work and contribution of valuable time. Our special thanks go to Dr. Li-Jiuan Lilie Tsay for her leadership in organizing the conference and shaping the conference program. Finally, we remain grateful to the Crane Publishing Company Ltd., for their continuing support in helping to publish the Proceedings for this conference.

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Teaching Negotiation English through *Etic* and *Emic* in Intercultural Communication Context
(以跨文化溝通語境的跨文化綜觀與特定文化的內觀教授談判英文）

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Abstract

Teaching Negotiation English, which covers both negotiation strategies and tactics and the English language, is a critical pedagogy of applying English to the international and/or intercultural negotiation tables on various global issues being encountered in the world today. This paper proposes to teach Negotiation English through *etic* and *emic* as borrowed from linguistics in intercultural communication context. *Etic* is a term stemming from "phonetic," and the *etic* inquiry searches for universal generalizations across cultures from a distance. *Emic* is a term stemming from "phonemic," and the *emic* way of inquiry focuses on understanding communication patterns from inside a particular cultural community or context. Framing *etic* and *emic* in its theory and practice, a curriculum design of Negotiation English is expected to be more pedagogically and pragmatically well-organized for both teachers and students studying Negotiation English inside and outside of a classroom. In specific, with a view to realizing the goal of international and/or intercultural negotiations, which is empowering the interdependent parties/countries that perceive incompatible goals (conflicts) and engage themselves in social interactions on an issue or issues to reach a mutually satisfactory outcome, the proposed pedagogy will cover the eight-stage action steps in terms of 1) Preparing, 2) Arguing, 3) Signaling, 4) Proposing, 5) Packaging, 6) Bargaining, 7) Closing, and 8) Inking/Agreeing. An analysis of applying "Pentad"—Lexicology, Phonology, Syntax, Semantics, and Pragmatics—to this pedagogy will be presented as well. In conclusion, this paper demonstrates that teaching Negotiation English through *Etic* and *Emic* in Intercultural Communication Context through the eight stages of international and/or intercultural negotiations functions pedagogically effective and inter-culturally constructive for both teachers and students involved.

Keywords: Negotiation English, *Etic*, *Emic*, International/Intercultural Negotiation, Pentad, the Eight-Stage Negotiation Action Steps

Language Teachers in Technology-Enhanced Language Education

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Abstract

Professional development is instrumental in helping language teachers to respond to educational changes, including the integration of technologyin language education. In the context of technology-enhanced language teacher education, language teachers need to learn and develop their capacity to use various technological tools in language teaching. In this talk, I will review the relevant but limitedstudies on language teachers in technology-enhanced language education. I recognize the lack of research on language teachers in technology-enhanced language education as a significant issue that undermines the successful integration of technology in languageeducation. For this reason, I will draw on the Douglas Fir Framework to develop a roadmap for language teachers to see how theirprofessional learning might unfold in the specific contexts where they learn to use technological tools in language teaching. Iwill elaborate how teacher educators can help language teachers to overcome their feelings of incompetence and vulnerability in integrating technology into language education. In contexts where there is a digital divide, language teachers also need to becomecritically aware of the significant impact that inequitable contextual conditions may have on language learners so that they can commit themselves to promoting social justice and equity in teaching.

What Does It Mean to Be Internationalised? Educating 'Self' and 'Other' in Cross-Cultural Activity Groups

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Abstract

Internationalisation is a popular modern-day buzzword. It permeates mission statements in universities around the world, and it frequently appears as an essential KPI in the world of business. It is used as a yardstick for measuring success: the more we internationalise, the more successful we appear to be. But what is internationalisation? What do companies and universities mean when they claim they want more internationalisation? In companies, it often implies that English is used as a corporate language, and in universities, it usually means increasing the number of non-local students and staff. However, not many universities and companies appear to have done much in terms of implementing organisational changes that promote a more internationalised study- and work environment.

In this talk, I report on an ongoing study of international and local students' experience of intercultural exchange. A total of 101 students from all over the world participated in small-group sharing sessions about the problems, challenges and positive experiences they had during their time in Hong Kong. This talk takes a discourse analytic approach and focuses on how students talk about internationalisation. First, I analyse some examples of what internationalisation is not, then some examples of what it might be. The essence in the examples of 'successful' internationalisation is that students have engaged in genuine intercultural dialogue and this has changed them. They are able to reflect critically on their own ethnocentric attitudes, and they have managed to get 'inside the shoes of the other, long enough and profoundly enough to see his or her reality' (Blight, 2002). This has made them realise that you can accept cultural differences without understanding them. And this is arguably what internationalisation should be about.

On the Incommensurability of the Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding: A Theoretical Argument

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Abstract

Despite the fact that several publications have argued that the Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of Proximal Development and scaffolding are not the same process (see Lantolf & Poehner, 2014), researchers and educators continue to mistakenly assume that Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding are similar, if not, identical processes. Until now, the anti-similarity arguments have focused on the nature of the social interaction between experts and novices. In the case of the ZPD, interaction is assumed to mediate learner development, while in the case of scaffolding interaction is assume to guide learners to successful task completion. Although the distinction is more or less accurate, we propose in this presentation that this distinction does not appropriately capture the essential difference between the two processes. Instead, we present a theoretical argument that leads us to conclude that the two processes are grounded in completely different perspectives on the source of mental and emotional development. Specifically, we will show that scaffolding reflects an orientation to Piaget's model of development which, following Miller (1984), we refer to as *genetic individualism,* while the ZPD is one component of a larger Mediation System (MS) that takes account of social context, the individual's actual developmental level (that is, his or her history), and the quality of mediation provided by social others. The MS reflects Vygotsky's model of development, which Miller (1984) characterizes as *genetic interactionism*. Because of the fundamental theoretical differences that underlie the two processes, we suggest that the concepts are incommensurable. In our presentation we first briefly trace the history of the pro and con arguments regarding the ZPD and Scaffolding, next we lay out our theoretical position on their incommensurability, finally we give concrete examples illustrating how the two processes take place.

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Papers

Information Retrieval, Reshuffle, and Reorganization: A Positive Correlation between Mind Mapping and Knowledge/Language Mastery

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Abstract

Memory retention and knowledge mastery have been found positively correlated with mind mapping (Mahmud, *et. al.*, 2011; Pua, *et. al.*, 2014; Vitulli & Giles, 2016). This corresponds with the findings from my EMI-based courses for undergraduates where mind maps are regularly applied during class in the most recent semesters. Focusing on such a course taught in the first half of the 2017-18 academic year, this paper attempts to explore whether the aforementioned correlation remains true and, further, there are any other phenomena worth attention primarily due to their constructive implications for pedagogy. Forty-four students sign up for the class addressed, 64% of whom choose to respond to the semester-end survey consisting of 46 items based on a 5-point Likert scale. Only one respondent is English native-speaking, while 26 students are freshmen. The questionnaire is made to discover positive factors that facilitate learning; how the students in question perceive and experience the learning effects, which is focally compared with the data collected in the other survey already conducted at the beginning of the semester; and how the key lessons are understood by the students. The highest approval rate (92.9%; n=26) appears in such items as topic selection, information absorption, and reasoning clarity. The second highest approval rates, ranging from 82.2% to 89.3% (n=23 to 25), appear in those like mind-map instruction, memory retention, takeaway illumination, word choice, and knowledge processing. The third highest approval rates, ranging from 71.5% to 78.6% (n=20 to 22), are located at language output, knowledge reflection, syntax discernibility, English thinking, vocabulary buildup, and reading comprehension. The results show that learning through mind mapping can be supported by the topics selected and the instruction given by the teacher, that the students can turn the information into knowledge more effectively, and that they can use English much better.

Keywords: mind map, hands-on activities, reading comprehension, learner autonomy, pedagogy

INTRODUCTION

Considerations about what the students need to learn, what the teacher can do to meet their needs in learning, and how both students and teachers can work together for desirable outcomes deserve much attention and further exploration. In this study, my attempt as a piece of two cents is intended to put those concerns into effect. The case in question is a general-election course for international students in college where special topics on modern China is taken as a thematic medium through which students' humanity literacy and English proficiency are expected to improve over time. To achieve such an objective, also as required, the course is conducted in English, i.e. English as the medium of instruction (EMI). The teacher in charge, who has been teaching the same course for different classes of students for years, is quite welcome to innovate his teaching materials, teaching methods, and grading policies in accordance with fairness and standardized evaluation of students' performances. The course addressed is a three-hour class held every week, where attendance and participation are equally valued.

To keep classroom attendees as alert (awake) as possible, the teacher after his guiding lecture imposes a hands-on activity called "mind-mapping" on them. He always starts with an impromptu demonstration of mind-mapping, that is, in a live manner, on the chosen topic and the assigned readings before his students continue to create and develop their own mind maps on the other set of topics that are concerned with the central topic just already elaborated by the teacher onstage. While attendees are working on the mind-mapping task single-handed or by teamwork, the teacher becomes their working and walking partner ready to interact with them and even work with any of them on request. When finished, attendees are free to choose either an onstage demonstration of their mind map or an offstage talk with the teacher to introduce it in detail. Volunteers for whichever choice are rewarded varied bonuses. After class, several much better works as the model examples for students to follow will be selected, photographed and uploaded to an online platform. And the teacher updates the daily grade and announces it online regularly so that his students are able to see how much he/she has earned and how much his/her performances have left to be desired. In addition to performance evaluation, there are two surveys conducted during the class time to help improve the course. Most items raised in both are inspired by such literature as follows.

Memory retention and knowledge mastery have been found positively correlated with mind mapping (Mahmud, *et. al.*, 2011; Pua, *et. al.*, 2014; Vitulli & Giles, 2016). Instrumental in knowledge processing, mind-mapping is an unconventional method that welcomes learners to be more dominant and proactively engaged (Mahasneh, 2017: 302). This finding corresponds with that resulting from the comparative tests conducted by Fun and Maskat (2010), where students learn much better through mind-mapping activities, which allow them to update what is acquired at their discretion. Mind-mapping as a learning tool, according to Buran and Filyukov (2015), is also found effective in language drills where vocabulary buildup and the ability to read are facilitated. Being aware that the information retrieved and reorganized is beneficial for those who need to build up their vocabulary, Aziz and Yamat (2016) recommend teachers and students mind-mapping as a basic but useful approach to language acquisition. Last but not least, comparing experimental group of students, namely those who learn through mind-mapping, with the control group of students, namely those who learn though conventional methods, Hardiah (2019) finds that the former's test results turn more satisfactory, and that they are more motivated to engage themselves in learning with passion.

METHODOLOGY

Except a regular absentee, whose nationality is unknown, there are 44 students signing up for this class. Conducted at the beginning of the semester, the pre-test survey collects 42 responses, which take nearly 100% of all potential respondents, while the post-test survey, conducted by the end of the semester, receives 28 pieces of feedback, which take 64% of the potential responses. The post-test response rate could be raised to over 70% if more incentives were provided as a favor or reward. In general, more than one fourth of classroom attendees are non-Mandarin speakers, among whom, according to the pre-test survey, only one student is identified as a native speaker in English, while the rest are identified as the opposite. The pre-test also shows that of the course registrants freshmen take 95.2% (n=40) and female students take 76.2% (n=32). Partly because most of them are from the International College at Ming Chuan University where enrolled students' ethnic and linguistic diversity is nothing unusual, and partly because these students, as expected, are there either for English learning or English for special purposes (ESP), the only language used as a communication platform during class is English. To remain focused on the attempt to find out how progressive my course attendees have been in knowledge and language mastery, in this study I choose to ignore variables concerning cross-cultural communication, cultural barriers, culture shock, gender differences, or the like.

The statistics collected from the pre-test respondents show 88.1% of them have studied English over 5 years, while the numbers from the post-test show a little higher percentage by 4.8%. The data difference between the pre-test and the post-test is extremely narrow in the proportion of those who have never been to China to those who have visited China for once or more: 66.7% to 67.9%. Despite the response rate that appears much lower, the proportion of freshmen to non-freshmen (92.0% to 7.1%), females to males (78.6% to 21.4%), and non-English native speakers to English native speakers (96.4% to 3.6%) respectively retrieved from the post-test is very similar to that retrieved from the pre-test. This more or less facilitates the analysis of the observed phenomena that follows on an equal footing.

When the semester begins, the course plan, course syllabus, grading policy, game rule, and an invitation to the surveys are announced in class and through Moodle.[1] To increase the response rate, the teacher, a middle-aged associate professor having been teaching English in college for over 2 decades, prepares 5 bonus points for each attendee, i.e. 2 points for a pre-test respondent and 3 points for a post-test respondent. Such arrangement later proves working not well on the post-test, so the teacher in charge from next semester onward finds it necessary to fine-tune the course where the surveys will no longer be conducted as an option but a requirement, technically understood as a significant part of student's learning process.

With the help of Google Form, the two surveys are conducted through the Internet.[2] The students are supposed to arrive in class to answer to both, but those unable to be present are also welcome to fill them out elsewhere since the access to the surveys is simultaneously shared

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[1] It is the online platform where the students and the teacher in charge are in regular contact with each other for messaging, testing, and grading at Ming Chuan.

[2] The addresses remain available and ready for whoever needs a review of either survey, which will be re-activated on request. The pre-test results can be retrieved from https://forms.gle/CJSNMqWpVj623GK2A, while the post-test results, https://forms.gle/HySyGvf5WoS6i7Lc6.

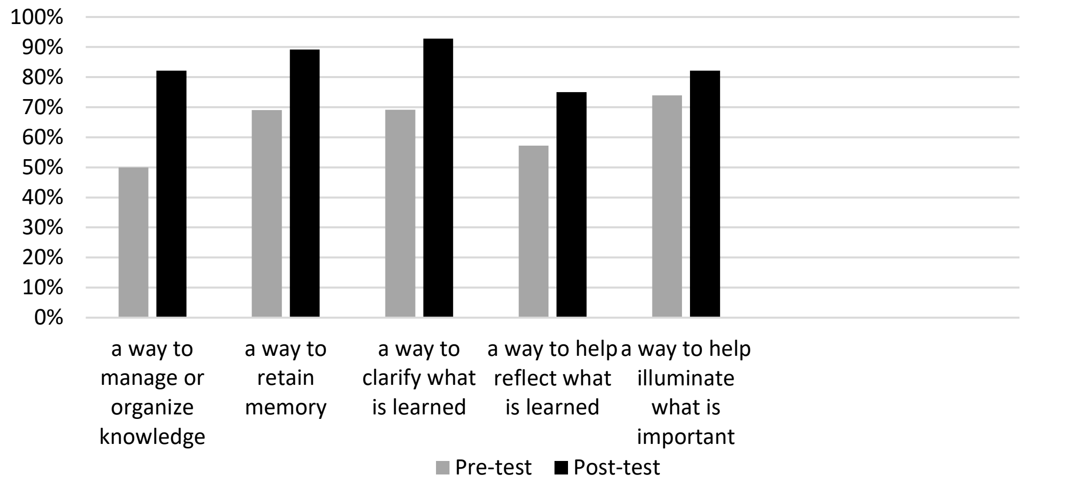
via Moodle. To facilitate a comparative view of students' feedback, the items of the pre-test survey and those of the post-test survey are made mostly identical. The post-test survey is offered as an example to be explained below. It consists of 46 items based on a 5-point Likert scale except the first 5 items that ask about gender, grade, official language, education background, and travel history. Item 6 to 15 inquire students' perception of mind mapping as a way to learn and what aspects students' learning has been facilitated by mind mapping in. Item 16 to 24 inquire to what extent students have made progress in learning. Item 25 inquires students' willingness to expose their mind maps. Item 26 inquires students' further expectation of the teacher in pedagogy. Item 27 to 35 inquire student's understandings of modern China. Item 36 to 41 inquire the role played by the teacher and how conducive it is to students. Item 43 to 46 inquire students' mastery, whether growing or not, of English.

RESULTS

To pan for what is more worth noting from the survey-collected statistics, this study combines affirmative replies, including "agree" and "strongly agree", into one that is interpreted as "approval" while putting those negative together into one as "disapproval." In so doing, it will be much easier to spot the factors that are most favored by the respondents. In like manner, it makes little sense to present here all the information retrieved from both pre-test and post-test surveys in detail, so more stress will be laid on the results compared between those of the two surveys and divided into 3 categories: students' perception of mind mapping as a way to learn (as of MM for short; see Figure 1), students' progress in English abilities (as of PE for short; see Figure 2), and students' growth of knowledge (as of GK for short; see Figure 3). Based on the results from the post-test survey, what follows will be phrased in terms of how huge the change has been since the beginning of the semester.

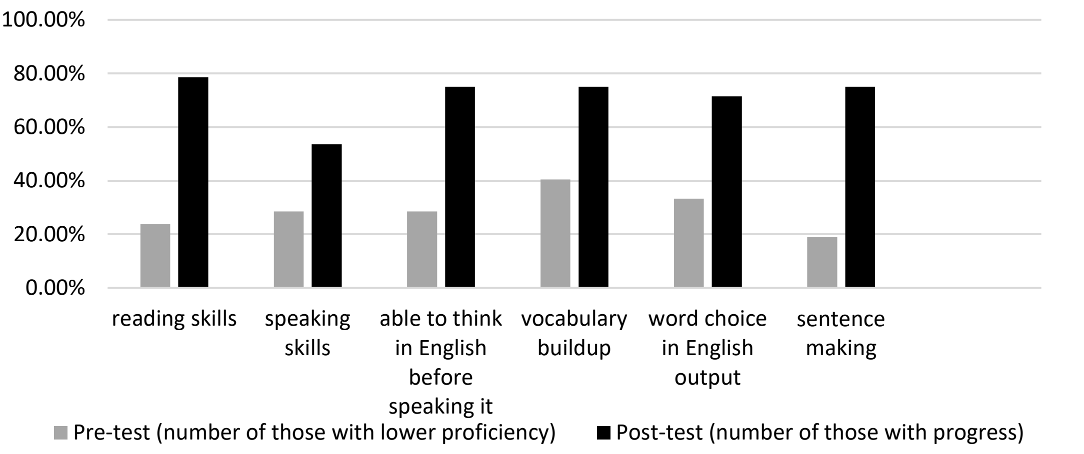
With regard to MM, the highest approval appears in item 12 (92.8%; n=26), but the biggest difference, i.e. the most obvious increase in approval lies in item 10 (82.2%; n=23). With a rise by 23.8%, The former refers to mind mapping as a way to clarify what is read or heard; with a soaring rise by as high as 32.2%, the latter regards mind mapping as that to manage or organize what is learned. The second highest approval, with a rise by 20.2%, appears in items 11 (89.2%; n=25), where mind mapping is referred to as a way to facilitate memory retention when it comes to learning. Tied for the third highest approval with item 10, the 15th item, where the shortest rise occurs by 8.3%, depicts mind mapping as a way to highlight what is important. The lowest approval is located at item 13 (75%; n=21), which identifies mind mapping with a way to facilitate reflection on what is learned.

Figure 1: Students' Approval Rate on Perception of Mind Mapping



In relation to PE, the highest approval, with a huge rise by 54.8%, is found in item 17, where 78.6% (n=22) of the respondents give an affirmative reply to the mention of their having made progress in English reading. Such items as 20, 21, and 23 are tied for the second highest approval (75%; n=21): one meant to be the respondents better at thinking in English; another meant to be those better at vocabulary buildup; and the other, where there is the most obvious increase by 56%, meant to be those able to tell the difference between a phrase and a sentence. The third highest approval appears in item 22 (71.5%; n=20), which means the respondents seeing themselves as better at word choice in English when it comes to speaking and writing. The lowest approval, also with the shortest rise by 25.1%, is located at item 18 (53.6%; n=15), which means those viewing themselves as better as speaking in English.

Figure 2: Students' Approval Rate on Progress in English abilities

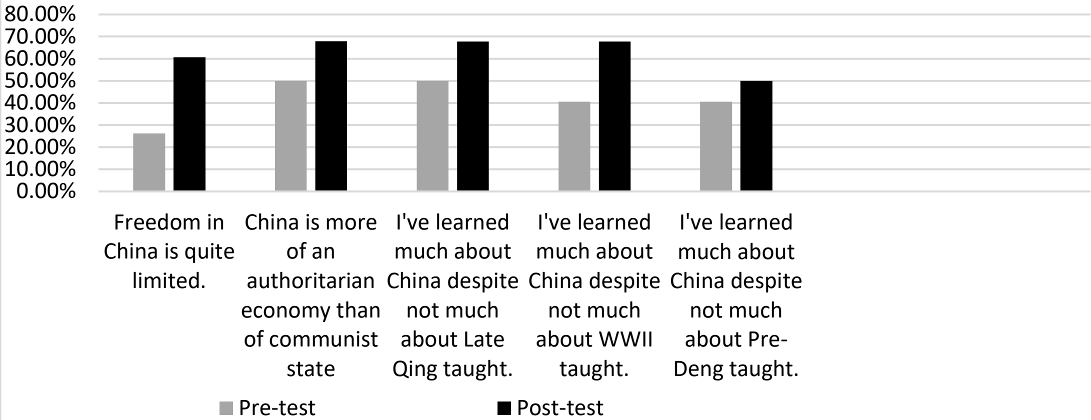


As to GK, the approval rates respectively retrieved from item 32 to 34 appear identical in the number of respondents (n=19).[3] Their fair rise by percentage between 17.8 and 27.3% shows that the respondents are convinced that they have learned much about modern China no

[3] The 32nd item asserts that China nowadays is more like an authoritarian economy than like a so-called communist state.

matter how much history is taught about the period during Late Qing Dynasty and that during WWII. Compared with the aforementioned statistics, item 27 (60.7%; n=17) and item 35 (50%; n=14) turn out prominent. The former, with the most obvious rise by 34.5%, asserts the fact that people in modern China enjoy less freedom; the latter, with the lowest approval and the shortest rise by 9.5%, is meant to be the respondents having learned much about modern China no matter how much history is taught about the period before the adoption of "reform and opening-up" policies.

Figure 3: Students' Approval Rate on Growth of Knowledge



DISCUSSION

The results about MM account for usefulness of mind-mapping mostly identified with helping to clarify, memorize, and manage or organize the information acquired. It also suggests a method that better works to highlight what is important than it does to facilitate knowledge reflection (see Figure 1). For example, as indicated by item 10, with its significant rise compared with the data from the pre-test, mind-mapping serves as an impressive medium through which those supposedly unable to well handle what is learned find themselves improved ultimately, and they give the thumbs up in the post-test. It is discernible that the pre-test respondents do not expect much of mind-mapping until after their regular practice for the rest of the semester. This implies that learning activities like lecture notes and discussion minutes, whether in shorthand or not, can be better taken when mind-mapping is adopted as a useful tool. Besides, as indicated by item 11, 12, and 15, mind-mapping is highly valued as helpful for importance illumination, information clarification and memory retention. This implies that a mind map can serve as a tool in problem solution and idea creation. Regarding reflection on knowledge, as shown by item 13, its much lower approval makes sense since deep learning and profound thinking really take time and technically rely on what is more than a mind map can work.

The statistics on PE suggest the extent to which the students learn through mind-mapping with significant progress in English skills. By and large, most respondents approve of the items where the English abilities to think, read, and write get improved. For instance, the responses to item 17 show that mind-mapping is believed to have helped enhance learners' ability to read. It is because reading activities, including those of information search and of browses through the assigned and collected sources, play an indispensable role in class. The job regularly done by the teacher in charge is giving a lecture where the students always have to review the chosen text in an inquisitive manner. In other words, their progress is made through intensive exposure to reading, not exactly due to the attempt to mind-map what is read or heard. Likewise, as indicated by item 21, vocabulary buildup more relates to frequent exposure to reading than regular use of mind-mapping.

What seems relevant to mind-mapping includes item 20, 22, and 23. First, with regard to the ability of appropriate word choice, the pivotal role that leads in students' progress is equally played by the teacher in charge and the rule exclusively set on mind-mapping. In addition to the guiding lecture regularly made by the teacher in a way characterized by paraphrases or circumlocution, all attendees in this class are requested to express their mind maps through phrases instead of clauses or sentences. This forces them to come up with keywords or/and phrases in their own words that appear different from those already used by the assigned readings. Because of that, they generally know how to tell the differences between a sentence and a phrase and thus become able to writing sentences much better than before. Secondly, as for non-English native speakers, especially freshmen, to think in English is definitely a great challenge that takes time. Teacher's guiding lecture at the beginning of class each week serves as a mini-reservoir of recommended frameworks or repeated but useful patterns that help students think in English. Thirdly, because less time is spent on oral interaction between students and the teacher, there is only a small majority of the respondents giving an affirmative reply to whether their speaking skills in English improve. Although many students are very willing to adopt the "off-stage" mode where they need to talk to the teacher face-to-face while explaining their finished mind maps without having to get onstage making any speech, they expect not much of this class concerning limited chances to speak in public.

The data on GK reflect the respondents' general approval although not much history of China before 1979 is taught in class. The lower the rate, the higher the expectation. In like manner, the higher the rise, the lower the expectation. For example, when separately asked about whether they have learned much about modern China although not much is taught on the period during the late Qing and that during the WWII, the respondents consistently give their affirmative reply. This, as indicated by item 33 and 34, means the insufficient input of seemingly outdated or earlier information is not regarded as a negative factor affecting learning what is new or updated. Besides, the much wider gap by which the rise is between the statistics retrieved from the pre-test and those from the post-post supports the finding deduced from the aforementioned phenomenon. Taken as highly relevant, much more is expected of the history of modern China before the implementation of "Reform and Opening-up" because the respondents, as indicated by item 35, tend not to believe they have learned much since the pre-Deng Xiaoping period is usually ignored. This implies that the teacher is expected to focus on the history and current issues of the People's Republic of China. However, the approval rate on average is still below 70%, so the teacher is welcome to address more or less Chinese history before 1949, the year when communists established a regime replacing the Nationalist government. Furthermore, the facts that Chinese people enjoy limited freedom and that today's China is more of an authoritarian economy than of a fundamental communist state are more affirmed than when the pre-test is conducted. It leaves certain insight to be double-checked since the topics and cases selected by the teacher are exactly from diverse perspectives, many of which are assumed neutral or non-hostile to the PRC.

CONCLUSION

Overall, according to the post-test results, the highest approval rate (92.9%; n=26) is found in categories like topic selection, information absorption, and reasoning clarity. Ranging from 82.2% to 89.3% (n=23 to 25), the second highest approval rates are located at categories such as mind-map instruction, memory retention, takeaway illumination, word choice, and knowledge processing. Ranging from 71.5% to 78.6% (n=20 to 22), the third highest approval rates are meant to be respondents' appreciation of language output, knowledge reflection, syntax discernibility, English thinking, vocabulary buildup, and reading comprehension. Such results, including those panned out through the discussion of this study, all the more prove on-site critical the role played by the teacher in charge and what he/she can do to best facilitate the use of mind-mapping. Therefore, it will be made possible that all the information suggested and searched during class is effectively and efficiently transformed into knowledge, and that this helps learners advance their language proficiency to a much higher degree especially in reading and writing. The four key factors – EMI, teacher's guidance, students' engagement, and mind-mapping – can be better practiced when coordinated with joint effort.

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Evaluating How Genre Acquisition and Class Participation Make Good Academic Writers—A Case Study in an Electrical Engineering Graduate Course

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Abstract

While most Taiwanese students in engineering graduate programs are required to publish at least one conference paper in English, insufficient training in academic writing makes this difficult. In this paper, we use two theoretical frameworks, genre acquisition and LPP (Legitimate Peripheral Participation) to evaluate how students learned academic writing. This was a case study of an EMI elective academic writing course for electrical engineering graduate students. The flipped classroom teaching method was used by the instructor, from which we would like to observe the interaction between the instructor and the students, and the formation of the active learning of the students. Additionally, we discussed the roles of students and the instructor in their learning community from an LPP perspective, in which the instructor is generally perceived as the authority in Asian culture, with students as apprentices. In the learning community of the electrical engineering writing course, students could move toward the center of the class by learning about academic genre from the instructor. In fact, students were expected to become centers or at least move toward the center in this learning community. We judged improvement of the students with their mutual interactions, analyzing their own articles, peer review, comment on others' works, and asking questions. Although the students might become centers in their class community after mastering an academic genre, they might still be on the margin in wider academic communities. Drawing on the analysis of data from semi-structured interviews with students as well as the instructor, class observation, and students' assignments and feedback, we examined advanced and basic level students' improvement in genre-based reading, analyzing, and writing. We found that most participants develop the ability of recognizing academic genre and writing by observation, self-study, and the instructor's one-on-one tutoring. It is concluded that class participation assists in genre acquisition to make students of different English proficiencies good academic writers.

Keywords: Engineering, graduate students, academic writing, Legitimate Peripheral Participation, genre

INTRODUCTION

The development of writing is vital for not only graduate students but also young researchers, since academic writing is a way of communication with people in a specific field (Mihaela et al. 2017). In Taiwan, most students in engineering graduate programs are required to publish at least one paper in English. Huang (2014) indicated that PhD students and faculty in her university were under the pressure of 'publish or perish.' In other words, if a postgraduate wants to pursue an academic career, to be able to write an academic research article is just a basic requirement. Although universities offer English courses with a view to improving students' academic writing, they do not necessarily provide courses with a focus on engineering writing. However, to write a good academic article requires more than good English proficiency, it requires knowledge of a genre. Hopkins & Dudley-Evans (1988) also agreed that having knowledge of a certain genre could be helpful to both students and teachers, because this knowledge could help them better communicate with people of their field.

In order to have a better understanding of postgraduates' improvement in the learning community after learning an Engineering genre, we investigated one university in Chiayi providing students with an engineering writing course. The course in the electrical engineering (EE) department was taught by an English native speaker with experience in teaching and academic editing. Most students did not have strong foundation of English writing, and they even had difficulty understanding the lecture, which led to poor communication with the lecturer.

Duan and Gu (2005) indicated the importance of mastering university-level English. Having a good command of English enabled students to fully understand the textbook and lecture; moreover, they could do self-study and would have more time to interact with the instructor in the class. This suggests that English proficiency of the students has great influence on students' learning outcomes. Moreover, Kasper and Wagner (2011) indicate the interactional competence of the second language learners affects their language learning**.** That is, class participation and active learning was extremely important for second language learners.

However, to become academic writers requires not only English proficiency but also familiarity with academic genre. According to Swales (1985), a genre is a recognized structure for communication with the participants of a specific field. Feak and Swales (2011) discussed the specificity of genre for each territory. For instance, each field has its specific structure when writing an academic article. Thus, Rau (2020) suggested that there is a prototypical format for engineering papers: IPTC (Introduction, Process, Testing, and Conclusion).

Former studies demonstrated English proficiency and mastering a genre were two factors making good academic writers. However, how engineering graduates learn to become good academic writers has not been further discussed. In fact, most ESL engineering postgraduates were not good at English, let alone able to master an academic genre. Therefore, ESL engineering postgraduates have to focus on numerous levels at the same time when taking an engineering writing course. For instance, they need to improve their English, learn a new genre, and cooperate with their peers in the learning community.

In order to view how the engineering postgraduates applied English in both writing and communication in their learning community, we investigate how students improve through practicing a specific academic genre and communicating with each other in their learning community, from an LPP (Legitimate Peripheral Participation) perspective (Lave 1991). This research further aimed to examine how a flipped classroom method changed both advanced and basic proficiency students' learning attitude and method. According to Ray and Powell (2014), a flipped classroom method is a reversal of traditional teaching mode; that is, learners are responsible for their own learning, whereas the instructor is a guide /mentor. They added that the learner can learn through observing other members. Based on this idea, we would like to observe interactions between students of different English proficiencies such as peer review of assignments and giving feedback on others' presentations based on the textbook. Overall, we assumed students could become good academic writers by actively participating in the learning community and being familiar with a specific academic genre.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section we focus first on L2 and Genre learning, especially on how poor English proficiency and lack of knowledge of academic genres make it difficult for ESL engineering students to become good academic writers. Secondly, students' interaction and learning environment are discussed; moreover, benefits of active and mutual learning in in an EE postgraduate learning community are also included. Finally, we review how active learning and LPP work within a flipped classroom.

L2 and Genre Learning

Most graduate students in Taiwan have never read or written academic articles in Chinese, let alone in English. According to Ferris D, Hedgcock J. (1998), good readers made good writers in L1. She added that L2 writing was more complicated than L1 writing, for students could not switch their L1 proficiency into L2 proficiency. That is, though students might be good at their L1, they might not benefit much from their L1 when using L2. When it came to writing an academic article in L2, it was even more difficult. Thus Breeze (2010) indicated to write good academic articles required language proficiency and familiarity with an academic genre. Generally, to be a good engineering writer required good English proficiency and knowledge of academic genre. Swales (1990) indicated the importance of the genre, because it was a format that a specific group of people employed. To some extent, EE postgraduates can be categorized into a specific group. Therefore, Rau (2020) suggested the importance of getting acquainted with academic genres before postgraduate students began to write, because if one intends to have a better communication with experts in academic communities, he or she will definitely need to master a certain academic genre.

Interaction between the instructor and students

Orr (2010) indicates the importance of teamwork and communication to science and engineering students in ESP. To some extent, using L2 to communicate with members in a learning community could help students combine their expertise and language proficiency to have better communication. Moreover, Vygotsky (1978) emphasized social interaction can improve language acquisition. That is, using L2 for communication is a method to familiarize oneself with L2; meanwhile, students could learn to deliver their ideas to their peers. In the learning communities, each member could learn from each other through communication. In other words, each member was important and could help each other, whereas the instructor was like a mentor rather than an authority. In Asian culture, generally students consider the instructor to be the authority; therefore, they dare not challenge what is said. Thus, Tweed (2002) suggested that traditionally Asian students speak only when they are called upon by the instructor. However, in the learning community, students were expected to switch from passive to active attitude. Lave (1991) suggested students in the learning community are like apprentices who can learn not only from their instructor but also from other participants in the class by an exchange of thoughts and mutual observation. Lave called the situated activity Legitimate Peripheral Participation (LPP). This kind of learning community in class was usually conducted using a flipped classroom method. In the view of Resisema C, Hadgraft R, Lydia Kavanagh. (2017), the flipped classroom was a kind of learning combining on-line learning with campus learning. In this kind of learning, we expect students to prepare in advance of their classes and make good use of time in the class to consult their instructor. In other words, students had to be more active and wisely manage their learning schedule.

Previous research has suggested numerous factors affect students' learning to be good academic writers, including English proficiency, genre, and interaction. Most research has discussed the factors separately, but they are clearly interrelated. In this case study, we would like to examine how the instructor and members in the learning community interacted and learn from each other to advance their English and better their understanding and application of an academic genre. In this class, students were randomly paired, thus each student could interact with students of different English proficiency. Moreover, students could benefit from peer review of assignments, and give feedback on others' presentations. By tracing students' assignments and social and academic mutual interaction in the learning community, we would like to answer the following research questions:

Research Questions

1. How can understanding an academic genre affect an engineering student's achievement on academic writing?
2. How can interaction and observation in a learning community affect students' learning?

METHODS

After getting permission from the instructor, the researcher observed the class each week, beginning with the fourth week of the course, after students had learned the basic structure of research articles and as they began studying the particular structure of articles in their field. One lower proficiency student, student H, was chosen at random as the main subject for this case study. His assigned partners and his interactions with them were observed in class.

With the permission of student H, his assignments were provided by the instructor, including the instructor's comments and the student's revision. By tracing student H's assignments, we would like to see if student H was able to analyze engineering articles and find the key components based on Rau (2020). Follow-up interviews with the instructor and students allowed triangulation of the results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Each week, student H read the textbook and revised the former version of his assignment based on peer review and the instructor's comments. In student H's first assignment, he did not pay attention to detail, as shown in the number of formatting mistakes such as inconsistent font, incorrect headings, and improper indent. Therefore, at first the instructor was worried about whether he would be able to keep up with the course or not. In our opinion, student H initially had a hard time understanding the instructor's comments; therefore, we categorized student H as having basic English proficiency, whereas student P was assigned to the advanced proficiency group. However, his poor English proficiency did not stop him from actively learning.

Observing from an LPP perspective, we found student H actively interacted with his peers, TA, and instructor. For instance, he always prepared questions to ask the TA or the instructor, and was willing to discuss with his assigned partners. During the 18-week course, students were randomly assigned to a different partner every 3-4 weeks. Student H in the interview revealed that he benefitted from class discussion with assigned partners. Furthermore, the instructor's comment on his assignment did help him know how to improve his writing because he could always go back and check the notes. Of course, student H's second assignment was better than first, but still included some mistakes on locating the components and putting titles and references in italic when he was asked to use the format in his exemplar articles. The mistakes in understanding components made the instructor worried that student H might not fully understand the genre and might not finish successfully while the mistakes in font were considered minor and could be easily fixed. Therefore, the main problem of student H's learning was his understanding of the textbook, the professor's lectures and comments. In the interview, student H told us that he was only able to understand 70% of the lecture but had no difficulty understanding the textbook. However, in our opinion, student H might overestimate his ability.

Student H and student P were paired for the first few weeks of observation. Although student H did not have a lot of verbal interaction with student P, through observing student P's assignment, he did understand some mistakes he made. At first, we thought that student P could be student H's role model and help him with his assignment. However, student P had a lot of absences and did not actively participate in class discussion, which limited her assistance to her partner. Thus, student H was forced to learn to analyze academic articles merely from observing his partner's work. That is why, in his first assignment, student H put all the titles and references in italics, imitating student P's assignment, showing that student H did not have the ability to judge what was good or bad about his partner's assignment. These font errors were later pointed out by the instructor during one-on-one teaching.

His second partner was student J whose English proficiency was similar to student H's. Student J and student H had a lot of academic and social interaction. They discussed the comments provided by the instructor and corrected mistakes accordingly. Student H's assignment 6 indicated he had made great progress in many ways such as familiarity with academic genre and English writing. That is, he could master the IPTC genre and locate important components in his exemplar paper. According to student H, student J helped him to understand the instructions and pointed out the errors to make his assignment better. This demonstrates the benefits of mutual communication in the learning community.

When it came to student H's last partner, student T was a very special student, with difficulty understanding not only in English, but even in Chinese. He could not understand instructions even after they were explained by the instructor, TA, and student H. Moreover, he never finished his assignments and had several absences. As a result, student H was forced to be independent and seized every chance to consult with the instructor and TA about parts that he could not understand in class or comments given by the instructor. To some extent, student H independently completed the final assignment without peer support. The final assignment required students to apply what they learned in the class to write an introduction including the components *importance*, *need*, and *research goal*. According to the instructor, student H eventually met the requirements of this course.

In short, student H's learning could be divided into three stages. First, he learned by observing how his peer finished her assignment. Second, he cooperated with his partner to edit his assignment and figure out the content of the lesson. Third, he finished the assignment independently. In other words, each partner in this learning community provided student H with a different learning opportunity or challenge.

By the end of the class, student H gradually was able to move toward to the center of this learning community, successfully modeling his writing after an example of the genre from his field. According to the follow-up interview with TA and the instructor, both were impressed by advanced student P at first. Although we did not expect that student H could improve in just a few weeks, his improvement did help us answer two research questions.

Regarding the first research question, in student H's case, before taking this course, he had no idea what an academic genre was, let alone how to write an academic article. However, by gradually getting acquainted with an academic genre through the instructor's lecture, self-study, and practice, first he was able to locate important components of his field, which helped him gain a better understanding of the paper structure. After student H was familiar with the genre of his field, he could imitate and apply what he read to his own work. Moreover, with help of the TA and the instructor to point out his errors such as wording, connectors, and logic, student H made great progress in his final assignment.

With regard to the second research question, in this study, student H seized chances to interact and observe students of different English proficiency and background knowledge in his learning community. Through interacting and observing, student H found his own mistakes when doing his assignment. Moreover, he learned to judge right from wrong when reviewing peers' assignments. Because there were students of different levels in the learning community, student H could learn to be observant, interactive, and independent. All the three traits made him an active learner.

CONCLUSION

In the study, we found that in this class even students of low English proficiency could master an academic genre and apply that knowledge in writing their assignment. Under the flipped classroom method, students of low English proficiency were forced to be active and interactive. Although they might not be used to this method at the outset, they gradually gain a better understanding of an academic genre by a combination of self-study and active interacting with partners of different English proficiency and background in the learning community. In short, each member in the learning community was equally important, because each of them had different contributions to his peers' learning. Of course, the TA and the instructor were extremely important, because they could trace students' learning experience and offer proper help on their assignments.

Pedagogical Implications

This study has implications that having a good command of English is not enough for students who intend to write good academic articles, because none of the postgraduates could write an academic article before taking this course, even those who had studied English for many years. In other words, English proficiency is merely a foundation for writing, and knowledge of an academic genre is a key to writing a good academic article. In this technical writing class, students first read an exemplar paper of their own field, from which they locate and analyze the important components and structures in the paper. After that, students will be able to imitate and apply that understanding to their writing. On a more practical level, this study offers a number of suggestions for teaching. First, the instructor can focus on a genre when teaching a technical writing class. Second, the instructor can step back and let students take an active role and ask questions. Third, the instructor can help students build a learning community, from which students can learn both English and an academic genre through interaction and observation.

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Gender Differences in Native Speakers' Use of *Well* in American TV Talk Show CNN Larry King Live

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Abstract

Discourse markers (DMs) usually play an important role of grammar in conversation. Nowadays more and more researchers have begun to pay attention to the meaning of these small words in the utterance (Schiffrin 1987; Müller 2004, 2005; Aijmer 2002, 2011). They have observed some divergence of using DMs between speakers. DMs are not only help manage disfluency but contain several pragmatic functions in the speech of speakers. This study will investigate the most used DM - "well" for genders in television show, generally showing how native speakers use "well" in discourse. Moreover, to further analyze and present the diverse pictures between males and females. This paper will collect 16 spoken corpora from the popular TV interview – CNN Larry King Live. All the interviewees are American native speakers. They are considered the famous and representative celebrities in America. After the corpora are collected, interviewees' words will be taken out of the whole interview and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The study primarily indicates that native speakers do use "well" in their utterance; however the functions of "well" are different. As to genders, males will slightly more often use "well" than females in the specified context. Men use "well" to cope with the negative situation. Women adopt "well" to manage their feelings. Both males and females posit well at the initial and middle position of utterance, but men use much more than women in final. Some of them have high frequency because of the individual differences, like topic variety, physical differences or current atmosphere released from the interviewer. In addition to exploring the functions of "well" and their gender differences, the purpose of this paper is also to provide simple concept for non-native learners to promote the importance of pragmatic markers' learning.

Keywords: Discourse Marker, Television Interview, Well, Gender Discrepancy, Native Speaker, Discourse Analysis

INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers stand an important role, and contain various pragmatic functions in the discourse of native speakers, such as *well, you know, I think, like* and *actually*. Speakers usually adopt these particles to express their interpersonal feelings, and also to help transmit implicit messages to hearers.

Motivation of Study

Defined by Schiffrin (1987), DMs are "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk", facilitate listeners' comprehension and help smooth spontaneous interaction between speakers. Therefore, native speakers more often use them in common interaction to gain more time to react the gaps and enhance flexibility to ease misunderstanding (Hasselgren 2002). However, more recent studies are not focused on the use of *well* in specific context (Fuller, 2003; De Klerk, 2005), but even on the gender. In order to enrich reliability of study, this paper will concentrate on the one specified environment to explore the differences of how native speakers use *well* and to make further comparison of the discrepancy between genders.

Since the way how native speakers use DMs is crucial and common in their daily communication, it is a topic worth further investigation. Furthermore, many studies showed that although DMs are not part of the curriculum in traditional classes, learning how to use them appropriately and precisely are significant especially for those advanced EFL learners (Liao 2009; de Klerk 2005). Then, *well* has been proved from recent studies that it is the most frequently used DM between speakers (Aijmer 2011; Muller 2004). Therefore, to clarify the basic rule of how to use *well* is important for speakers. In addition to enhance the accuracy of using *well*, this study would also provide the differential usage between genders. In the proposed study, the use of *"well"* by native speakers will be explored and categorized. To extend the depth of the study, it will be divided into two groups of how boys and girls use *well* respectively. The purpose of study is to expect that NNSs are able to obtain the usage of these words properly in daily life and enhance the importance of teaching of DMs in class.

This study basically adapted and drew the functions of Aijmer (2011), separated into two main functions, speech management and attitudinal. According to her, several subcategories of *well* in my corpora will then further be developed.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The study is to examine the use of *well* in English native speakers for the public TV interview context, and to analyze the performance and discrepancy between males and females. In other words, it is important to consider whether or not one gender will use pragmatic marker *well* more often than the other one, while previous study found the use of *like* to be typical in casual speech among young American speakers especially in young Californian women's discourse (Dailey-O'Cain 2000). Then their functions in utterance will be further analyzed.

The study is to show how English native speakers use *"well* "and compare with the group of gender. The questions of this study are, firstly, what are the accustomed uses of "*well* "in these interviews? Secondly, what are the discrepancy between male and female's with the average? Lastly, what is the reasons causing the difference to the previous ones and whether there is similarity or dissimilarity and what are they? The aim of this paper was to analyze how English native speakers use the pragmatic marker *well* in TV interview context, to further explore the variability of genders. This study will focus on different performances between genders by drawing on spoken data from one popular television live show in CNN.

Significance of the study

Previous studies have primarily conducted the pragmatic marker of *well* in the testing context or formal condition. Few discover the pragmatic marker of *well* in casual conversation, such as television interview or private speech. Even if they examine interview of media broadcast, most of them do not focus on the analysis of pragmatic marker, especially for gender use of *well*.

In the present study, it will decide a scope of context in the use of American popular television show "CNN Larry King live" to further analyze how males and females adopt *well* in TV broadcast. Comparison of the similar and dissimilar places between genders and the possible reasons will be explored. In addition, the re-organized categorization for this study based on previous one will also be displayed, including two main functions (speech management and attitudinal purpose) and several subcategories further designed later.

The spoken corpora used here are 16 celebrities' interviews from television program. After analyzing these data, some tables and figures will illustrate the results of those native speakers. Meanwhile the reason caused the different functions between males and females will be discussed as well. Finally I will draw some conclusion and pedagogical implication especially for those who desire to acquire to help input the concept of learning pragmatic marker's importance.

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this paper was to analyze how English native speakers use the pragmatic marker *well* in the TV interview context, to further explore the variability of genders. This study will focus on different performances between genders by drawing on spoken data from one popular television live show in CNN.

Data Collection

Many studies of pragmatic markers did not focus on the analysis of television talk show but only on radio broadcast or situation in academic testing environment (Alexander 2019, Liao 2009, Muller 2004, and Aijmer 2011). Furthermore, gender differences were seldom researched in this area as well. Thus TV interview talk show is a scope worth further exploration not only in pragmatic markers but also in gender differences. The spoken corpora from American TV interview of Larry King live in CNN are chosen here because program transcripts are easy to access from CNN website and topics are free and multiple. The interview's transcripts are chosen from the period of March to December in 2010. It will be expected to present the more essential way of how native speakers use *well* in their common interaction. All talks are processed by the same interviewer in specific location. The conversation will assume much more naturally in the TV interview context.

At first, some of American TV interviews I have seen before are listed, and then the interviews which last more than one hour are picked to avoid the short cases in which pragmatic markers might hardly occur due to the simple Q and A communication. Then, in order to control the similar context, the shows related to daily topics are chosen because they are more likely to present the way how people speak in natural atmosphere. Finally, "Larry King live" which has almost aired 15 years is selected.

16 celebrities' interviews from television show are collected in the spoken data, including 8 female and 8 male native speakers respectively. They all contain enough tokens and words which can be examined and analyzed since all interviewees have different social background and interviews with various themes proceed in casual atmosphere. Interviewees include Jane

Lynch, Barbra Streisand, Lady Gaga, Liza Minnelli, K. Griffin, Kristie Alley, Chelsea Handler, Jenny McCarthy, Bill Maher, Lebron James, Joe Biden, Mike Tyson, Chris Brown, Snoop Dog, Eric Massa, and Mick Jagger in Larry King live. All the guests are considered to be the most popular figures.

Only interviewees' words in my spoken corpora will be taken into account. Table 2.1 presents the number of each interview's words, *well* and the frequency per 1,000 words.

The number of all 16 interviews' words is 67, 802, yielding a total of 274 tokens (*well*). The frequency ranges are from 1.31 to 6.63 per 1,000 words, the average is 4.04.

Table 2.1 Number of interview's words, *well* and frequency

Speaker's Code	Interviewee	Words (1)	Numbers of *Well* (2)	Frequency (per 1,000 words) (2)/(1)*1,000
FL	Jane Lynch	5,322	11	2.07
FS	Barbra Streisand	4,004	25	6.24
FG	Lady Gaga	3,694	13	3.52
FI	Lisa Minnelli	3,127	17	5.44
FR	K. Griffin	3,976	22	5.53
FA	Kirstie Alley	5,276	25	4.74
FH	Chelsea Handler	4,582	6	1.31
FC	Jenny McCarthy	4,284	13	3.03
ME	Bill Maher	5,121	17	3.32
MJ	Lebron James	5,332	13	2.44
MB	Joe Biden	4,974	33	6.63
MT	Mike Tyson	4,196	25	5.96
MW	Chris Brown	3,085	12	3.89
MD	Snoop Dog	3,984	6	1.51
MZ	Eric Massa	4,141	21	5.07
MX	Mick Jagger	2,704	15	5.55
	Total	**67,802**	**274**	**4.04**

Table 2.2 shows the number of interview's words and *well* by gender. They are 34,265 words in 8 females and 33,537 words in 8 males. The tokens of *well* is 132 and 142 respectively. The rate in female and male is 3.85 and 4.23 per 1,000 words.

Table 2.2 Number of interview's words and *well* by genders

Gender	Words (1)	Numbers of *well* (2)	Frequency (per 1,000 words)(2)/(1)*1,000	SD (Standard deviation)	P value *Ttest statistics
Female	34,265	132	3.85	1.66	x
Male	33,537	142	4.23	1.69	x
Total	**67,802**	**274**	**4.04**	**1.68**	**0.733**

*P= P-Value, *SD= Standard Deviation

Table2.1 and 2.2 primarily show that native speakers do use *well* in utterance, and males much more often use *well* than females over all in public context of interview. The p-value is 0.733 (p-value>0.05); however, the result is not significant. It indicates that the result of frequency of male and female is close with each other but still have variables.

Analytical Method and Procedure

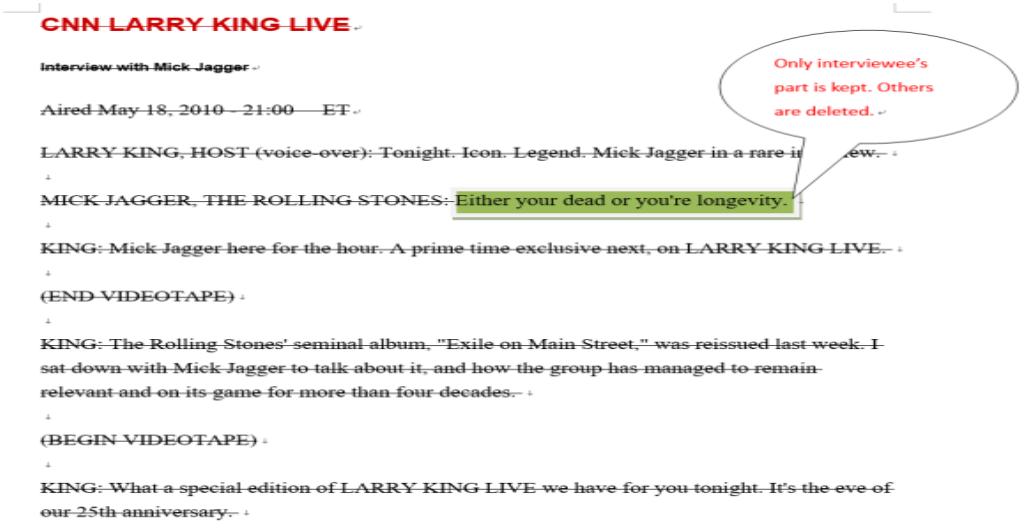
The present study is to examine how native speakers adopt the most used English marker *"well"* (Biber et.al, 1999:1096) in natural context of television interview. Furthermore, this study is distinguished from other research in which the data are usually focused on two separate groups (Liao, 2009; Cuenca, 2008), and most of them did not even analyze the group by gender (Muller, 2004; De Klerk, 2005).

This paper is to find out, firstly, **how native speakers use *well* in television show.** Secondly, whether there is a difference between genders in public interview context. Lastly, I will try to compare the results to the previous ones and if there is similarity or dissimilarity, what are they as well as the probable explanation. This study will analyze how each gender performs *well* in their utterance quantitatively (by coding for each interview; F represents **female**, M represents **male**, S represents speaker's mark, *Barbra Streisand [FS], [MB]*…to categorize each data and then calculate the results of position and function) as well as qualitatively (explaining reasons of the variability between females and males by using several tables).

The procedure of data analysis is presented as the following steps:

First, after collection of all the transcripts of sixteen celebrities' interviews, the data will be pasted into the Microsoft Office Word and saved as different files.

Second, remove the content of non-interviewees' words and then search for the keyword *well* in each spoken corpus. (Figures 2.1 and 2.2)


~~CNN LARRY KING LIVE~~

~~Interview with Mick Jagger~~

~~Aired May 18, 2010 - 21:00 ET~~

~~LARRY KING, HOST (voice-over): Tonight. Icon. Legend. Mick Jagger in a rare i~~ ~~ew.~~

~~MICK JAGGER, THE ROLLING STONES:~~ Either your dead or you're longevity.

~~KING: Mick Jagger here for the hour. A prime time exclusive next, on LARRY KING LIVE.~~

~~(END VIDEOTAPE)~~

~~KING: The Rolling Stones' seminal album, "Exile on Main Street," was reissued last week. I sat down with Mick Jagger to talk about it, and how the group has managed to remain relevant and on its game for more than four decades.~~

~~(BEGIN VIDEOTAPE)~~

~~KING: What a special edition of LARRY KING LIVE we have for you tonight. It's the eve of our 25th anniversary.~~

Figure 2.1 removing the content of non-interviewee's words

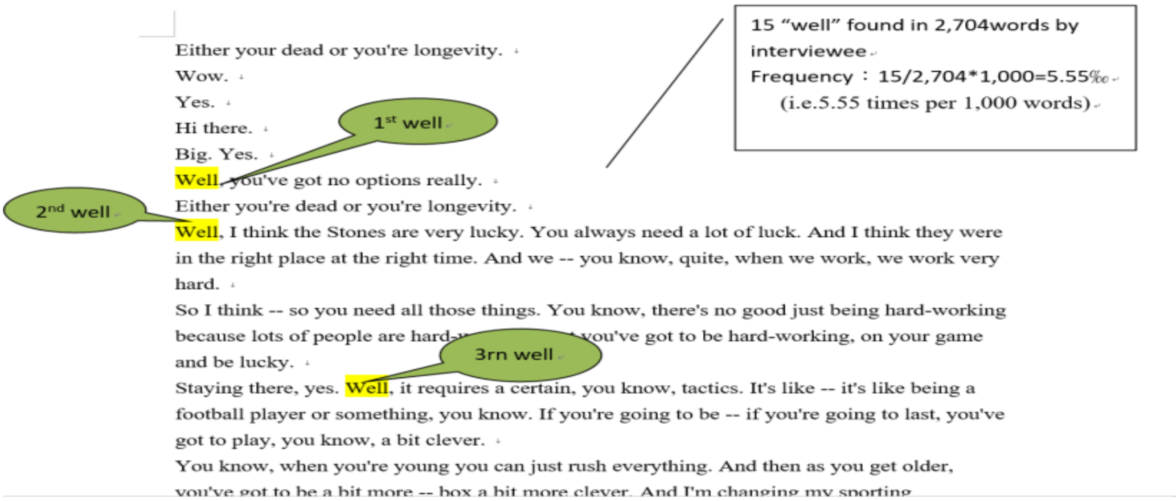


Figure 2.2 searching for the keyword *well*

Third, distinguish their position of *well* (initial, middle, final) according to Aijmer (2011) in every sentence for the data (identification in Table2.3).

Fourth, calculate how many *well* in three different positions quantitatively in every corpus and by using Microsoft Office Excel to combine with total sixteen data.

Then, the tables will present the rate of *well* per 1,000 words for three different positions as well as the frequency of genders, adopting t-test statistics to predict the value.

Finally, illustrate the theoretical model (main category of *well* and several sub-genre) for the marker of *well* in order to analyze the use of functions.

Table 2.3 Example of Position of *Well*

Utterance (Initial)	Utterance (Medial)	Utterance (Final)
KING: OK. What do you make of the Sandra Bullock breakup? **GRIFFIN:** ***Well,*** you know, it's interesting because my comedian friends were saying, are you going to go for Sandy Bullock?	**KING**: Do you think about dying? **LADY GAGA**: It's something I – (pause) ***well***, I dream about it a lot. You know I – I don't know. I supposed I could lie to you and not tell you the truth, but the truth is I do think about it.	**KING:** -- said that he supports John McCain in this matter. Let's wait until we do the whole investigation by the military. Let's wait until we hear from everybody, don't rush it **JOE BIDEN**: ***Well*** – (no words following)
Well occurs initially in the utterance with the meaning deliberation or pausing followed by a new turn, usually occurs alone and together with filled (*yeah well*) or unfilled (um, oh + ... *well*) pauses (Aijmer 2011, p.242).	***Well*** occurs with mid-utterance, dealing with the speaker' planning problem or used for clarification or correction (Aijmer 2011, p.239).	Speakers interested ***well*** at the end of the turn, reflecting the fact that they didn't know how to continue (Aijmer 2011, p. 235), or just wanted to fill the gap to face embarrassing situation.

(Adapted from transcripts of CNN Larry King Live)

The present data will use the analytical tool (i.e. Microsoft Office Word and Excel) to analyze the frequency of *well* quantitatively in different positions. It will show the average of *well* in initial, final and middle (Aijmer 2011). In addition, it will provide another control model for the frequency of gender to make the comparison.

Therefore, the data will be based on Aijmer's categorization, which corresponded with present thesis that *well* can be divided into two main properties, the formal and functional properties. In formal property, *well* can be put at three different positions such as initial, final and medial (Aijmer 2011, p.235). As to functional properties, speech management involves notion such as planning or searching words, self-interruption...., while the attitudinal one has the function of expressing an attitude to hearer or to the preceding discourse (see e.g. Schifrin 1987, Brinton 1996) . The following figure is the categorizing of *well*.

Formal properties of *well* (Aijmer 2011, p.234)
Utterance- Initial Utterance- Medial Utterance- Final
Functional properties of well (Aijmer 2011, p.236)
Speech Management Choice Change Prospective (introducing a new turn) Quotative Attitudinal Opinion Disagreement Atmosphere Management* (new added)

Figure 2.3 Categorizing *well* (Draw and re-arranged from Aijmer (2011))

Functions of *Well*

Well has two mostly defined categories, speech management and attitudinal function based on Aijmer's (2011). Therefore, to analyze the functions of *well*, the theoretical model distinguishes the functions of speech management (i.e. choice, change, prospective, quotative) and attitudinal (i.e. opinion, disagreement, atmosphere management) in public television context (seen in Figure 2.4).

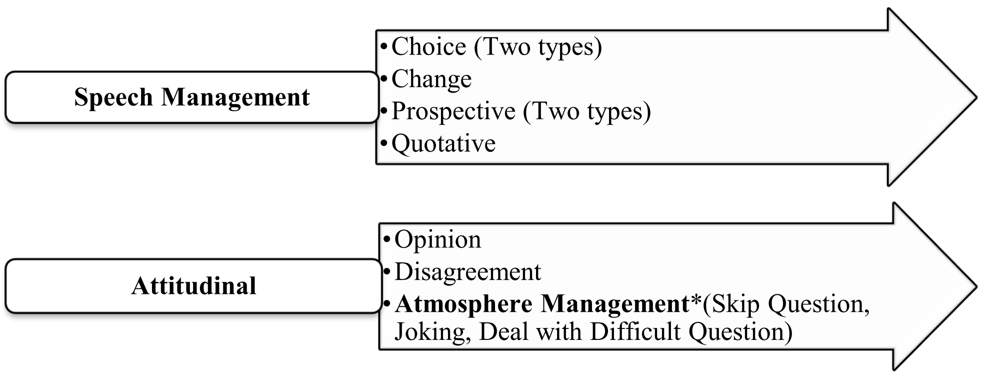


Figure 2.4 Categorization models of function of *well* (Adapted and modified from Aijmer (2011))

Speech Management

Speech management can be further divided into several subcategories, choice, change, prospective and quotative.

The choice function is primarily used at the medial position, which has the function for "dealing with speaker's planning problem prospectively" (Aijmer, 2011:237). In television interview, it assumes to help the interviewee gain a brief time for managing the answers proposed by the host. Speakers can pause a little while and deal with a following content or words which are complex. The choice, which contains the function of planning the sentences, has another usage which does not have the particular meaning but is an accustomed colloquial marker. Speakers use the function of choice in the medial for planning the following speech or idea to maintain their conversation. For instance, in the interview, Kristie Alley uses *well* to consider about her personal attitude toward marriage and Bill Maher deals with his view of political problems.

The next sub-category is the change function, which is also usually put at the mid-utterance break (Aijmer, 2011). The change function has the function for "dealing with problems in the communication situation retrospectively, used for smooth over an interruption, and to signal a restart or a reformulation" (Aijmer, 2011:239). It enables speakers to change the already produced content which they made before, to skip to another topic. In the television interview context, to suit the audience's expectation or maintain the current context, it assumes helping interviewees change or reorganize their upcoming utterance to sustain the atmosphere. Speakers often put the change function in the medial of utterance to restate about their content. For instance, Joe Biden adopts *well* to explain more his own feelings carefully in order to ease misunderstanding, and Lady Gaga uses it to make the answer more distinctly for satisfying the audience's requirement.

Another sub-category is the function of prospective, which occurs in the initial of utterance. It contains the function as a "feedback maker, signals for example that the learner embarks on an answer to the interviewer's question" (Aijmer, 2011:241-242). It usually helps speakers increase flexibility in introducing the upcoming topic. In television interview, it is used the most frequently, which "displays speakers aliveness to the conversational demand for an answer, it assumes providing speakers with increased flexibility and a certain measure of looseness in complying with other conversational demands" (Schiffrin, 1987:111). This function of *well* is used between specified positions of the host and interviewee.In addition to the function of answering the question, the prospective of *well* includes to help manage the continuity between two speakers, to maintain the live situation in the interview environment. It does not contain a particular meaning.

The last sub-category in speech management is the function of quotative. The marker of *well* is "collocating with a form of *say, think, feel* or *go* is used to alert the speaker that what is coming next is a direct speech quotation" (Aijmer, 2011:244). Speakers use it to apply with another person's speech or piece of episode. In television interview, the interviewee adopts it to describe about other's personal view or own story. "In the middle of the turn, speakers tend to rely on utterance-openers such as *oh, well, look* and *why* to signal that they are embarking on direct quotation" (Biber et.al., 1999:1118). The interviewee puts it within the medial position which draws on quotation to make answer more lively and entertaining.

The Attitudinal *Well*

The speech management helps speakers manage sentences smoothly, having the functions which "indicate ongoing spontaneously occurring speech management" (Allwood et al. 1990:5), and people use it to fill with the pause, restart and response questions. However attitudinal can "express attitude and feelings to the hearer or to the preceding discourse"

(Aijmer 2011:245). For example, it could correct an error made by hearer, and agree (halfheartedly) with what has been said. It mainly transits the interviewee's interpersonal opinions and negative awareness to a speaker. It is usually put at initial and final (alone) position.

The first sub-category of attitudinal *well* is opinion. It is defined as "a response marker, however, it also signals attitudinal function associated with downtoning and politeness", which has been analyzed as attitudinal (Aijmer, 2011:246). In television interview context, when the host asks a question which is not completely agreed by the interviewee, he or she desires to re-explain he or she's own opinion, and will use the marker to correct the content made by the interviewer, which can be called the "polite softener" (Aijmer, 2011), to make atmosphere much more relief and soft.

The second attitudinal subcategory is the function of disagreement. It is the more typically one in attitudinal, which *well* "in answers to questions is associated with speaker's unwillingness or reluctance to answer a question directly" (Aijmer, 2011:247). The interviewee adopts it to express disagreement to the interviewer to ease the embarrassing situation. In order to expose the disagreement to the host's question, the interviewees will use the more polite way to express their personal attitude and view. It can maintain the friendly environment between speakers and help preserve the objective explanation from the interviewee.

In addition to opinion and disagreement, the spoken corpora in my data will be analyzed for the further attitudinal function, atmosphere management. The television interviewees can use the marker to skip the sensitive topic which they are not able to answer. They may also make a joke with the host, which has the function making the interview environment easier and more interesting in front of audience. Even when speakers face the question which is not easy to handle, they can adopt the marker to fill with the pause within the utterance instantly.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 3.1 presents the numbers and frequency of positions of *well* in sixteen corpora.

Table 3.1 Position of *Well* in 16 corpora

Position	Spoken Data	
	Numbers	%
Utterance-**initial**	205	74.82
Utterance-**medial**	57	20.80
Utterance-**final or alone**	12	4.38
Total	274	100.00

In addition, the comparing model presents the differences between genders in Table 3.2. It shows the positions of numbers of *well* and frequency in genders respectively.

Table 3.2 Position of *Well* by genders

Position	Males		Females		P Value *T-test
	Numbers	%	Numbers	%	
Utterance-**Initial**	105	73.94	100	75.76	**0.493**
Utterance-**Medial**	30	21.13	27	20.45	**0.625**
Utterance- **Final**	7	4.93	5	3.79	**0.567**
Total	**142**	**100.00**	**132**	**100.00**	

In respect of genders, females prefer to use *well* in initial as well as males followed by the medial. Moreover, both females and males hardly use *well* in final. In my study, the differences can be observed and reflected that males are a little more skillfully to manage an uncontrollable question or skip the embarrassing topic. Females tend to be express internal feelings to the interviewer but cannot naturally handle the urgent problems. It is probably that females are more subjective because of their personality to manage specific context.

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

Finally, according to the question of study, first, what are the accustomed uses of "*well* "in these interviews? Second, what are the discrepancy between male and female's with the average? The expected results will primarily show that native speakers in Larry King Live use *well* for speech management, but attitudinal function still stands the high portion because of the context. In genders, it will predict that females mostly adopt *well* for change, prospective and quotative in speech management and the disagreement for attitudinal. Males more often use *well* for the function of attitudinal. On the other hands, because of the rising consciousness of gender equality and individual variability (personality or social status), the results of frequency for the use of *well*, position as well as functions will be different.

Nowadays there are still many problems with the use of DMs in NNs. With regard to the traditional dichotomy between classrooms learning contexts and naturalistic SA learning settings, Liao (2009) points out "DMs do not appear to be extensively used by classroom learners as they are not explicitly taught in this learning context". Conversely, a number of studies conducted in SA contexts (Muller, 2005; Iwasaki, 2011, 2013; Beeching, 2015) show that NS contact can favour the production of DMs in the L2. In particular, longitudinal studies of DMs (Iwasaki, 2011, 2013) indicate a number of beneficial effects over time of SA, giving rise to increased frequency of use. Therefore, it is important to transfer the correct concept of use of DMs from NSs and provide a practical guide to NNs.

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Exploring College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT) Washback to Taiwanese EFL College Students in General English Classes

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Abstract

This paper is part of a one-year-long joint research project between an English language teaching center at a four-year technical university and the Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC) in Taiwan. The former has been using College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT, level 2) designed by the latter as entry placement test, annual progress assessment, and graduate exit exam for students enrolled in the General English (GE) program. The project has multiple purposes. Yet, this paper solely explores the relationship between internal GE exam and external CSEPT test. The GE program indeed does not narrow its focus to test preparation and thereby not aligned to the high-stakes CSEPT test. It remains unclear, however, if the two tests under comparison are similar in their content and how this finding may explain students' CSEPT score gains.

Participants include 142 Taiwanese EFL college freshmen, placed into seven GE classes at two different levels based on their CSEPT scores upon entry in fall 2019. Collection of qualitative and quantitative data lasts for two semesters between fall 2019 and spring 2020. Qualitative data comprise reading texts and comprehension questions from two levels/sets of four internal GE (two midterm and two final) exams and three external CSEPT tests (the entry placement test as pre-test, annual assessment test as post-test, plus an additional test). Adopting content analysis or one 15-item/feature and one 2-item/feature proformas, invited experts analyze reading texts and questions respectively in each GE exam and those in each CSEPT test. An additional CSEPT test is included in the content analysis in order to investigate whether contents across CSEPT test forms are parallel in terms of criterial features. Quantitative data consist of students' scores on the CSEPT pre- versus post-tests and undergo statistical analysis using paired t-tests. Also presented are preliminary findings and pedagogical suggestions.

INTRODUCTION

English proficiency exit requirement is pervasive in numerous Asian tertiary institutions (Pan & Newfields, 2013). Taiwan is no exception. Exit requirement has indeed been urged by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan since 2003 and become a prevalent practice in many general as well as technical universities and colleges today (Hsieh, 2017; Pan & Newfields, 2012). It has been expected that exit requirement would act as a catalyst for strengthening tertiary students' English proficiency as well as competitiveness in global markets (Chu & Yeh, 2017; Pan & Newfields, 2013).

Notwithstanding its good intention, exit requirement has caused considerable concern regarding its negative washback effect on classroom teaching and learning. More specifically, instructors may "teach to the test" and students "study for the test" (Pan & Newfields, 2011, p. 261) and as a result what actually improve are the language skills tested in exit exams rather than students' general English proficiency. To address this concern, empirical washback research in Asian EFL contexts including Taiwan has been burgeoning in the past two decades. Some of the studies placed focus on teacher washback (e.g., Pan, 2013; Shih, 2009), others on student washback (e.g., Allen, 2016; Hsieh, 2017; Pan, 2014, 2016; Zhan & Andrews, 2014; Zhan & Wan, 2016), and yet others on a hybrid of both teacher and student washback (e.g., Pan & Newfields, 2011).

Although some of the aforementioned washback studies (e.g., Hsieh, 2017; Pan, 2013, 2014, 2016; Pan & Newfields, 2011; Shih, 2009) situated in Taiwan, only three (Pan, 2013, 2016; Shih, 2009) were closely relevant to the current paper and hence briefly reviewed here. Pan (2013) has explored teacher washback using a mixed method approach, namely eliciting teacher participants' perceptions via surveys and interviews as well as their actual (teaching-to-test) practice through class observations. Findings showed that 81 instructors from colleges with the exit requirement, compared to their 79 counterparts in requirement-free colleges, were in general more likely to teach to the test or change their teaching content. That is, they might allocate some class time for students to practice General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) mock test questions or make exit test-related questions as part of mid-terms and final exams (Pan, ibid, pp. 195-196). A closer look at those colleges with exit requirement further showed that explicit test-related instruction (e.g., teaching test-taking skills) was much more apparent in selective test-preparation courses than in compulsory regular English courses (Pan, ibid, p.199).

Similar to Pan's (2013) study, Shih's (2009) paper implemented a mixed approach (classroom observations plus interviews) to explore teacher washback. Shih's (ibid) paper was, however, smaller in scale with five teachers (and their respective students) from two different universities as participants. To be exact, two teachers (Teacher 1 and 2) were enrolled from a university without exit requirement and the other three teachers (Teacher 3, 4, and 5) from another university with exit requirement. Findings showed that only two of the teachers (Teacher 3 and 4) from the latter university adopted teaching-to-test practice. Teacher 3 was a non-native English speaker teaching a GEPT preparation course while Teacher 4 was a native-English speaker instructing a listening and speaking course. Both teachers' teaching content was test-driven, for GEPT magazines were used as teaching materials and mock GEPT tests as midterm and final exams. Yet, the two teachers differed in the extent to which their instructional approaches were affected by the GEPT exit requirement. Greatly influenced by the exit requirement, Teacher 3's instruction centered on test-taking strategies. The same strategies were absent from class 4 teacher's instruction as he was not (interested in becoming) familiar with the GEPT exit exam.

Unlike the two studies reviewed above, Pan (2016) has investigated students' exit exam performance and possible contributing factors. Her/his participants were (276) students recruited from two different universities, one of which required (136 less proficient) students to pass GEPT elementary level before graduation whereas the other did not demand (140 more proficient) students do so. Students from both universities took GEPT pre- and post-tests and six students from each university received one-on-one interviews. The major findings were twofold. For one, no apparent negative washback was found to students (and their instructors) for students from the two universities did not significantly differ in their GEPT score gains. What mediated washback effect and its impact on students' GEPT test performance, according to one of the student interviewees, might be limited class time (e.g., one month prior to the posttest) allocated to teaching-to test practice, including test-taking skill instruction and mock exam practice (p. 72). For another, students from the university with exit requirement demonstrated a slightly greater score gains on listening than on reading in the GEPT posttest. In contrast, their counterparts from exit requirement-free university had a slightly higher score gains on reading than on listening. As some of the student interviewees explained, they have devoted much time to in- and outside-class learning for the tested skills, which meant listening skill in the exit requirement university and reading skill in the exit requirement-free university, and this seemed to lead to gains in their GEPT posttest scores.

One gap in the three studies reviewed above relates to the relationship between teaching content and student test performance. In fact, Pan (2016) has considered it "naïve or simplistic" to associate students' exit exam score gains with teaching factors, particularly a match (or mismatch) between teaching content and test content (p. 65). Despite so, he did not deny that teaching factors did have a role in students' performance in exit exam. That is, when more classroom time was allocated to the tested skills, it often would result in students' gains in exit exam scores (Pan, ibid, p. 77). As for Pan (2013) and Shih (2009), although both found that teachers from universities with exit requirement generally altered teaching content so that it became more aligned with test content, neither has taken a step further to examine if this has enhanced students' exit test performance.

To fill the gap, this paper is set out to investigate College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT) washback to Taiwanese EFL college freshmen at a four-year technical university. It first compares teaching content with test content. Specifically, it examines if internal school exam, designed partially based on textbooks, and external CSEPT exit test are similar in content. Then, it explores how the comparison result can explain focal students' CSEPT score gains. This paper is, to our best knowledge, one of the very few studies to investigate the washback of CSEPT, a two-level national standardized test listed by the MOE in Taiwan as one of the recommended exit exams (Pan & Newfields, 2011). More importantly, it represents a pioneering effort by teachers at the focal university (the first, second, and fourth authors of this paper) and CSEPT developers (the third and fifth authors) to collaboratively disclose criterial features shared by the internal and external tests, among other tasks. The findings of this paper will shed light on tertiary-level English language education and testing in Asian EFL contexts in general and Taiwan in particular.

THE CURRENT PAPER

Part of a joint research project and its purpose

This paper is part of a one-year-long joint research project between an English language teaching center at a four-year technical university and the Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC) in Taiwan. The former has been using College Student English Proficiency Test (CSEPT, level 2) designed by the latter as entry placement test, annual progress assessment, and graduate exit exam for students enrolled in the General English (GE) program. The project has multiple purposes. Yet, this paper solely explores the relationship between internal GE exam and external CSEPT test.

Research questions

Based on the above-mentioned research purpose, three research questions (RQ) are generated.

RQ1: To what extent are the internal school exams and external CSEPT tests similar in content?

RQ2: Do students obtain higher CSEPT scores on the pre-test than on the post-test?

RQ3: How can similarities or differences between the internal and external tests explain students' CSEPT score gains?

Participants and context

Recruited in this study are 142 EFL college freshmen at a four-year technical university in Taiwan. The focal university has designed a three-year-long, 24-credit, four-skill-integrated General English (GE) curriculum and placed freshmen into nine different levels of classes based on their entry level CSEPT scores. Specific to the 142 students participating in this paper, they are placed into seven GE classes at two different levels—four classes in Level A and three classes in Level B—based on their CSEPT scores upon entry in fall 2019. Given that 8 out of the 142 students did not earn the minimum entry-level/placement CSEPT scores for either of the two levels but used alternative scores (e.g., on TOEIC) instead, they are excluded from this study and hence 134 students remain as the focal students (see Appendix A).

Students at both Levels A and B receive 6-hour (4-credit) GE instruction every week in both fall and spring semesters during which multiple textbooks from different publishers are used. Specific to reading instruction, the major teaching materials for Level A classes are sourced from two textbooks, *Issues for Today* and *Touchstone* 2B (2nd edition) while those for Level B classes from *Active Skills for Reading* 3B (3rd edition) and *Touchstone* 3B (2nd edition). Six of their GE teachers, including the second author of this paper, serve at an English language teaching center whereas the other one comes from a language teaching related department at the focal university.

As the GE curriculum emphasizes four-skill-integrated instructions, the internal English tests are designed to measure students' receptive (reading and listening), productive (speaking and writing), grammar, and vocabulary skills. The internal tests here mean the midterm and final written (and oral) exams produced collaboratively by the GE teachers at each level and based partially on textbooks used in GE classes. Basically, the same (midterm or final) exam paper is prepared beforehand and used among different classes of the same GE level on the same scheduled exam date. The CSEPT exit exam, in contrast, is an external standardized English test designed by LTTC and administered at the focal university partly for gate-keeping purpose and evaluates only receptive, grammar, and vocabulary skills. Apparently, there is no (negative) exit exam washback as the GE curriculum does not narrow from English proficiency enhancement to test preparation, thereby not aligned to the high-stakes CSEPT test.

Of great interest to us is if the internal English tests and external CSEPT tests are similar in their content and how this finding may explain students' CSEPT score gains. We assume that if what is taught (here textbook-based internal reading tests) is similar to what is tested (here external CSEPT reading tests), students' exposure to the former may facilitate their test performance (or gains in reading scores) in the latter.

Data collection and analysis

Collection of qualitative and quantitative data lasts for two semesters between fall 2019 and spring 2020. Qualitative data comprise reading texts and comprehension questions from two levels/sets of four internal GE (two midterm and two final) exams and three external CSEPT tests (the entry placement test as pre-test, annual assessment test as post-test, plus an additional test). Adopting content analysis or one 15-item/feature and one 2-item/feature proformas (see Table 1), invited experts analyze reading texts and questions respectively in each GE exam and those in each CSEPT test. An additional CSEPT test is included in the content analysis in order to investigate whether contents across CSEPT test forms are parallel in terms of criterial features. Quantitative data consist of students' scores on the CSEPT pre- versus post-tests and undergo statistical analysis using paired t-tests.

Regarding the two aforementioned content analysis proformas, they are initially developed by CSEPT team (the third and fifth authors of this paper). The proformas are revised later based on textbooks (see Section 2.3), exam papers, and comments from the focal school team (first and second, and fourth authors of this paper plus three of their senior colleagues). Of the 15 finalized items or criterial features in the proforma for reading text analysis, six (items/features 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7 in Table 1) are done through automated textual analysis (Wordsmith, Compleat Web VP, and Microsoft Word) and the remaining 9 are performed via expert judgement (or experts invited by the two research teams). There are only 2 items or criterial features in the revised proforma for reading question analysis and both are completed with expert judgement. Using these same two proformas, the two research teams (and experts invited by each team) can analyze the reading passages and reading comprehension questions in their respective tests.

Table 1: Two content analysis performas

Performa for reading text analysis (with 15 criteria features)			
1.	Text length (in words)	2.	Mean sentence length (in words)
3 & 4.	Longest sentence & Longest sentence (in words)	5.	Mean word Length (in characters)
6.	Readability (FK Grade Level)	7.	Lexical levels

8.	Domain	9.	Discourse mode
10.	Content knowledge specificity	11.	Cultural specificity
12.	Nature of information	13.	(Most common) sentence form
14.	Topic	15.	Genre
Performa for reading comprehension question analysis (with 2 criteria features)			
1.	Difficulty level (CEFR)	2.	Key information

FINDINGS

This is an on-going study and the findings presented in this section are based on content analysis of (a) reading sections in one of the four internal school exams versus (b) those in three external CSEPT tests (see Section 2.4). The internal school exam includes two midterm exam papers. One of the papers was used among the four GE classes in Level A whereas the other paper in the three GE classes in Level B during midterm exam week, or week 9 in the fall semester of 2019. As for the three CSEP tests, one of them (pre-test) was administered in August 2019 (one or two weeks prior to the fall semester), another test (post-test) will be carried out in April 2020 (or one week after the midterm exam in the spring semester), and the other test is used for parallel checking purpose only (see Section 2.4).

The content analysis results, albeit preliminary, allow us to (partially) address the first research question concerning the match (or mismatch) between internal school exams and external CSEPT tests.

Finding 1: Similarities and differences between internal and external reading texts

Results of automated textual analysis suggest a similarity in five textual features as well as a difference in one textual feature between midterm exam and CSEPT reading texts. As displayed in Table 2, the Flesch-Kincaid readability of two levels of exam texts and that of CSEP texts fall between 9 to 12 grade levels. The internal exam and external CSEPT reading texts also demonstrate a similarity in another four textual features including mean longest sentence, sentence length, word length, as well as lexical levels (Table 2). In terms of difference, the internal exam and external CSEPT reading texts vary in average text length. The internal reading texts (155.7 words in Level A exam; 124.2 in Level B exam) are generally shorter than the external reading texts (174. 6 words).

Table 2: Comparison results of internal midterm exam and external CSEPT reading texts based on automated textual analysis

Test / Feature	Level A midterm exam		Level B midterm exam	Three CSEPT tests
Text length	Average:	155.7	124.2	174.6
	Min:	150	95	74
	Max:	159	161	259
Mean sentence length	Mean:	15.5	20	15
	Min:	13.2	16.3	5.8
	Max:	18.8	23	21.2

Longest sentence (in words)	Mean	24.7	30	27.3
	Max:	27	36	41
Mean word length	Mean:	4.6	4.8	4.6
	Min:	4.3	4.6	3.7
	Max:	5.1	5.1	5.3
Readability (Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level)	Mean:	10.7	11.5	9
	Min:	6.8	9.6	2.6
	Max:	12.9	13	12.7
Lexical levels	K1:	87.6%	75.4%	79%
	K2:	5.8%	14.3%	10%
	K3:	4.3%	4.9%	4%
	K4:	0.2%	1.2%	2%
	K5:	0.2%	0.6%	1%
	>K5:	1.9%	3.4%	4%

Expert judgement, in contrast, reveals a ‘diversity’ difference between the internal midterm exam and external CSEPT reading texts in eight textual features (Figures 1 to 8). Take domain and discourse mode as examples. The two levels of midterm exams comprise reading texts in both public and educational domains while the three CSEPT include texts from public, occupational, education, and personal domains. As for discourse mode (Figure 2), all of the reading texts in Level A exam are expository and all of those in Level B exam are narrative. There is a relatively wider array of modes in CSEPT texts, with expository (41%) and instructive (30%) as the major two modes.

Figure 1: Reading text domains

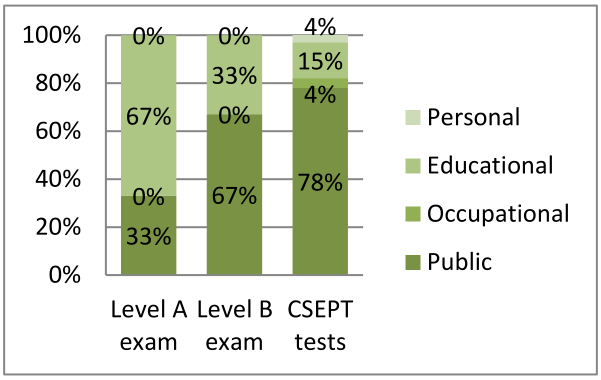


Figure 2: Reading text discourse modes

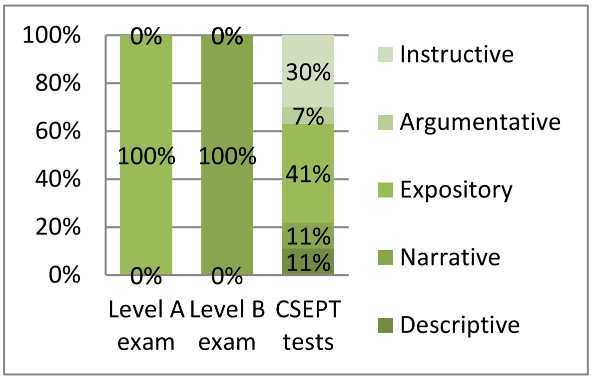


Figure 3: Content knowledge specificity of reading texts

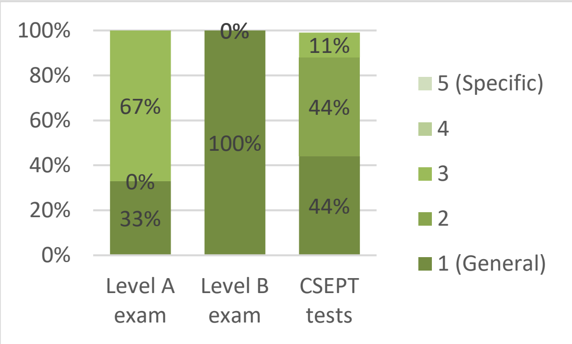


Figure 4: Cultural specificity of reading texts

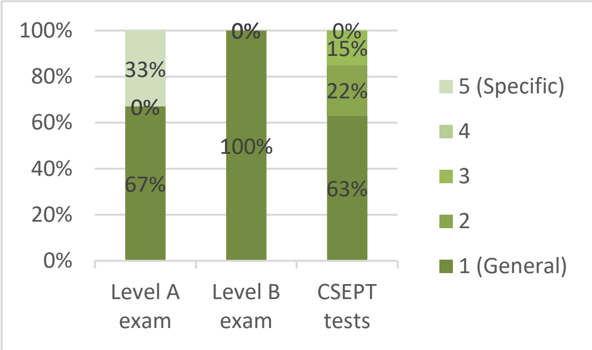


Figure 5: The nature of information in reading texts

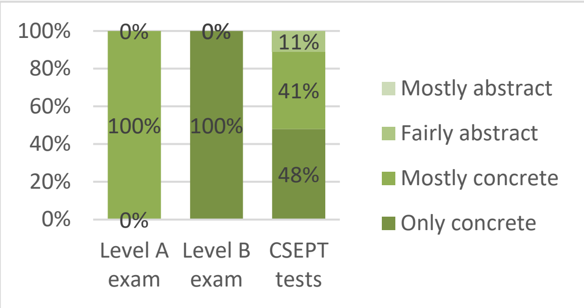


Figure 6: (Most common) sentence form

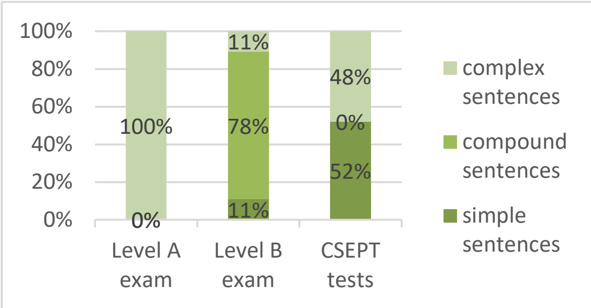
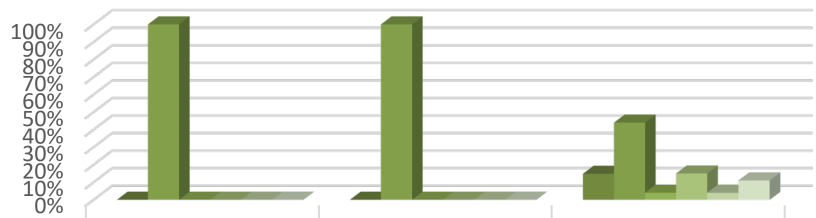
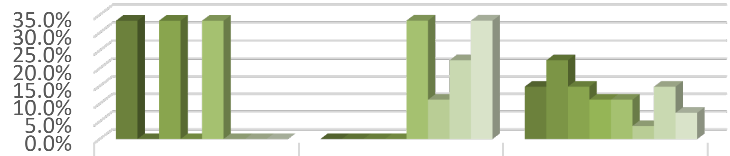


Figure 7: Topic



		Level A exam	Level B exam	CSEPT tests
a.	Advertisement	0%	0%	15%
e.	Magazine article	100%	100%	44%
f.	News article	0%	0%	4%
g.	Notice & Memo	0%	0%	15%
h.	Personal email/letter	0%	0%	4%
i.	Story	0%	0%	11%

Figure 8: Genre



	Level A exam	Level B exam	CSEPT tests
a. Arts, Humanities & Social sciences	33.3%	0%	15%
b. Education & School life	0%	0%	22%
c. Health & Medicine	33.3%	0%	15%
d. Recreation & Entertainment	0%	0%	11%
e. Science & Technology	33.3%	33%	11%
f. Social issues	0%	11%	4%
h. Travel	0%	22%	15%
i. Work & Money	0%	33%	7%

Finding 2: Similarities and differences between internal and external reading questions

Reading questions in the two levels of midterm exams and those in three CSEPT tests are generally similar in difficulty level, equivalent to B2 level of *CEFR* Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Figure 9). Yet, most questions in the two midterm exams only demand students to find key information or answers across sentences while many questions in GEPT tests ask students to do so across sentences or paragraphs (Figure 10).

Figure 9: Difficulty level

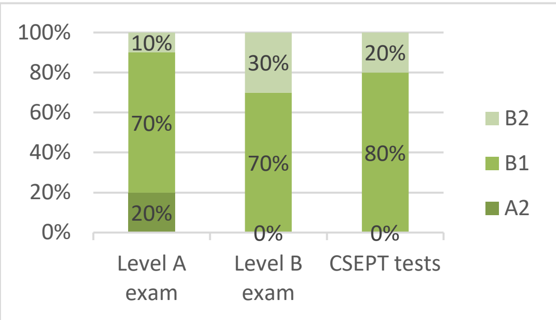
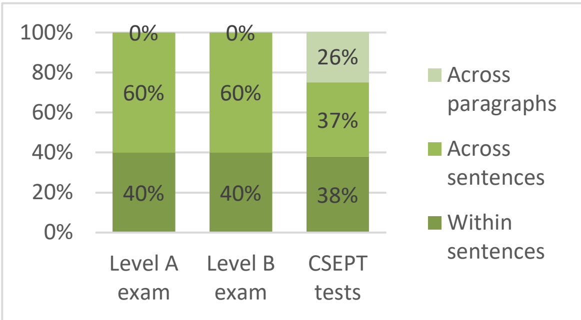


Figure 10: Key information



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper aims to explore the relationship between teaching content and student exit test performance. To this end, we compare internal midterm exam content (teaching content) and external CSEPT exit exam content (test content) first and then examine how the result is related to students' CSEPT test performance. Our preliminary findings show both similarities and differences between midterm exam and CSEPT reading texts and questions. The internal and external reading texts are similar in four textual features (e.g., readability level) and their respective reading questions are alike in one feature (e.g., CEFL level). However, CSEPT reading texts appear to be wider in variety in eight other textual features (e.g., a broader range of text domains) than the midterm exam reading texts. Reading questions in CSEPT tests, compared to those in internal midterm exams, seems more challenging to answer as most of them require students to find answers or key information across sentences or paragraphs.

Our paper systematically analyzes (textbook-based) midterm exam papers used in regular/General English classes at the focal university. This can contribute to our better understanding of teaching content, in addition to what Pan (2013) and Shih (2009) have reported so far. For data are still accumulating, however, we are not yet able to draw a conclusion regarding how the match or mismatch between internal school exams (teaching content) and external CSEPT exit tests (test content) we have found may impact students' CSEPT score gains. One pedagogical implication of this paper is to expose students to a rich variety of reading texts in addition to those available in their textbooks or exam papers. This may boost not only their exit test performance but also general English proficiency.

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Appendix A: Demographics of student participants at two different levels

Level A (88 students)				
Class	Gender	[1]Major	Year of study	Average entry-level CSEPT score
1	M: 3 F: 19	LR: 17 NLR: 5	1st	184.1
2	M: 8 F: 17	LR: 20 NLR: 5	1st	184.4
3	M: 3 F: 13	LR: 9 NLR: 7	1st	182.9
4	M: 7 F: 18	LR: 17 NLR: 8	1st	183.8
Total	M: 21 (24%) F: 67 (76%)	LR: 63 (72%) NLR: 25 (28%)		183.8
Level B (46 students)				
Class	Gender	Major	Year of study	Average entry-level CSEPT score
1	M: 3 F: 12	LR: 11 NLR: 4	1st	209.4
2	M: 5 F: 7	LR: 10 NLR: 2	1st	209
3	M: 3 F: 16	LR: 18 NLR: 1	1st	209.5
Total	M: 11 (24%) F: 35 (76%)	LR: 39 (85%) NLR: 7 (15%)		209.3

[1]*Note.* LR refers to language related majors (e.g., English; Translation and Interpreting) and NLR means non-language related majors (e.g., Communication Arts; International Affairs).

The Academic Lecture as Social Semiosis: A Practical Analysis for Functional Listening

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Abstract

Rapid internationalization of higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007; de Wit, 2020) and the global spread of English as an academic lingua franca (Baker, 2016) have spurred universities in many countries to offer English-medium content courses. Universities in Taiwan are not immune to this trend (Huang, 2012), and increasing numbers of Taiwanese university students must do at least some English-medium coursework. In this environment, academic classroom lectures in English continue to pose a significant challenge for many of these learners (Chang, 2010). From a social semiotic perspective (Halliday, 1978; Lemke, 2015), an academic classroom lecture can be understood as one instance of an oral genre or "activity structure" (Lemke, 1990) with a recognizable and repeated pattern of functional parts. The functionality of different parts can in turn be classified as interpersonal, ideational, or textual (Halliday & Matthiesson, 2014) or some combination thereof. By utilizing these so-called "meta-functions" consciously, instructors can increase the comprehensibility of their lectures for a wide audience. And listeners who can recognize and orient to the functional dimension of a lecture will soon find it becoming more accessible for their learning, which is the stated purpose of listening to lectures. In this talk, I will first review a portion of the recent scholarly literature on academic listening in higher education in order to synthesize a set of common functional features that have been found to define the classroom lecture genre in English. I will then draw on this inventory of features to propose some research-based strategies for developing relevant academic listening competence, as well as give tips for selecting authentic materials for practice. By helping to de-mystify the academic lecture as a form of social semiosis, this talk is intended to be equally useful for instructors and learners in English-medium content courses.

INTRODUCTION

Internationalization and English in Higher Education

By now, the phenomenon of internationalization in higher education is well known to those who teach and learn in universities. It includes a range of activities such as study abroad, foreign language education, and perhaps most widely today, instilling the general population of students with international perspectives and relevant skills (Altbach & Knight, 2007). All these activities reflect a shift away from cooperation to competition between universities in the global neoliberal and neocolonial order (de Wit, 2020). The global flow of students (Baker, 2016), as well as growing pressures on scholars in many disciplines to publish in English irrespective of their first language (Lillis & Curry, 2010), position of English as the dominant academic *lingua franca*. Universities and colleges in Taiwan are also affected by these trends (Huang, 2012), and are increasingly adopting English as a medium of instruction (EMI). One major challenge faced by students in EMI classrooms is listening to academic lectures (Chang, 2012), which continue to be widely used in classroom teaching in higher education (Hyland, 2009).

Defining the 'Lecture' Genre

Many readers of this paper will have an intuitive sense of the activity that constitutes an academic lecture, at least in universities and colleges following Anglo-American norms. First, a lecture occurs in a classroom or auditorium. It is likely to have a distinctive spatial arrangement, with the lecturer usually standing at the front of the room addressing an audience of 40 or more, typically seated, students. A lecture has a characteristic distribution of turns at talk, often largely monologic, but also increasingly interactive (Hyland, 2009; Lynch, 2011). And this talk is likely to be accompanied by multimodal aids such as PowerPoint slides or video clips (Lynch, 2011). The talk itself proceeds in a series of logically ordered stages, including an opening and closing. Its purpose is for the lecturer to not only transmit knowledge (Hyland, 2009), but also critique and evaluate disciplinary materials (Lee, 2009). This structure, staging, and purpose within a discourse community make the lecture recognizable as an oral *genre* (Flowerdew, 2011). Yet despite their importance, spoken genres of academic discourse, including the lecture, have to date received less attention than written ones (Hyland, 2009).

It is widely argued that lecture listening comprehension relies on a combination of top-down processes, which mobilize knowledge of the disciplinary content area and knowledge of lecture discourse, and bottom-up processes, such as decoding vocabulary (Rodgers & Webb, 2016). The prerequisite content knowledge varies by academic discipline: Lectures in biology classrooms and business management classrooms will draw on very different theories or topics. But apart from discipline-specific language, skilled lecturers have been found to also use a fairly consistent range of top-down, reflexive, discourse features, characteristic of lectures to achieve comprehensibility, persuasion, and engagement in their talk (Hyland, 2009).

The Academic Lecture as Social Semiosis

At its most basic, the academic lecture involves one person engaging a group of others in an "exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts" (Halliday, 1978, p. 2). Ultimately, the form of any particular feature of this exchange reflects the function which it serves (Christie, 1999). Thus, analysis of the feature must begin with its place in the social process and then proceed inwards to an accounting of its form (Halliday, 1978). From this perspective, the social process of language in use does not involve following some set of grammar rules or norms; rather, it is to be understood as enacting a series of communicative choices among linguistic systems in context (Martin, 1992). This view of the academic lecture in functional terms is grounded in an understanding of language as social semiosis, first proposed by Halliday (1978) and later elaborated by a range of others (Andersen et al., 2015).

I wish to further suggest that all lecture discourse features can be understood as serving some combination of ideational, interpersonal, or textual *metafunctions* (Christie, 1999; Halliday & Matthiesson, 2014). Those features that are *ideational* construct events, states, and relationships, as well as participants and their circumstances. Those that are *interpersonal* work to manage relationships between people by enacting social actions, for example directing others (e.g. "look at this chart here"). And those features that are *textual* have to do with information organization, both within the same text and in relation to other texts (worth noting is that in the systemic functional view, instances of written and spoken language are both described as "texts"; see Halliday & Matthiesson, 2014).

The production of lecture discourse, then, like any other language use, involves the lecturer making choices within linguistic systems to represent some combination of ideational, interpersonal, or textual meanings (Christie, 1999). A number of discourse analyses of lectures have attempted to trace these meanings and choices in corpora of authentic lecture texts. Not all of the papers reviewed here adopted an explicitly functional perspective (though some did, as will be noted). Rather, I argue that interpreting and categorizing some of their findings from a functional perspective as such can help us usefully integrate them into a single coherent, pedagogically oriented framework.

Features and Functions in the Lecture Genre

Openings and Closings

This brief review of the lecture genre begins with beginnings and endings. A genre analysis by Thompson (1994) of 18 lecture openings across disciplines including medicine, engineering, and applied linguistics (notably all professional or applied fields), all by different speakers, nine for courses and nine for open university lectures, identified two main functions: Establishing the lecture framework, and putting the lecture topic in context. In setting up the lecture framework, lecturers were found to typically announce the topic, indicate the scope, outline the structure, and state the present aims of the lecture. When putting the lecture in context, speakers tended to give the relevance and importance of the topic, relate new to known information, or refer to earlier lectures. Framed in terms of metafunctions, the lecture opening appeared to perform mainly ideational work (announcing the topic and scope, as well describing its relevance and importance) and textual work (relating new and known information, referring to earlier lectures).

An investigation of lecture closings by Cheng (2012) focused on their rhetorical structure and the semantic and pragmatic functions of personal pronouns, as well as effects of class size on these two dimensions. The data set comprised 56 lecture closings across different disciplines, 26 of them "large" (over 40 students) and 30 "small" (under 40). Instead of functionality as in Thompson's (1994) analysis, or genre moves, Cheng adopts the term *strategies*, but they can also be understood as performing functions. A number of the strategies identified in lecture closings appeared to be primarily interpersonal, including requesting and answering student questions, calling for attention, explaining administrative issues, dismissing the class, or responding to students. Other strategies used by lecturers seemed more textual, such as indicating the end of the lecture, plans for future course content or activities, and summarizing or reviewing key points from the lecture. Small lectures were characterized by more interactivity, as embodied in the strategies categorized as serving the interpersonal metafunction, than did larger ones, but there was also some variation among individual instructors.

Lectures as a Whole

Other studies have explored discursive features distributed throughout the lecture. In a study of metadiscursive markers associated with pragmatic functions distributed across 12 lectures in several different disciplines, Deroey and Taverniers (2011) identified six primary discursive functions, including informing, elaborating, evaluating, organizing the discourse, interacting, and managing the class. Each function further included a range of subfunctions. Informing (describing, recounting, reporting, interpreting, and demonstrating), elaborating (exemplifying, reformulating), and evaluating (indicating attitude or degree of commitment) appear to be primarily ideational in purpose. Organizing discourse (orientating, structuring, and relating) would seem to serve mainly textual purposes. And interacting (regulating interactions, involving or establishing relationships with the audience) and managing the class (organizational matters, delivery, audience) fulfill mainly interpersonal functions. While the authors illustrate each function with excerpts from their data, no comprehensive list of forms is provided, perhaps because of lexical variation, and because metadiscursive function can be highly contextual (an expression might serve one function in this context, and a different function in another).

The structural markers *okay* and *alright (sic)* have been found to mark transitions between information stages in monologic lecture discourse (Levin & Grey, 1983). *Okay, alright (sic), right,* and *now,* were also found by Schleef (2008), in a study of 24 humanities and natural sciences lectures to perform a range of pragmatic functions, which depended on the interactional context. They could be used as textual markers (indicating a new stage or topic of the lecture) or to prepare for closing the lecture (similar to the pre-closing stage identified by Cheng (2012)). These uses can be seen as fulfilling a textual function in our analytic framework. The markers could also be used as attention-getters, not only to structure the discourse (as in their textual use) but also to attract the audience's attention, especially at the start of a lecture or when the class is engaged in other social activities. These purposes can be understood as embodying both textual and interpersonal functions. On occasion these markers were sometimes used for elaboration, to continue developing the same topic, a clearly ideational function. While all of these markers and functions were present in both humanities and natural sciences lectures, they tended to occur more frequently in the natural sciences.

The importance of contextual variation becomes clearest in studies of the pragmatics of frequently used words. Ädel (2012) analyzed a corpus of spoken lectures as part of a comparison of function and frequency of the second-person pronoun *you* in lectures, advanced learner written texts, and published scholarly works. 91 of 150 instances of *you* in lectures had a metadiscursive function, suggesting its importance for lecturers and listeners alike. Roughly one third of these instances were leading the audience through an imaginary or hypothetical scenario, an obviously interpersonal function likely to also have some ideational characteristics depending on details. Other functions of the *you* in this context included endophoric marking, reviewing, managing the comprehension channel, anticipating audience response, and managing the message, again primarily interpersonal purposes.

This wide variation in functions served by the same forms supports Halliday's assertion, on which social semiotics is founded, that analysis of language (and thus learning of language) must proceed from first understanding the function of the discursive element in social interaction, to studying its form. Because of limitations of space, I have not included specific forms for curious readers; a moment of reflection might bring to mind many that are already familiar from one's own experience. My purpose rather has been to suggest the usefulness of the social semiotic perspective for opening up new understandings of an important academic genre.

Implications for Lecturers

This description of the academic lecture in functional terms suggests that lecture design and preparation can be usefully approached in terms of a collection of "tasks to be done". One obvious method is to use two columns in the lecture outline: One for the content of the lecture, and the other for functions and subfunctions for introducing each point, connecting it to others, and managing any expected interactions. The specific details will of course vary greatly according to an individual lecturer's circumstances, but the principle is to think of the lecture not as producing linguistic forms but accomplishing a set of ideational, interpersonal, and textual tasks. In case of performance anxiety, notes about useful functions can be supplemented with specific phrases for each. Spontaneous events such as student questions can also be understood in functional terms, though they are more difficult to anticipate. One possibility may be to use role-play with colleagues in order to become accustomed to interpreting questions in a social semiotic framework.

Implications for Learners

In the classroom, students who struggle with an EMI lecture cannot expect the social semiotic, functional perspective to immediately resolve their comprehension difficulties (not least because they may still be in need of bottom-up, as well as top-down, practice). But the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions do suggest a means of real-time reflection on challenging lecture content. When feeling lost, a student might ask themselves, what does this talk seem to be "doing"? Is it representing some disciplinary content, in terms of people, events, or relationships (ideational)? Is it addressing the audience, including themselves, in the form of questions or directions (interpersonal)? Or is it referring to a previous or future aspect of this lecture, or other lectures, or course readings (textual)? Learning to ask and answer these questions provides an alternative to drowning in an ocean of unfamiliar linguistic forms.

Outside of the immediate classroom environment, the ongoing usefulness and power of such reflection can be enhanced by reviewing the functions and subfunctions discussed above to identify for practice some specific words and phrases commonly associated with each, either based on one's own previous learning, or by close study of authentic video-recorded lectures. Ideally, this practice should be done with examples in the same genre, within the same academic discipline if possible (when available, a video recording of a previous lecture in the same course makes an excellent source). Other types of public talks, such as a TED talk, might share some superficial similarities with an academic lecture, but any significant differences in purpose and staging will greatly limit transfer. Short, constructed examples for listening practice in e.g. test-preparation materials are also likely to lack many of the genre features of authentic academic lectures (MacDonald et al., 2000). If such materials must be used, they should be based on corpus studies of authentic lectures. Other talks and textbooks may be a reasonable compromise for instructors in EAP courses, who must often accommodate a range of academic backgrounds and interests with very limited time and resources for preparation. But for individual learner, the more closely practice material aligns with one's own needs and interests, the better.

Though the internationalization of higher education in Taiwan and elsewhere will be reshaped in as-yet unknown ways by the COVID-19 pandemic, some level of EMI instruction seems likely to continue. This brief analysis of academic lectures points the way forward for lecturers and students alike in EMI settings in Taiwan and internationally to pursue an alternative understanding of the academic lecture as social semiosis, in functional rather than formal terms, for the better understanding of all.

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The Phonological Development of Preschool EFL Learners

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Abstract

Executive Yuan announced that Taiwan will be a bilingual education environment country in 2030 (National Development Council, 2018). Nowadays, English has been regarded a competitive tool for children. English speech sound development in preschool-aged children from bilingual environments would not affect the English phonetic inventory, but would increase error frequency and type in bilingual children (Gildersleeve-Neumann et al., 2008).

This study aimed to explore the phonological error frequency of speech production of preschool EFL learners in Taiwan. The speech production of EFL children in Taiwan is sometimes immature or affected by Chinese phoneme code-switching. A naming test was used to elicit the speech of 60 preschool EF learners aged 3-6 in Taiwan and the study calculated the phonological error frequency and a close-end parents questionnaire will also be used for gathering English learning background.

Keywords: speech production, utterance developing, error frequency in language development

INTRODUCTION

English has been regarded as the most useful global language in the world. Taiwanese students are encouraged to master in English listening and speaking. Therefore, the age of learning English is younger and younger. Taiwanese parents have held high expectation on the second language acquisition of children, especially speaking English fluently and hope their children to pronounce English accurately.

Lengeris (2012) mentioned that pronunciation accuracy in a second language (L2) requires mastering production of both segmental and suprasegemental or prosodic features of speech, especially in the aspect of teaching the suprasegemental pronunciation or prosodic features of speech. The extention of features are often traditionally neglected issue in language classrooms over more than one segment such as lexical stress, pitch accent, rhythm and intonation.

About the age, Birdsong (2018) showed that a range of features of second-language (L2) acquisition and bilingualism from the intersecting perspectives of plasticity, variability and age. Lengeris (2012) concerned with the effect of age on the learning of L2 suprasegmentals are more limited compared to the segmental ones.

However, below the age of two, children at 14 months show fine lexical recognition about distinguishing similar words. The result showed infants use the perceptual abilities to spurt the discrimination and categorization of meaningless syllables. (Swingley & Aslin, 2002).

English teaching in bilingual kindergarten in Taiwan provides several hours to teach from vocabulary to short sentences in a week. The teaching methods contain various sections for the teacher to elaborate on phonics. According to previous studies, Liu (2014) noted that phonics instruction and phonological awareness are linked by the teaching to the pupils before but Liu only conducted the research of the sixth grade elementary students.

Other reasons are the learner's linguistic background, the amount of their L1 knowledge or the proximity between L1 and L2 inventory, such as the more similar the phonetic inventory of the L1 and L2, the faster and more likely the L2 learner would be able to learn the L2, besides including the factor of starting age of learning the L2 (Chobert & Besson, 2013).

Based on the limitation of EFL environment, standard English word pronounce currently makes an issue to discuss in Taiwan. Young learners' utterances are affected by their mother language of L1 input and are affected by many factors such as the teachers' accent or if the method of the teacher focuses on teaching the phonological knowledge to the children.

Moreover, the error frequency of the oral phoneme production of young EF learners is one of the main issues. The present study attempts to investigate the general pronounciation errors for preschoolers at each age.

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to explore the error frequency of bilingual young learner. The structure of the paper is as follows: First, this study tests individual child's phonological variations. Second, the study calculated the error rate of English phonemes.

To achieve the purpose, the research question is addressed that:

What are common pronunciation errors at different ages?

LITERATURE REVIEW

English and Mandarin Chinese Phonology

This study is going to explore the error of the English phone production. A phoneme is the smallest linguistic units of the sound system. L1 input could be one of the factors to influence children's L2 speech output. The mail focus will be on English phonemes. In different languages, some phonemes might be the same or similar. Comparing two different language systems, each language would also own its unique phonemes. Below are the tables of Mandarin Chinese phonemes (L1) and English phonemes (L2).

The consonant phonemes in English such as /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /s/, /m/ , /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /w/,/y/ that are also presented in Mandarin. Furthermore, some consonant phonemes, which are/b/,/g/,/d/,/v/,/θ/,/ð/,/z/,/s/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/h/,/tʃ/,/dʒ/,/r/,/j/can be found in English consonant phonemes. In addition, some phoneme sounds are similar between English and Madarin, such as /p/, /t/, /k/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/. Additionally, Mandarin /x/ is a velar fricative, which is completely lacking in the English phonemes, but it has similar pronunciation of English /h/.

Based on the table above, the English vowel phonmes, /e/ , / ɛ / , /æ/ , / ɪ / , /ʌ/ , / ʊ / , /o/ , / ɔ /, are absent in Mandarin phonemes. According to Catford et al. (1974), the tongue movement of Mandarin differs from English and there are no lax vowels in Mandarin so some of the English vowel phonemes would confuse Mandarin speakers.

In English, there are three pairs of vowels distinguished by the feature of tenseness, /i/ , vs. / ɪ /, /e/ vs. /e/, and /u/ vs. /ʊ/. It is particularly difficult for the Chinese speaker to distinguish. / ɛ / and /æ/ are perhaps the most difficult distinction.

The divergences between English phonology and Chinese phonology give the reason to clarify the speech production error of EFL children. Best (1991) investigated that languages vary in their phonological systems. Of specific interest to the present discussion, the inventories of phonemic contrasts defined phonetic properties that have become linguistically distinctive because they are used systematically to convey differences in word meanings.

Speech Perception

Previous research has shown similar patterns of language development for bilingual and monolingual children with disabilities and language delays (Hambly & Fombonne, 2012). Thiessen (2007) stated that children are not as sensitive differences as they are in distinguishing tasks. Particularly, 14-month-olds who can hear the difference between similar words such as ’daw’ and ‘taw’. The research findings also indicated children’s native language is closely linked to their experiencing different phonemes in different words.

Fennell, Byers-Heinlein, and Werker (2007) stated that bilingual learners did not learn similar sounding words until 20 months. The research also indicated that the bilingual learners use relevent language sound (i.e., consonants sound) to direct word learning developmentally later than monolinguals. The factor possibly due to the increased cognitive load of learning two languages.

Input frequency has been shown to be a key factor in explaining the pattern of children’s language development. Before beginning the process of word learning in earnest, Fennell, Byers-Heinlein, and Werker (2007) investigated that infants who are 14 to 20 month old bilinguals nust refine their perceptual sensitivities to the sound contrasts that distinguish one word from another in the bilingual infants’ native language such as ‘bad’ and ‘dad’ which these sounds can be different from English.

Likewise, the study of Masdottir and Stokes (2016) explored a relatively unexplored language related to English. Consonant frequency was predicted by monolingual 2.4 months, but the effect was weaker at 3.4 months. Acquisition of /c/, /ð/ and /l/ occurred earlier related to English.

According to Werker and Tees (1984), infants are initially sensitive to both native and non-native speech sound contrast, but infants’ non-native sound contrast declines over the first year. Whereas infants as young as age 4 may lose this ability as a function of age because of linguistic experience.

In 2001, Laura and Nuria explored bilingual 4-month-old bilingual infants simultaneously exposed to 2 similar language rhythmic category. Using a familiarization-preference procedure. Moreover, when compared with 2 groups of infants from monolingual environments, the size of the observed effects was the same. The results indicated that the initial evidence of distinguishing in simultaneous bilingual exposure is a challenge since L2 output of language discrimination capacities are delayed in bilinguals.

Similarly, Hazan and Boulakia (1993) explored that minimal pair was used as a base for identifying bilingual ability test. In perception, the code-switching effect was significant but small in their L2 output. Contrast to monolingual speakers’ production, bilinguals showed clear evidence of code-switching. However, the minimal pair speech sound by bilingual speakers builts a stronger guideline in English than in speaking their mother language vowel set.

The study showing that the statistical distribution of phonetic variation influence 6- and 8- month-old infants discriminate a pair of speech sounds. Their result demonstrate that infants are sensitive to the speech sound in the input language, and this kind of sensitivity influence speech perception directly (Maye, Werker, & Gerken, 2002).

Speech Production

Curtin, Byers-Heinlein, and Werker (2011) compared monolinguals' language skills with bilinguals' skill in their non-dominant language. Psycholinguists tested infants phonetic category with an artificial language paradigm. The result showed that the syllables such as /da/ and /ta/ was a difference phoneme in speech production of children.

Perez and Nordlander (2004) explored it may seem that children do not have good skills in either language when children switch between or mix their two languages. However, Stavans and Swisher (2006) showed that children use code switching intentionally for specific situations, listeners and topics.

Gildersleeve-Neumann (2008) pointed out that bilingual children showed higher error rates than English-only children, particularly for syllable-level error patterns. The primary phonic errors of English are presented on the substitutions of /t/ and /d/, intervocalically with [r] after a stressed vowel, and /t/ word finally with [ʔ].

The finding of MacWhinney's (1997) study indicated that for bilingual young children who is learning English for a sound that is acquiring allophonic variation in their native language. The study also pointed out that allophone provide an important role of competition model in the learning of differences across languages.

Also, Klein and Altman (2002) examined the productions of four English-speaking monolingual children from ages 2 to 5 years. Regarding acquisition of /t/ and d/ allophones in English, all children produced the target [t] allophone in iambic context. Between 10 and 15 variants occurred in trochaic contexts. Across children, nasal and lateral release allophones were never attained and flap attainment was variable.

The speech production error could be affected by phonological development process. English phonemic vowels also vary dramatically under the influence of lexical stress changes, with many appearing as schwa under low stress. Such as the first vowel in *parental* differs from the first vowel in *parent*. Similarly, in top the /t/ phoneme is phonetically realized as [t^h], whereas the same phoneme is produced as [t] in faulty and can occur as [ʔ] in mountain (Burrows, Jarmulowicz, & Oller, 2019).

Bialystok (2001) indicated that cognition affect children's developing knowledge of language. Cognitive development is one of the components to know the result of the speech production. Also, the study indicated home environments where the language of the family reveals the heritage language of children born in through familiar interaction.

Edwards and Beckman (2008) found that children produce more accurate words and many frequent sound sequences that are produced in their language as they continue to develop into the preschool. The result of their study reveal systematic differences. On the inventories of consonant obstruents across children acquiring different language of word-initial obstruents examined some effects of language-specific frequencies on consonant mastery. Results found that repetitions of real words were elicited from 2-year-old and 3-year-old children who were monolingual speakers of English. Results found that both language-universal effects in phonological acquisition and for language-specific influences related to phoneme and phoneme sequence frequency. These results suggest that acquisition patterns that are common across languages arise in two ways. One influence is direct, through the physiology and physics of speech production and perception were predicted which contrasts were easy and which is difficult for the child to learn to control. The other influence is indirect, via the way universal principles of ease of perception and production tend to influence the lexicons of many languages through commonly attested sound changes.

Moreover, Richtsmeier and Good (2018) tested production accuracy was most clearly facilitated to represent the effect of an input frequency. Input frequency interacted with production practice, and the facilitative effect of input frequency did not carry over to the post test. The variability of the speaker did not affect accuracy, regardless of input frequency. The referent identification results did not favor speakers' variability or a particular input frequency value, but participants were able to learn the words at better than chance levels.

Ambrige and Pine (2018) explored the relationship between the frequent form of noun and single morphology default form in monolingual language acquisition children. Two major findings were mentioned. First, correct production rates were correlated with the input frequency of the target language form and the phonological neighborhood density of the noun. Second, the error patterns were not compatible with the systematic substitution of target forms by children's naive version. These findings provide the result to support for an input-based approach to morphological acquisition, but are not adequately explained by any single account in its current form.

Furthermore, by focusing on simple and complex verb forms in monoliingual learner, Tatsumi, Ambridge, and Pine (2017) used a production priming paradigm to test the prediction that children's verb use is explained by the relative bias in input frequency. Their findings suggest that at the level of different inflectional forms of the same verb stem effects input frequency.

Li (2012) examined two groups of English monolingual and non-native English speaking English speaking children who are two to five years old. Speech productions were examined and compared with the speech produced by 20 adult speakers (10 speakers per language). Clear language patterns in adults' speech were found. For English monolingual speakers differentiate /s/ and /sh/ in 1 acoustic dimension and non-native English speakers differentiate the 2 categories in 3 acoustic dimensions. However, the speech exhibition of children for both language groups had a gradual change from an early undifferentiated form to later differentiated categories.

Burrows, Jarmulowicz, and Oller (2019) pointed that phonological development in young bilinguals has revealed evidence of both positive and negetive language transferring. The study showed that there is the negative transfer in learning of phonemic status in bilingual learners. A significant interaction indicated /t/ or /d/ substitutions in English, contradicting the expectation of negative transfer. English language learners were also significantly more accurate at producing in their native language than in English. However, young English learners rapidly adapted to English phonemic and allophomic patterns even though they encounter the bilingual conflict.

However, the underlying speech production process is exceedingly complex. Preparing words in speech production is normally a fast and accurate process. Levelt, Roelofs and Meyer (1999) stated that the theory is called weaver++ which the first stage of conceptual preparation in speech production. The process is from word generation proceeds through lexical selection, morphological and phonological encoding, phonetic encoding, and articulation itself.

According to Gildersleeve-Neumann, Davis, Kester, and Peña (2008), the exposure to bilingual speaking environment would not affect English phonetic inventory of young EF learners, but the speech error rate is higher than English-only children. The phonetic exposure is highly related the speech production error frequency.

Hosni (2014) showed four strong factors which inhibition, no motivation to say, low degree of participation, and mother-tongue use cause difficulty in speaking by young EFL learners. Actually, plenty of research discovered that the factors affect the errors of the speech production in the past decades, such as home environments which extended to ethic, cultural, national background and etc.

The study of Schnitzer and Krasinski (1994) showed that the acquisition by bilingual child also plays a very important role in the output of bilingual child. A longitudinal diary-and-videotape study of the production of phonological segments by a bilingual child whose age is from 1.1 to 3.9 years old, revealed four stages in consonantal acquisition: presystematic variation, formation of a single system, separation into two systems corresponding to the two languages, and achievement of adult target values with later interference of one language in the other.

Also, Kehoe (2002) stated that children are exposed in specific bilingual language potentially affect their phonemic and bilingual development. The finding showed that bilingual children were delayed relative to monolingual children in the acquisition of the vowel length contrast and displayed similar performance to monolingual children in the production. However, the result shows that the English language learners'speech acquisition are mediated through the dialogical activities in which the learners are engaged in.

Moreover, accent is also viewed as one factor to cause the L2-English production error. In much previous research, language listeners were found to perform differently when listening to a second language (L2) spoken in foreign/native accents. Li (2018) presented the relationship between Mandarin speakers of different L2 (English) proficiency and different degrees of familiarity with Asian language accent participated in the study. The results indicated that the participants required significantly less phonological information to correctly recognize the stimuli spoken in their own accent. Moreover, the participants' degree of familiarity with the accents and their L2-English proficiency both had a significant effect on their perceptual performance.

The study of Wu (2019) also showed that Chinese students have a serious problem in the rhythm of English language. The fundamental components of English prosody such as stress, rhythm and intonation are main factors contribute to 'China English' or 'foreign accent' to the native speakers. Also, the study shows that Chinese students have serious problem of in the rhythm of English language, which is mainly influenced by the characteristics of the in their mother tongue. Beside allophones between Chinese and English, prosody has became an important role on L2 oral production. In China, Chinese students often fail to notice the differences of stress-timed English language, or even wrong stress syllables, making the speech sound perplexing and confusing.

Döpke (2000) also confirmed that when bilingual interaction comes into contact, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics exhibit mutual influences. Pearson, Fernández, Lewedeg, and Oller (1997) indicated that children with less input frequency in the minority language is closely related to the factor which appeared to affect the strength of L2 output and the exposure of language being learned showed significantly stronger correlation on language production.

Besides, dyslexia is also a factor to cause speech production error. Cabbage et al. (2018) explored the nature of speech production errors in children with dyslexia, including those who have a history of speech sound disorder and who do not. Specific risk factors may help predict or identify speech production errors in young children.

In summary, there are few analysis to research the factors to affect the phoneme error for young EFL in Taiwan. Few study research investigate which phonemes of English that young EFL can't pronounce from the literature review above, especially the error frequency between each age from two to six years old. This stduy aims to explore what factore effect the speech production error frequency and more detail about phoneme mistakes are pronuced by different age of children of different ages.

METHODOLOGY

For answering the two research questions, a naming test. The data analysis was conduct the research question, first, the study investigated which phoneme mistakes were especially obviously uttered in different ages?

Participants

There were about 60 kindergarten participants whose age are from three to five years old. The participants were 20 children at each age: three, four and five years old. They were all pre-school students in the same kindergarten.

Their average age was four years old. There were 50% male and 50% female students in the study. They were all not native English speaker whose mother language is Mandarin or Taiwanese in a private kindergarten in the middle area in Taiwan. The children learnt English from vocabulary to short sentence. The children are at three to four years old haven't learned the English word before. The children are at four years old have learned English for six months. The other children group is at age from five years have learned English for six months. Because some children entered the kindergaten at their five years old, some of the children have learned English.

Instruments

A naming test was developed to find the phoneme errors which students can pronounce. In addition, a close-end questionnaire was used for gathering the participants' English learning background for parents before the naming test.

There were three main questions in the English learning background questionnaire. The first one main question was about the personal data, such as pupils' age. The second main question was about the gender. The third main question was about their English learning duration.

The words for the naming test were selected from the vocabulary in the kindergarten in the middle of Taiwan. The 40 basic vocabulary which were chosen from the material of 5 years old children English learners at the kindergarten in the middle of Taiwan.

The selected words were nouns of phonemes in table1. Others phonemes like single phonemes with stems ending in "Alveolar" sound, such as 's', 't'. Most noun vocabularies were composed of one to two syllables. Furthermore, some vocabularies are included oral location which also be made up additional suffixes as explained in the literature review 2.1. Therefore, requiring stem changes, as well as words with the softener 'r' were included. Only a few single phonemes were used. Nouns were chosen to illustrate being pictures and daily usage for children. The target phonemes, such as *ch, sh, th,* were considered the speech sound that children will make vague production.

The words selected from the material to distinguish the speech production category. This distinction was adapted into the minimal pairs of the initial sounds, the compound sounds, the production of the final sounds.

Table 1. The target consonant phonemes for the tests

Place	Target phonemes/ consonant	Onset sound	Coda sound
Bilabial	[m]	<u>um</u>brella	ja<u>m</u>
Inter-dental	[θ]	<u>th</u>ird	mou<u>th</u>
Alveolar	[s]	<u>s</u>eesaw	eye<u>s</u>
Alveolar	[t]	<u>t</u>rain	po<u>t</u>
Alveolar	[r]	<u>r</u>abbit	doo<u>r</u>
Alveolar	[n]	<u>n</u>et	quee<u>n</u>
Alveolar	[l]	<u>l</u>amp	dol<u>l</u>
Palatal	[ʃ]	<u>sh</u>ark	fi<u>sh</u>
Palatal	[tʃ]	<u>ch</u>erries	wat<u>ch</u>
Velar	[ŋ]	i<u>n</u>k	sw<u>ing</u>
Velar	[g]	mango	e<u>gg</u>
Velar	[w]	<u>w</u>atermelon	seesa<u>w</u>

Table 2. The target vowel phonemes for the test

Vowels	Target phonemes/ Vowels		
Mid-Back	[o]	nose	Yo-Yo
High-Front	[ɪ]	ears	monkey
Mid-Front	[e]	snail	Xx-ray
Low-Front	[æ]	mango	jam
Mid-Front	[ai]	eyes	slide
High-Front	[i]	queen	key

Data Collection Procedure

In order to collect the natural utterance production error from children, the vocabulary categories are chosen from the material last semester and not too difficult. The questionnaire was set on the paper and carried out in two different weeks. The appearance of the production and the response to the questionnaire were calculated to be as the data for analysis. The test order of the speech production test was randomized.

Parents responded to the questionnaire before the test. Therefore, in the first week, the parents of the students responded to the questionnaire first and the consent form, and then the students took the speech production test. The students needed to read the vocabularies according to the picture materials and the picture materials would be showed until the children spoke it out loud.

In the second week, the students were given the naming test. They still need to read the picture be chosen from their school material and read. The students needed to recognize the word and real the compound words or the single phoneme words of the words they see.

Data Analysis

The quantitative approach would be applied to analyze the collected data. The naming test was used to investigated the quantitative data collected from the speech production test and responses to the learning background questionnaire. All data were analyzed to explore the relevant question. The methods of the data analysis for the research question will be as follows.

Research question: What are common pronunciation errors at different ages?

The calculation statistic will be used to analyze the responses to the questionnaire of the students' learning background about age. The results was used to explore the utterance error frequency and the speech production error frequency of different EF learners age in Taiwan . Because the total number of nouns are easy for young children, each child will completed pronounce each vocabulary. This procedure will ensure that each item will appear an equal number of time across children and that each child completed nouns.

Therefore, the researcher listened the recording and calculate the error by the researcher to analyze the results of selected words in different categories for the speech production test. A descriptive statistic will be used to analyze the naming test of children.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The speech production test were tested and recording by 60 students. The effective response rate is 99%. Just few of the children didn't produce the speech production. The data from the speech production test recognition test and the questionnaire were analyzed through children's recording and observation from the study.

Speech Production Test

The speech production test mainly examines how English learners produce vague speech production, like ending sound ,liasion and compound words. In the test, there were 40 words. One vague was given for each correct response. The recording by 3-6 years old of the test were valid and be calculated one by one. The scores of the test were collected as the data for analysis.

Frequency Counts

In order to test the errors outlined above, the study obtained the following frequency counts: ▪Input frequency of the phonological phonemes. Type frequency counts for each consonant noun, entries were checked randomly in context and the proportions applied to the total word count which correspond to our teaching target item vocabularies. These counts are shown in Table 3.

Of a total of 1705 tokens, 1229 (72.08%) were coded as pronounced correctly, 476 (27.91%) as missing or unscorable responses which could not be counted towards any particular mistake phonetic consonant sound (e.g., alveolar consonant). Note that, although the rate of unscorable responses might be considered non-relatively high, by excluding such responses (rather than treating them as errors), we are conservatively minimising the chances of observing the predicted effects of alveolar and retroflex sound (unless one is prepared to argue that children are more likely to produce unscorable responses for high-frequency targets from large consonant sounds (i.e., the easiest rather than the most difficult pronounce).

Table 3. Pronounce frequency of phonetic nouns

Ages	Consonants Phonetics	Total Count	Percentage (Errors / omission sound)
3-4 years old	-s	230	23.71
4-5 years old	-s/-t	28	12.96
5-6 years old	-er/-t	50	28.57

As discussed in the introduction, in typical attention getters to tell children which utterances are addressed to them. Especially for 3-4 years old children, 23.71 % of codas can't be pronounced the most frequently. The way that the error rate will vary on the basis of the development of children's age. Thus, from a methodological point of view, a relatively high error rate is beneficial, as it increases the amount of by-item variance for these predictors to explain.

Rather, the majority of errors reflect near misses that involved children substituting singular for plural. Furthermore, over a quarter of all scorable errors were 'other' errors that did not straight forwardly reflect either defaulting or near misses.

DISCUSSION

The present study investigated language acquisition of Taiwan's kindergaten children. Focusing on alveolar and retroflex sound. As predictiton by an input-based account, effects of phonetical consonants disappeared, like [s] and increase the glottal sound after [t]. An analysis of the errors produced revealed that, although children showed some tendency to frequency-based or morphosyntactic defaulting, a large proportion of errors could not straightforwardly be explained by either of these mechanisms. These errors presumably reflect some interaction of the way adults talk to the children, semantic, linguistic, and phonological factors that is not easily explained by any current verbal account; one that would likely be elucidated by future computational modeling work.

The main highly phonetical errors happened in the duration of 3-4 years old children. One possibility is that, although the children in this study would generally be considered to be relatively old in terms of morphological acquisition, even the youngest are not yet well development levels of phonetical knowledge. Note that the relatively high error rates in this study cannot be explained away as a simple task effect whereby children are not aware of the case that is required in each duration of age. As Table 3 shows, 3-4 years old showed 23.71% error or omission phonetic for alveolar and retroflex sounds. Neither it is plausible to argue that children of this age do not understand the endind sound distinction, particularly given that repeated practice showed almost 51.17% correct performance for alveolar and retroflex sound. .

Considering the development levels from different ages, more accurate phonological analogy of children's phonetical knowledge can be constructively compared. Moreover, direct evidence regarding the role of the teacher's speaking speech can strongly influence the way how children pronounce.

CONCLUSION

This study is to explore the English speech production vague and error. The research questions were brought out. For all of the research questions, the results of the statistic indicated that the younger EF learners produce more mistakes and the error of the speech production is negatively correlates to the age and the word size. The findings of this study indicate that the age of English learners in Taiwan affected their English spelling. The environment and the word size are also factors to affect the vague of English learners' speech production. In addition, the EFL young learners learn English longer, the more mature of their speech production.

These result confirmed the assertion of Preston et al. (2011) that children have normal and disorder speech in children, and also they investigated that phonetic transcription can improve impaired speech production in children. However, the current study presents a description of preliminary data on a weighted measure of speech sound accuracy.

Children exposured to bilingual may result in a higher English error rate in typically developing bilinguals, including the application of the different phonological properties to English. Slightly higher error rates are likely typical for bilingual EFL young learner (Kester , Davis & Peña, 2008).

Consonant sound and retroflexion sound are included in final syllable sound is a character feature which are hard to acquire for EFL L2 young learners. When the English learners in Taiwan start to learn English, they may get confusion between their mother language and English. Because preschool-age children's patterns were analyzed at the whole group, it is difficult to know if it will take more detail mistakes for a typical bilingual children to resoleve the complexities of learning two languages.

The different types of error that children made were likely based on their level of exposure to the two languages. Additionally, the patterns that showed changes over time are those that one would expect due to the development of capacities of the speech production system over different age range.

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Appendix. English Learning Background Questionnaire

Dear parents / agents,

This questionnaire is to understand children's English learning background, especially the error of English vocabulary pronounciation. 5 questions are in this questionnaire. It is mainly about personal learning background. If you chose the option, 'other', please state the reasons. If you have any question about the questionnaire, please contact the researcher. Thank you!!

1. Gender □Male □Female
2. Age: y m
3. How long has the child been learning English? ______________________________
4. How long do the child study English out of class every day? ____________________
5. What language do parents or agents speak to the child at home?__________________

Adopting a Conversation Analysis Approach for Training and Assessing Taiwanese College Students' English Oral Communication Skills

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Abstract

Despite the critical role of conversational strategies in successful oral communication, many college instructors in Taiwan continue adopting a language-centered approach in English conversation classes. This study, therefore, aimed at investigating the effectiveness of adopting an alternative approach (i.e., conversation analysis) to train and assess Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills. A conversation-analysis-based instructional approach, simply stated, focuses on promoting language learners' awareness of the speaker strategies and listener support strategies used in the collaborative process of oral communication by directing their attention to the turn-taking patterns of authentic English conversations and the strategies employed by interlocutors to manage conversation flow. In this study, both outcome-based and process-based measures were used to assess participants' English oral communication development, including overall communication success, the identification of speaker and listener support strategies, and the effective deployment of conversational strategies during oral interaction. Additionally, participants' self-reflection on the developmental process and the role of peer-interlocutors in their English oral communication skill development was collected and analyzed. Overall study results indicated that firstly, participants' progress in English oral communication proficiency was empirically supported by the improved test scores on the overall communication success. Secondly, analysis results clearly showed an upward trend in terms of the number of conversational strategies study participants were capable of identifying from analyzing video recordings of authentic English oral communication. Moreover, a closer examination of the results further revealed that the same upward trend was observed in terms of their own use of listener support strategies in managing the conversation flow of peer-to-peer communication. Finally, it was found that the majority of study participants consciously made a distinction in selecting peer-interlocutors for instructional tasks versus for assessment tasks due to differential needs involved in the collaborative process of successful oral communication.

INTRODUCTION

Background

Communication strategies are oftentimes used by interlocutors to solve problems encountered during the process of dynamic interaction. Native speakers of their languages may employ a variety of strategies to help them accomplish their communication goals without advanced or conscious planning. Many language learners; however, tended to attribute communication failures to their linguistic deficiency when they encountered communication difficulties. Consequently, the use of communication strategies may be perceived by some to be an indicator of limited language knowledge. To date, a large number of L2 research studies have investigated the use of communication strategies in facilitating language learners' oral interaction, particularly when they engage in task-based communication (e.g., Labarca & Khanji, 1986; Littlemore, 2001; Nakatani, 2010). Among them, some focused on the identification of specific communication strategies, such as comprehension checks, clarification requests, or confirmation checks, as well as the classification of different types of communication strategies, such as meaning negotiation strategies or communication enhancing strategies which interlocutors employed during the course of reciprocal interaction under different settings (e.g., Pica, 2002; Williams, Inscoe & Tasker, 1997). Others focused on the effect of communication strategy use on the development of language learners' oral communication proficiency (e.g., Nakatani, 2006). Many of the empirical studies reported significant and positive relationship between the use of communication strategies and the success of communication tasks. Nonetheless, despite the empirical support of communication strategies in successful oral communication (e.g., Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998; Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Nakatani, 2002, 2005), many college instructors in Taiwan continue adopting a language-centered instructional approach in English conversation classes with a focus on English learners' development of grammatical competence. In a conversation analysis framework; however, since a conversation is viewed as an act of 'talk-in-interaction' collaborated by participating interlocutors, it mainly concerns how individual interlocutors accomplish the co-constructed dialogues through turn-taking, repair, action in interaction, and action sequencing (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, Sidnell, 2016). A conversation-analysis-based instructional approach, therefore, focuses on the development of English learners' strategic competence instead by promoting their awareness of the speaker strategies and listener support strategies used in the collaborative process of oral communication and by directing their attention to the turn-taking patterns of authentic English conversations and the repair strategies employed by interlocutors to manage conversation flow. Simply stated, L2 speakers are trained to develop the competence to know when and how to take the floor, how to maintain the floor, how to recognize and avoid communication breakdown, as well as when and how to end a conversation (Hamza & Hasan, 2014).

Research Focus

This study, therefore, aimed at investigating the effectiveness of adopting a conversation analysis approach to train and assess Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills. Specifically, this study focused on the empirical investigation of the following two questions:

(1) How does adopting a conversation-analysis-based instructional and assessment approach affect the developmental outcome of Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills?

(2) How does adopting a conversation-analysis-based instructional and assessment approach affect the developmental process of Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills?

STUDY DESIGN

Instructional and Assessment Approach and Material

This study adopted a conversational analysis approach to train and assess Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills. Specifically, students were trained to accurately identify and effectively select and apply both verbal and non-verbal conversation strategies in order to achieve oral communication success in various social contexts. Authentic podcast materials such as Ted Talks, CNN news, BBC news, YouTube videos were used as the empirical spoken English corpus for students to analyze the linguistic features unique to communicative speeches (e.g., extensive use of discourse markers, wordy, additive nature, vague, repetitive, interactive, full of pauses and place holders, formulaic, evaluative, and vague). Additionally, to promote their awareness of the speaker strategies and listener support strategies underlying successful oral communication, students were asked to conduct regular analyses of authentic English conversations, including recordings of their own oral interaction with their classmates in both instructional and assessment contexts. Moreover, instructional and assessment activities were routinely conducted in a variety of interaction dynamics, including free paired conversations, topic-based paired conversations, free group conversations, topic-based group conversations, and topic-based whole-class discussions.

Study Participants

A total of 38 junior college English-majored students who enrolled in two advanced-level English conversations classes participated in this year-long study. Their overall English proficiency level was best described as 'mid- to high-Intermediate'. Like most college English classes, these two classes were of mixed-ability groups, with a small portion of students in the lower- or advanced-level English proficiency levels and the majority of students in the mid- to high-intermediate English proficiency levels. All study participants had extensive experience in engaging in oral communication conducted in English since they had received two-year training on English oral communication prior to the beginning of this study.

Study Instrument and Data Collection Procedures

The study instruments used in collecting needed information for this study included pre- and post-instruction assessment of study participants' English oral communication competence and questionnaires guiding their post-instruction self-reflection. Both free and topic-based oral communication tasks were used as instructional activities and assessment tasks. Moreover, since some studies suggested that the interaction dynamics was likely to change based on the number of interlocutors engaged in oral communication (e.g., Lowry, Roberts, Romano, Chency & Highotwer, 2006), the pattern and collaborative process of students' oral interaction for this study was collected and analyzed under different group formations, including pairings, small groups, and large groups. Additionally, a written self-reflection survey designed to elicit insights from study participants was administered multiple times throughout the study to be used as the empirical basis for understanding further about Taiwanese college students' experiences and attitudes towards the development of advanced English conversational skills.

Data Analysis

Firstly, descriptive statistics were used as a quantitative measure of study participants' English oral communication proficiency for comparing their test scores in engaging in various types of oral interaction in English, including free paired conversations, topic-based paired conversations, free group-based conversations, and topic-based group conversations. The quantitative results of the post-instruction assessment were then compared with those of the pre-instruction assessment via paired-sample T-tests to assess participants' development in English oral communication proficiency. Moreover, for qualitative analyses, content analysis of the student participants' self-reflective and peer-reflective written responses elicited from the open-ended questions on the questionnaires was analyzed and used as the empirical basis to gain a deeper understanding of their long-term English oral communicative proficiency development in terms of their awareness, understanding, and use of conversational strategies and listener support strategies in engaging in various types of collaborative oral interaction. Furthermore, participants' reflective feedback on their own learning process provided additional insights on Taiwanese college students' developmental process of English oral communication proficiency. Finally, participants were asked to analyze their own turn-taking patterns when engaging in various types of English conversation tasks and to identify the conversational strategies and listener support strategies they used in responding to those tasks in the assessment setting.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the effectiveness of adopting a conversation analysis approach to train and assess Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills was assessed on the basis of both outcome-based and process-based measures. Therefore, the analysis results of the two research questions were also presented and discussed under these two dimensions.

Outcome-based Measures of English Oral Communication Proficiency Development

The first research question of this study focused on how a conversation-analysis-based instructional and assessment approach affected the developmental outcome of Taiwanese college students' English oral communication proficiency. To address this research question, study participants' English oral communication proficiency development was measured, analyzed, reported, and discussed in terms of their performances in three aspects: overall oral communication success, the identification of conversational and listener support strategies, as well as the use of conversational and listener support strategies.

Overall Oral Communication Success

First of all, analysis results indicated that the progress in study participants' English oral communication development was empirically supported by their improved test scores on the overall communication success rating category when scores obtained at the beginning of the instruction were compared with those from end-of-instruction assessment. Specifically, the mean score on the free paired conversations increased from 2.89 to 3.87 on the 1-5 rating scale whereas the mean score on the topic-based paired conversations increased from 2.54 to 3.56. In both cases, the improved scores were found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level (* $p < .01$, df=37). A similar yet less steep upward performance trend was found on the mean score comparison on study participants' performances elicited from group conversations – the mean score on the free group conversations increased from 2.31 to 3.29 on the 1-5 score scale whereas the mean score on the topic-based group conversations increased from 2.14 to 3.07. The score change between pre- and post-instruction assessment in terms of study participants' group conversation performance was also found to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level (* $p < .01$, df=37).

Identifying and Adopting Conversational Strategies in English Oral Communication

Secondly, analysis results clearly showed an upward trend in terms of the number of conversational strategies study participants were capable of identifying from analyzing video recordings of authentic English oral communication. At the beginning of the study, it was found that study participants on the average were only capable of successfully identifying less than one third of the conversational strategies deployed by the interlocutors in the conversation analysis videos. By the time they were asked to conduct the same analyses as part of their end-of-instruction assessment, the average number of identified conversational strategies was found to increase to approximately 75% of all conversational strategies used in the conversation analysis videos. Additionally, analysis results also indicated that study participants adopted relatively more conversational strategies in responding to English oral communication tasks in their end-of-term assessment of their English conversation skills than in the baseline assessment of their English conversation skills conducted on the first day of the class. Specifically, study participants' post-instruction performance showed that they asked more follow-up questions, used more open-ended questions, and made more comments on other interlocutors' utterances during the interactive process of both paired and group conversations.

Identifying and Adopting Listener Support Strategies in English Oral Communication

A closer examination of the results further revealed that the same upward trend was observed in terms of study participants' performances in identifying and incorporating listener support strategies in English oral communication. At the beginning of the semester, few study participants were able to identify listener support strategies used by the interlocutors in the English oral communication videos provided by the instructor. In fact, it was found that the majority of the study participants did not really associate the use of strategies with the act of listening during the process of oral communication. Instead, the listening dimension of the oral communication was viewed as a passive process in which the listener simply listened with no need to show any visible response other than the listening act itself. However, a significant increase was found in the post-instruction assessment in terms of both the number of listener support strategies study participants were capable of identifying from the oral communication assessment videos as well as the number of listener support strategies they themselves adopted in paired and group conversation assessment tasks.

Self-Assessed Oral Communication Management: Topic initiation, floor maintenance

Lastly, study participants were asked to self-assess their own performances on the collaborative oral communication tasks administered in the post-instruction assessment. Specifically, their English conversation performances were evaluated from three main aspects of collaborative oral interaction, namely text structure, language, as well as speaking and listening skills. Each main aspect then consists of multiple detailed scoring criteria. For instance, the text structure aspect was evaluated based on five specific criteria -- 'contributions made', 'asking questions', 'follow peer discourse', 'identify and respond to different points of view', and 'express opinions and substantiate'. And the language aspect was evaluated based on two specific criteria – 'language features associated with the text type', and 'topic specific vocabulary'. Finally, the speaking and listening skills aspect was assessed based on three specific criteria – 'broad rules that govern social interaction', 'use of voice', and 'non-verbal behaviors'. Nonetheless, it is important to note that since no baseline data was collected (*i.e., students were not asked to assess their own English oral communication performances at the beginning of the semester), this part of the analysis was reported as a post hoc cross-sectional analysis.

Overall analysis results of the study participants' self-assessment scores showed that the majority perceived their speaking and listening skills was the strongest aspect of their English conversation tasks (*mean score=2.93 on the 1-5 scale), followed by the text structure aspect (*mean score=2.76). And the weakest aspect of the self-assessed English conversation performance was the language aspect. Further analyses of the English conversation performances revealed that study participants thought most highly of their own interactive performance in terms of following peer discourse (*mean score=3.02), followed by their ability in expressing opinions and substantiating expressed opinions (*mean score=2.89). And the lowest averaged mean score came from their self-assessment of the ability in identifying and responding to different points of views during the collaborative oral communication process (*mean score=2.47). Furthermore, among the three specific rating criteria for evaluating the speaking and listening skills involved in successful English conversations, study participants on the average self-assigned the highest score on their non-verbal behavior displayed while engaging in the collaborative oral interaction. And on average it was found that they self-assigned the lowest scores on the use of voice during English conversations with other peer-interlocutors. Finally, detailed analyses of the self-assessment scores assigned on the language aspect showed that the use of topic specific vocabulary during English conversations received lower average score (*mean score=2.17) than their use of language features associated with the text type (*mean score=2.44).

Process-based Measures of English Oral Communication Proficiency Development

The second research question of this study investigated the issue regarding how a conversation-analysis-based instructional and assessment approach affected the developmental process of Taiwanese college students' English oral communication proficiency. The empirical data collected and analyzed to answer this research question was based on study participants' written reflection on their own developmental process of English oral communication proficiency and the role of peer-interlocutor played in the process of their English oral communication ability development, as well as strategies for self-directed learning.

Self-reflection on Developmental Process of English Oral Communication Proficiency

As part of the post-instruction assessment, study participants were asked to reflect on their own development of English oral communication ability from three dimensions – a) the most improved aspect(s) of their English conversational skills, b) the most important lesson learned, and c) the most effective instructional tasks.

Most Improved Aspect of English Conversational Skills. Analysis results of the self-reflection records revealed that the majority of study participants claimed that they had indeed made great progress in a wide range of conversational skills that contributed to the development of their English oral communication proficiency. Among all the self-reported improved aspects, the one that was most frequently mentioned was the ability to ask follow-up questions based on what other interlocutors had initiated during the interactive communication process. Other self-reported improved aspects of their English conversational skills included the following:

- Initiating new topics to start or keep the conversation going
- Making comments based on other interlocutors' utterances in order to avoid communication breakdown
- Asking more open-ended questions instead of yes-no questions in order to encourage other interlocutors to talk more
- Adopting active listening strategies to encourage other interlocutors to keep talking
- Responding to other interlocutors at appropriate times in order to avoid communication breakdown
- Building up background knowledge on various conversational topics in order to keep the conversation going
- Boosting the confidence to engage in conversations conducted in English
- Completing other interlocutors' utterances by anticipating what they would say to keep the conversation going
- Adjusting speaking speed and word choice in order to better accommodate other interlocutors in order to avoid communication breakdown
- Enhancing critical thinking skills through the real-time interactive process of collaborative communication

Most Important Lesson Learned. With regard to the most important lesson learned from the conversation-analysis-based instructional approach, the one aspect that was reported by the greatest number of study participants was regarding asking follow-up questions or making follow-up comments during the interactive process of conversations. The second most important lesson learned was about how to actively demonstrate listener support during oral communication by using verbal acknowledgment or repeating parts of other interlocutors' utterances. Not surprisingly, the most important lesson learned reported by most study participants corresponded to the most improved aspect of English conversation skills perceived by the majority of the same group. Other useful lessons reported included the following:

- Accumulating topic / content knowledge based on in-class discussions with other interlocutors, who oftentimes possess different levels of knowledge on various topics
- Learning how to reduce the stress / anxiety experienced during the interactive process of oral communication conducted in English by adopting more conversational strategies
- Learning how to use body language more effectively to keep the conversation going
- Developing a better understanding of the reciprocal nature of oral communication

- Learning how to respond to different viewpoints during the interactive process of conversations
- Learning how to initiate a conversation

Most Effective Instructional Tasks. Many students reported that the instructional task that benefited them the most for their oral communication ability development was the in-class non-stop paired conversations because this task provided them with abundant opportunities to converse with many classmates who they rarely had the chance to talk to and also to experience different types of oral communication dynamics and interaction patterns. In addition, some of them maintained that the exercise of non-stop paired conversations boosted their confidence in expressing their ideas clearly and also eased their anxiety in engaging in English conversations. Moreover, quite a few of them also claimed that they benefited the most from the homework assignment which required them to video record their views on the Brexit discussion because they were in a way 'pushed' to assess and monitor their own presentation of ideas as well as their use of oral communication skills. Through this homework assignment, they were made to be more consciously aware of the strengths and weaknesses of their English oral communication skills when they needed to clearly convey their viewpoints on the issue to the audience. Moreover, since study participants needed to conduct pre-recording research on the Brexit issue and to prepare talking points for the Brexit discussion, many reflected that they incidentally added some topic-based vocabulary to their spoken vocabulary repertoires.

Role of Peer-interlocutor on Developmental Process of Oral Communication Proficiency

As part of the post-instruction assessment, study participants were also asked to reflect their views and experiences on the role of peer-interlocutor played in different types of communication tasks – for instructional or assessment purposes. Specifically, they were asked to reflect on their favorite peer-interlocutor for instructional tasks as well as their favorite peer-interlocutor for assessment tasks.

Favorite Peer-Interlocutor for Instructional Tasks. The top quality of desirable peer-interlocutors for English conversations described by the majority of study participants referred to the individual interlocutor' ability to reduce the communication anxiety of other interlocutors engaging in the group conversations. That means, the more the individual interlocutor was capable of making other interlocutors feel more at ease during the interactive process, the more likely they would be viewed as a favorite peer-interlocutor. However, analysis results also indicated that many of the study participants made a purposeful distinction when selecting peer-interlocutors for instructional versus assessment tasks. That means, depending on the purpose of oral communication tasks, they may select different interlocutors as their conversation partners. For instructional tasks, most of them considered someone to be their favorite peer-interlocutor when they perceived that they could benefit the most from that individual to advance to higher levels of English oral communication proficiency. Other qualities of favorable peer-interlocutors for English conversations included the following:

- Being an active listener by practicing a variety of listener support strategies
- Good at asking follow-up questions or making follow-up comments to avoid communication breakdown
- Being a confident speaker by expressing ideas clearly and fluently in English

- Sharing common interests and / or viewpoints on various issues
- Maintaining close personal relationship
- Demonstrating a high level of 'willingness to communicate'

Favorite Peer-Interlocutor for Assessment Tasks. Moreover, analysis of study participants written reflections suggested that a very similar list of peer-interlocutor qualities was reported for the choice of favorite peer-interlocutor for assessment tasks. However, for many study participants, when it came to the selection of peer-interlocutors for the assessment purpose, they tended to prefer someone who they considered to be knowledgeable and thus, can eloquently express their ideas on various issues or topics. In addition, they also favored the type of peer-interlocutor who could somehow reduce their level of anxiety during the interactive process of oral communication conducted in English. Most importantly, many study participants mentioned that the ideal peer-interlocutor for assessment tasks would be someone who was willing to share the conversation floor with all parties engaging in the conversations. It would also be disable if everyone participating in the collaborative oral communication assessment tasks happened to share similar world views or values because they believed the communication breakdown would be less likely in this scenario.

Self-Directed Learning

Furthermore, study participants were asked to analyze their own video-recorded paired and group conversations throughout the study. Specifically, they were asked to reflect on the changes they would make if given the opportunities to respond to those oral tasks again. In general, their responses can be grouped into two main categories - a) actions targeting the improvement of individual utterances, and b) actions focusing on promoting group interaction.

First of all, study findings clearly showed that given opportunities to improve their English oral communication task performances, the majority of study participants would adopt more conversational and / or listener support strategies aiming at promoting better dynamic interaction among interlocutors in order to achieve greater communication success. Specifically, the proposed strategies were summarized as follows:

- Avoid becoming a dominant speaker by shortening the time for individual speaker's turn
- Trying to engage everyone in the conversation by giving more feedback to utterances made by other peer-interlocutors
- Giving other peer-interlocutors more opportunities to respond to previous utterances by lengthening the break time between turns
- Giving clear signals of listening attentively to encourage other interlocutors to continue speaking
- Volunteering more follow-up questions

On the other hand, analysis results also revealed that approximately 38% of the proposed adjustments to enhance the success of English oral communication directed towards the improvement of utterances made by individual interlocutors. The main proposed strategies included:

- Initiating the topic to start a conversation in order to better control the direction and content of the conversation
- Asking more open-ended questions instead of yes-no questions in order to keep the conversation going
- Initiating more topic-related questions in order to avoid communication breakdown

CONCLUSIONS

The research issue investigated by this study focused on the effectiveness of adopting a conversation-analysis-based approach for training and assessing Taiwanese college students' English oral communication skills and the major study findings were summarized as follows:

1. Study participants' progress in their English oral communication proficiency development was empirically supported by the improved test scores on the overall communication success.
2. Analysis results clearly showed an upward trend in terms of the number of conversational strategies study participants were capable of identifying from analyzing video recordings of authentic English oral communication.
3. The same upward trend was observed in terms of study participants' own use of listener support strategies in managing the conversation flow of peer-to-peer oral communication in English.
4. The majority of study participants were found to consciously made a distinction in selecting peer-interlocutors for instructional tasks versus for assessment tasks due to differential needs involved in the collaborative process of successful oral communication.

Study Implications

The empirical findings of this study clearly revealed that students receiving training which incorporated the interactive and collaborative oral communication tasks were found to better develop the ability to analyze and monitor their use of conversational strategies and listener support strategies when engaging in English oral communication tasks. Specifically, students were trained to methodologically analyze, reflect, and document their own problems and successes when interacting with other peer-interlocutors to respond to free or topic-based English conversations in reflective journals. The skills of self-monitoring and self-adjusting are keys to becoming autonomous and lifelong learners. In addition, the adoption of interaction-based scoring rubrics was also found to increase the validity of assessing Taiwanese college students' English oral communication proficiency as their development in strategic competence and discourse competence was included in the assessment. Since the language tasks students engage in outside of the classroom setting are mostly interactive, and communicative by nature, their performance elicited from the interaction-based oral communication tasks becomes a more valid and reliable predictor of their oral communication success outside of the class.

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Higher Education Internationalization: A Brief Look at International Classes and English Medium Instruction (EMI) Policy at Universities in Indonesia

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Abstract

Higher education (HE) institutions worldwide are now moving towards internationalizing their academic services through all means. Among them are initiating international classes and promoting English medium instruction (EMI) classes to accommodate student and academics mobility (inbound/outbound) by HE institutions in many non-English speaking countries, such as Indonesia. Despite criticisms addressed to national language identity and content mastery, EMI has got much attention and favors from universities in Indonesia. This presentation will describe the models of International classes and EMI policies implemented by several state and private universities in Indonesia in their efforts towards internationalization. It will also present a brief look at EMI implementation from some studies to see their initial implementation. International programs have been initiated in collaborations with overseas universities through degree and non-degree programs. Their curriculum and supporting facilities have been adapted to each partner universities. EMI policy has been implemented by using English as compulsory language of instruction in international classes and some enrichment programs to support students' English proficiency. From the studies, more positive attitudes have been shown by both lecturers and students towards EMI due to the important role of English in globalization. However, improvement in English and mastery of content knowledge are still questionable, due to low level of lecturers and students' English proficiency. Some suggestions concerning teaching and learning methods are necessary to support the successful implementation of EMI in internationalizing Indonesian higher education institutions.

Keywords: higher education internationalization, English medium instruction (EMI), English proficiency and content knowledge mastery.

INTRODUCTION

Internationalization in higher education (HE) is a growing trend in every part of the world (Dearden, 2014). In 2010, there were more than 4.1 million university students enrolled outside of their country, with seven millions have been projected in 2020 (Lozano & Strotmann, 2015). Accordingly, many different countries have initiated projects, specially aimed at increasing their international reputation such as Top Global University Projection Japan, Globalization Project in Korea (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018), and World-class University

(WCU) in Indonesia (Kemristekdikti, 2019). HE policies have been directed towards strengthening internationalization strategies, such as developing internationally standardized curricula, setting up branch campuses in other countries, staff exchanges, collaborative degree programs to attract more international students (Galloway, Kriukow, & Numajiri, 2017).

The increasing trend for HE internationalization has triggered higher demand for implementing English as a means of instruction (EMI), especially in non-English speaking countries (Lozano & Strotmann, 2015). This is due to the fact that English has emerged to be the lingua franca, especially in academic field (Crystal, 2003; (Galloway, Kriukow, & Numajiri, 2017). English itself has had its position as the world language, even no need to be promoted anymore to the world (Knagg, 2013). English has an important role in global or international interactions (Galloway & Rose, 2018), employees' success in jobs (Baso, 2014), and regional or international free trade (Ibrahim, 2001). English language teaching, therefore, has been very crucial in developing learners' English proficiency, especially in non-English speaking countries (Hu & McKay, 2012). Different approaches have been developed to integrate English into content teaching, such as immersion program, CLIL, content based instruction (CBI), and English as a medium of instruction (EMI) to cope with HE internationalization trend (Lozano & Strotmann, 2015).

A lot of universities have applied English as a medium of instruction (EMI) policy to answer the needs of coping with the demand for quality university graduates (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Floris, 2014; Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014). In addition, internationalization of higher education requires English as one of the main criteria to take part in this challenging academic enterprise. Some countries in Europe, Middle East, Asia, and Africa have initiated EMI policy to cope with this (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018).

Higher Education Internationalization in Indonesia

The quality of higher education in Indonesia needs to be further boosted in comparison to other developing countries' achievements in better quality education (Kemristekdikti, 2019). The demographic, natural resources, and socio-economical potentials should be geared toward upgrading higher education institutions to address issues of producing education outcomes more measured and accountable. Government has reformed Indonesian higher education by giving greater autonomy to universities to manage their academic, research, and community service to excel for nation and state development. The policy of giving more autonomy for state HE in which potential universities are encouraged to do independent university governance shows that it is time for reputable universities in Indonesia to catch up with the increasing demand in quality and global competition (Kemristekdikti, 2019). Among those needed to take part in ever changing global competition is the ability of international language, English, for fulfilling academic demands, such as reading newest references, student and staff mobility, and international publication.

Higher Education internationalization in Indonesia is one of the indicators of Ministry of Education and Culture, targeting 4 universities in TOP 500 universities in 2018 though only 3 were achieved (Kemristekdikti, 2019). Though World-Class University project had been launched since 2015 with government funding of 0.0006 billion. WCU programs are specifically intended to increase the world ranking of reputable universities in Indonesia using these indicators: (1) Academic Reputation, (2). Employer Reputation (3). Citations per Faculty (4) Faculty Student Ratio, and (5) Internationalization: international faculty dan international student (Kemristekdikti, 2019).

The Emergence of EMI in Indonesian Higher Education

EMI has been in debate among academics and researchers due to some academic, national identity, social and economic issues (Dearden, 2014; Galloway, Kriukow, & Numajiri, 2017). In Indonesian context, EMI can be legally justified by the *Law on National Education* System No. 20/2003, article 50, number 3 stating that , "The government and or regional governments organize at least one unit of education at all levels of education to be developed into an international educational unit" (SETNEGRI, 2003). This law is then specifically explained in the National Education System Law, No. 20, 203, Article 33, stating that Indonesian language as the official language is the language of instruction in national education, and a foreign language can be used as the language of instruction in an education level to support the students' foreign language proficiency (SETNEGRI, 2003). In addition, in the National Higher Education Standard regulation it has been stated that in article 37 no. 3, a foreign language can be used as the means of instruction in higher education in Indonesia. At a university level, this policy should be also stipulated as the guidance for the university academic activities, such as that stated at Universitas Indonesia, the top university in Indonesia, with its Broad of Trustees Rule (*Peraturan Wali Amanat*), No.004/Peraturan/MWA-UI/2015, in article 7, that the language of instruction used in academic activities at Universitas Indonesia is Indonesian language with a foreign language can be used in cases such as in disseminating knowledge and research, international class, and courses related to mastery of a foreign language, or in a curriculum aiming at improving students communication skills in a foreign language (MWAUI, 2015). It means English can be used as the means of instruction in higher education, in addition to Indonesian language as the official means of instruction and local language can be used in some study programs/departments such as local languages and literature.

Some universities then have initiated international or EMI classes. Even, universities started to open special classes called International Class programs, in addition to their regular Indonesian as means of instruction (IMI) class. This paper is aimed to examine the internationalization of higher education in Indonesia. Specifically, this paper is aimed to: (1) describe International Class Program, and (2) evaluate EMI Policy in Indonesian HE.

METHODS

This paper describes the internationalization of higher education in Indonesian tertiary education by looking at the models of International Class program and a brief evaluation of EMI at Indonesian HE. The main objective is to document, analyze, and synthesize documents and available literatures on International class program and EMI in HE in Indonesia. Furthermore, this paper is aimed to situate the current research in EMI in Indonesia to shed into light how EMI has been implemented so far to address internationalization of HE in Indonesia. This model can be called as a systematic review (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018). The data were taken from secondary sources, in the forms official documents obtained from the university websites. The documents are in the forms of strategic planning, university prospectus, academic handbook, and papers about EMI in Indonesia from various peer reviewed journals. Five universities were used as the sample, representing three state universities: Universitas Indonesia (UI), Institute of Technology of Sepuluh Nopember (ITS) Surabaya, and Universitas Brawijaya (UB) Malang, and two private universities: Bina Nusantara (BINUS) university, Jakarta and President University (PU) Jakarta. These universities are very strong in their internationalization programs and therefore seen as a model for this study.

FINDING & DISCUSSION

International Class Models in Indonesia HE

This part will look at international class in Indonesian higher education found at 5 universities. To support the internationalization program this part will elaborate the important aspects, namely: university missions, strategies, and program implementation of the five universities

University Missions

First, at Universitas Indonesia, EMI programs are driven by the mission toward gaining international recognition for the university and providing international academic and social life for the graduates. This university sets the target that 2% of their overall student body are from international students and 20% of all the classes at the university will use EMI in teaching and learning process. Second, at ITS, EMI class as one of the characteristics of International Undergraduate Program (IUP) is expected to provide students with opportunities to take part in international academic activities through degree and non-degree programs. This program is offered for both national and international applicants interested to study engineering, as this institute is an engineering institution. EMI class as one of the characteristics of International Undergraduate Program (IUP) is expected to provide students with opportunities to take part in international academic activities through degree and non-degree programs. This program is offered for both national and international applicants interested to study engineering, as this institute is an engineering institution. Third, at UB EMI has been applied at Faculty of Economics and Business. It strives for the excellence in education by continuously improving its academic quality. As one of reputable higher education institutions in Indonesia focusing on economics and business, FEB UB has transformed and committed to provide the best education quality. In each action plan to elevate the education quality, FEB UB refers to its vision which is to become a higher education institution in economics and business that gain international reputation, entrepreneurial spirit, and spiritual insight. Therefore, international accreditation such as ABEST and international collaboration are the priorities for this faculty (FEBUB, 2017).

Fourth, at Binus University, the EMI class as a form of Binus University International is driven by the efforts to provide access to international education through overseas study. The program will provide intercultural competence through integration into host institution and host culture while exploring the international dimensions of their academic field (BUI, 2018). Lastly, President university was founded for two main reasons: to become a research and development center and to set a new benchmark in Indonesian higher education. The founders of President University laid down the foundation and ground work to ensure that President University will develop into a great institution of learning where students from all parts of the world can acquire knowledge and develop into useful, responsible citizens and future leaders (PU, 2018).

From all of the missions above, EMI class has been chosen by the universities in response to quality education using international standard, in addition to academic, professional, and socio-cultural experiences overseas that are expected to be useful for the students' future career. Furthermore, the EMI program is the realization of each university missions, that is to conduct high quality teaching to achieve vision stated in each university.

University Strategies in International Class.

To achieve their missions stated in establishing international program, the above universities set their strategies which are mostly labelled as International. The strategies start from providing courses which are ready to be conducted using EMI. This is different from the President University context in which all programs are conducted in English. Every university requires their prospective students to have enough score in English proficiency test as follows:

Table 1. English Proficiency Requirement for EMI Class

Universities	English Proficiency Requirements
UI	TOEFL PBT/ITP score min.500, iBT TOEFL score min.61, CBT TOEFL score min. 173 or IELTS band score min. 5.5).
ITS	PBT TOEFL, iBT TOEFL, IELTS
UB	ITP TOEFL score min. 500/IELTS overall score of 5.5
BINUS University	PBT TOEFL score 550, iBT 80 or equivalent (those with score below these can undertake a 150-hours of Binus pre-university English preparatory course)
President University	TOEIC Score 400 or TOEFL score as a supplementary requirement

In addition to the language requirement to enroll at the universities, PU also requires students to stay at the dorm during the first year of their studyto be exposed to multi-cultural and English-speaking environment and at the same time trained to improve their interpersonal communication skills important for facing global career. At BINUS University International, first year students are also required to stay in campus dormitory, named BINUS SQUARE, provided with modern facilities, specialized services, and various exciting programs to enhance good life and as a transition from high school. By staying at the student accommodation, students are expected to have enriching experience and lifestyle with conducive environment to shine in academic life and make interactions with new friends.

International Program Implementation

Another strategy that was done by the institutions is establishing collaborations with overseas universities. Each campus has partnership in conducting academic program to support the international or outbound projects. Degree programs can be in the form of Dual/double/joint degree programs offering students to get two degrees, from the Indonesian university and from overseas university. Non degree programs range from short courses for two to four weeks, internship, credit transfer, or study abroad for one to two semesters and then the credits are acknowledged in their Indonesian university transcript. The following are international programs offered for the International class students.

Table 2. Summary of programs conducted overseas is as follows:

No	University	Program	
		Degree/ Scheme	Non-Degree/ Scheme
1	Universitas Indonesia	Double Degree 2+2, 2+1.5-2 (Engineering) 5.5 + 1 (7-8) (Medical Faculty) 1+2+1 semester (Master in Economics)	Single Degree 1 semester (6th semester) study abroad program
2	Institute Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember Surabaya	Joint Degree (Scheme NA)	1. Study excursion 2. Internship in an international or multinational company 3. Student exchange 4. Summer/short course
3	Universitas Brawijaya	Double Degree 2+1-2 years	1. 1 semester Exchange Program 2. 1-6 month-internship 3. 3-4 week-international summer school
4	Binus University	2+2/3+1 years	1. 1-2 semester student exchange 2. 1-2 semester study abroad
5	President University	-NA-	-NA-

EMI Policies in Indonesian Higher Education

Driven mostly by the increased internationalization demand among higher education nationally and internationally, some universities in Indonesia have initiated EMI classes in many different forms. The policy in using English as means of instruction can be in different models.

EMI for International Classes

This model is done as one of the efforts for students to take internationally oriented program tracks. International program can be done in many options depending on the students' choice, but also most importantly on academic and financial ability of the students. The international track offers: double degree, credit transfer, short course, study excursion to a partner university overseas. The policy of EMI is stated in their admission brochure and also in the student academic guide book. So the prospective students already know at the beginning when applying for a bachelor degree that the class will be conducted in English.

Full English Program

This type of program is held at a full EMI university that offers all programs using EMI in the teaching and learning activities, no class using Indonesian as the MoI. An example is President University (PU) Indonesia. This university is a private university in Jakarta based in an industrial area that can attract students to experience what they call internationally standardized and full English programs. This might be the only full EMI university in Indonesia currently with its strongly international support and collaboration. Different from the EMI or International classes in the first group, President University does not offer any double degree program. Instead, it offers Inbound program for overseas students to come and study at PU and Outbound for PU students to go abroad. The outbound program can be in the form of semester or year-based programs with a policy of credit transfer to be acknowledged for degree completion at PU. To support their internationalization, they have international collaborations with 53 universities from 21 countries abroad to conduct teaching, research community service and other supporting activities of the university.

Evaluation of EMI from previous research

In this paper, EMI policy will be measured by looking at existing research outputs done in such area as it is more acceptable to see from the academic perspective instead of looking at the measured outcomes through budget or funding allocation and reporting as accountability may also deal with. The research findings here, however, do not come from the discussed universities that have applied EMI above, as no data are available accordingly.

A study by Floris (2014) to see the teachers' and students' perception about EMI at a university in Indonesia shows that both teachers and students are aware of the benefits of using EMI, however, due to students' lack of linguistic competence, students' communication in the classroom is limited and therefore hinder students' mastery of the contents. In addition, EMI has not been successful due to lack of facilities to support English use in campus, such as references in English. Another study conducted to see how Mathematics and Science teaching by using English at a university in Indonesia and to evaluate the lecturers' views towards the policy and its impacts on classroom instructional practices by (Mirizon, Wadham, & Curtis, 2019) shows teachers' positive perception towards EMI in teaching content subjects, especially science subjects as they are more motivated to teach and are challenged to have in-depth knowledge about their field of study. EMI class encouraged them to apply different teaching approaches, in contrast to that done in mainstream classes. In addition, some enrichment strategies are done for content mastery of the students in addition to changing from teacher-centered to student-centered approach in class and using various teaching media to facilitate students learn better in EMI class. From those studies, EMI in Indonesia has been more perceived positively, but the question is how the interactions, either among students or between students and teachers, have been designed and whether EMI class has produced better English and content learning outcomes compared to those at non-EMI class.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Internationalization in HE in Indonesia has encouraged universities to set International Classes to boost their academic reputation. The models range from degree to non-degree programs with collaborations with overseas universities. In order to succeed in international class programs, EMI has been utilized to help lecturers and students increase their English proficiency. This is as a requirement for global academic mobility as English has been the lingua franca in academic enterprises. Looking at the EMI implementations, it is thus clear that more spaces have to examined in order that EMI really benefits both lecturers and students. It is therefore important to do further investigation of the EMI implementation by looking at the following issues: (1) Teachers and students' language preparation for EMI implementation, (2) English proficiency and content mastery of the EMI Program students, (3) Instructional Guidelines for EMI implementation, (4) Teaching Methods and Learning Strategies in EMI Class, (5) Intra-curricular and extra-curricular supports for EMI implementation, (6) The roles of ICT and campus facilities in supporting EMI programs.

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Activation of Students' Target Language Knowledge by PLS Method with Reference to Mandelbrot's Equation

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Abstract

Pictologics (PLS) is a new method already tested successfully with Iranian, Korean, Malay, and Taiwanese students. The practicality of "playing cards" was the initial inspiration for this method. People may play with cards for several hours without tiring. Should we create such an impact in language classes, then that would prove really effective. Why is it possible to play with cards for hours without getting tired? There are two reasons: 1) with a deck of 52 cards, each player may have nearly infinite random combinations of cards based on the game; and 2) the value of each card is not absolute; that is, based on certain games, different values are ascribed to each individual card. If we apply these two properties to pictures, then we will have almost limitless chances to produce linguistic structures. Mathematically, applying the combination formula of $\frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!}$ we can virtually have more than two million possibilities by using just twenty pictures! It will be illustrated through this paper that by imaginatively using random combinations of pictures both the teacher and students are given directions to come up with endless language production. The way imagination renders production in this method practically resembles Mandelbrot's equation of $Z \rightleftharpoons Z^2 + C$ in which each new structure triggers another new one, and so on. PLS can be used independently or else combined with other language teaching methods. This paper will explain what inspired this method, why it works, and consequently, how EFL/ESL teachers and students can benefit from it and its distinctive techniques.

INTRODUCTION

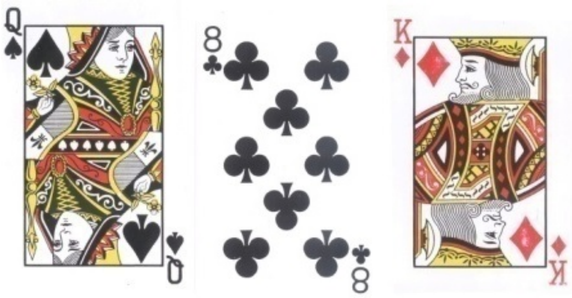
March 10, 2009, then US President, Barack Obama, emphasized the importance of education reform (Obama, 2009). He urged policy makers to develop standards that "don't simply measure whether students can fill in a bubble on a test but whether they possess 21st century skills like problem-solving and critical thinking." Similarly, there is a Persian proverb which literally reads, "When we have 100, then we certainly have 90." That is, if students learn to think critically, then they will definitely improve in their attempt to learn a language.

Likewise, Pictologics (PLS) is a newly developed teaching method which has so far been tested successfully with Iranian, Korean, Malay, and Taiwanese students (Shirban Sasi, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2012, 2013, 2017, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c, 2018d, and 2019). This method primarily relies on imagination and random usage of pictures. We might assume that imagination has not been fully exploited in the other language teaching methods/approaches. The most prominent method in which imagination is used is Desuggestopedia; aka, Suggestopedia (Brown, 1987; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011) in which imaginary identities are given to the students in order to avert negative feelings caused by fear of facing new challenges or making mistakes.

In PLS, though, there are only two things which can limit imagination: 1) strict grammatical rules (in any certain language such as English), and 2) ethical norms in certain societies (where the method is being applied). Apart from these two, even sky is not the limit!

The Inspiration

I was first inspired by "playing cards". People may play with cards for several hours. The crucial question is: What is that makes it possible to play with cards for several hours without tiring?



In my opinion, there are two reasons (Shirban Sasi, 2012):

1. With a deck of 52 cards, each player can have almost indefinite combinations of cards by chance and according to the game;
2. The value of each card is not absolute; that is, based on different games, different values are attributed to each individual card.

How Many Structures?

If we can make imaginary associations among linguistic forms and a picture or picture combinations, then based on the mathematical formula of combinations, we can produce a huge number of structures. There will be chances for the students to produce (oral/ written) structures, and opportunities for the teachers to check their students' understanding and learning. Here is how the combination formula works:

$$\binom{n}{m} = \ Total\ number\ of\ possible\ combinations\ of\ cards = \frac{n!}{m!\,(n-m)!}$$

Where n= total number of the cards, m= number of the cards picked at a time, and "!" means the number must be multiplied by all the numbers preceding it. In the following example, we assume we are dealing with only 20 pictures in a hypothetical PLS class. Applying the equation for each possible picture combination, we can calculate the total number of possible card/picture arrangements as illustrated in Table 1.

As evident in Table 1, using only 20 pictures, we will have more than one million possible combinations. Then, if we imagine that for each picture combination we can produce only two linguistic forms, we will then have **2,096,766** possibilities! Each one of these possibilities can be a good source for language production (Shirban Sasi, 2004).

Table 1. Number of combinations using 20 pictures

Number of cards picked at a time	Number of possible combinations
1	20
2	190
3	1140
4	4845
5	15504
6	38760
7	77520
8	125970
9	167960
10	184756
11	167960
12	125970
13	77520
14	38760
15	15504
16	4845
17	1140
18	190
19	20
20	1
Sum	1,048,383

Recursive Loops of Structures

Please look at Figure 1 and see what words or expressions are associated to it in Table 2.

Figure1. Any picture of any cat retrieved from internet public domain (n.d.).

It is simply a picture of a cat. One might think this is so unimportant or trivial to learn much from. However, even trivial things can open doors to complex connections in PLS. Table 2 shows how easy it is to think about these words, directly or indirectly (adopted from Shirban Sasi, 2018c):

Table 2. Some words associated imaginatively to a simple picture

Word associated to the picture	An example in which the word is used (the 'logic')
animal	A cat is an **animal**.
live	Animals **live** in many places.
water	A lake is a place full of **water**.
spring	A **spring** is a kind of water resource.
tiger	**Tiger**s are the biggest cats of all.
cub	A tiger's baby is called a **cub**.
forest	Tigers live in **forest**s.
camouflage	Tigers are masters of **camouflage**.
beautiful	Many believe that cats are **beautiful**.
ugly	Some others think some cats are **ugly**.
Persian	Perhaps **Persian** cats are the most beautiful.
see	Cats can **see** quite well in the dark.
solitary	Most cats prefer a **solitary** life.
lion	**Lion**s are the only cats which live in groups.
territorial	Big cats are fiercely **territorial**.

Please notice that initially the picture instigates the first utterance, and then we can go anywhere back and forth. There is no end to this. Almost everybody can add many more words to the same picture. Thus the recursive loop can be applied in two distinctive ways: 1) by referring to the first picture, or combination of pictures; and 2) by using a key concept or word from the last produced structure. This application of ideas closely resemble Benoit B. Mandelbrot (1924- 2010)'s equation of $Z \rightleftharpoons Z^2 + C$ which feeds back on itself. In other words, each output becomes a new input, and the loop goes on infinitely. Thus, and as true with Mandelbrot's Equation and Mandelbrot's Set, an incredibly simple formula (or idea) can yield astonishing complexity and length.

Samples from University Students' Language Production

Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the lines of conversation made separately by two pairs of university students. In these example, only two pictures were randomly used and the time to make the conversation was limited. Normally, and in intermediate and higher levels of PLS classes we make use of more pictures, and hence, more structures. There have been many cases of six pictures or more leading to up to 150 sentences in about 20 minutes of straight conversation among students (Appendix).

Table 3. Sample 1: Two pairs of students’ dialogs using two random pictures imaginatively

	
Pair 1:	**Pair 2:**
A: Where did you go in this winter vacation?	A: Who is the skillful skier?
B: I went to Turkey in this winter vacation.	B: The skillful skier is Joe, who is one of the best skiers in the world.
A: Turkey?! What places or any popular attractions you visited?	A: Why did Joe come late in the competition?
B: I visited a mosque. That is one of the most popular attractions in Turkey.	B: The reason Joe came late was because the bus took him to the wrong place.
A: Wow! That’s cool. I had heard that if you were not a Muslim, you can’t enter into a mosque. Is that real?	A: Where was the wrong place? B: The wrong place was a mosque.
B: I don’t know. I just looked around near the mosque because I have a lot of places that I want to visit.	A: Was the mosque close to the ski field? B: Fortunately, it was said that it only took about twenty minutes from the mosque to
A: OK, maybe we can search on the internet to find out the answer.	the ski field. That’s why he could still participate in the competition on time.
B: Let’s go search!	A: What was the result of the competition?
	B: Joe lost!

Table 4. Sample 2: Two pairs of students' dialogs using two random pictures imaginatively

Pair 1:

A: How old is the boy?

B: He is ten years old.

A: What is he thinking about?

B: He is recalling his past.

A: What happened to him?

B: He misses his father who he went hunting with hand in hand.

A: What did they hunt?

B: They hunted wolves!

A: How did they hunt?

B: They jumped over a fence to see better.

A: Why did they hunt wolves?

B: They needed wolf's blood to worship their ancestors!

Pair 2:

A: What do you think the little boy is looking at?

B: I think that he is not looking at anything, but he is thinking about something in his brain.

A: What do you think he is thinking about?

B: He is thinking why his classmates don't play with him.

A: Do you have any ideas why?

B: I think that he might be bullied by his classmates.

A: Why is he bullied?

B: Because he is from a single family.

A: Does anyone help him?

B: No, only the teacher plays with him.

10 Techniques When Using PLS (adopted from Shirban Sasi, 2018d)

1. Take a picture card and show it to the students. Ask them to use their imagination to associate as many ideas to this picture as possible. Ask funny, strange, startling questions.
2. Draw a card. Do not show it to the students. Ask them whether they want you to change this picture. Ask them to give you reasons.
3. Ask the students to give you a word (or a piece of information) in English. Write it on the board. Then, pick a picture and ask them to somehow relate this picture to that word.
4. Take a card and ask the students to say a word or piece of information which they believe cannot be related to that picture at all. Then, ask them to focus, use their imagination, and try to connect the idea to the picture.
5. Place two pictures together and ask the students to connect them imaginatively and come up with different sentences using ideas.

6. With two pictures, ask the students whether they can think of any idea(s) that cannot relate to the combination of these two pictures. Then, argue for and against their positions.
7. Take one picture. Ask the students about their opinion concerning what they want as the second picture. They should be individually ready to support what they would like.
8. With a picture, ask the students to focus on one of their senses at a time and attribute sentences or pieces of information to that particular picture. In doing this, the students can imagine that out of the five senses, they can only use one (like hearing, or touch).
9. Take one or two pictures. Ask the students to combine two of their senses (for instance, touch and vision) to produce pieces of language. Then let them try to change one of the two with another sense.
10. Gradually increase the number of the picture cards picked up each time as your students become more competent in the language and more comfortable with this method.

Potential Applications Derived from PLS

Having witnessed the effectiveness of my newly-developed language teaching method (or approach, or set of techniques, etc., I really do not mind what it can be called.), I think there are many possibilities to be examined, some of which are listed below.

- Studying the effects of PLS on different level/age/gender/ social background, etc. of students when learning different language skills such as listening, reading,…; also various language divisions like vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.;
- Training ESL/EFL instructors with PLS method in workshops that include final evaluation of each teacher;
- Making educational films applying PLS with other teachers and students - similar to my TV programs [Shirban Sasi, (Designer), & Kalantari, (Director), 2003];
- Translating PLS teaching material into other languages;
- Training a limited number of teachers with PLS in the target language, then testing this method in the field such as schools, and/or language institutes, and then analyzing and reporting the collected data in forms of qualitative/quantitative designs;
- Strong version of PLS: In my Ph. D. study (Shirban Sasi, 2012), only the weak version of PLS was investigated. That is to say, students did not have any picture cards at home to work with; neither did they have any particular textbook or workbook to study at their leisure. These materials do exist which can be tested and explored;
- Other languages: PLS can also be adapted in teaching other languages;
- Other subjects like science, art, etc. The concepts and techniques improvised by PLS can also be used in other disciplines which might become topics for further studies. Also, my two time experience with UNESCO in designing special workshops to help students and teachers in post-traumatic stress (Shirban Sasi, 2017) bear witness to this possibility;
- Helping mentally challenged students. I predict that the underlying assumptions in PLS which develop its techniques, can also be employed in teaching mentally challenged students in learning their mother tongue; concepts like counting, colors, centration, order, etc. This might prove to be a good topic for further research;

- Investigation of probable adaptation of the techniques of PLS in Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). A good objective might be developing a virtual language institute with limited number of students in each class and many parallel classes (Shirban Sasi, & Chang, 2013);
- PHONOLOGICS: Similar to the imaginative usage of pictures in PLS, I believe that sounds can also be hired in teaching. More precisely, pieces of linguistic, and/or nonlinguistic sounds can be randomly applied in order to trigger students' imagination. I postulate that sounds can equally be used in teaching languages or other subjects. This might particularly prove useful for students with trivial or major sight problems;
- PHONICTOLOGICS (PTS): Like the two previous names of Pictologics, and Phonologics, I have coined this term to refer to a teaching method which exploits imagination and random combinations of pictures and sounds simultaneously. The lure of investigating the impacts of such amalgamation in the realm of education is quite tantalizing!

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Appendix: A Snapshot of the PLS TV Program
(12 pictures randomly picked and imaginatively discussed.)

World Englishes and English Language Teachers' Identity in an Era of Globalization

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Abstract

Great population and information mobilities in an era of globalization have significantly affected the teaching and learning of English as a globally recognized and widely used language in international communications, whether orally or in writing. In order to gain global access, people who are not native English speakers have been enthusiastically learning English and communicating in English. This trend in learning English around the globe, however, has create some issues in the field of teaching and learning English as either a second or a foreign language. This paper will review relevant research reports and theories and focus on two main issues: world Englishes and English Language teachers' identity.

As the popularity of learning English around the globe and a variety of learners of English, the phenomenon of "World Englishes" and English varieties has emerged. People from different areas of the globe speak English differently, including their accents, pronunciations, vocabulary words, syntactic structures, and even semantic meanings, not to mention that many local cultural elements are always embedded in their expressions in English.

The emergence of World Englishes has led to yet another issue: English Language teachers' identity. This issue includes the issue of recruiting native and/or non-native teachers of English and how non-native English teachers perceive themselves and define their role or roles as an English teacher. Based on the discussions of the above-mentioned two issues, the author concludes that standard English is no longer relevant in English instruction in an era of globalization, and inequality and discrimination in recruiting between native and non-native teachers of English will surely impede English instruction for non-native English speakers and ignore the role local cultures can play in an era of globalization.

Great population and information mobilities in an era of globalization have significantly affected the teaching and learning of English as a globally recognized and widely used language in international communications, whether orally or in writing. In order to gain global access, people who are not native English speakers have been enthusiastically learning English and communicating in English. As pointed out by Kubota (2010), the field of TESOL encompasses quite diverse contents, from teaching immigrant and international students in Anglophone countries to teaching in former British and American colonies where English has an institutionalized status, and to other non-Anglophone countries where English is taught as a foreign language (p. 100).

This trend in learning English around the globe, however, has create some issues in the field of teaching and learning English as either a second or a foreign language. This paper will review relevant research reports and theories and focus on two main issues: language varieties and world Englishes and English Language teachers' identity.

Language Varieties and World Englishes

As the popularity of learning English around the globe and a variety of learners of English, the phenomenon of "World Englishes" and English varieties has emerged. People from different areas of the globe speak English differently, including their accents, pronunciations, vocabulary words, syntactic structures, and even semantic meanings, not to mention that many local cultural elements are always embedded in their expressions in English.

As pointed out by Davies and Dubinsky (2018), language can change across time and space. They call the differences caused by the 'time' factor 'language change' and the differences caused by 'space' factors, such as "physical space, social space, ethnic and cultural space, and gender space" (p. 14) 'language variation'. According to Davies and Dubinsky, languages change over time and the changes incur language variations. "The most rapid and noticeable kind of language change is lexical" (p. 148), including word coinage and shift in meaning of those existing words. Newly invented words are basically because of technical development, cross-cultural contacts, and new fashions, practices, or ideas. For example, we used 'diskette' to store information from the computer; now we use 'USB' or 'memory stick' to do that. Another phenomenon of language change is that a lexical unit may change its meaning over a period of time through the use of younger generations. For example, the word 'cool' used to describe the weather being not too worm and not too cold; now we, especially younger generations, use it to describe one's appearance or behavior being smart, unique, and not to follow the tradition. In addition to lexical change, sound and grammar also change in a rather slower pace. As pointed out by Davies and Dubinsky, younger "speakers innovate, with new words, spellings, grammar, and idiomatic expression" (p. 52)

Now let's turn to the discussion of language variation. The same language can be used slightly differently by people from different geographical regions, ethnic groups, social groups, and even genders. As long as speakers of different language varieties can understand each other's speech, language varieties may cause little or no problem. However, if two varieties of the same language are not intelligible to speakers of each variety, then, in this case, we may say the two varieties are actually two different languages, just like the case of the Romance languages. According to Davies and Dubinsky (2018), these "Romance languages…developed into a family of related, but separate, languages－the most widely spoken of these being Spanish, French, Portuguese, Italian and Romanian" (p. 54). They developed "from regional varieties of Latin into full-fledged languages" (p. 55). In the case of Asian Englishes, Leuckert (2019) argues that there is "ample reason for the assumption that contact between English and the Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, and Sinitic languages and, to a lesser extent, Malay, influences the information structure of the English spoken by many Asians, [and] Asian Englishes are in constant development" (p. 195-196). As many linguists (e.g. Fromkin, Rodman, Hyams, 2014) have pointed out that there is no language inherently good or bad. People's attitudes towards a language are often based on how they feel about the people who speak the language.

There are different models addressing the development of English varieties. Kachru's Three Circles Model can be regarded as the most well-known one. In analyzing World Englishes, scholars generally turn to Kachru's Three Circles Model: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. People who belong to the Inner Circle are native English speakers such as those in the U.K, the U.S, and Australia. People in countries such as India and Singapore who were trained to use English by settlers in the colonial period are said to belong to the Outer Circle. People who are said to belong to the Expanding Circle are those who learn English as a foreign language, such as those in China, Russia, and Taiwan. This model corresponds to the general classification of learning English: ENL (English as a native language, the Inner Circle), ESL (English as a second language, the Outer Circle, and EFL (English as a foreign language, the Expanding Circle) (Leuckert, 2019).

However, Leuckert (2019) points out the limitations of the Three Circle model. He argues that this traditional model does not perceive English as a dynamic, developing language. He then makes use of Schneider's Dynamic Model to analyze Asian Englishes. According to Leuckert, the Dynamic Model involves five developmental phases: Foundation, Exonormative Stabilization, Nativization, Endonormative Stabilzation, and Differentiation. The first phase, Foundation, refers to the very beginning stage when a strong group of settlers bring English to a new territory and start using English regularly in a non-English speaking country. In the second phase, Exonormative Stablization, "English is used regularly in official contexts….identities are shifting, and edges are softened: Both the settlers and the indigenous people continue to value their own original identity but also begin to develop (positive) attitudes towards the other group" (p. 66). In the third phase, Nativization, "the colonized countries gain independence during this phase, and the gap between the settlers and indigenous people is reduced….Contact between the groups is now common….Linguistically, the phase of nativization entails large-scale changes resulting in a distinct variety" (p. 66). In phase 4, Endonormative Stabilization, gaining independence "provides the authority to make important decisions with regard to language planning….Consequently, the new variety of English is gradually accepted and used as a carrier of the new identity" (p. 67). Finally, in phace 5, Differentiation, "individual subgroups with their own identities and individual social networks emerge….Consequently, this is the period of dialect birth" (p. 67).

In the field of English as a Second Language (ESL), Kubota (2010) argues that "second language education ironically promotes monolingualism, monoculturalism, normatism, and elitism" (p. 99). She points to the fact that immigrant students, in their process of learning English as a second language, are often forced to learn the standard and culture of the English-speaking community. In a sense, the practice actually promotes monolingualism and monoculturalism, and minority students' language and cultural heritage are not mentioned.

English Language Teachers' Identity

In an EFL setting, although racism or inequality is less likely to happen, students tend to think native English-speaking teachers are better teachers to teach English. Many of the textbooks used for EFL students mostly are written or reviewed by native English-speaking people. In this case, a considerable amount of the contents are associated with dominant English-speaking countries and their cultures. Local cultures relevant to the readers of the textbooks are seldom mentioned. Luckily, readers and educators are paying more and more attention to the importance of the inclusion of local cultural elements into EFL textbooks. One of the real meanings of this is that students can have a better understanding of the world they are living. On the other hand, having their voices heard, students, especially minority students, can feel a sense of belonging and can contribute their cultures to the entire globe.

Finally, part of the significance of the idea of World Englishes is that it helps debunk the myth of Standard English and White and non-White dichotomy. Kubota (2010) describes how racism or racialization is practiced in the United States. For example, students of color are often treated differently from White students, including native-English-speaking students and European students.

> Students of color who are native speakers of English from Africa, Caribbean, and South Asian countries, [d]espite their first language background (i.e. English), they are enrolled in the ESL program which signifies the view of these students' linguistic, cultural, and racial background as a deficit" (p. 101-102).

She argues that teachers may racialize students, and, in this case, Kachru's Three-Circle Model may be seen as reinforcing racism and racializism. Kubota also argues that teaching materials also contribute to the creation of White-centric image. She cites reports on ESL/EFL English textbooks and states that the "main impressions were that the United States is a country of White wealthy elites, Blacks are represented as poor and powerless (p. 108). She suggests that schools and universities "should make an effort to hire more non-White teachers from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds" (p. 109). As pointed out by Dovchin (2018), the "phenomenon of discrimination based on one's linguistic background directed to non-standard English speakers is growing around the globe" (p. 84). We non-native speaking EFL teachers are responsible for challenging each single case of linguistic discrimination and addressing that all languages are equally important and that multilingual skills may be the norm in an era of globalization. In this regard, the researcher would argue that the ideas of World Englishes and the Three-Circle Model can be viewed from a different perspective and practiced in a different way. Strengthening the ideas of World Englishes may help weaken the idea of Standard English and equally treat speakers of English from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Kubota, 2010).

Hélot, Yoshimura, and Young (2019), on the other hand, call for raising language awareness and respecting different languages in a multicultural classroom and in an era of globalization. Student teachers in their study were first asked to reflect on their own language learning experiences. This language biography helped "raise participants' awareness of the richness of their repertoires, of their representations of different languages and of the way their languages are part of who they are" (p. 205). In addition, this language awareness activity also help challenge "discrimination toward the growing number of multilingual children whose languages are ignored at school" (p. 208).

From all the discussions above, we may understand that language is dynamic in terms of how people use it and change it over time and its status among different language speakers and in the globe. The currently hegemonic status of English is one thing; how we as English teachers can raise students' language awareness to respect their own and other's languages is another and is particularly important.

The emergence of World Englishes has led to yet another issue: English Language teachers' identity, which has been referred to by Mercer and Kostoulas (2018) as an important part of work in language teacher psychology. Mercer and Kostoulas point out that in the field of second language acquisition, while we are eager to move away from teacher-centered approaches, we neglect to pay attention to "teachers as a population and as individuals" (p. 1). However, around the 1990s, researchers started to examine teacher identities and teacher cognition, marking a gradual introduction of a body of work focusing on teachers as individuals" (p. 2). They also point out "the imbalance between studies that have focused on learners and those that have focused on teachers (p. 2). This issue includes the issue of recruiting native and/or non-native teachers of English and how non-native English teachers perceive themselves and define their role or roles as an English teacher. Non-native English teachers' identity is especially complicated when it comes to language-related identity. Just language-related identity alone, Gray and Morton (2018) point out that non-native English teachers at least are engaged in three different kinds of identity: as users, as learners, and as teachers of English. They argue that even though the dichotomy vision that distinguish between native English speakers and non-native English speakers may be seen no longer relevant as viewed from a linguistic perspective, "the dichotomy can be seen as meaningful in two spheres: in the world of ELT practice and in applied linguistics research" (p. 72). In the field of English Language Teaching, how non-native English teachers choose the ways they teach and materials they use in their instructional practice, students' and teachers' attitudes towards native and non-native teachers of English, and, most importantly, how institutions' hiring practices may "discriminate against non-native-speaking professionals" (p. 72). As cited from Holliday's words, Gray and Morton refer to the term "Native Speakerism" as "a pernicious ideology with serves to privilege those within the ELT profession who are labelled as 'native speakers' and discriminates against the majority of English teachers…who are labelled…as 'non-native speakers' (p.73).

Gray and Morton (2018) summarize theories and research studies done by relevant scholars and found that most non-native English teachers feel their lack of English proficiency, e.g. fluency and accuracy, and are in favor of the so-called Standard English, e.g. American English and British English. The most cited problem was "accent". They feel that they speak "bad" English and, mostly, they are not aware of the concept of English varieties or English as a lingua franca, and they seem not willing to teach any varieties of English. Gray and Morton call for focusing on "how English is used in communication" (p. 76), rather than the stable form of "Standard English". They argue that Language is not a static construct, but is "something that can be developed over time through interactions with others" (p. 76).

Non-native English teachers' second identity, as Gray and Morton (2018) account, is their role as learners of L2 English. Different non-native English speaking teachers have different experiences and preferences of learning English as a second or foreign language. Some consider Communicative Language Teaching approach practical and helpful in terms of communicating with people from different cultures; others may think they need to understand the entire text and grammar used and be able to translate the text.

Teachers' personal learning experiences may reflect on their instruction of English. Whatever learning experiences they had and whatever preferences they might have, non-native English teachers "can see maintaining and improving proficiency as a life-long project" (Gray & Morton, 2018, p. 77). Engaging in professional development activities may "open up professional opportunities for them, such as presenting at ELT conferences, pursuing further study in the US, or becoming teacher trainers or coordinators" (p. 77).

Finally, non-native English teachers have an identity as L2 English teachers. This identity is a little complicated in terms of the perceived status of non-native English teachers and their interactions with native English teachers. Gray and Morton (2018) report on studies by different scholars and in different contexts and present some facts about the identity as L2 English teachers. Non-native English teachers do not necessarily feel inferior because of their perceived language proficiency deficiencies. They point out that professional skills, such as knowledge of the subject, preparation before the class, and being able to motivate students to learn are more important than language skills. On the other hand, non-native English teachers possess some resources that their native-speaking counterparts might not have, such as having personal experiences of learning English as a second or foreign language, better understanding of their students' attitudes towards learning, and their learning needs, and being able to provide and interpret meanings from local cultures and perspectives.

However, Gray and Morton (2018) also cite research studies and point out that native speaking teachers perceive non-native speaking teachers as

> being hostile to change and reliant on memorisation, lacking academic skills and, as teachers, not wanting to encourage creativity in their students, lacking autonomy, being afraid to lose face by having their authority undermined and lacking knowledge of the real world,…[using] textbooks, worksheets and dictations, and whose prime focus was on enabling the students to pass examinations (p. 79)

In sum, non-native English teachers do not always perceive themselves as inferior because of their deficit in language proficiency. Rather, they take advantage of being familiar with local students and local cultures to build rapport with students. Research studies also show that "students do not have a negative perception of their non-native teachers, recognising the value of experience and professionalism over being a native speaker" (p. 78). The above-mentioned non-native speaking teachers' three perceived identities are actually interconnected. As White (2018) points out from an empirical study done by Kayi-Aydar "it is important to focus on language teachers' experiences as both language learners and teachers…in order to gain deeper views of their identities (p. 204).

Dewaele and Mercer (2018), on the other hand, study teachers' attitudes towards their students from different areas of concern, and specifically they investigated "the role of ESL/EFL teachers' emotional intelligent, English proficiency, teaching experience, gender, and their attitudes towards various types of learners and how these may be interrelated" (p. 178). Their research findings show that trait emotional intelligence (TEI) "had a significant effect on teachers' attitudes towards students, …[and] the length of teachers' experience [also] had a significant effect on attitudes towards students" (p. 186). The same is true for EFL/ESL teachers' English proficiency. The more proficient teachers had more positive attitudes towards their students. Dewaele and Mercer suggest that EFL/ESL teachers need to develop their emotional intelligence and their English proficiency in order to create a positive and pleasant learning environment in the classroom and to build good relations with their language-learning students.

Having discussed the issues of non-English-speaking teachers' identities, then how can they choose English instructional materials for ESL/EFL students? Locke (2010) investigates English instructional materials and roughly categorizes English instructional materials from multicultural perspective into four models: the cultural heritage model, the personal growth model, the textual or rhetorical competence model and the critical literacy model. The cultural heritage model is a determination to collapse the barrier between classroom and community…by selecting bilingual texts, texts in translation and first-language texts of relevance to the local community. Another way is to accord recognition to literacy practices taking place in the home in ways that can be viewed as complementing the work done in the English classroom (p. 92); the personal growth model, according to Locke, is not necessarily favoring social elites and promoting social inequality. He argues that readers bring their cultural capital to interact with texts. In this regards, the personal growth model is viewed as incorporating cultural studies lens into the versions of personal growth; the textual or rhetorical competence model, although being criticized as being decontextual and test-oriented, Locke argues that some teachers in his study did show their cultural awareness and asked their students to compare cultural elements presented in different genres by other cultures with their own; and finally the critical literacy model, which encourage students to understand how social and historical contexts may have impacts on texts and to understand that "language is not a neutral medium and that the way language is used affects the way in which something is seen" (p. 95). Locke suggests to use "assessment strategies which, as much as possible, build on the teaching practices adopted at classroom level…and which avoid one-size-fits-all tests which erase cultural and linguistic difference" (p. 96).

León Jiménez, Sughrua, Clemente, Cordova, and Miranda (2019), on the other hand, provide empirical studies (and examples) on how critical pedagogies in ELT can be practiced in different contexts based on the needs of different groups of learners. They report on their project in teaching English in marginalized communities in Oaxaca, Mexico, including juvenile detention facility, at-risk youngsters, elementary schools with children mostly from extremely impoverished families and orphanages. According to León Jiménez, et al., Oaxaca is a multicultural and multilingual city, and teaching English to these learners are especially "critical" because of the city's unique historical and political background and the learners' linguistic, ethnic, educational, and socioeconomic background. In their cases, León Jiménez, et al. describe how student teachers and teacher educators had to adjust their teaching materials and pedagogies and even ways of teaching in English language teaching. For example, in the juvenile detention facility, inmates reveal their counter-hegemonic position as a drug dealer; in a daytime shelter for children, adolescent, and teenager learners perceive a house from a participative perspective, rather than from an impositive perspective provided by the textbook and the norms of wealthy and impoverished homes; in an elementary school with children mostly from a shelter and they had little contact with their families, the teachers had to teach "family-less" vocabulary while they were focusing on the topic "family"; in a prison for adults, students requested they had to learn proper and polite English because they were already familiar with some "street English", especially imperative verb, while they were working illegally in the United States.

From the examples described by León Jiménez, et al., we may safely conclude that ESL/EFL teachers need to be aware of students' needs and what best for them. In an era of globalization, ESL/EFL teachers need to develop critical pedagogies and focus more on sociocultural-related linguistic issues, than on structural forms. In other words, language teachers need to teach language pragmatically. In an era of globalization, with the increase of different types of mobility and with the diversity of student population, teaching students to use languages appropriately in a cultural setting is very important. The same is true for language teachers to teach languages based on the group of students. In addition to cultural diversity, there are other factors that may affect language teachers' choices of instructional materials and presentation of the course, for example, language proficiency (high achiever vs. low achiever), socio-economic status (high socio-economic status vs. low social-economic status), physical location (urban area vs. rural area), availability of learning facilities and resources in the school, and students' learning needs and preference, language teachers need to organize their instruction differently.

Conclusion

From the discussions of the above-mentioned two issues, World Englishes and English language teachers' identity, the author concludes that standard English is no longer relevant in English instruction in an era of globalization, and inequality and discrimination in recruiting native and non-native teachers to teach English will surely impede English instruction for non-native English speakers and ignore the role local cultures can play in English instruction in an era of globalization. It is time to debunk the myth of standard English and native English speakers and embrace the idea of World Englishes as it emerged to respond to an era of globalization, and glocalization, and to believe that non-native English speakers are not necessarily inferior in terms of teaching English to non-native English speakers. Non-native English speaking teachers know better of their local students and their shared culture. Importantly, non-native English teachers have themselves experiences of learning English as a second or foreign language. In this regard, they know better of their students' learning needs, sources of error (e.g. first language interference), and learning styles. These may greatly help their students in their process of learning English as a second or foreign language.

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The Use of Generic Self-Mentions in Applied Linguistics and Medicine

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Abstract

Self-mentions are used by writers to explicitly enter the discourse. They include both first-person pronouns (e.g., I) and generic self-mentions (e.g., Author). While much study has been completed on first-person pronouns, there is a lack of research on generic self-mentions. The aim of this paper was to compare the use of generic self-mentions by writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine. The corpus was created by downloading articles from: (a) three Applied Linguistics journals (English for Specific Purposes, Language Learning, TESOL Quarterly); along with (b) three Medicine journals (Annals of Internal Medicine, Journal of the American Medical Association, New England Journal of Medicine). The corpus included 1,803 articles (Applied Linguistics n = 923; Medicine n = 880) and contained 9,528,253 words (Applied Linguistics n = 6,528,077 words; Medicine n = 3,000,176 words). AntConc was used to search the corpus for generic self-mentions (Author, Researcher, Writer). The results showed that Writer is not used as a self-mention in either Applied Linguistics nor Medicine. However, both Author and Researcher were utilized by writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine. Interestingly, Medicine chose Author as its preferred generic self-mention, while Applied Linguistics used both Researcher and Author. Further analysis showed that Medicine used the generic self-mentions more frequently than Applied Linguistics to discuss specific individual(s) involved in the study. The study found that not only are generic self-mentions used by writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine, but that they also serve an important role. They can be used by writers to identify specific individual(s) involved in the study who may or may not have been added as authors to the article.

Keywords: Generic Self-Mentions, Applied Linguistics, Medicine, Metadiscourse

INTRODUCTION

Writers must decide how they will enter the discourse, The most overt way is to use self-mentions (Hyland, 2005). Self-mentions include both first-person pronouns and additional ones that in White (2018a), I termed generic self-mentions (see also Hyland, 2005). In this study, I will focus on three generic self-mentions: (a) **Author**; (b) **Writer**; along with **Researcher**. Even though Hyland (2005) included **Writer** on his list of self-mentions, neither Yang (2016) nor White (2018a; 2018b) found **Writer** used as a self-mention. This finding led me to concluded that “since the writer is writing, the use of **Writer** is redundant” (White, 2018a, p. 85, emphasis in the original).

One difficultly in studying generic self-mentions is that many studies (e.g., Nunn, 2014) have only investigated first-person pronouns. Nevertheless, not only did Hyland (2005) considered generic self-mentions to be self-mentions, they are also used by writers in academic papers (White, 2018b; Yang, 2016).

This study was driven by the following research questions:

1. Which generic self-mentions are used by writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine?
2. Are there differences between the writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine in the use of generic self-mentions to identify specific individual(s) involved in the article?

METHODOLOGY

Corpus

Table 1 shows the corpus for this study. I choose three journals from Applied Linguistics (*English for Specific Purposes; Language Learning; TESOL Quarterly*) and three journals from Medicine (*Annals of Internal Medicine; Journal of the American Medical Association; New England Journal of Medicine*). The articles were from over a 20 year period (1997-2016). The corpus only included the main text and not additional items (e.g., abstract).

Table 1

Corpus

Corpus	Number of Articles	Total Word Count	Average Word Count
Applied Linguistics	923	6,528,077	7,072.67
Medicine	880	3,000,176	3,409.29
Total	1803	9,528,253	5,284.67

The Applied Linguistics articles came from the four main issues published yearly by the journals. In each of the issues the first four articles were taken, however not every issue contained four articles, leading to the final number of 923 instead of 960 (48 articles a year x 20 years).

The Medicine articles posed a challenge. The *Journal of the American Medical Association,* and the *New England Journal of Medicine* publish weekly with the *Annals of Internal Medicine* publishing biweekly. To deal with the issue, I choose the first four issues published in June for the monthly journals and the first four issues published in June and July for the bimonthly journal. In addition due to the length of Medicine articles all of the research articles published in the journals were taken. Interestingly this could be from a low of one article to a high of eight articles.

Instruments

Anthony's (2016) AntConc (Version 3.4.4) was used to search the corpora for the words found in Table 2. The first two (**Author**, **Writer**) were from Hyland (2005) with the other one (**Researcher**) added in White (2016) as it was the generic self-mention I had used in the past. The key is that the terms must be used by the writer(s) to exclusively refer to the specific individual(s) of the articles and not outside individuals (e.g., authors of other articles).

Table 2

Generic Self-Mentions Used in Study

Subject/Object Singular	Subject/Object Plural	Possessive Singular	Possessive Plural
Author	Authors	Author's	Authors'
Writer	Writers	Writer's	Writers'
Researcher	Researchers	Researcher's	Researchers'

Note. Usually preceded by **The**.

Procedures

The articles were downloaded in PDF format. The main text of the articles from the PDFs were copied and pasted into text documents. The documents were separated by journal and year resulting in 180 different documents (6 journals x 20 years). I searched each year (six documents) together. The results from AntConc were downloaded and copied to a spreadsheets for the data analysis.

Data Analysis

After downloading the results from AntConc, all of the returns were coded as either being a self-mention or not a self-mention. A small portion (25%) was rechecked by myself around a month after the original coding. My intra-rater reliabilities were all higher than 90%. All of the items coded as not being a self-mention were removed. The raw numbers were found and used to find the frequencies per 10,000 words, along with percentages of use. A final analysis was to discover the percentage of the generic self-mentions that were being used to: (a) identify what one or more of the writers (other individuals) had done in the study, versus (b) identifying all of the writers (sole writer) of the article.

To ease the data analysis the generic self-mentions were combined (e.g., **Author** = **Author**, **Authors**, **Author's**, **Authors'**). Unlike first-person pronouns that have different words for subject (e.g., I) and object (e.g., Me), the generic self-mentions can fit into either the subject or object position. Unfortunately, due to the low frequencies little could be concluded from a detailed analysis of subject verses object use.

One additional item was completed to both ease the data analysis and avoid repetition in the remaining article. This was to abbreviate the different journals and corpora from the study (see Table 3).

Table 3

Abbreviations Used in Study

ABB	Full Title	ABB	Full Title
AL	Applied Linguistics (Full)	MD	Medicine (Full)
ESP	*English for Specific Purposes*	AIM	*Annals of Internal Medicine*
LL	*Language Learning*	JAMA	*Journal of the American Medical Association*
TQ	*TESOL Quarterly*	NEJM	*New England Journal of Medicine*
Total	Full Corpus		

Note. ABB (Abbreviation).

RESULTS

Choice of Generic Self--Mention and Differences

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages

Corpus	Author		Researcher		Generic	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
ESP	0.78	23.74%	0.93	21.17%	1.71	22.27%
LL	0.55	22.76%	1.30	40.63%	1.85	32.99%
TQ	0.46	15.77%	1.47	37.47%	1.93	28.18%
AL	**0.58**	**62.28%**	**1.25**	**99.27%**	**1.83**	**83.44%**
AIM	0.57	8.62%	0.03	0.36%	0.60	3.90%
JAMA	0.36	6.50%	0.03	0.36%	0.39	2.99%
NEJM	1.43	22.60%	0.00	0.00%	1.43	9.67%
MD	**0.77**	**37.72%**	**0.02**	**0.73%**[a]	**0.79**	**16.56%**
Total	***0.65***	***100%***	***0.86***	***100%***	***1.51***	***100%***

Note. Frequencies based on 10,000 words; **Author** (includes all use of Author, e.g., Authors); **Researcher** (includes all use of Researcher, e.g., Researcher's); **Generic** (total of **Author** and **Researcher**).

[a]Issue in rounding percentages to only two places.

Table 4 shows the results for the two generic self-mentions used by the writers in Applied Linguistics and Medicine. Again, in the entire corpus there was not one use of **Writer** as a self-mention.

Use of Generic Self-Mentions to Specifically Identify Individual(s) in Study

Table 5 shows the results of the analysis that compared the use of generic self-mentions to: (a) identify what one or more of the writers (other individuals) had done in the study; versus (b) identifying all of the writers (sole writer) of the article.

Table 5

Use of Self-Mentions to Identify Specific Individuals

Corpus	Part	Whole
ESP	26.02%	73.98%
LL	23.47%	76.53%
TQ	23.83%	76.17%
AL	**24.27%**	**75.73%**
AIM	47.27%	52.73%
JAMA	26.83%	73.17%
NEJM	33.80%	66.20%
MD	**35.71%**	**64.29%**
Total	***26.17%***	***73.83%***

Note. Part (Percentage of generic self-mentions used to describe specific individual(s) from article); Whole (Percentage of generic self-mentions used to describe all/sole writer(s) of article).

DISCUSSION

Choice of Generic Self--Mention and Differences

One of the key findings in this study, along with others (e.g., Yang, 2016) is the non-use of **Writer** as a generic self-mention in Applied Linguistics and Medicine. This is interesting as Hyland (2005) included **Writer** on his list of self-mentions. Furthermore, Cutts (1996) specifically used **Writer** to show how it was worse than first-person pronouns for academic writing. While it is possible that **Writer** is used by other disciplines, at least in Applied Linguistics and Medicine it is not.

Overall the generic self-mentions had low frequencies in both Applied Linguistics (Freq = 1.83) and Medicine (Freq = 0.79). These frequencies were similar to the frequencies for **Me-Us** found in my dissertation. **Me-Us** had by far the lowest frequencies for all of the first-person pronouns (see White, 2018b). This leads me to conclude that writers either choose to use first-person pronouns or they chose to write in the passive voice (Davies, 2012; Minton, 2015).

One of the interesting findings was in the choice of which generic self-mention to use.

While Applied Linguistics chose both **Author** and **Researcher**, Medicine chose **Author** for its generic self-mention. Unfortunately, it is difficult to explain this finding. While Taylor (2005) warned medical writers to “avoid words that can annoy or confuse your reader” (p. 56) and the APA (1983) persuaded writers to “help the reader focus on the content of your paper by avoiding language that may cause irritation, flights or thought, or even momentary interruptions” in writing (p. 43; see also APA, 2010), neither went into detail as to specific words or language that would fall under the quotes. Silvia (2007) also mentioned making writing more readable, but again not specifically the words to use or avoid. Looking at the writing manuals and guides for Medicine (e.g., AMA, 2009; Taylor, 2005), none of them discussed specific generic self-mention to use; however the AMA (2009) showed the use of **Author** in all example sentences using generic self-mentions. It leads to the conclusion that “for some reason Applied Linguistics has naturally chosen **Researcher** as the perfected generic self-mention, whereas Medicine has naturally chosen **Author**” (White, 2018b, p. 87, emphasis in original). One reason for the difference could be the use of generic self-mentions to discuss specific individual(s) in the study (see below).

The use of both **Author** and **Researcher** could also show the use of more variety in word choice by Applied Linguistics over Medicine. Since Applied Linguistics articles are much longer than Medicine articles (cf. Table 1), there is possibly a need for more word choices. Yang (2016) also found more variety in the self-mentions used by writers in Applied Linguistics than Medicine in article highlights.

Use of Generic Self-Mentions to Specifically Identify Individual(s) in Study

One of the reasons for the difference in choice of generic self-mention between Medicine and Applied Linguistics could be the need to identify individuals involved in the study who may not have been included as an author. Below are some excerpts showing the use of **Researcher** by Medicine (see White 2018b for additional excerpts):

[1] The primary **researcher** performed accuracy checks. (AIM 2009)

[2] Codes were revealed to the **researchers** only after.... (JAMA 2008)

The three Medicine journals in this study follow ICMJE's (2018) definition of an author. ICMJE (2018) has four criterion:

> Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work;
> AND Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content;
> AND Final approval of the version to be published;
> AND Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

Anyone who does not meet these criterion “should not be listed as authors,” but “should be acknowledged” (ICMJE, 2018, n.p.; see also Baker, 2011; Vitse & Poland, 2017). ICMJE (2018) does not specifically discuss the use of generic self-mentions as a way to acknowledge these individuals. However, they offer an easy way to give acknowledgment (Baker, 2011; Vitse & Poland. 2017). Thus, Medicine's use of **Author** and **Researcher** might be connected to the requirements from ICMJE (2018) and leads to the use of **Researcher** for someone involved in the study who does not meet all of the criterion of an author. A comparison of the excerpts above and the use of **Author** by the same journal and year might show this differences.

[3] Thereafter, 1 **author** made additional efforts.... (AIM 2009)

[4] Details are available from the **authors** on request. (JAMA 2008)

Comparing [1] and [3] shows that in the case of [1] **Researcher** is used to discuss a specific person's work, whereas in [3] the writers chose to use **Author** in a similar way. Unfortunately, it is not possible to know if excerpt [1] and excerpt [3] are from the same article, but they show two uses of the generic self-mentions from the same journal and year.

As for Applied Linguistics, there are only a few examples that showed a similar use to **Research** by Applied Linguistics. Overall in Applied Linguistics the use of **Researcher** and **Author** are interchangeable. Below are some excerpts from Applied Linguistics that seem to show the use of **Researcher** for non-named authors:

[5] I and the same Japanese **researcher** first segmented.... (TQ 2008)

[6] ...presented by a female **researcher** in an even monotone.... (LL 2013)

While it is not known if these individuals were added as authors or if they were just mentioned in the article, the second conclusion is more likely. Looking at excerpts [5] and [6], had the person been added as an author a specific mention to the person would probably have been made.

Going deeper on this issue, Table 5 shows the results of the analysis separating out the use of generic self-mentions to discuss: (a) what one or more of the writers (other individuals) had done in the study, along with (b) all of the writers (sole writer) of the article. As expected Medicine was higher than Applied Linguistics in terms of the percentage of the generic self-mentions used for (a) (White, 2018b). The use of generic self-mentions to identify specific writers or additional individuals of the article comprised 35.71% of all the generic self-mentions used in Medicine. In Applied Linguistics it was only 24.27%. Again, this was expected as Medicine articles typically have multiple authors. As a result there is a need to identify what specific individual(s) had done in the study. In White (2018b), I found that the 2005 articles used in my corpus had an average of less than two authors per Applied Linguistics article, whereas Medicine had an average of more than 10 authors per article. Deeper, only one article from Applied Linguistics had more than three authors, with only four articles from Medicine having less than four authors. Medicine has the added issue of needing to follow ICMJE's (2018) definition of an author (see above). Some excerpts showing the identifying of specific individuals are below:

[7] The **Second author** had also visited the site the previous.... (ESP 2011)

[8] ...**one of the authors** read a verbal consent script.... (LL 2011)

[9] **One of the authors (Q.G.)** conducted 51 semistructured.... (AIM 2016)

While some included initials of the specific author(s) (e.g., [9]), most just used the format of '<number> of <generic self-mention>' (e.g., [8]) or 'the <ordinal number> <generic self-mention>' (e.g., [7]). There is also the question as to the best way to describe specific individuals. The phrase 'one of the authors' (excerpts [8] and [9]) could have been written as 'one of us' (White, 2018b).

One interesting finding is the use of the author's initials by Medicine. This is something that Applied Linguistics should adopt. Excerpt [8] does not tell the reader which of the authors completed the specific task. This would not only add more information as to the work completed, but would also be very important for the specific individual as *publish or perish* is worldwide and publications are used for promotion and hiring (e.g., Chou, 2014; Qiu, 2010).

CONCLUSION

The biggest finding from this study and others (White, 2018b; Yang, 2016) is that **Writer** is not used by writers in Medicine or Applied Linguistics as a generic self-mention. As a result, I believe this term should be removed from studies on articles from Medicine and Applied Linguistics. It is possible that **Writer** is used in other disciplines, but more research is needed. As discussed above, **Writer** comes from Hyland (2005), which would lead to the conclusion that he had found this term used as a self-mention in his research.

Both **Author** and **Researcher** were used by writers in Medicine and Applied Linguistics. Interestingly, while Applied Linguistics used both, Medicine preferred **Author**. Again, this seems to follow Yang (2016) in finding more variety of word usage in Applied Linguistics than Medicine. The use of **Researcher** by Medicine seems to be tied to the need to identify specific individual(s) involved in the study, who may or may not have been added as an author to the article. Generic self-mentions are practical when identifying these specific individual(s), as it allows for their work to be acknowledged.

Pedagogically, the key finding is that generic self-mentions are useful for writers and can help when giving acknowledgment to individual(s) who while helping with studies, might not meet the criterion to be included as an author. The findings are also connected to the use of first-person pronouns in academic writing and can help writers, especially from outside of native English speaking countries, as they write their academic papers. It is important that writers understand that self-mentions are not only used, but are very useful in academic writing (Davies, 2012; Hyland, 2005; Silvia, 2007; Taylor, 2005; White, 2018a, 2018b).

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The Effect of Phonological Awareness Teaching on The Attitude toward Pronunciation-listening Learning among Kinmen High School Students

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Abstract

Given the fact that the role of phonological awareness (PA) in high school hasn't been studied extensively, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of PA teaching on how students view pronunciation-listening learning. To that end, two intact classes of 64 students were randomly selected and assigned to take two attitude questionnaires at the interval of six weeks, in which one class was given a PA instruction of English and the other one received no intervention. The collected data revealed that the participants given the instruction showed a significantly deteriorating attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning than the other ones who were not, yet a majority of the participants still expressed the necessity for the PA instruction. These findings could help teachers and curriculum designers reconsider the effectiveness of form-focused instruction, with a particular attention to learners' learning attitudes, as a better enhancement of language teaching.

Keywords: phonological awareness, form-focused instruction

INTRODUCTION

Phonological awareness is one area of instruction that has been missing both for students and prospective teachers, and its instruction proves to be essential in language learning and teaching (Hismanoglu, 2012; Moedjito, 2016). PA is metacognitive knowledge about English sound systems (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). PA is also described as "sensitivity to the sound structure of language" (Yopp & Yopp ,2009, p.12), which calls for the ability to focus on speech sounds, as distinct from meanings (Anthony & Francis, 2005).

An extensive body of research has pointed out the importance of PA teaching on account of its association with and predictor of reading acquisition and reading achievement (Mody, 2003). Additionally, many research studies show PA is also essential in developing writing and spelling skills (Bear, Helman, Templeton, Invernizzi, & Johnston, 2007; Yopp & Stapleton, 2008), in literacy acquisition (Le Roux et al, 2017), or rather recently, in listening comprehension (Cheung, 2007; Cheung, Chen, Lai, Wong, & Hills, 2001). According to the research of Cheung (2007), the association of PA with listening and reading comprehension is suggested as PA "provides an informational space for the phonological information derived from listening and reading to register in a common format" (p. 151).

However, while the association between PA and listening comprehension has been found to be positive, it is still not well understood as to what extent the high school students could benefit from the teaching of PA, in terms of its effect on their listening comprehension and their attitude toward listening-pronunciation learning. Moreover, the way PA is taught could also play a part in determining its effect, and the discussion thereof has also been relatively sparse in the literature.

The Effectiveness of the Teaching of Phonological Awareness

The teaching of PA could take on many different forms. However, the instruction in this study would deal mainly with the explicit knowledge of English phonological structure to raise their awareness of phonological forms and was approached in a form-focused way. Therefore, it could be argued to be a type of form-focused instruction and its effectiveness should be examined in the wider scope of FFI.

In terms of FFI, there have been a variety of definitions of it. Spada (1997, p.73) defined it as "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language forms either implicitly or explicitly." It suggested that approaches could range from metalinguistic explanations and discussions of linguistic forms to context-based or communication-based teaching (Brown, 2007). Previous research on FFI revealed its susceptibility to differing opinions. Some advocates for explicit treatment of rules; some for conscious-raising techniques; still some for incidental learning.

Besides, attempts had also been made to classify FFI into different types. For example, a distinction between integrated and isolate forms of FFI has been made by Spada and Lightbown (2008); the former was carried out under a communicative framework while the latter was done with attention to forms in particular with meanings playing a secondary role. As cited by Kellem and Halvorson (2018), they argue that both forms can be of value to those who "are beyond early childhood and have exposure to English only in the classroom where learners share the same L1." Still, Long (1998) had also introduced three types of FFI, focus-on-forms, focus-on-meaning, and focus-on-form. Focus-on-forms instruction revolved around the instruction of phonological, lexical, syntactical or grammatical forms and rules, and call for learners' attention to them. It could be either explicit and done in a deductive or inductive way, or implicit with learners' acquiring rules without focal attention to them. In contrast, focus-on-meaning instruction is more meaning-oriented and views language as a medium of communication (Long & Robinson, 1998). The last type, focus-on-form, is a more balanced approach in that students' attention is drawn to both language forms and meanings under the communicative framework. As Kellem and Halvorsen (2018) put it, it could be either "pre-emptive" or "reactive," meaning that it could occur either before the communicative tasks as an introduction or after as a corrective feedback.

As for its effectiveness, the emphasis on form has been found to be beneficial for awareness of forms and use of them (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty ,1995). Furthermore, its effectiveness has also been proved in a substantial body of literature (DeKeyser, 1998, 2003; Norris & Ortega, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 2008), showing that it could enhance language learning. While some studies suggest that any forms of FFI can be effective (Norris & Ortega, 2001), others recommend equal attention to forms and meanings for it to be most effective (Spada & Brown, 2008). A review of the research on FFI revealed some variables contributing to its effectiveness, such as types of FFI, time to provide FFI, linguistics features easily affected by FFI, the frequency of input as a factor, benefits of FFI among learners with different characteristics (Brown, 2007). Other variables are “difficulty of the target structure” and the “learners’ proficiency level and language aptitude”as Halvorsen and Kellem (2018) pointed out by citing DeKeyser (2003) and Spada and Lightbown (2008).

With all the variables discussed, it is worth noting that the “form” in the FFI has centered around the grammatical forms over the past decades. A great body of literature has been concerned with form-focused “grammatical” instruction, with questions such as whether explicit focus on grammatical forms is necessary or how and when such instruction should occur (Kellem & Halvorsen, 2018). Much less research has dealt with its effectiveness in the teaching of phonological forms.

However, despite the comparatively scarce literature, form-focused instruction had been found to facilitate PA (Venkatairi and Levis, 2007) or phonological development (Derwing, Munro & Wiebe, 1998) and pronunciation (Kashiwagi, Snyder, Craig, 2005). It was also suggested that the teaching of PA in a form-focused way could enhance learners’ awareness of surprasegmentals and segmentals, just as the learning of grammar in FFI (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996).

Given the review in this section, it could be gathered that the effectiveness of FFI was influenced by many variables, and was found to be beneficial not only for the learning of grammar but also pronunciation or phonological forms. Still, whether it could be as effective in promoting senior high students’ listening comprehension or their positive attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning awaits further research. Thus, FFI was adopted by the researcher as a way to enhance learners’ PA and listening comprehension, and later on to examine its effect on learners’ attitude toward listening-pronunciation learning.

Purpose and Research Question

In sum, this study aimed to explore the effect of PA teaching on senior high student’s perception of the pronunciation-listening learning through PA teaching in Taiwan.

More particularly, this study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1) Does phonological awareness teaching affect students’ attitudes toward students’ English pronunciation-listening learning?
2) What is the role of PA teaching in the English curriculum of high school in Taiwan?

METHOD

The study is carried out to investigate the effect of PA teaching on students’ attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning and determine the role of PA teaching in high school.

Participants

The participants involved in this study were from two intact classes of first-grade students in Kinmen Senior High School. In total, there were 64 students, including 33 males and 31 females. Their ages range from 15 to 16. In terms of age of exposure to English, 37 students had learned English since third grade or later, while the other 27 starting learning English before the third grade. According to the attitude survey, their previous focus learning in English had been mostly on vocabulary, reading, grammar and less on listening and speaking. Thus, up to half of the participants expressed their hope for improvement in speaking and listening.

Based on their reports in the attitude survey, in both groups, there were more than half of the students who received A or above in the English test of Comprehensive Assessment Program for Junior High School Students, CAP. The rest of students all received B to A-, with the majority being those who received A-. Thus, their English proficiency was considered better than their peers. As for their GEPT proficiency level, more than half of the participants had passed the elementary level of the GEPT test, and only two of them passed the intermediate level of the GEPT test. Taken together, their proficiency level was considered elementary to intermediate level.

Meanwhile, regarding their pronunciation learning background, more than two thirds of the students in each group had taken pronunciation courses, either of K.K. phonetic symbols or phonics in elementary school; only up to half of the participants had taken pronunciation courses in junior high. In terms of self-evaluation of command of K.K. phonetic symbols or phonics, there were less than half of the students in each group who considered themselves able to pronounce with K.K. phonetic symbols, while those who reported being able to pronounce with phonics made up around 90 % of the students.

As for now, their focus of high school English learning has been on reading and writing for the sake of General Scholastic Aptitude Test, while listening, ignored in the earlier years, has also gradually commanded attention from both students and teachers as more universities take the scores of Test of English Listening Comprehension as criteria for screening high school students. Therefore, teachers have been trying to incorporate more listening teaching into class and students also take it more seriously. However, speaking has been put on the backburner, and pronunciation has also been overlooked, which as stated earlier, may have been taught in elementary or junior high with the K.K. phonetic symbols or phonics but might need extension of learning as beyond the segmentals to the suprasegmentals.

Materials

The main components of the questionnaire include a general introduction of the purpose at the beginning, a section of questions on perception of pronunciation-listening learning, a request for personal information like bio-data and English learning backgrounds, and a final “Thank You” note (See Appendix A).

The questions take the form of the Likert scale, which consists of a series of statements related to an idea or a target. The response options for each question indicate the degree of agreement. A six-point scale was constructed, with options ranging from “Strongly disagree (1)”, “Disagree (2)”, “Slightly disagree (3)”, “Slightly agree (4)”, “Agree (5)”, to “Strongly agree (6).” This section comprises ten index measures, used to examine the perception of pronunciation-listening learning.

The request for personal information was aimed to ask about gender, English ability, English learning backgrounds, and in particular pronunciation learning backgrounds., all of which serve as factors to consider in the experiment.

Procedure

The two groups, the control and experimental groups were first asked to fill out a questionnaire concerning their attitudes toward pronunciation-listening learning in the beginning and then at the end of the six-week instruction of PA. Specifically, first, a self-administered pencil-and-paper questionnaire was constructed to ask the participants to fill in by themselves before and after the instruction. The questionnaire was administered to them while they were assembled in class. That is, group administration was implemented as part of a lesson. The researcher was the questionnaire administrators, and intended to collect all the questionnaires among the participants. A 100% response rate was achieved with them. Unreliable or invalid results through copying or sharing answers were prevented by teachers proctoring all through. After the completed questions were returned, the data were transformed into electronic form by entering them into a spreadsheet and stored in a computer file. The respondents' answers were thus kept for later analysis.

PA teaching consisted of six units, taking 6 periods in 6 weeks. For each unit, an important component of PA was introduced and practiced. The 6-week syllabus is as follows:

During the first period, the researcher introduced the lesson of PA teaching, helped them get a rough idea of PA and English accents, and above all, focused on segmental awareness. During the second period, they learned what a syllable is and what a word stress refers to. During the third period, they practiced the rhythm of English as opposed to that of Chinese. During the fourth period, the features of connected speech were the teaching point. During the fifth period, they learned the intonation, which includes different pitch contours or patterns. During the six period, they reviewed what they had learned and practiced listening to more conversations and marking all the possible features of spoken English.

After the six-week instruction, the experimental group alone had to fill in a course evaluation questionnaire. Eventually, both groups were once again to fill in the same attitude questionnaire as had been given before. It was followed by the analysis of all the data collected from the experiment.

For the attitude survey, the participants' responses were coded, edited, and analyzed using Microsoft Excel and R (programming language). The responses (numbers) in the Likert scale were summed up for the section of questions, which was to examine their attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning. The pre- and post-instruction attitude scores were then compared to see if there were any significant differences after the instruction.

On top of the above analyses, the results of the course evaluation survey were also analyzed with excel to understand the participants' perception of the course' practicality, necessity, levels of comprehension, etc.

RESULTS

For the attitude pre-test result, a majority of participants reported favorably on the pronunciation learning. The average scores, regardless of variables, fell between 4.98 and 6, the full score being 6. It was also found that the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups showed no difference. Furthermore, in terms of the other 12 variables under discussion, there were no statistically significant differences in the pre-test score, either. These results indicated that no matter what learner differences are, the participants had positive opinion about the pronunciation learning.

Regarding the attitude post-test result, it can be seen that the control group on the average ($M=5.3$, $SD=0.55$) scored significantly higher than the experimental group ($M=4.83$, $SD=0.75$), $t(56.59)= 2.81, p <.01$. It seems that the experimental group's attitude toward pronunciation learning had changed after the PA instruction.

The figure 1 displays the difference in the attitude pre- and post-test scores of the control and experimental groups. Both the control and experimental groups dropped in their attitude score; the former dropped from 5.42 to 5.3 while the latter went from 5.29 to 4.83.

Regression analyses were conducted to assess the effect of time and groups on attitude toward pronunciation learning. It revealed that there were significant group differences, $\beta=-0.46$, $t=-3.12$, $p<.01$. In consideration of the descriptive and inferential statistics, one possible explanation is that some participants in the experimental group, having taken six weeks of PA course, developed a negative toward pronunciation learning for some reasons, while some remained highly positive. On the other hand, the control group didn't have the PA instruction and every one of them still had high expectation and thus positive attitude**.**

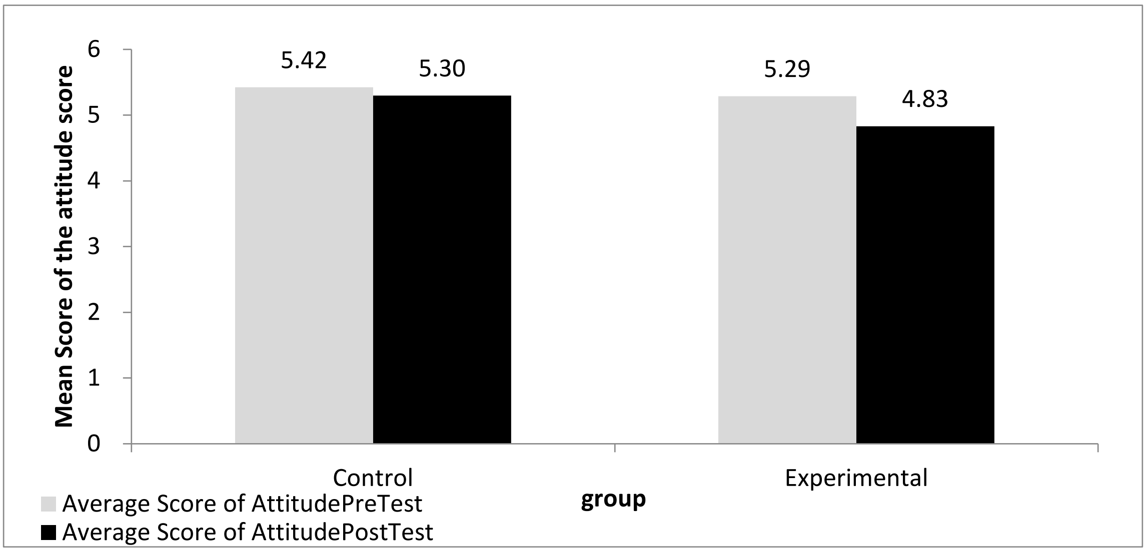

Figure 1 The attitude pre- and post-test scores between the control and experimental groups

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of PA teaching on their attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning, followed by an aim to determine the role of PA teaching in high school.

The Effect of PA Teaching on Students' Attitude

The PA instruction was intended to raise the participants' PA and recognize its importance in listening comprehension. However, at the end of the instruction, the attitude of the experimental group became significantly more negative than that of the control group.

On close inspection of the students' attitude, while almost every participant strongly agreed with all the ten questions in the attitude pre-test, some began to change their attitude in the post-test. The attitude post-test results were thus mixed; that is, some remained positive toward pronunciation-listening learning; some became more positive; some adopted more negative attitude.

Overall, the questions that got the lowest score are the following four:

1) I think that gaining the knowledge of pronunciation is important.

2) I think that knowledge of pronunciation helps English listening.

3) I hope to know the characteristics and manners of native speakers' spoken English.
4) I hope to enhance my knowledge of pronunciation.

This seemed to suggest that too much focus on the phonological forms led to their negative toward the learning of them. In comparison, the participants remained positive in the following questions.

1) I think that being able to pronounce accurately is important.
2) I think that knowledge of pronunciation helps English speaking.
3) I hope to enhance the accuracy of my pronunciation.
4) I hope to enhance the fluency of my pronunciation.
5) I hope to enhance English listening comprehension.
6) I hope that high school English class teaches the knowledge and skills of pronunciation.

On the whole, it could be argued that after the PA instruction, the participants' desire for better pronunciation remained high and they still voiced the need for pronunciation course.

The attitude results was in concord with their course evaluation results, where they thought it necessary to take a course of PA and recognize its benefits but complained about the fast-paced and lecturing nature of the instruction and hoped for more time of language use instead of language usage. Thus, it seemed that they were just irritated by the form-focused instruction, which called their attention to forms and left them with little time to internalize the knowledge through activities and practices. This, in turn, seemed to result in more negative attitude of the participants. The course evaluation survey showed that some reported it being boring while some interesting; some reported unable to distinguish certain features of spoken English; some stated the hope for more time of practice; some suggested slowing down. Taken together, the PA instruction left some participants perplexed about the nature of spoken English, some voicing the need for more practice and slower pace, and some finding the link to listening vague. As a result, their negative attitude was most likely to result from the way they were taught.

One pedagogical implication from this is that while the explicit knowledge of PA may be useful or even essential, its instruction would mislead learners into thinking the opposite if the method stifles their interests or fails to highlight its significance and connection to listening. As a result, while implementing the PA instruction, teachers are advised to avoid focusing on forms to a fault but vary the instruction with activities and practice. That said, even though Spada and Lightbown (2008) contend that both isolated forms and integrated forms of FFI can be valuable to EFL students like these participants, the isolated forms didn't seem to be desirable in this context of PA teaching as it turned them off with too much focus on phonological forms, structures and rules with too little meaning-focused activities for authentic use. The backfiring of the FFI among some participants also shed light on the debate between focus-on-meaning and focus-on forms as it demonstrated that learners might be overwhelmed with all the explicit explanation of forms and rules and find themselves unable to put them to good uses. Therefore, Long (1998)'s focus-on-form approach, or the integrated FFI (Spada and Lightbown, 2008), might be a better substitute for the learners to notice forms, acquire rules without disgust and learn to us them in communicative activities.

The Role of Phonological Awareness Teaching in High School

The study pointed out the role of PA teaching in Taiwan's English education, especially in the context of high school.

From the course evaluation survey, most of the participants thought the PA instruction to be practical and necessary, especially the suprasegmentals. Furthermore, they expressed their insufficient comprehension of some part of the PA teaching, such as word and sentence stress, and hoped that more time could be put into the teaching and learning of PA.

Taken together, the PA instruction shouldn't be ignored to such an extent that students have little knowledge of pronunciation, the suprasegmentals in particular. Importantly, pronunciation course in high school would be considered necessary, yet not limited to the segmentals, or phonetic inventory. Rather, suprasegmental elements such as intonation, rhythm, stress, and features of connected speech, should also be included since they matter in conveying meanings. The inclusion of both segmental and suprasegmental was advocated by Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin (1996), who argue that the latter was at least as essential at the former in conveying meanings. Therefore, the research would highlight the need for pronunciation courses in high school, which along with promoting learners' motivation, can aid students in their listening comprehension. The findings would serve as the advice for the government to consider incorporating more PA teaching, the missing piece in the English education of high school, especially in the area of suprasegmental awareness, so that students' listening comprehension, along with spoken skills, could be promoted.

However, as a result of the limited sample size and scope of research, it's possible that more factors are involved in influencing students' attitude toward pronunciation-listening learning and students' listening comprehension. Meanwhile, this study also pointed out further need for more research regarding the effectiveness of PA teaching as a type of form-focused instruction and the role of PA teaching in high school. Also, it is hoped that more studies investigating the relationship between PA teaching and listening comprehension should be carried out, possibly in an approach similar to this study. This way, the effect of PA teaching can be understood more comprehensively and its instruction could be put to better use for the benefits of students' learning.

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APPENDIX A
Attitude Questionnaire and Consent Form

本人 ______________，同意提供個人英文聽說相關的資料與測驗成績，供教學、研究使用，並作為高中英文聽說教學之參考。

立同意書人(法定代理人)__________ 年 月 日

國立金門高級中學學生聽說(發音)學習背景及認知探討

您好，本問卷調查金門縣高中生發音學習背景及對發音教學與發音的看法，資料僅作分析使用，不作為其他非法用途，敬請安心填寫。

第一部分:英文發音學習需求的態度

填答說明:請在合適的數字上打勾或圈選。	非常同意	同意	有點同意	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1. 我認為能夠正確英語發音很重要。	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. 我認為學會英語發音的知識很重要。	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. 我覺得具備英語發音知識有助英語口說(發音清晰，使人了解)。	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. 我覺得具備英語發音知識有助英語聽力(了解說話者的意思）。	6	5	4	3	2	1
5.我想要加強我的英語發音知識。	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. 我想要加強我英語發音的精確度。	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. 我想要加強我英語發音的流利度。	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. 我想要知道母語人士口語發音的特色與方式。	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. 我想要加強英語聽力理解能力。	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. 我希望高中課程也能增進口語發音的知識與技巧。	6	5	4	3	2	1

第二部分:個人英文學習背景

個人基本資料:

1.姓名:__________ 2.性別：☐ 男 ☐ 女

3.年級：☐ 高中一年級 ☐ 高中二年級 ☐高中三年級 4.類組: ☐ 文組 ☐理組 ☐不分類組

個人英文學習狀況:

5.請問您從何時開始學英文?

☐學齡以前 ☐幼稚園

☐小學一年級 ☐小學二年級 ☐小學三年級☐小學四年級 ☐小學五年級☐小學六年級

☐其他________________

6.請問您以前英文學習大部分時間花在下列哪項技巧?

☐聽力 ☐口說 ☐閱讀 ☐發音 ☐單字 ☐文法 ☐寫作

7.請問您英文能力相對最強的項目是: ☐聽力 ☐口說 ☐閱讀 ☐發音 ☐單字 ☐文法 ☐寫作

8.請問您英文能力相對最弱的項目是: ☐聽力 ☐口說 ☐閱讀 ☐發音 ☐單字 ☐文法 ☐寫作

9.請問您英文能力最想加強的項目是: ☐聽力 ☐口說 ☐閱讀 ☐發音 ☐單字 ☐文法 ☐寫作

10.請問您通過英文檢定的等級

☐全民英檢初級(初複試通過) ☐全民英檢中級(初複試通過) ☐全民英檢中高級(初複試通過)

☐全民英檢高級(初複試通過) ☐TOEIC350以上 ☐TOEIC550以上 ☐TOEIC750以上 ☐TOEIC880以上

☐其他____________

11.請問您國中會考成績 ☐A++ ☐A+ ☐A ☐A- ☐B+ ☐B ☐B- ☐C

個人英文發音學習狀況:

12. 我國小上過發音課程。 ☐ 是 (☐KK音標☐自然發音法☐其他________) ☐ 否

13. 我國中上過發音課程。 ☐ 是 (☐KK音標☐自然發音法☐其他________) ☐ 否

14. 我會依據KK音標來發音。 ☐ 是 ☐ 否

15. 我會根據字母組合(自然發音)來發音。 ☐ 是 ☐ 否

問卷到此結束，請您檢查有無漏填，

再次感謝您的耐心填寫，並祝您事事如意

A Study on Spoken Formulaic Sequences in Taiwanese Elementary, Junior and Senior High Textbook Series

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Abstract

Formulaic expressions help learners to develop speaking fluency and to select nativelike language use (Shin & Nation, 2007), so these lexical units are expected to be integrated into teaching materials (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012). This study therefore investigated the distribution and forms of spoken formulaic sequences in textbook series used in Taiwanese elementary (EM), junior high (JH) and senior high schools (SH). The current study adopted a top-down approach to examine the occurrence of 346 most common spoken formulaic sequences based on Martinez & Schmitt's Phrasal Expression list. Findings showed that there was a notable rise in distribution of the spoken formulaic sequences from EM to SH textbook series, but the corpus size of EM textbook series was nearly as large as that of JH textbook series. This inconsistent result was attributed to the frequency band of spoken formulaic sequences and the different focus on contents between EM and JH textbook series. Moreover, five types of spoken formulaic sequences were identified in SH and JH textbook series, while EM textbook series failed to include coordinated binomial phrases. The frequency of each form was uneven in JH and SH textbook series due to the nature of formulaic sequences. The most frequent form was lexical bundles, followed by idiomatic phrases, free combinations of verb + particle, inserts, and coordinated binomial phrases. The results suggest some pedagogical implications for improving Taiwanese textbooks used in primary and secondary education in terms of spoken formulaic sequences.

Keywords: formulaic competence, formulaic sequences, textbook analysis, the PHRASE list

INTRODUCTION

The purpose for learning a language is to communicate with others in spoken or written forms (Schmidt, 1983). This concept explains the emergence of a widely-accepted instructional framework— Communicative Language Teaching, whose main goal is to cultivating learners' communicative competence (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2008). Communicative competence is defined as "the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written message" (Celce-Murcia, 2007).

According to Celce-Murcia (2007), communicative competence consists of six elements, including discourse competence, sociocultural competence, interactional competence, linguistic competence, formulaic competence, and strategic competence. In fact, formulaic competence was separated from linguistic competence because fluent speakers paid equal attention to formulaic and linguistic knowledge (Celce-Murcia, 2007). Formulaic competence refers to the ability to use formulaic sequences efficiently when interacting with others (Celce-Murcia, 2007). Formulaic expressions are regarded as fixed and prefabricated sequences of continuous or discontinuous chunks which speakers commonly use in communication (Wray & Perkins, 2000).

Formulaic expressions play an important role in speaking pedagogy. Students are expected to not only use well-constructed sentences but also incorporate formulaic knowledge when producing native-like English (Biber et al, 1999). In order to attain this goal, common formulaic sequences should be included in teaching materials, vocabulary quizzes, and learning syllabuses (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012).

However, formulaic expressions have not gained as much attention as individual words in teaching materials. Previous studies focused on various aspects of vocabulary in pedagogical materials, including vocabulary size, vocabulary levels, and text coverage (Chujo, 2004; Dodigovic, 2005; Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010). In addition, textbook analysis in Taiwan primarily examined the use of individual and multi-word units in written forms among senior high schools, e.g. word frequency, part of speech and collocations (Chuang, 1993; Tsai, 2014). Therefore, further investigations are needed to explore the use of spoken formulaic sequences among broader educational stages.

The present study aimed to investigate the distributions and types of spoken formulaic sequences in textbook series used in Taiwanese elementary, junior high and senior high schools. The purpose of the study was to provide insights into how these graded textbook series can be improved in terms of spoken formulaic sequences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Importance and Model of Communicative Competence

'Communicative competence' is a term coined by Dell Hymes (1972). Hymes (1972) argued that language acquisition and language use are based on not only linguistic competence but also sociolinguistic competence, while Noam Chomsky (1965) only emphasized the former and did not consider social factors.

The model of communicative competence has evolved from time to time (Hymes, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia et al, 1995). Based on Canale's framework, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) proposed that communicative competence was composed of and was interrelated by sociocultural competence, linguistic competence, strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence, actional competence and discourse competence. A revised model then expanded actional competence to interactional competence and separated formulaic competence from linguistic competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007).

The Significance of Formulaic Competence and Formulaic Sequences

Formulaic competence refers to the ability in using commonly fixed and prefabricated language chunks to communicate with others (Celce-Murcia, 2007). These chunks of language are defined as formulaic sequences and categorized into five types: lexical bundles, idiomatic phrases, free combinations of verb + particle, and coordinated binomial phrases (Biber et. al, 1999).

Formulaic sequences play an important role in language use. First, formulaic sequences are widely used in spoken and written texts. Erman and Warren (2000) indicated that spoken and written discourse were made up of 58.6 per cent and 52.3 per cent of formulaic sequences. Next, formulaic sequences carry out various functions in language, including referential, communicative, and textual usages (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012). Moreover, non-native students are able to speak fluently and native-likely when using formulaic expressions (Shin & Nation, 2007).

Since formulaic sequences compose essential parts in language, the PHRASal Expression List (PHRASE List) was compiled to integrate common multi-word units into pedagogic materials based on the British National Corpus (BNC) (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012). According to Martinez and Schmitt (2012), the PHRASE list contained 505 most frequent formulaic sequences in spoken and written texts with non-transparent meanings. This list is expected to provide a principle for language teachers to include important multi-words in teaching materials (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012).

Case Studies: Textbook Analysis of Formulaic Sequences

Previous studies investigated the applications of formulaic sequences in textbooks from the secondary level. Mustapa and Agustien (2017) examined the forms, frequency, accuracy, and appropriateness of formulaic sequences in fourteenth conversational texts from tenth graders' textbooks in Indonesia. The results indicated that only four forms of formulaic sequences were identified appropriately or inappropriately in these texts. The most frequent form was followed by inserts, lexical bundles, idiomatic phrases, and free combinations of verb + particle. Sugiati and Rukmini (2017) analyzed usages of formulaic sequences in conversations from Indonesian senior high textbooks. The result showed that graded textbooks shared a similar distribution and frequency of formulaic expressions. However, only lexical bundles, idiomatic phrases, collocations, and inserts were included. The result implied that the textbooks used in Indonesia senior high schools did not provide sufficient exposure of formulaic sequences.

Some studies focused on a certain form of formulaic sequences. For instance, Tsai (2015) probed into three collocational profiles, including three versions of graded textbooks used in Taiwanese senior high school, EFL learners' essays, and native speakers' writing productions. Findings revealed that collocational profiles in the textbooks were comparable to those of native speakers' production. However, the types of collocations only composed a small percentage of the entire repertoire of collocations.

Overall, previous studies applied bottom-up methods to analyze a specific or all types of written formulaic sequences in senior high textbooks. However, more research is needed to examine the usage of spoken formulaic sequences used in textbooks among wider educational stages in Taiwan. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the distributions and types of spoken formulaic sequences in textbook series used in Taiwanese elementary, junior high and senior high schools. This study was expected to provide insights into how these textbooks can be improved in terms of spoken formulaic sequences. The present study included two research questions:

1) What are the distributions of spoken formulaic sequences in textbook series used in Taiwanese elementary, junior high and senior high schools?
2) What are the types of these spoken formulaic sequences in three graded textbook series?

METHODOLOGY

Corpus Description

Materials of this study were three common versions of graded textbook series used in Taiwan, including Kangxuan for elementary schools (EM), Hanlin for junior high schools (JH) and Sanmin for senior high schools (SH). The textbook series for secondary education both consisted of six volumes for six semesters, while eight volumes constituted elementary textbooks for English education starting from the fourth grade. These textbooks series were compiled into three corpora of this study. All the written texts were included in the corpora, including warm-up activities, reading passages, exercises, extended readings, vocabulary and phrases. The corpus size of each textbook series was 18,689, 20,823 and 79, 415 words from elementary to senior high schools.

Procedures

Previous studies adopted a bottom-up approach to identify all formulaic sequences appeared in conversational texts (Mustapa & Agustien, 2017; Sugiati & Rukmini, 2017). However, the rationale for this study was to apply a top-down approach based on the PHRASE list (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012), which included 346 most common spoken formulaic sequences according to the British National Corpus (BNC). This method ensured the importance of the selected items and provided an overview of spoken formulaic sequences used in teaching materials.

To answer the first research question about the distributions of spoken formulaic sequences in three textbook series, SketchEngine was applied to compile three corpora and search for concordances. Concordance entry and manual examination were both processed to investigate distributions of 346 spoken formulaic sequences from the PHRASE list among three corpora. Manual examination was conducted due to polysemy of formulaic sequences, placement of phrasal verbs, and coincidence of segments. For instance, “up to” referred to maximum, until and decisions in the PHRASE list, while only one meaning was selected for “pick up”. Moreover, some phrasal verbs such as “turn into” were entered twice in the form “turn into” and “turn * into”. The distribution also decreased due to the similarity between coincident segments and target formulaic sequences. For example, “in the light of” suggests reasons, while the concordance “Bathed in the light of the setting sun, it carries a glimmer of cold” was a sentence segment that accidentally matched the target item.

The second research question was related to the types of spoken formulaic sequences in three graded textbook series. After examining distributions of 346 spoken formulaic sequences in three corpora, the researcher categorized the existing spoken formulaic sequences into five types. The classification was based on Biber et al.’s (1999) theory of formulaic expressions, including idiomatic phrases, free combinations of verb + particle, coordinated binomial phrases, lexical bundles, and inserts. The findings of data analysis were then compared and explained in a qualitative way.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study investigated distributions and types of spoken formulaic sequences in textbook series used in Taiwanese elementary, junior high and senior high schools. The purpose of this study was to provide insights into how these textbooks can be improved in terms of spoken formulaic sequences.

Distributions of Spoken Formulaic Sequences across Textbook Series

The first research question was about distributions of 346 spoken formulaic sequences across three textbook series: elementary, junior high and senior high schools. As showed in Table 1, there was a rise in distributions of spoken formulaic sequences across different levels of textbook series. The distribution of spoken formulaic sequences in SH textbooks (220 items) was 2.5 times higher than that in JH textbooks (87 items), while JH textbooks contained 3.6 times more spoken formulaic sequences than EM textbooks (24 items).

Table 1

Distributions of Spoken Formulaic Sequences across Three Graded Textbook Series

Level	SH	JH	EM
Distributions of FS	220/346	87/346	24/346
Per cent of FS	63.5%	25.1%	6.9%

Note. FS= formulaic sequences; EM= textbook series of elementary schools; JH= textbook series of junior high schools; SH= textbook series of senior high schools

Notably, the increase of corpus sizes was inconsistent with the rise of distributions of spoken formulaic sequences across three graded textbook series. The corpus size of JH was 1.1 times larger than that of EM, while the distribution of JH was much higher than that of EM (3.6 times). The result suggested that the contents of textbooks between JH and EM were different, even though both corpora contained similar word counts (18,689 and 20,823 words). The EM textbook series focused more on vocabulary and included less reading passages and conversational texts. The JH textbook series contained conversational texts and extended reading materials; therefore, a relatively higher distribution of spoken formulaic sequences occurred. This result was also inferred that EM textbook series should include more contextualized contents to raise the occurrence of spoken formulaic sequences. Moreover, the corpus size of SH textbook series (79,415 words) was 3.8 times larger than that of JH textbook series (20,823 words), while its distribution (220 items) was only 2.5 times higher than that of JH textbook series (87 items). However, the difficulty level of spoken formulaic sequences in SH textbook series was higher than that in JH textbook series. These 220 spoken formulaic sequences in SH textbook series included items from 1K to 5K frequency bands of the most common word families in the BNC, while the spoken formulaic sequences in JH textbooks series contained few items in 4K and 5K. This result implied that the JH textbook series can be improved by adding higher frequency bands of spoken formulaic sequences into its conversational texts and reading passages.

Polysemy and insufficient conversational texts may be the reasons for the shortage of spoken formulaic sequences across EM, JH and SH textbook series. For instance, "pick up" appeared in EM textbook series but was eliminated from the distribution because its meaning did not share the same definition on the PHRASE list. Similarly, SH textbook series included the item "at that time" rather than "at the time" from the PHRASE list. However, both spoken formulaic sequences were considered synonyms. This result suggested that each textbook series should increase the diversity of spoken formulaic sequences, including polysemous words and synonyms. Furthermore, reading comprehension is considered the core competence of English curriculum framework in Taiwan. A majority of texts focused on different genres of reading materials, but conversational texts were rarely included in textbooks. Hence, the result indicated that spoken texts should be integrated into teaching materials, e.g. conversations, speeches and audio tutorials to improve the variety of spoken genres.

Types of Spoken Formulaic Sequences across Textbook Series

The second research question was what types of the spoken formulaic sequences were included in three graded textbook series. As presented in Table 2, based on Biber et al. (1999)'s classification, all forms of formulaic sequences were found in SH and JH textbook series, while coordinated binomial phrases did not appear in EM textbook series. In spite of including all types of spoken formulaic sequences, the number of each category in SH and JH textbook series was apparently uneven. The number of lexical bundles took up over 50 per cent among all items. This result might be explained by the nature of formulaic sequences. According to Biber et al. (1999)'s study, lexical bundles were categorized into 11 forms, while other types of formulaic sequences were divided into less than 5 forms.

Table 2

Types of Spoken Formulaic Sequences across Three Graded Textbook Series

Level Types	SH	JH	EM
free combinations verb + particles	14	7	3
coordinated binomial phrases	1	1	0
idiomatic phrases	69	24	5
lexical bundles	129	49	11
inserts	7	6	5

Note. EM = textbook series of elementary schools; JH = textbook series of junior high schools; SH = textbook series of senior high schools

As showed in Table 2, the most frequent form of formulaic sequences in SH and JH textbook series was lexical bundles, followed by idiomatic phrases, free combinations of verb + particle, inserts, and coordinated binomial phrases. This finding was inconsistent with Mustapa & Agustien (2017)'s study, which illustrated the frequency rank from high to low as inserts, lexical bundles, idiomatic phrases, and free combinations of verb + particle. The divergent findings can be explained by different selections of texts. Previous research only extracted conversational texts from textbooks, while this study analyzed all reading articles with few conversations. Therefore, inserts were rarely found in the data analysis, while other types of spoken formulaic sequences were likely to appear in written texts.

Based on the data analysis mentioned above, some suggestions can be given to improve each type of spoken formulaic sequences in three graded textbook series. First, coordinated binomial phrases should be part of EM textbook, so students can be exposed to all types of spoken formulaic sequences. Furthermore, JH and SH textbook series should balance the proportion of each type of spoken formulaic sequences. The distribution of each type of spoken formulaic sequences is similar between JH and SH textbook series. Both included only a coordinated binomial phrase and few inserts. Each lesson is expected to add a conversational text as an extended activity, so students can be familiar with inserts. Coordinated binomial phrases primarily occur in conversations, fictions, and academic writings (Biber et. al, 1999). Hence, increasing the variety of genres in each lesson may provide sufficient exposure of coordinated binomial phrases.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate distributions and types of spoken formulaic sequences in three graded textbook series in Taiwan: elementary, junior high and senior high schools. This study also gave suggestions on how these textbooks can be improved in terms of spoken formulaic sequences.

Findings suggested that the distribution of spoken formulaic sequences in JH textbook series was much higher than that in EM textbook series despite a similar corpus size. Although the corpus size and the distribution of spoken formulaic sequences in JH textbook series were relatively consistent with those in SH textbook series, the difficulty level of the latter was notably higher than that of the former. Moreover, lexical bundles were the most frequent spoken formulaic sequence in JH and SH textbook series, followed by idiomatic phrases, free combinations of verb + particle, inserts, and binomial phrases. Binomial phrases were the only missing type in EM textbook series. However, the number of each type of formulaic sequences in three graded textbook series differentiated from one another.

Some pedagogical implications can be drawn from the results of this study. First, EM, JH and SH textbook series should include conversations, speeches and other spoken texts to increase the number of spoken formulaic sequences and the variety of spoken genres. Textbooks are regarded as students' first-hand reading materials, so students are expected to cultivate formulaic competence by exposing to the most frequent spoken formulaic sequences on the PHRASE list. Second, textbook designers of EM, JH and SH balanced the proportion of each type of spoken formulaic sequences. By integrating a moderate proportion of all types into textbooks, EFL learners will be more familiar with various forms of spoken formulaic sequences. These learners may then be capable of communicating in a fluent and native-like way with each other.

Future research is expected to address the limitations of this study. First, the present study adopted a top-down method to investigate distributions of the most frequent spoken formulaic sequences in the PHRASE list. Therefore, a bottom-up study can be conducted to obtain more data and evidence of all spoken formulaic sequences across EM, JH and SH textbook series. Second, this study focused on the distributions of spoken formulaic sequences in each textbook series. Thus, future research might be interested to take the frequency of each spoken formulaic sequence into considerations.

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