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Dr. Anjali Patil-Gaikwad

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From the Editor's Desk

Although this year's journal got delayed for several reasons, I must say that I am glad I waited to have all issues ironed out. The result is truly an addition to the corpus of available writing on ESL/EFL related concerns.

This year's issue contains excellent papers from all over the globe. Diverse countries like Japan, Yemen, UAE, Thailand, Malaysia, Iran, Oman, Saudi Arabia and Bangladesh are all represented here. Topics range from tools of vocabulary improvement to tools of effective teaching in a new cultural setting. In a related topic, ethical practices in ELT are also discussed with a view to be culturally correct in a growing globalized setting. For teachers, there are tips on teacher preparedness in a curriculum increasingly dictated by technology. In another very interesting paper, teachers' combination of various pedagogical methods for optimum results gets discussed. Yet, despite sincere efforts, the dice are often loaded against non-native teachers of English. This is also powerfully brought forth in a very deeply researched paper.

The larger question of the often limiting role of policy is also highlighted. It is truly a matter of concern that students' creativity in learning sometimes gets curtailed simply because policy makers in education do not take different cognitive and expressive styles into consideration. On the other hand, policy makers also find it limiting to put in measures to explore students' agency in learning where resources are scarce. This, too, is brought out in a very attention-grabbing paper. The answer could perhaps be found in the paper suggesting better circulation of research by teachers. Teachers' research lamentably remains in circulation among academics and thus, though successful in highlighting problems and finding practical solutions, does not result in action.

All in all, this year's issue is a great combination of research on what issues plague the ESL/EFL practitioner, its students, and where answers could probably be hiding. I am convinced the papers herein are of great value to the ELT fraternity and feel proud of having the honor of editing it.

Dr. Anjali Patil-Gaikwad

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Teaching English for Special Purpose at the Faculty of Engineering in Aden University, Yemen

Mohammed Hasan¹ and Dr. S. P. Zanke²

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Abstract: *ICT has initiated new possibilities into the classroom. Until now little studies have been achieved in the field of theoretical approaches and their underlying practice in Yemen. This paper aims to identify the methodologies that are used by English for specific purposes (ESP) teachers at the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University, Yemen. It focuses on the dominated method and techniques used in teaching ESP and discuss why it dominates the ESP teaching at the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. It will present a brief review of the studies which have systematically verified the development of the ESP in the world and Arab countries. The researchers used questionnaire and interview to collect data for this study. 100 students were randomly chosen and 05 teachers of ESP in the Faculty of Engineering were the sample of the study. It has been noticed that, lecture method is the dominated method used in teaching ESP in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University, Yemen. Large classes and the limited time available of English language subject on the time table are main reason for the domination of the lecture method. The ICT based teaching is also used, but not often.*

Keywords: English for Specific Purpose (ESP), Information Communication Technology (ICT), English language teaching (ELT).

Introduction

It has become a recognized fact that English language has become a link language for communication worldwide whereby people can get access to the up-to-date developments in many fields. Besides that English has become a necessary tool in order to obtain a job; get promoted and perform effectively in the world of work. Many countries, therefore have introduced English in their education programme as the best foreign language which their students can learn.

In Yemen, English language is a medium of instruction for teaching and learning of other subjects, especially in the scientific faculties such as medicine and engineering Alwalidi (2013). Therefore, students need to have an adequate amount of knowledge of English language to be able to study in these faculties. English is taught in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University as a subject to the students at first and second level for four terms. However, the students still faced difficulties in learning technical topics in English medium. The researchers believe that the analysis of the methodologies currently used in teaching English language in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University will help to identify reasons of the weaknesses of the student in English language.

Literature Review

English for specific purposes (ESP) rose to the world of English language teaching (ELT) in the sixties of the last decade when Barber published his paper which was entitled "Some Measurable Characteristics of Modern Scientific Prose in Contribution to English Syntax and Phonology" (1962). After that in 1965, Herbert published the first textbook for teaching ESP which was entitled *The Structure of Teaching English*. Swales (1985) states that the Herbert's textbook was the first real ESP textbook (17). From 1967 the focus is shifted from the discussion of actual materials of teaching ESP to the actual teaching situation of ESP. Consequently, Higgins (1967), as cited in Swales (1985), published the "Hard Fact" (Notes on Teaching English to Science Students). From this point, ESP has spread in wide range of countries, especially, in the Middle East and Arab countries. In

1970, Swales published his textbook which was entitled, *Writing Specific English*. This textbook was the first textbook designed for the Arab students at the Faculty of Engineering, Al-Fatah University, Libya. “ESP in Yemen can be traced as far back as to the period of British occupation of south part of Yemen, particularly after the foundation of the Technical Institute, Aden in the sixties of the last decade” (Hasan 11)

In 1987, Hutchinson and Waters offer an abroad definition of ESP. They state that “ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and methods are based on the learner's reasons for learning” (19). In 1998, Dudley–Evans and others divide the ESP into absolute and variable characteristics:

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners;
 - ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activates of the discipline it serves;
 - ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.
- The variable characteristics:
- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
 - ESP may use, in specific teaching situation, a different methodology from that of General English;
 - ESP is usually designed for adult learners; either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could however, be used for learners at secondary school level;
 - ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advance students.(4-5)

'Method' which linguistically means a way, can be defined as an asset of procedures upon which classroom lesson is executed (or taught based upon an approach). A method specifies teachers' role, skills, material, content and graduation of content, techniques and learners' roles. Robinson in his book, *ESP Today* (2001) introduces some key issues to be considered in ESP methodology. They are:

- The relationship between the method and the students' specialism.
- The place of language practice.
- The relationship between acquisition and learning and between old and new knowledge and abilities.
- Authenticity. (49)

Water (1989) focuses on consideration of basic learning factors such as learner interest, enjoyment, creativity and involvement in both ESP methodology and materials. However, there is a question, whether ESP practitioners use special methods in producing their ESP lesson totally different from those of 'General English' (35). Swales as cited in Robinson identifies that ESP practitioner learns more from General English material and methodology. Robison states that “ESP teachers use methods which are used in general English but there is little difference could be appeared”. (50). According to Robinson the differences might be on that: ESP can task classroom activities on students' specialism, and that activities can have a purely authentic purpose related to students target needs.

Research Methodology and techniques to be used

For the purpose of collecting valid and reliable data about the research topic, the researchers have chosen two applicable instruments.

1. Questionnaire
2. Interview

Sample of the study

The study will be conducted at the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University, Yemen. It will investigate the

responses of the ESP teachers about five teachers and one hundred of students. The students sample is chosen randomly from the students in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University, Yemen.

Data analysis

Using discourse or text in teaching ESP:

Item	Subject	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Using discourse and text	Students	17%	48%	12%	7%	16%
	Teachers	40%	40%	20%	0%	0%

Table (1) teachers and students' questionnaire: Using discourse or text in teaching ESP.

The table above shows that, discourse and text are used to teach ESP in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. In the other words, content approach and task based approach are used in teaching ESP in the faculty. These two approaches are the most suitable to teach ESP. They yield the chance to ESP teacher to use the task or text that related to students' specialized as based of English language teaching. In the help of these approaches, the ESP teacher can provide the students with knowledge of their specialization field and at the same time teaches them the language aspects like grammar, vocabulary and four skills.

The teaching methodologies:

Item	Subject	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Use of lecture method	Students	26%	26%	17%	14%	17%
	Teachers	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
Use of ICT based teaching	Students	20%	25%	15%	16%	24%
	Teachers	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
Use of both lecture method and ICT based teaching	Students	19%	26%	17%	16%	22%
	Teachers	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%

Table (2) teachers and students' questionnaire: The teaching methodologies.

The above table reveals that, the lecture method and ICT teaching based are used to teach ESP in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. According to the teachers' responses which are 100% between strongly agree and agree as well as the students' responses which are 52% between strongly agree and agree, it is clear that, the lecture method is used more frequently in teaching ESP. This result is reasonable, since, the situation where ESP is taught is of that of crowded classes. The number of the students in each class reaches to 100-150 students. As well as the available time to teach English subject is two hours in the time table and one hour and have in the applicable situation. For these reasons the teacher prefer to use the lecture method to present his lesson, since the lecture method gives the chance to the teacher to produce a large amount of knowledge to a large number of students in a limited time.

The common methodology used in teaching ESP:

Common method	Lecture	ICT based teaching	Communicative approach	Others
Percentage	100%	0%	0%	0%

Table (3) teachers' interview: The common methodology used in teaching ESP.

The table above indicates that the lecture method is the common method used to teach ESP in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. This result is in consistent with the student responses about the teaching methodologies in table 10 since the majority of responses (52) were between strongly agree and agree that the ESP teachers used lecture method in teaching ESP.

The teaching techniques:

Item	Subject	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Use communicative games and role-play	Students	14%	36%	7%	13%	30%
	Teachers	40%	40%	20%	0%	0%
Use group-work and pair-work activities	Students	11%	29%	26%	15%	19%
	Teachers	40%	60%	0%	0%	0%

Table (4) teachers and students' questionnaire: The teaching techniques.

The above result reveals that the language games, role-play, group-work and pair-work techniques are used in the ESP classroom in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University.

The medium of instruction:

Item	Subject	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
The medium of instruction: English	Students	25%	36%	20%	11%	8%
	Teachers	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
The medium of instruction: both English and Arabic	Students	32%	35%	15%	11%	7%
	Teachers	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%

Table (5) teachers and students' questionnaire: The medium of instruction

The above table shows that both English and Arabic languages are used as a medium of instruction in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. However, English language is the language of instruction whereas Arabic language only used in limited situation to clarify the difficult word and grammatical rules.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that, the discourse and text are used to teach English language. Therefore, content approach and task-based approach are used in teaching ESP. The lecture method and ICT teaching based are used to teach ESP. The lecture method is most preferred to teach ESP in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. Many times the language games, role play, group-work and pair-work techniques are used in the ESP class. Both English and Arabic languages are used as a medium of instruction in the Faculty of Engineering, Aden University. However, English language is the language of instruction whereas Arabic language is only used in limited situation to clarify the difficult word and grammatical rules if it is needed.

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Technology and Professional Development Can Aid in Teacher Leadership and Innovation

Dr. Ishrat Suri

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Abstract: *This paper focuses on the need to purpose a strategic plan for leadership, development and technology innovation among English language learners in Pakistan and India. Technology has vastly improved the capability of teachers to more readily enable the development of English language learners. A vacuum in leadership and true innovation, however, have left 11% of teachers (or 1 in 4) feeling uninspired and unfulfilled in Denmark, the Slovak Republic and Turkey as they report that professional development has not met their needs (OECD, 2009, p. 48). In Pakistan and India, teacher preparedness and professional development have become an international priority requiring a much sharper institutional focus. In effect, it is essential that technology be used to mobilize the massive untapped potential of teachers as leaders of innovation, a new perspective on leadership in education that is a key to school improvement in India and Pakistan.*

Keywords: technology, professional development, leadership, Pakistan, India

Introduction

The public teaching system of many developing countries is in need of remedy. Over the past decade, local, international and donor institutions have identified a need to remedy the public education system with more accountability, stronger incentives and an improved career track – all issues that should be regarded as priorities and which are key to a lack of motivation among teachers in the country. Moreover, these issues stem from a systemic and widespread problem and inherent failure in the system *itself* fostered by government institutions which have failed to prioritize teacher development, technology and leadership and which have “struggled to cater to one of the largest cadre of employees in the country” (UNESCO, 2006, p. 5). A strategic framework for remedying the national proliferation of teacher training institutions and the quality therein is a priority to improving service delivery. In effect, it is essential that technology be used to mobilize the massive untapped potential of teachers as leaders of innovation, a new perspective on leadership in education that is a key to school improvement in India and Pakistan.

In India, educators have found that their career tracks have begun to stall. They lack the proper incentives to excel as educators and are in need of professional development opportunities which open doors for excellence and innovation. A strategic plan for leadership, development and technology innovation among English language learners in Pakistan and India could vastly improve the capability of teachers to readily enable the development of English language learners. A vacuum in leadership and true

innovation, however, have left 11% of teachers (or 1 in 4) feeling uninspired and unfulfilled in Denmark, the Slovak Republic and Turkey as they report that professional development has not met their needs (OECD, 2009, p. 48). In Pakistan and India, teacher preparedness and professional development have become an international priority requiring a sharper institutional focus.

Literature Review

Clearly, one of the problems with professional leadership and development is that teacher training has been

considered merely a footnote or sub-section in education. A review of literature establishes that: progress is a worthwhile goal for education in India and Pakistan; professional development is critical to improving education; and, that innovation is the role educators

Progress is a Goal for Education in India and Pakistan

The Status Quo. If professional leadership and development were seen as priorities in Pakistan and India, funding for professional development opportunities would be a priority. Instead, professional development and training is *often* delayed or put off altogether because there are many other needs within the system which have been deemed more pressing. In reality, there are very few educational priorities to rival the need to foster leadership in educators through professional development and training opportunities (Frost, 2012).

Progress Goals. Some commendable attempts have been to improve professional development institutions in Pakistan. In the 1990's Pakistan's government-backed ADB program established the Provincial Institutes of Teacher Education (PITEs) and several other training facilities. Government-backed programs, however, have failed to take-on available opportunities for innovation which must necessarily result in the “installment of infrastructure [rather than the] improvement of quality education” as can be promoted in technology training and greater leadership opportunities (UNESCO, 2006). Thus far, government-backed programs and projects have fallen short of innovation. Rather than producing and promoting change, these projects have been rooted in the “institution” of government and have worked to remedy only the symptoms of what ails the educational system, rather than to foster transformative change in a deeply flawed institution (UNESCO, 2006). As noted by famed author of “The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization,” Peter Senge, shifting the burden of issue resolution from preparedness and professional development to sustaining a crumbling system. And yet, underlying issues are significantly out of reach and are much more costly to confront than merely juggling the symptoms for opportunities for small and incremental improvement (UNESCO, 2006).

Technology Aids in ELD Progress

In California, where English-language learners (ELLs) now constitute half of the total school population, assistive technology and innovation has proven invaluable in improving academic English skills (Smart, 2008). Experts have found that diversity in technology is effective in engaging students and providing structure. Experts have identified the need to have computer access in classrooms and opportunities to visit technology labs as a key to educational development overall, and English language development, in particular (Smart, 2008).

Professional development of teachers can efficiently encourage the development of multimedia and technology-based applications and programs which aid teachers in providing the most effective and up-to-date educational content to their students. Language-learning software “helps [students] associate images with English words and sentence structures to build their vocabularies” which provides a constant challenge to students in an interactive format which serves over 60% of the population who are visual learners (Smart, 2008). Further, because English language learners represent the fastest growing “student audience” in education to-date, they present significant challenges, particularly in India and Pakistan where educators and administration are making a concerted effort to improve the educational system (Association of Latino Administrators & Superintendents, 2011). Technology solutions that are appropriate for the ELD classroom in Pakistan and India should be sought out to provide a framework for strategic improvement in the educational institutions of those countries. Systemic investment in new forms of academic content and development of professionals so that they might most effectively leverage these technological capabilities is the most worthwhile goal of academic improvement in these countries, as a whole.

Moreover, English fluency among students in Pakistan and India affords learners a highly-coveted citizenship to a culturally-connected world and has already been identified as a priority which necessarily requires speed, efficiency, an immersion environment and teachers who possess the personal and professional skills and resources to be successful in their attempts to provide a diversity of learning activities that require students to use different levels of thinking (Pineman, 1998; Bruner, 1961; Marzano, 2003; Smart, 2008; Pienemann, 1998; McLaughlin, 1987).

Discussion

While there is a broad consensus in the educational community that greater technological awareness and professional development are key priorities in Pakistan and India, there are three impediments to these strategic changes that require immediate focus. First, there must be a *sincere* recognition of the need for innovative professional development; second, there must be a serious remedy to the insufficient education budgets; finally, technology-based instruction must be effectively placed within reach of India and Pakistan so that these countries can keep pace with global innovation in education.

Recognizing the Value of Innovative Professional Development

The Ministries of Education in Pakistan and India do not currently demonstrate a realization of the importance and *value* of progressive and innovative professional development for teachers. Typically, the Education Ministry is most concerned with cutting costs and making sure that resources are allocated for minimal sustainability of public schools. Innovation, leadership development and the appropriate use of technology are not recognized as priorities which robs teachers of development opportunities and students of quality instruction. To-date, pre-service and in-service teacher education programs remain substandard, rigid and textbook and examination-based. The dominant pedagogical techniques are *still* lecture and memorization (Furniss, 2005; World Population Foundation, 2009) which illustrates a tendency to over-emphasize structural and organizational issues while overlooking education changes which need to be implemented in a 21st century global economy.

Teachers must be agents of innovation and social change (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009; OECD, 2009; UNESCO, 2006). The expansion of teacher roles means that teachers are increasingly seen as leaders, innovators, social reformers, moral agents, emancipators and a catalyst for social justice and institutional change (Ali, 2007). This only *emphasizes* that increasing attention must be paid to progressive teaching and learning trends in pre-service and in-service teacher education.

Low Education Budget

One of the factors that affects the level of technological and professional development offered to teachers in India and Pakistan is the lack of district funds that are available to budget for continuing education programs. The National Education Policy in Pakistan (2009) has found that there is a strong relationship between the quality of education in the country and the pre-service and in-service training system for teachers. Others have noted that teacher education has failed to respond to the rapid change that is taking place in Pakistan and in other failing school systems like that in India, Denmark, the Slovak Republic and Turkey (Ali, 2011; OECD, 2009; UNESCO, 2006). Most tragically, school systems have been unresponsive to modern socio-economic reality and technological transformations in society (Ali, 2011; OECD, 2009; UNESCO, 2006). The focus of the educational system in India and Pakistan is basic literacy and the need to reach all children with educational opportunities. So far, even this most elementary requirement has fallen below expectations.

As such, although education is a national mandate in Pakistan, about 5.1 % of children in Pakistan *still* do not attend school (Kidwai et al., 2013). Reaching those 3 million young girls *must* be seen as a priority. India, in

particular, has made great strides in economic development over the past two decades which can be attributed to political recognition of the *importance* of education and subsequent improvements in government financial support within the educational system (Kidwai et al., 2013). This is a testament to Pakistan and other educational systems which are struggling to achieve mandates - gains can be made with more funding (OECD, 2009; UNESCO, 2006; Kidwai et al., 2013).

Although the number of teacher education institutions has expanded recently, the quality of teacher education *itself* has suffered from stagnation and deterioration (Ali, 2011). Because of the focus on basic literacy and the diminished levels of budgetary allocations available for school and staff development, Pakistan and India – like many countries – have had to employ poorly qualified teachers in order to achieve universal primary education (Craig, Kraft & du Plessis, 1998).

Moreover, up to 90% of recurrent educational expenses are related to teacher salaries, while the remainder is divided among books and supplies, classroom space, training, staff offices and housing (Craig, Kraft & du Plessis, 1998). Unless there is a concerted effort to strategically change the focus of education and encourage leadership and competent use of technology in Pakistan and India, professional development may long be sacrificed to meet the need to pay teacher salaries (Craig, Kraft & du Plessis, 1998).

Technology-based Instruction

A major issue in reaching the current needs of the global economy is technology education. Technology-based instruction is not within the reach of everyone in India and Pakistan. Not only may initial costs of technology for use in education be prohibitive, but it quickly becomes obsolete, meaning that it has to be constantly updated. Many school districts are pressed to provide enough textbooks, which means they are unlikely be able to provide the much higher-budget equipment for technology-based instruction. Even if the technology is available, teacher education programs are poorly equipped to provide either the basic or continuing education skills for teachers to make use of the equipment. A 2013 study of in-service education results found that 90% of teachers in two Indian provinces agreed that they had gained knowledge and skills useful in the classroom, with the exception of use of computer technology. As a result, teachers were unable to handle lessons in the classroom because training was not appropriate to the lesson requirements (Kidwai et al., 2013). This result points out the need for innovative solutions in providing better instruction for teachers in order to meet the increasing needs for technology education.

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EMI: A Tale of Two Countries

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Abstract: *This paper considers policy and practice in relation to the use of English as a medium of instruction in India and the UAE. The author compares perspectives based on his experiences of researching in the UAE context and interacting with educators and learners in the Indian context. Literature is reviewed to pinpoint the similarities and differences regarding English medium policy in these very disparate countries. Despite the many geographic, demographic and economic differences both countries see the need for English, even in monolingual environments, although there is also evidence that in both countries the endangered position of native languages is a topic for debate. Differences include that India sees English as elitist while the UAE aims for a universal mastery of the language. A second major difference is in the native speaker fallacy when employing teachers with the UAE preferring native speaker teachers. Although there are signs that native speaker competency may also be a goal in India, this is not translated into native speaker employment, possibly for economic reasons. The paper encourages further debate on these matters as a way to reflect on best policy for countries where English is needed.*

Keywords: EMI, linguistic imperialism, native speaker fallacy, language policy, educational policy, India, UAE

Introduction

English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is a global affair and for this reason it is interesting to see the role that contextual factors play in its implementation in different environments. The rationale for this comparative study is borne out of the author's research interest into the use of EMI in the Arabian Gulf and his reflections when visiting India and speaking to both Indian TESOL teachers and Indian students who study in English. What is surprising is the fact that two countries which are in many ways so different appear to have many similarities regarding their perspectives on EMI. This paper aims to examine these similarities as well as differences from a theoretical standpoint and consider some of the areas for debate which such views may provoke. The paper starts by looking at the context of the two countries. It then reviews literature on pertinent topics before looking at EMI in India and in the UAE. Finally, similarities and differences are collated before considering the key discussion points which emanate from this comparison.

Context

A brief look at the context of both countries regarding learning in English initially suggests that differences may predominate. 2012 data puts the population of India at 1.2 billion whereas the UAE has a population of just over nine million. Of these 9 million, only fifteen percent are Emirati whereas the majority of India's population is made up of Indian nationals. The mother tongue of the UAE is Arabic although the dialect, Gulf Arabic, is more regularly spoken by locals alongside various lingua francas used by the population as a whole. Although the language of communication will depend very much on the two parties involved, English is often seen as the de facto lingua franca in the UAE. When discussing the lingua franca of India, English may be seen as a strong contender, but there is strong regional variance with northern states, for example, showing less preference for English. Language variety is indeed quite complex in India as there are 22 recognized Indian languages with the number of dialects running into many hundreds. While English is desired by many in both countries, it is perhaps more elitist in India while in the UAE the majority of people will have the opportunity to study in English from a young age if they wish.

Literature Review

Many of the contextual themes noted above have been investigated in research literature in recent decades. For the purpose of this study the following areas will be considered: Kachru's Three Circles model, English as a lingua franca, linguistic imperialism and the native speaker fallacy, policy theory and finally the pros and cons of EMI.

Braj Kachru (cited in Lowenburg, 2000) coined the term World Englishes in the 1970s in an attempt to bring recognition to the fact that English was used by many people in different ways across the globe. His concentric circle model positioned the so-called Inner Circle countries where English was considered a first language in the middle; Outer Circle countries where English is considered a second language were placed in the next circle (this group includes many former British colonies) and the third circle, the Expanding Circle, included all countries where English was learned as a foreign language. Phillipson (cited in Tollefson, 2000) refers to the Inner Circle countries as the Core while Outer and Expanding Circle countries are referred to as the Periphery. While the model was instrumental in gaining recognition for varieties, it has also maybe unintentionally indicated divisions between the Circles, thus creating a hierarchy in which the Inner Circle variety has become the goal of Periphery users.

Phillipson's term 'Periphery' is linked to his studies into linguistic imperialism. The idea behind linguistic imperialism is that English is being used to exert neo-colonial power for the benefit of Inner Circle government agencies and commercial interests (Ahmed, 2010) and it is clear that English does have a dominant position in many areas such as the media and business. It is seen as the language of modernity (Syed, 2003; Rudby and Saraceni, 2006a) and according to Holborrow (2006), education has worked hand in glove with business to ensure that the globalization of EMI is promoted, which is why educational access is often controlled by English proficiency examinations (McKay, 2006). This has meant that appropriated versions of English are often benchmarked unfavourably (*ibid.*), leading to an inferiority complex (Holliday, 2005). Various commentators have accused Periphery English users of complicity in this regard, leading to marginalization and indeed self-marginalization when supporters of EMI elitism find themselves unable to access that very same elite (Tupas, 2006; Brumfit, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

This belief that Inner Circle English is best (the so-called native speaker fallacy) has been challenged by critical researchers within TESOL. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) cites examples of English as a foreign language policies leading to native speaker-like competency in various European countries while Widdowson (1994) and Norton (1997) both question how English can be 'owned' by just a handful of countries when varieties of the language are being used globally by the majority of users of English. Finally, Rudby and Saraceni (2006b) invalidate Kachru's Circles as, in current times, migration and a thirst for learning English means that the type of English used in a Circle may differ from what the model suggests. For example, there may be Inner Circle level users in Expanding Circle countries and vice versa.

The policy of promoting a language internationally has been alluded to above. However, one also needs to consider how languages which are under threat from international lingua francas require policy to become protected. Most policy literature identifies three stages of idea, formulation and implementation. In an ideal world all policy would include input from all stakeholders but, as Bell and Stephenson (2006) point out, implementers are often excluded from the policy process. In an educational context this means that teachers and students will have little say on policy (Ball, 2007) and may therefore contest it. Braun et al. (2010) believe that contestation at the implementation stage leads to enactment. This means that there may be negative reactions to policy (Warnica, 2011) and it will be locally interpreted based on local conditions, which may lead to unintended consequences (Hill, 2006).

There are various reasons why policymakers may decide to employ EMI. Often, if curricula are aimed at

international markets they will come with existing materials and an existing framework (Sudiary, n.d.), which can make it easier to acquire international accreditation (Hardcastle, 2007). In addition, there is a recognition that nowadays students, educators and workers are internationally more mobile (Kirkpatrick, 2006) and will often be looking for destinations where they can use their lingua franca; namely, English. Another positive of EMI is that it can provide better prospects for those who avail of it as they become part of a theoretical elite. However, for those against such socioeconomic, neo-liberal elitism, this hierarchical analysis can be seen as a negative. Other cons include the fact that there is no empirical pedagogical evidence of the benefits of EMI (Troudi, 2009); it others teachers and learners who are not L1 users (i.e. they use English as their mother tongue); it endangers indigenous tongues (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) and, finally, it is only sustainable as long as English remains the world's lingua franca.

As can be seen, there are various theoretical propositions emanating from literature which put EMI under the spotlight by suggesting both its potential value and its potential threat. In subsequent sections, these propositions will be considered in the contexts of the two countries under comparison: India and the UAE.

EMI in India

In Ghandi's selected works, Volume 5, *The Voice of Truth*, he expresses much of what critical research literature is saying today. In other words, he saw English as a 'canker' in Indian society. However, a review of current Indian media suggests that English is no longer seen as a threat but as a necessity for career advancement. As a former British colony, India is considered an Outer Circle country and Indian English is a recognized variety. There is an increasing number of fluent users (Lowenburg, 2000) and it is replacing other languages as the lingua franca in many states (Mallikarjun, 2004), with evidence of wage benefits for those who master it (Kapoor and Chakraborty, 2008). Language policy in India is pluralistic and aims to both develop the use of new languages as well as protect existing ones. Government educational policy proposes that language use should be fit for purpose and that states should follow the three language formula usually incorporating Hindi, English and the local language (*Language education*, 2011). However, Dixit (2011) opines that this policy is often enacted rather than implemented so that English predominates, even in rural areas.

Meganathan (2011) gives interesting insights into the role of English in India, believing that there is no need for a national lingua franca as regionally Indians will communicate in the option which is fit for purpose. He continues that EMI faces many challenges as there is as yet an insufficient supply of teachers and materials to meet the increased demand and then summarizes that EMI only works when the environment is right, so for now a model of English as a foreign language is better for the majority. Despite these views, the rush for EMI appears unabated. EMI in higher education predominates in the South (Choudhari, 2014) and there are 20 million students studying in EMI in schools (Mukherji, 2012). Pramod and Kad (2013) indicate that vernacular schools are being replaced across the country and in the state of Maharashtra there has been an increase in bilingual schools (The Indian Express, 2013). This is leading to an even more divided society based on language proficiency, even in rural areas (Pramod and Kad, 2013).

EMI in the UAE

The UAE is a young, culturally diverse and politically and economically stable society. Its use of EMI started in the 1970s (Fox, 2007) and it has a history of importing curricula (Farah and Ridge, 2009). In recent years it has seen a surge in private education. The pre-tertiary public education sector remains an Arabic environment (*Educational Statistics First*, 2011), but EMI is becoming common for core subjects (*UAE 2010*, 2010) and there is an increase in preference for the EMI-dominated private sector. The tertiary sector is almost completely EMI. However, most Emirati students leave high school with an insufficient level of English so foundation programmes which focus on English proficiency are offered (*ibid.*). The government aims to create an

internationally-oriented Emirati workforce which will take on a relevant role in the knowledge economy. This includes mastering the global lingua franca of English. However, they also want to eradicate foundation programmes as they are too expensive (Randall, 2010). The hope is that English teaching in schools will improve to facilitate the removal of these foundation programmes but despite the aforementioned moves to bilingual models, there is still evidence of poor performance in both English and Arabic (Farah and Ridge, 2009). There is a clear rise in the use of EMI curricula (Krieger, 2008), which is being used in settings where students all share the same mother tongue (Kirkpatrick, 2006). This policy has strong government support (Syed, 2003) and currently there is also clear evidence of the native speaker fallacy – that is that Inner Circle teachers are preferred for both English and even content subjects (Hourani et al., 2011). This is despite the fact that the average English level of students leaving high school makes it unlikely that they will ever reach native speaker competence themselves. The position of Arabic is also under debate. There is an asymmetric relationship between English and Arabic in schools (Farah and Ridge, 2009) in that more hours are given to English and, as mentioned earlier, it is also the medium of instruction for core subjects (Clarke, 2006). This has created some consternation as Arabic is seen as being under threat.

Similarities and differences

If we review the similarities between these two very disparate countries, what is remarkable to see is that there are so many areas of practice and perspectives that they have in common in the field of EMI. As discussed by Pramod and Kad (2013) and Krieger (2008), it is clear that both countries recognize or at the very least perceive that there is a need for English. At the same time it appears that there are potential benefits for those who avail of an EMI education. It is also noticeable that despite EMI being perhaps more appropriate for multilingual environments, thereby being a genuine lingua franca, in both India and the UAE it is used in monolingual settings (see, for example, Kirkpatrick, 2006) so students, and sometimes teachers and students, are required to communicate in a language other than the one that they both share as a mother tongue. There also appears to be some debate regarding concerns for indigenous languages. However, this seems to be a debate which is dissipating as local languages give way to the apparently more socioeconomically viable lingua franca of English.

Despite the many similarities, there are also noticeable differences. While in India knowledge of English might be seen as a way of joining an elite which can enjoy certain privileges and windows of opportunity (Kumaravadelu, 2006), the Emirati perspective is to make English a universal skill for nationals. This might be seen as a necessity in a country where 85% of the population is not local so the cosmopolitan nature of society requires competence in the main language of communication. While the same might be true in India, there are a number of languages by which people may communicate with each other so - as Meganthan (2011) states -there is perhaps less need for a national language. Another major difference is the use of native speaker teachers in the delivery of EMI. In the UAE this is still considered the preferred option (Hourani et al., 2011), possibly because the native speaker fallacy exists and the option of recruiting such teachers from abroad is an affordable one. In India, it is not clear if the lack of Inner Circle English teachers is due to financial restrictions or the belief that such teachers are not needed. From the author's own interactions with Indian English language teachers in India, the perception is that an Inner Circle standard is often desirable, but it is not clear if this belief is held in the interest of the students; whether it is driven by a desire to seek more lucrative employment abroad, or is a combination of the two.

Points for reflection

When reflecting on the position of EMI in India and the UAE, a number of interesting observations lead one to take the debate on the practicality and suitability of such policy further. The issue of elitism is pertinent. While

the UAE aims to create an Inner Circle level society, what will be the benefit in the marketplace if all applicants have the same language skills? Conversely, is it fair to use English as a barrier for the majority in acquiring better socio-economic status, as in India? From an ethical perspective, one would assume that citizens should be able to achieve the same in their mother tongue. However, as we see in both countries, it is sometimes questionable what is considered a mother tongue.

A second point for reflection is the perceived domination of one language over others spurred on linguistic imperialism and the native speaker fallacy in (language) education, which the UAE appears to buy in to. However, in India, while linguistic imperialism is evident, the native speaker fallacy is not (possibly for economic reasons) and arguably English language attainment is greater in India than in the Emirates. This begs the question of whether the UAE should pursue a native speaker level goal for its citizens; especially if Kachru's World Englishes are given more legitimacy?

Linked to this is the position of indigenous languages as a part of culture and national identity. If one assumes that culture is dynamic rather than static, should the death of local languages been seen as part of a normal process of change or should a stand be taken to protect them? For example, is it not part of current Indian culture (and has it not always been) for people to communicate in a number of fit for purpose languages? Similarly, in the UAE, if historically traders communicated in fit for purposes languages, which means that, for example, Hindi words are today used in the Gulf Arabic vernacular, should there now be concern that the official language of Arabic is under threat from the world's lingua franca?

This comparative study of the position of EMI in India and the UAE acts as a conduit. This conduit aims to bring discussions to the surface rather than come up with answers. This study is not a criticism of the current status quo in both countries but it does aim to provoke debate by indicating that both the positive and negative effects of EMI, which can be so very similar across very different societies, need to be debated from a foundation of informed analysis. It is hoped that such debates will form part of the continuous efforts to determine the best language education policy for societies where good English is needed.

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Lexis and Vocabulary - Innovative Strategies and Approaches

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Abstract: *Lexis plays an important part in lingual expression. English vocabulary acquisition is very important for EFL/ESL learners. It is very important for a learner as it is related to proficiency and fluency in English. Vocabulary size helps the learner to use the skills of understanding, reading, writing and speaking. It is classified as receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. The acquisition of vocabulary is possible through incidental and intentional learning. The most efficient way to achieve communicative competence is to increase the vocabulary size. Knowing a word receptively or productively depends on meaning, form and use. An effective vocabulary makes our expression clear and communication easy. (R. Shalini & S. Ganesan, 2013). This paper discusses the principles of teaching/learning a foreign language and its lexis, reasons for learners' poor retention of words, and effective strategies for better vocabulary teaching/learning. It delves deep into the different stages of teaching vocabulary and suggests innovative strategies for developing the vocabulary in view of ESL learners. The researcher also presents some useful techniques to teach vocabulary more effectively in this digital age using technology-based web-tools.*

Keywords: lexis, vocabulary, lexical approach, teaching vocabulary

Introduction

Teacher attitudes to vocabulary have changed a lot over recent years. The use of the word *lexis* (rather than the more familiar *vocabulary*) reflects a fundamental shift in understanding, attitude and approach. The increasing availability of *corpora* (large computerized databases of analyzable real conversations and other text), and dictionaries, grammar books and other resources based on them have revealed many surprising features of language that had been previously unrealized (Scrivener Jim, 2005). Is *lexis* more than just a fancy word for *vocabulary*?

This paper discusses the principles of teaching/learning a foreign language and vocabulary, reasons for learners' poor retention of words, and effective strategies for better vocabulary teaching/learning. It delves deep into the different stages of teaching vocabulary and suggests innovative strategies for mounting the vocabulary in view of ESL learners. The researcher also presents some useful techniques to teach vocabulary more effectively in this digital age using technology-based web-tools.

Lexis and Vocabulary

Vocabulary typically refers mainly to single words (e.g. table, pen, go) and sometimes to very tightly linked two- or three-word combinations (e.g. put off, digital versatile disc). But the concept of *lexis* is bigger. It refers to our 'internal database' of words and complete 'ready-made' fixed/semi-fixed/typical combinations of words that we can recall and use quite quickly without having to construct new phrases and sentences word by word from scratch using our knowledge of grammar.

Lexis includes:

- Traditional single-word vocabulary items,
- Common *going-together* patterns of words (collocations),
- Longer combinations of words that are typically used together as if they were a single item (e.g. on the

spot discussions). These longer combinations are commonly referred to as *chunks* or sometimes as *multiword items*. (Scrivener Jim, 2005)

Types of Lexis

The linguistic study of vocabulary (lexis) can lead us on to the discussion of many topics. An important distinction which is often made is between productive (active) and receptive (passive) lexis. We all understand many more lexical items than we actually use in everyday situations. Our receptive lexis is the set of lexical items that we recognize and understand, but tend not to use ourselves in everyday speech. Our active vocabulary is that over which we have full command; on the other hand, the passive (recognition) vocabulary consists of those words whose meaning we can understand when they appear in speech or writing or others, but we cannot use in our own speech and writing. Our recognition vocabulary is always larger than our active vocabulary.

Principles of Teaching Lexis

Various principles of teaching lexis are ubiquitous in EFL curriculum. When we say 'we know a word', it has many connotations.

To know a word means to:

- Recognize it in its written/spoken form
- Recall it at will
- Relate it to an appropriate object/concept
- Use it in correct grammatical form
- In speech, pronounce it in a recognizable way
- In writing, spell it correctly
- Use it at the appropriate level of formality
- Be aware of its connotations and associations (Wallace Michael, 1984)

Reasons for Poor Retention

The learners take a lot of efforts to master the lexis, but they face countless difficulty to retain it and use it at their will in speech and writing. The reasons for poor retention include the following.

- Very poor reading skill/habit
- Unaware of words
- Improper use of dictionary
- Too much rote learning
- Vocabulary is taught as a part of lesson
- Lack of enthusiasm to learn new words
- Lack of innovative methods to learn vocabulary
- Ignorance of importance of vocabulary in real life
- Lack of spell bee contests (R.Reddy, 2013)

As a result, the learners lose confidence in themselves and they become less motivated unless they are motivated by the teachers or parents.

Traditional Techniques

Lexis instruction has been done using a variety of methods from time to time. The answer to the question 'what is the best approach towards lexis?' wasn't a satisfactory one as it depends on many factors varying from teacher,

learner, the learning environment, gender-ratio etc. Consequently, the teachers followed a variety of traditional techniques.

Some of them are:

- Showing objects
- Performing actions
- Pictures / charts
- Framing illustrative sentences
- Explaining meanings in simple English
- Associating with other words
- Word-building
- Drawing on the back/white board
- Using mother tongue
- Expansion through families of words
- Through reading
- Through word games
- Vocabulary note book (A L Kohli, 1994)

Stages of Vocabulary

ELT practitioners' hub is on 3Ps i.e. Present, Practice and Produce. Unfortunately, some teachers forget the third one and, as a result, the students fail at the stage of production.

Lexis may be taught in 4 stages systematically depending on the instructor and learners.

Phase 1 – Identifying Words:

Write many meaningful words from a single word.

Phase 2 – Understanding Words:

Lexis should be taught by giving its root word, prefix, suffix etc.

Phase 3 – Learning Words:

Instead of giving direct meanings of a word, its synonym/antonym should be presented and the learners understand the word faster.

Phase 4- Applying Words

The learners should be able to apply words through construction of sentences and paragraphs. (R.Reddy, 2013)

Benefits of Teaching Vocabulary in Color

The researches show that the learners perform faster when vocabulary is taught *using different colors* in the class. With the advent of multimedia, presentation can be done in a vibrant way.

The studies say that it helps learners to concentrate, extends the time and learner's attention, stimulates color thinking, separates ideas and stimulates creativity. Moreover, Colored Words, Texts and Exercises look more personal to learners and they are much comfortable to work with. (Anuthama B., 2010)

Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction/Learning

Out of different approaches towards vocabulary, the following 3 are found to be very effectual that function well with the learners. They are Incidental Learning, Explicit Instruction and Independent Strategy Development.

Their chief characteristics can be summarized in a table as below.

INCIDENTAL LEARNING	EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION	INDEPENDENT STRATEGY DEVT.
<input type="checkbox"/> Learning vocabulary from contexts <input type="checkbox"/> Extensive reading <input type="checkbox"/> Graded readers for slow learners (Anuthama B.,2010)	<input type="checkbox"/> 3000 common words for effective learning at the university <input type="checkbox"/> Intentional Learning <input type="checkbox"/> Elaborating word knowledge	<input type="checkbox"/> Guessing from contexts <input type="checkbox"/> Checking different types of dictionaries <input type="checkbox"/> Bilingual dictionaries for slow learners

Techniques Using Web-tools

In the current scenario of technology, the teachers can espouse a number of techniques for a lexical approach towards a word in an EFL classroom.

The following are some of them:

- a) Using visual representation of words in text: vocabulary relies on interaction between words. www.worle.net
- b) Using multimedia to show vocabulary knowledge: create a podcast or short video explaining the new words/ a PowerPoint Presentation with new words
- c) Online vocabulary games: most straight forward use of the internet www.vocabulary.co.il, www.vocabulary.com, www.freerice.com

Conclusion

As we know, communicative competence is given priority in this epoch of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It is very indispensable that every learner should follow appropriate, useful strategies for a lexical approach towards vocabulary and make paramount effort to increase the vocabulary size. This will take the learners to a phase which is beyond just *vocabulary*. I am sure that the web-tools are inevitable in this regard.

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Preventing Harm Through Ethical Codes for Education and English Language Teaching

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Abstract: *This paper argues that ethical professional practice requires adherence to a code of ethics in order to prevent harm. Unlike many professions, however, education and English language teaching (ELT) do not have a formalized code of ethics. This is problematic, given the ability of educators to influence learners worldwide and impact the future. Reasons for the absence of a formalized code of educational ethics are explored, including cultural, political, and economic forces external to the educational process. The author maintains that a code of ethics is particularly crucial for cross-cultural educational situations such as English language teaching (ELT). This is because the potential for harm in such situations is significant as there are risks of cultural and linguistic imperialism that advance Anglo-American dominance and marginalize indigenous languages and cultures. This can be avoided if students' cultural backgrounds are affirmed and accommodated and steps are taken to preserve linguistic and cultural diversity. The author argues for the development of a code of ethics for ELT that prevents harm by prioritizing culture and linguistic rights, adheres to ethical standards, enhances the lives of students worldwide, and improves quality of life for present and future generations.*

Keywords: Ethics, English language teaching, ethical education, linguistic imperialism, cultural imperialism.

Professional Ethics and Harm

The adoption of a code of ethics is often deemed necessary for the professionalization of a work area as it demonstrates recognition by a profession of its obligations to society and its willingness to transcend pursuit of profit and self-interest (Luegenbiehl, as cited in Dickey, 2006). Therefore, most professions, according to Weston (2013) have adopted ethical codes whose purpose is to inspire virtuous practice and prevent harm. Train drivers, for example, must ensure they are adequately prepared and follow all safety protocols, so as to protect the lives of passengers. Accountants must deal honestly and fairly with clients and avoid conflicts of interest. Journalists are obliged to report truthfully and impartially, as to do otherwise is misleading to the public and negatively impacts objective decision-making. Perhaps one of the most famous ethical codes is The Hippocratic Oath a form of which is taken by medical professionals, emphasizing the moral responsibility to avoid doing harm (Tyson, 2001). The harm principle, as espoused by philosophers and ethicists, features prominently in discussions of ethics. Rickless (2011), for example, supports Philippa Foot's Equivalence Hypothesis, which claims that *enabling* harm and *allowing* harm are morally equivalent. In educational practice, this would correspond to actions that have a direct negative effect on students on one hand, versus failing to act when students' welfare is at stake, on the other. Harm can also have consequences for future generations. Wrigley (2012) argues against Parfit's Non-Identity Problem that it is not possible to harm someone prior to their existence, by claiming that our choices can and do affect future generations. This corresponds with the Native American notion that our choices and decisions affect not only our contemporaries, but also seven generations into the future (Weston, 2013). This focus on future harm is particularly relevant in consideration of educational ethics because educational practice can and does influence attitudes far into the future. Main (1992) emphasizes the power of teachers to influence the attitudes of students and cautions that it is not possible to design instruction without either consciously or subconsciously communicating an educator's values. Unlike cognitive outcomes of instruction, affective outcomes tend to be long lasting (Krathwohl,

Bloom, & Masia, 1964) and may eventually be transmitted to future generations.

In order to fully grasp the concept of creating harm, it is important to understand ethical principles. Velasquez et al. (2009) define ethics as “standards of behavior that tell us how human beings ought to act in the many situations in which they find themselves” (What is ethics? Para. 1). They also suggest basing ethical standards on five sources. First is the utilitarian approach, which implies that ethical behavior means maximizing good and minimizing harm. Second is the rights approach, which prioritizes protection of moral rights and respect for human dignity. Third is the fairness or justice approach, which means fair treatment for all people. Fourth is the common good approach, which as the name suggests, emphasizes the communal, interdependent nature of society and the importance of making a contribution to the good of society at large. Finally, the virtue approach requires virtuous behavior that reflects the best of human potential. It could be argued, therefore, that failure to meet these standards of behavior would result in harm to others and that all professionals, particularly educators, should adopt codes of ethics that reflect these standards. While many professions have done so, this is not the case with education or the related field of English language teaching. This is problematic, given the capacity of educators to accomplish great benefits and to create great harm.

The Lack of an Educational Code of Ethics

One reason why there is a lack of an educational ethics code is because discussions about educational ethics fall prey to political, cultural, and economic pressures such as the need to improve standardized test scores, or to improve teacher qualifications (Shevalier & McKenzie, 2012). Similarly, Hogan (2011) postulates that education as a profession has been subjected to external, institutionalized control throughout its history. Hogan attributes much of this external control to neo-liberal orthodoxy (including the Reagan and Thatcher administrations) which he characterizes as “a large-scale colonization of education . . . [with no clear] separation of powers between government and education” (p. 28). This, in turn, has deprived educational practitioners of the autonomy required to formulate a code of ethics and engage in self-regulation. In addition, Hogan points out that in such a scenario, both educational quality and educational equity are compromised and mercenary motives supersede educational goals. This creates the potential for harm. Even some advocates of the reforms that have led to external control of education have acknowledged that they have “done more harm than good” (Chris Woodhead, as cited in Hogan, 2011). Internationally, therefore, a more “urbane international discourse on education” (Hogan, 2011, p. 29) has recently emerged that emphasizes the importance of education as a practice in its own right, entitled to professional autonomy. According to Hogan, if education, as a profession achieves this status, its practitioners can make greater contributions “not only to humanity's flourishing, but also to humanity's own survival” (p. 29).

The Need for a Code of Ethics for English Language Teaching

While a broad discussion of the content of a code of educational ethics is beyond the scope of this paper, the necessity to adopt an ethical approach to cross cultural educational situations, particularly English language teaching (ELT), will be addressed. Shevalier and McKenzie (2012) call for culturally responsive teaching as a matter of ethics and social justice. They advocate Noddings “caring for” approach to ethical teaching, which responds to and affirms students as well as helping them achieve their fullest potential as human beings. One way to achieve this, they point out, is to ensure students' cultural backgrounds are incorporated into content and instructional approaches. While Shevalier and McKenzie's (2012) research pertains to urban education, the same principles may be applied to education in general, and particularly to ELT. If the goal of educational practice is to validate students and help them achieve their potential, it follows that failure to consider their culture in educational settings may both enable and allow harm. Failure to consider culture could also be characterized as a violation of the utilitarian approach, the rights approach, and the virtue approach as described by Velasquez et al. (2009).

Characterized by Pennycook (2008) as a “massive global enterprise” (p. 34), ELT, a sub-field of general education and an export of Western educational systems, is reaching increasing numbers of students worldwide, and has enormous potential to impact lives, both positively and negatively, around the world. Therefore, there is great potential for enabling and allowing harm to present and future generations. One concern is that the increasing number of cross-cultural learning situations has outpaced the design of instructional approaches that accommodates students from different cultural environments (Tickner & Hunt, 2012). Because deeply held cultural values impact approaches to learning, many view the consideration of culture as an ethical concern (Tickner & Hunt, 2012; Parrish & Linder-VanBerschoot, 2010). Additionally, in cross-cultural learning situations such as ELT, teachers have an ethical duty to respect, value, and preserve local cultures (Parrish & Linder-VanBerschoot, 2010). Teachers in cross-cultural situations such as ELT need to be acutely aware of how their own cultures and world views are transferred to students and need to help students adapt to other cultures while maintaining their connection with their home cultures (Parrish & Linder-VanBerschoot, 2010). Another concern is that despite the fact that, globally, the majority of English speakers are non-native, the “English export industry” does not take into account other languages, functioning instead as a monolingual entity, at the expense of cultural diversity (Pennycook, 2008). Linguistic diversity is therefore at risk and there is the potential for marginalization of indigenous languages. This is problematic as speakers of other languages may receive the message that “the language through which they have expressed themselves up to this point in their lives is deficient, and must be replaced by a superior model” (Cummins, 2003). ELT, according to Pennycook (2008), should also promote cultural diversity by enabling people all around the world to participate in a “global traffic of meaning” (p. 34), with multiple exchanges of meanings through translation. In short, ELT should expand its focus on *glossodiversity* (the diversity of languages) to include *semiodiversity* (the diversity of meanings) in order to better serve the global community (Pennycook, 2008).

Phillipson (2012) also expresses concern about ELT on a global scale, characterizing it as linguistic imperialism that advances Anglo-American dominance worldwide. This linguistic imperialism, he claims, involves *linguicism*, or ascribing preference to one language over others. It also involves the allocation of resources to English over other languages, the glorification of English ideologies, lack of equality between those who speak English and those who don't, and the fact that achieving proficiency in English is *subtractive* rather than *additive* in that its spread is often at the expense of indigenous languages. Phillipson (2012) attributes the meteoric rise of English as a global language to the emergence of American economic power since the mid-19th century and global power structures such as the World Bank, IMF, WTO, and the United Nations. He cites post-apartheid South Africa as an example of the harm created by English-only or English-mainly language policies. These include depriving many people access to vital information, thereby limiting participation in the democratic political process; negatively impacting the confidence of L2 speakers; impeding creativity and spontaneity among those who lack confidence in English; and creating economic and workplace obstacles for many on the basis of language proficiency. Phillipson (2012) summarizes his concerns as follows:

English serves the interests of the powerful globally and locally and to maintain an exploitative world order that disenfranchises speakers of other languages. A world polarized between a minority of English-using haves (whether as a first or second language) and a majority of have-nots is not likely to provide healthy conditions for people who speak languages other than English to flourish. (p. 454)

All of these concerns have the potential to create harm and violate Velasquez et al.'s (2009) five ethical standards described above: the utilitarian approach, the rights approach, the fairness or justice approach, the common good approach, and the virtue approach.

Efforts to Develop a Code of Ethics for ELT

Despite the obvious need for an ELT code of ethics, Dickey (2006) points out that none of the three main

international associations (TESOL Inc., IATEFL, and AsiaTEFL) have developed ethical guidelines for teachers. This may be due partly to the fact that many of their members teach in state schools and are thus subject to governmental regulations. However, as stated above, lack of autonomy to engage in self-regulation may compromise educational quality and equity as political and economic priorities take precedence (Hogan, 2011). Dickey (2006) claims that the lack of teaching organizations that police educational practice is problematic and has stressed the need for an ethical code for EFL teachers in Asia. He notes that, in 2005, the TESOL-Law Draft Code of Ethics was developed, which delineates foreign language teachers' responsibilities to students, to colleagues and the profession, to parents and the community, and legal obligations. However, according to Dickey (2006), while there are specific ethical guidelines included, there is a lack of general aims to provide direction for these guidelines. This point was also made by Kramersch (1998) who claimed that "close scrutiny can be myopic and meaningless unless it is related to the larger view" (p. vii). Dickey (2006) also recommends the inclusion of guidelines for fairness in assessment, the role of teacher as role model, the development of teaching materials, and employer responsibilities. However, although he claims that there are no other glaring deficiencies in this draft code, this could be disputed, as there is no mention of the crucial topic of culture. But Dickey (2006) also points out that the process of developing and discussing a code of ethics is an important step in encouraging ethical behavior and reflection on key issues.

Recommendations

This paper argues for the development of a code of ethics for ELT that prevents harm by prioritizing culture and linguistic rights. Phillipson (2012) points out that ELT can choose to either enhance or destroy cultural and linguistic diversity and should be *additive* in that it contributes to people's linguistic repertoire, rather than *subtractive* by displacing indigenous languages. Similarly, McAnany (2009) claims that ELT should be a celebration of cultural diversity and recommends a three-fold approach to achieve this. First, her "Do no harm" principle cautions against creating instructional materials that may be culturally inappropriate or offensive, and interfere with successful learning. Second, her principle, "know your learner," advises teachers to become sufficiently familiar with students' cultural background to incorporate this culture into instruction. Finally, "incorporating global concepts" means broadening students' perspectives and facilitating appreciation of cultural diversity.

Perhaps one of the best recommendations for the development of a code of ethics for ELT is to incorporate the principles and ideals of Linguapax. A joint initiative of UNESCO and the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), Linguapax frames language education within the broader goal of education for peace (Marti, 1996). Created in 1987 at an international UNESCO conference of language experts, Linguapax has two main objectives: "the protection of linguistic diversity and multilingualism, and the promotion of peace, tolerance, and international understanding through foreign language education" (Marti, 1996, para. 3). Linguistic diversity is perceived by Linguapax as one of the world's greatest assets, comparable to biological diversity, and all languages are deemed to be equal in value and dignity (Marti, 1996). Because each language contains a cultural group's unique values, symbols, and perceptions of reality (Marti, 1996), it follows that the loss of any language is a loss to humankind in general, and therefore creates harm. Marti goes on to highlight the role played by language education in addressing global problems such as poverty and human rights violations. These problems require the ability to negotiate, to mediate, and to make better use of diplomacy, relying on peace rather than war. Language instruction should thus proceed with the goals of tolerance, international understanding, and global solidarity, and avoid bias and stereotyping (Marti, 1996). Marti cites the 1987 Linguapax Kiev Declaration, which recommends that foreign language teachers follow four guidelines. First, they should be aware of their role in fostering international understanding. Second, they should strive to enhance "respect, peaceful co-existence, and cooperation among nations" ("Linguapax Guidelines," para. 2). Third, they should develop extra-curricular activities to foster international contact and cooperation. Finally, their instructional approaches should incorporate students' interests and needs. It could be argued, therefore,

that these principles could provide both the general direction Dickey (2006) claims is lacking in the TESOL-Law's Draft Code of Ethics, as well as a mechanism for preventing harm. In conclusion, Labaree (2011) describes education as a “field of dreams” (p. 437) where practitioners “dream of schools that can improve the lives of students, solve social problems, and enrich the quality of life” (p. 437). This is no less true of ELT than it is for general education, where we should strive to avoid harm, enrich the lives of students globally, solve global problems, and improve quality of life.

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Teacher Research in EFL: Beliefs and Practices

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Abstract: *This survey based study explored teachers' beliefs and practices related to conducting research at an EFL university foundations program in the UAE. More specifically, it explored motivations and obstacles for teachers conducting research, the role of qualification and experience in determining teachers' potential for conducting research and institutional support that was provided to facilitate teacher research. Findings from the study indicate that just under half of the total respondents had conducted some form of research in the last two years. On the other hand, institutional incentives such as getting a raise or getting promoted provided the least motivation for teacher research. By far, the most commonly identified obstacle to teacher research was time constraints, which they suggested could be overcome with support from the administrative bodies. This was followed by teachers noting that research was not a job requirement and most teachers were not undertaking research either. This highlighted the need for the institution to develop a more unified institution-wide approach to research. The role of the educational institution can be through the provision of more opportunities for research dissemination and rewarding teachers for conducting research.*

Introduction

Various scholars have highlighted the role of research in informing practice. Radnor (2002), for instance explored the crucial role of research in developing practitioners' knowledge and practices, and emphasized its important position of educational research to the teaching profession.

'The process of clarification [through research] illuminates the everyday theories people have that inform their conduct and their experiences, and hence the value of the research enterprise to help with this process through broadening the practitioner's knowledge base and to aid a deeper understanding of both action and context. It should inform practitioners' activities as knowledge workers and help them to help others to learn in a highly structured and complex education system' (Radnor: 2002: 4).

Despite these assertions however, the role of educational research however has often been undervalued by teachers, who do not often draw reference to published educational research, and are even less likely to participate in order undertake research. Too many teachers, particularly those who are relatively new to the profession there is an underlying assumption that a considerable gap exists between educational research and educational practice. Freeman (1998), for instance, highlighted his 'intuitive recognition of the gulf, which is variously described as 'theory versus practice' and 'research versus application,' [which] certainly exists in the experience of many teachers' (p.117). Freeman (1998) continues by asserting that research and knowledge of curriculum, 'do not appear to translate into classrooms in the seamless, logical fashion in which we might hope or expect they would' (p.117).

This gap between 'theory and practice' has often been attributed to various factors that have inhibited teachers' abilities to read and/or undertake research. Anecdotal evidence based on the researcher's informal discussions with teachers about the importance of conducting research indicate that although educators often believe it is an important part of professional development, they were confronted by various obstacles. These include little tangible incentives and no dissemination processes available, which all discourage them from conducting research.

Borg (2003), who explored the role of research in the teachers' professional experience identified various factors which hindered teachers' ability to incorporate research into their professional experiences. These factors included teachers' inaccessibility of research, where 'teachers can thus either not get hold of it, or when

they do, have lack to struggle with conceptually-dense and linguistically-complex material obviously not written for them in mind' (Borg: 2003: 41). Other inhibitors which were identified by Borg (2003) included lack of local relevance, narrative, ownership, credibility, implied inadequacy and lack of recognition and lack of technical knowledge (41-45). Teacher research is crucial in order for teachers to move beyond entrenched beliefs about teaching to beliefs that are informed by educational research and theory.

In this paper, the researcher aims to systematically explore teachers' beliefs about the role of conducting research in teachers' professional development and will also draw light on whether there exist discrepancies between teachers' beliefs about the importance of conducting research and actual teachers' research practices. The study, conducted in an EFL program at a UAE tertiary education institution, will also explore to what extent the workplace conditions, policies and attitudes are conducive to research oriented staff development.

Contextual background and current practice

Institutions' emphasis on the importance of their teachers conducting research varies, and their resultant policies toward teacher research often reflect these perceptions. The site for the current research is an EFL foundations program at a tertiary institution in the UAE. In this EFL foundation program, teachers are supported with conducting research funding teachers to attend and present at regional and international conferences, and providing teachers with opportunities to 'publish' and disseminate findings at the university based journal and a professional development day for the same department. Teachers are also given the opportunity to submit an 'alternative assessment', which is an action research project instead of being formally observed each semester.

Although these policies have been designed to encourage teachers to conduct research, for most members of staff, these measures do not seem to be as effective in encouraging more research participation as expected. Despite teachers' beliefs that research plays an important role in their professional development, this does not often seem to translate into practice. This assessment by the researcher was initially made purely from his observations and informal discussions with staff. A response to this observation was made by the professional development coordinator who noted that although the program provided support for teachers to conduct research, time constraints and little chance of teacher research effecting change in the teaching environment were some perceived inhibitions.

These obstacles meant that the workplace did not have a research culture. The PD coordinator noted that although the program encouraged teachers to conduct research, the main priority is teaching, as the program is not part of faculty which places greater emphasis on research as opposed to teaching. Furthermore, she noted that attitudinal factors also played a role in determining which teachers were more likely to conduct research. She states:

'Our program has two types of teachers: people who have been in EFL too long and feel jaded and are not really much out there and are not here to do research just teach. The other type continues to be motivated intrinsically and enjoy research and they like to publish and present and some are early on in their career and want career advancement.'

Furthermore, it seems that the program does not systematically keep track of the kinds of research studies that are being conducted by staff. The professional development coordinator stated that in some cases, staff members were conducting and publishing research which the institution was not even aware of. For instance, six months ago, teachers were asked to respond via email to a request to provide information about journal articles that they had published, to which 3 teachers only gave feedback.

This apparent lack of engagement in research by educators and less systematic collection of data about the amount of research conducted by the program is concerning. According to Crandall, 'Self-observation and reflection on practice can help teachers move from philosophy of teaching and learning developed during their

16 or so years as a learner to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching processes" (p.36-17). The steps of systematic reflection and observation are significant steps in the research process.

A lack of engagement in research inevitably means that there is less opportunity for educators to promote professional development and change in their teaching beliefs and practices, which often results in teachers' over-reliance on entrenched teacher beliefs and knowledge acquired from their initial teacher training or brief PD in-services.

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

The body of research examining teacher education is quite extensive and more specific studies exploring the place of teacher research in teacher development. Day (1999 in Evans 2002) defines professional development, which Evans states could also be used to define teacher development as:

It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (p.128).

This definition of professional development emphasizes the valuable role of research in the course of teachers' careers. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) define teacher research as 'all forms of practitioner enquiry that involve systematic, intentional, and self-critical inquiry about one's work' (p. 22 cited in Borg 2006, p.22). Crandall (2000) highlights the place of teacher reflection, defined as 'conscious recollection and evaluation of experience', (p.39) teacher narratives and case studies as fundamental in informing the body of educational research. Yates and Muchisky (2003) argue that although academic research has been invaluable to the field of TESOL; they argue that there needs to be more research undertaken to explore teachers' awareness of their teaching practices (p. 136). The individuals most equipped to conduct systematic reflection of teaching practices are teachers themselves. Other studies such as Borg's (1998) study demonstrates how teachers can do this, by for instance using their own classroom based data to reflect upon their teaching practices, and such studies highlight how such research activities can narrow the gap between research and teacher development.

A more resonant call for highlighting the role of research has been made recently with the shift in our understanding of the role of teachers by educational research. This shift has been characterized by Crandall (2000) as a change in our understanding of teaching, from a traditional view of teaching characterized by the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge to a constructivist perspective that views teachers as knowledgeable about teaching (p. 35). This shift in our understanding of the role of teachers has further challenged the assumption that teacher research and professional development be limited to initial teacher training, but should in contrast be a strong component throughout teachers' careers as with other professional fields (Crandall 2000, p. 35). Crandall (2000):

There is growing concern that teaching be viewed as a profession (similar to medicine or law) with respect for the role of teachers in developing theory and directing their own professional development through collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained in-service programs, rather than the typical short-term training program (p.36).

This is in direct contrast to the lack of emphasis placed on professional development by governments, educational institutions, administrative bodies, and even teachers themselves. For instance, Hemsley-Brown and Sharp (2003) state the importance of institutions developing a institutional culture of valuing research, which can materialise through teacher funding, education and release time for research. Institutions that do not provide this support will consequently make it more difficult for their teaching staff to conduct research. This

may often mean that some teachers will rely on their initial training and therefore their professional development will be of minimal importance throughout their teaching careers. Freeman challenges this tendency:

The notion that pre service teacher education can fully equip a teacher for a career in the classroom is erroneous. This approach... assumes that all of what teachers need to know and be able to do can be addressed at the start of their careers (p.11).

However, despite the prevalence of research studies highlighting the importance of research in teachers' careers, there is substantially less focus on teachers' beliefs about the role of research in their careers, the prevalence of teacher research and the factors which encourage and/ or inhibit teacher research. Kennedy's (1997) study demonstrates that teachers often consider research to lack authority, is often irrelevant and does not address teachers' concerns with research findings often being too difficult for teachers to understand.

Mills (2003) makes a strong case for teacher research by highlighting that teacher research, particularly action research addresses teachers' dissatisfaction with academic based research as the findings are relevant, easily accessible to teachers and are persuasive and authoritative (p.12-13). Although this would prove true for some educators, this attitude towards research may be less prevalent among those who have earned post-graduate qualifications and are aware of the stringent requirements that regulate studies published in refereed journals. The present study focuses on an institution that employs post-graduates; hence Mill's finding may be less relevant in this context.

The most relevant studies to the present research are those conducted by Borg (2003, 2006) which explores the conditions and inhibiting factors to teacher research. Some inhibiting factors identified include teachers' lack of accessibility to research, perceived irrelevance of research to their immediate context and lack of credibility of academic research that is seen as out of touch with classroom reality. Others include a lack of teacher recognition for conducting research, little technical knowledge and work pressure. Borg (2003) also adds that teachers often associate the need for conducting or referring to research as an admission of inadequacy and some who possess a poor self image do not believe their classroom to be research-worthy.

In his later study, Borg (2006) also identifies various conditions which facilitate teacher research including the need for teachers to develop an awareness of what constitutes research that goes beyond the traditional empirical notion. He states that teachers must also have the motivation to conduct research which arises from believing in its benefits. Borg (2006) also maintains that teachers must have the knowledge and skills to conduct research, must be given mentoring support, time and the power to make a choice about what research inquiry is relevant to them.

Teachers must furthermore be given recognition for conducting research, and be given tangible opportunities for disseminating findings. Finally, Borg discusses the significance of developing a research culture by highlighting the need for institutions to have higher expectations of teachers to engage in research, and to develop a professional community that 'values', 'engages in' and 'conducts' research (p.23).

However, these studies do not explore the gap between teacher beliefs about research and their actual research practices. Borg's work alludes to the gap between teacher beliefs and actual practice. For instance, in 2006 he concludes: 'Most teachers I talk to about research agree it is a good thing to do. A much smaller proportion though implement practices that mirror this view' (p.27). He continues by further underscoring the institutions' responsibilities to encourage teachers to conduct research. However, this does not account for teachers who are employed in institutions that tangibly encourage and reward research practice.

Borg's studies generally do not address how the complexity of different educational contexts/ levels would affect the teachers' attitudes towards conducting research. For instance, tertiary institutions would obviously

hold different attitudes towards research from primary of secondary educational experiences. The present study will go further in exploring possible contradictions between teachers' beliefs and actual practices concerning conducting research, within a specific institutional climate that appears to encourage, value and reward teacher research.

This paper more specifically will explore the following research questions:

- i. What are the reasons for teachers' involvement or lack of involvement in research?
- ii. To what extent do factors such as qualification and experience relate to research engagement?
- iii. To what extent are teachers encouraged/ supported by management in their research endeavours?

Methodology

This study is primarily based on the data gathered from a survey that was administered to EFL teachers working in an EFL foundations program at a tertiary institution in the UAE. The survey questions were categorized into four main sections, namely; a) background information about the teacher; b) conducting research; c) general factors that affect teacher research participation; and d) Institutional factors that affect teacher research participation.

The first section gathered general data about teachers' educational qualifications and teaching experience. The second section entitled conducting research focused on asking teachers to reflect on the perceived importance of conducting research for their professional development, their own research practices, their ability to access research materials and resources, their research skills and areas of research interest. Next, the third section examined the factors which contributed to teachers' decisions to conduct research and the final section asked respondents to reflect on how their institutions encouraged/ or discouraged staff to conduct research.

Each of these sections contained a series of questions that categorized teachers' responses through the five point Likhert system, and through open ended questions the sources of data collection. The questions that were delegated to the 5 point Likhert scale were categorized by the number 1 being strongly agree, and progressed to strongly disagree for number 5. Although, the Likhert scale limited the generalisability of the results, due to the absence of an initial hypothesis, it was appropriate for the exploratory nature of the study. The essentially quantitative survey allowed the researcher to gather data from a large representative sample of teachers which would more accurately reflect prevalent attitudes of teachers working at this particular tertiary institution.

The incorporation of open ended questions invited honest personal comments from the respondents, and their use was aimed at capturing authenticity, richness, depth of response, honesty which is the primary asset of qualitative data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison p. 255). The open ended questions provided more depth and vividness to the responses in an essentially quantitative study.

The survey underwent a series of reviews and pilots before it was distributed en masse to the staff working in the EFL foundations program. The first few drafts were edited by colleagues who had experience with developing quantitative research instruments. After the initial draft stages, it was piloted with a smaller sample of three teacher respondents, and after the subsequent editing was completed, it was distributed to teachers.

The two academic coordinators from the women and men's campuses were involved with the distribution and collection of the surveys. After the surveys were distributed, the researcher also sent out emails to remind staff about the survey and thanked staff members for their support. After a week, teachers began returning completed surveys, and a total of 37 were returned within a fortnight. Subsequently, the researcher had to verbally remind teachers to return surveys, and a total of 48 completed surveys were finally returned.

Ethical Considerations

Permission was sought to conduct research from the head of the English program and an interview was sought from the PD coordinator. Participants were provided with information about the purpose of the study and ethical procedures to protect participants were also provided on the consent letter, such as guaranteeing participants' anonymity.

Analysis and Findings

A total of 48 completed surveys were returned to the researcher out of a total of 112 surveys distributed. Findings (see appendix 1) from section one of the survey indicated that the mean number of years worked at the institution was 4.06, which indicated that most teachers had been at the institution for between 5 to 10 years. Of these 48 respondents, 46 had Masters qualifications and two remaining teachers had earned PhD qualifications. Furthermore, 39% of respondents indicated that they were currently conducting further study or research.

Attitudes towards Teacher Research

Section two, which examined teachers' attitudes towards conducting research indicated that teachers did not perceive research to be a very significant component of their professional development. The first statement posed, (question 6), 'research is an important part of your professional development' required teachers to indicate their level of agreement based on the five-point likert system ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For this, the mean response was 2.46, which ranged between agree and neutral (see Figure 1 below). Despite this, teachers indicated that research benefited their institution and colleagues with the mean response at 1.94 or agree (see figure 2). These two groups of responses indicate that although teachers believe that research is beneficial they were not expected to conduct research for employment purposes or for professional development.

5. *Conducting research is an important part of your professional development.*

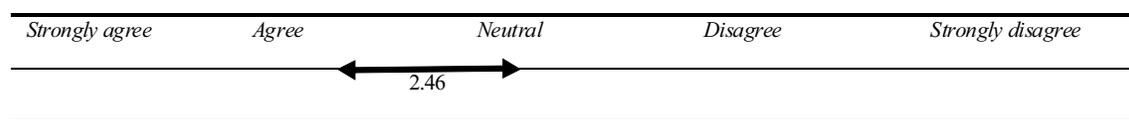


Figure 1.

6. *Does research benefit your institution and colleagues?*

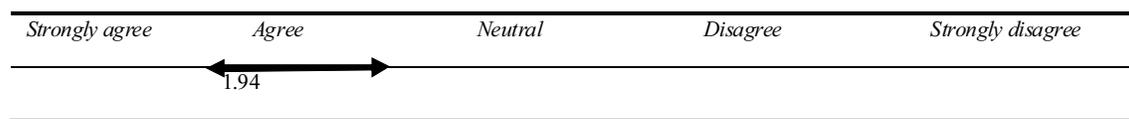


Figure 2

Respondents were then asked (question 7) if they conducted research, to which 46% of teachers responded yes, even though an almost identical question was asked in part 1 to which only 39% was found. This discrepancy in the responses may have resulted from teachers re-considering their own professional development while completing the survey, and re-assessing what would be counted as research, even if small scale. It may also be attributed to some teachers perhaps interpreting the initial question to be related to conducting research as part of formal graduate studies.

Teachers were then asked to identify when they last conducted a research project. Again, this question asked teachers to rate their response on a five point Likert system. The responses, as the figure below demonstrates indicated that the mean was 2.68 which lay between *the past year* or *two years*. This mean indicated that many teachers were involved in research even after their post-graduate qualifications. This experience with research meant that teachers at this institution did not experience barriers in conducting research as a result of lack of research knowledge and experience.

8. *If yes, when did you last conduct a research project?*

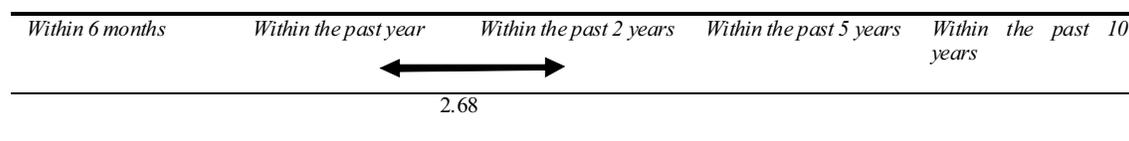


Figure 3

This was similarly demonstrated when 89% of respondents claimed that they possessed the research skills to conduct research, with teachers' confidence in their research skills attributed to their post-graduate studies. Teachers identified themselves to have between expert and adequate levels of research knowledge (mean: 1.81) acquired through studies at the masters level. Other means as indicated by teachers, through which their research skills were acquired included professional development workshops, independent research experience, reading journals, attending conferences, observing peers delivering workshops and presentations.

Teachers were then asked to indicate how often they read published articles (see figure 4), to which the response mean was between regularly and sometimes (2.5). Then when teachers were asked if they had access to research materials and resources, 92% of teachers responded yes, again illustrating that their high levels of confidence in engaging with research.

9. *How often do you read published articles?*

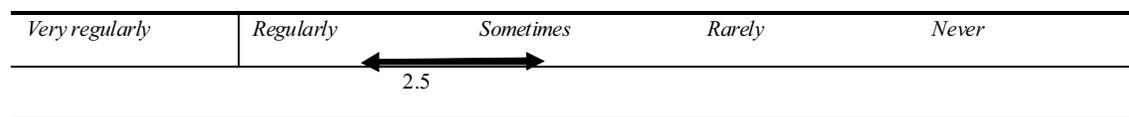


Figure 4

Motivations and Obstacles to Teacher Research

Teachers were asked to identify motivating factors for conducting research by ticking relevant factors from list, and were also provided with space to include their own. The results, illustrated in figure 5 indicate that teachers were more often motivated by intrinsic factors to conduct research. In particular, teachers mainly identified the main motivations for conducting research to be self managed professional development; for presenting findings to others; for other teachers to benefit from findings; and to solve practical problems in their own teaching. Financial reasons were not identified by teachers as the main motivations for conducting research with conference funding; promotion opportunities; increased pay; and employer expectations chosen the least.

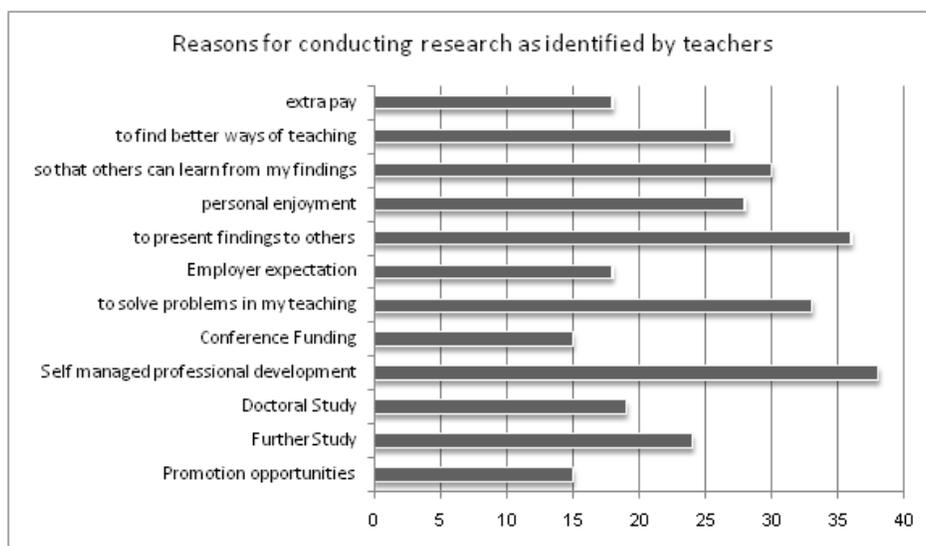


Figure 5.

Teachers were also asked to nominate various factors that they identified to be obstacles for conducting research. The responses to this question (see figure 6) indicated that the major obstacles were time constraints and a workplace culture that did not encourage research; which was demonstrated in teachers indicating that research was not an employment expectation and most colleagues did not conduct research. Additional comments by teachers raised common concerns such as a need for more tangible management support to overcome time constraints, and more emphasis from management to conduct research.

Teachers commented for instance that '[Management] should encourage research and give release time or no committee work for graduate work', and 'release time, funding, promotions, speakers of merit'. Other teachers' comments reflected the prevalent attitude that while research was beneficial, academic research was more sufficient, relegating teacher research as unnecessary: 'In English teaching, there is too much research in my opinion. What is needed is consolidation and application of existing knowledge.' Other teachers' comments further reinforced the impression that the program lacked a research culture, citing research as not part of their roles: "Job description is focused primarily on teaching".

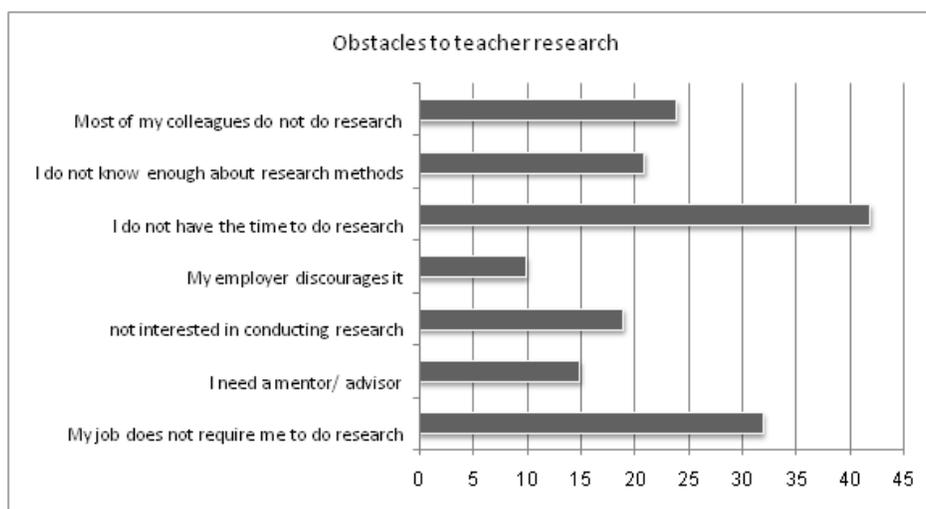


Figure 6.

The motivating factors and obstacles to research identified by teachers were further consolidated in the final section of the survey where they were asked to identify important conditions for conducting research (see figure 7). Teachers identified the most important conditions were time, choice (choosing to conduct research and being allowed to choice areas of inquiry) and the potential for disseminating the findings. Mentoring and extra pay were the least important conditions.

<i>Factors that important for teacher research</i>	Mean	<i>Strongly agree</i> 1	<i>Agree</i> 2	<i>Neutral</i> 3	<i>Disagree</i> 4	<i>Strongly Disagree</i> 5
Time	1.3	←→				
Awareness	1.5	←→				
Extra Pay	2.4	←→				
Knowledge and skills	1.6	←→				
Choice	1.3	←→				
Mentoring	2.4	←→				
Recognition	2.1	←→				
Expectations	1.9	←→				
Motivation	2.1	←→				
Dissemination potential	1.2	←→				

Figure 7.

Institutional factors affecting Research

When teachers were asked if their institution valued and encouraged research, a mean of 1.8 was achieved, which indicated that most teachers strongly agreed or agreed that they had institutional support (see figure 8). Teachers did not generally believe that there was a need for a mentor, which can be traced back to confidence in their research skills and knowledge. Finally, teachers were asked to identify some means of support from management which would facilitate research. Teachers' responses included provision of release time, facilities, PD sessions, access to in-house research, opportunities for promotion and facilitating group research projects. One teacher suggested that management could 'propose institutional research topics and award grants to successful applicants'.

These responses indicated that although the institution did support staff who conducted research, efforts needed to reflect a less fragmented, more collaborative institutional approach to research. In particular, in house research needed to be more readily disseminated and open to discussion amongst staff, and there needed to be more concerted efforts to identify the research needs of the program.

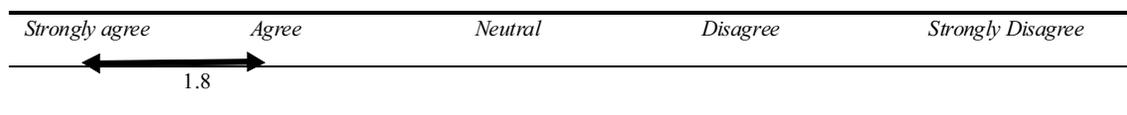


Figure 8.

Discussion

The survey's findings indicated that there was more research activity being conducted among staff than what had been initially hypothesized. Findings indicated that between 39% and 46% of staff conducted research. These relatively high figures were related to teachers' post-graduate qualifications which equipped them with confidence in their research skills and knowledge. Teachers at this particular institution did not identify lack of research skills and knowledge as a barrier to conducting research as having post-graduate qualifications were pre-requisites for employment as instructors. This confidence in reading and conducting research explains the

higher prevalence of research activity at this level of teaching in comparison to teachers who do not have post-graduate qualifications at the secondary and primary levels.

This trend has also been documented in other studies which indicate that teachers who have post-graduate qualifications were more likely to conduct research. This finding did not correlate with the researcher's initial hypothesis that not enough research was being conducted. However, the survey's findings highlighted the fact that although much research activity occurred in the institution, fellow colleagues were not benefiting from this work because of the limited potential and incentives for teachers to disseminate their research findings. Although there was some institutional support for teachers who conducted research, for most teachers motivations for conducting research were intrinsic, and for professional development purposes such as identifying and sharing solutions for teaching challenges.

Teachers indicated that although management provided support mechanisms for research, such as conference funding, and allowing submissions of research papers instead of formal observation, there was still a need for more practical support. Teachers identified various ways that they could be supported with their research activities; one of the most fundamental ways of which was provision of release time.

Time constraints were the one of the most widely acknowledged obstacles to conducting research with teachers noting that teaching and committee were demanding and left little time for research. Teachers suggested that management should provide release time, or to take research activity as part of their committee work. This support is crucial if more teachers are to become more active in research. This reflects findings in other studies such as Cochran- Smith and Lytle (1993 cited in Freeman 1998) who also identified time constraints as the most pressing obstacle:

Time is one of the most critical factors in the formation and maintenance of learning communities for teacher research. Unlike other professions which are organized to support research activities, teaching is a profession in which it is almost impossible to find time to reflect, reread, or share with colleagues (p. 91 cited in Freeman 1998).

One of the most salient findings in the study was teachers' concerns about the need for developing a more unified institution-wide approach to research. Teacher responses indicated that in-house research was not being disseminated to the other staff members, despite the fact that such studies are invaluable as they are contextually appropriate and may address challenges with which other colleagues are grappling. Moreover, studies have demonstrated that teachers regard professional journals and college coursework as generally less reliable than studies conducted by fellow colleagues, or disseminated during professional development workshops (Landrum *et al.*, 2002, p. 46).

The role of the educational institution in endorsing such a research culture is emphasized by Borg (2004):

While research education can support teachers' efforts to engage with research in some contexts it may not be sufficient to motivate change at a practical level. Even where teachers have appropriate attitudes, knowledge, and skills, it will be very difficult for them to make research a meaningful part of their professional lives if the educational and institutional systems they work in are not supportive (p. 11).

Consequently, the institution should maximise opportunities for dissemination of findings electronically, and through providing teachers with more incentives to present findings during PD workshops to aid in the dissemination process. Providing teachers with information about what kinds of studies have been conducted at the institution will also save significant amount of time and will inform similar studies. This institution wide approach would also provide teachers with more guidance about the relevant studies for the program and teachers could then be invited to conduct studies based on program needs.

Furthermore, a more systematic approach to research in the institution will help to foster a research culture in the

workplace. For instance, although teachers indicated that they believed research to be important and beneficial, they did not really see it as necessary in being effective at their jobs, which was solely teaching EFL. This attitude to conducting research was reflected in the following comment made by one teacher, 'Research is not part of our job description.' This attitude however, was a reflection of a program-wide culture that did not sufficiently recognize and reward research activity.

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Appendix

Dear Teachers,

This survey will be used as part of a research paper EFL Teachers' Engagement in Research. All results and information will remain anonymous and are being gathered on a voluntary participation. Please complete and hand in the survey to Steve Boylan at the Men's Campus or to Iman Batal at the Women's Campus.

Thank you Kindly for your support

Mouhamad Mouhanna

Please circle the most appropriate responses?

Background Information

1. What is your highest qualification?

Doctorate degree

Masters Degree

Bachelors Degree

2. What is your employment position?

Instructor

Administrator

3. How many years of teaching/work experience do you have in UGRU?

20-30 years

15-20years

10-15 years

5-10 years

<5 years

4. Are you currently conducting any further study or research?

Yes

No

Conducting research

5. Research is an important part of your Professional Development?

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neutral

Disagree

Strongly Disagree

6. Research benefits your institution and colleagues?

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neutral

Disagree

Strongly Disagree

7. Do you conduct research at your work institution?

Yes

No

8. If yes, when did you last conduct a research project?

Within the past 6months

Within the past 1 year

Within the past 2 years

Within the past 5 years

Within the past 10 years

If no please explain

18. Should research be done by outside experts?

Strongly Agree Agree neutral disagree strongly disagree

19. Which factors do you think are important to teacher research?

Time	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Awareness	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Extra Pay	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Knowledge and skills	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Choice	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Mentoring	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Recognition	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Expectations	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Motivation	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Dissemination potential	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Institutional factors for research?

20. My institution values and encourages research?

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

21. If a professional and experienced mentor was provided would you more likely conduct research?

Strongly Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly Disagree

22. What kind of support can be provided by management?

Cognitive Monitoring in Adult Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract: *This study examined the relationships between 360 respondents' metacognitive regulation- learning English through natural exposure- and the success of learning English vocabulary. Two sub-strategies of metacognitive regulation namely selective attention such as making notes of words which seem important, and self-initiation such as reading other English reading materials besides textbooks to expand one's vocabulary knowledge, were first analyzed using the Vocabulary Learning Questionnaire. Simultaneously, the respondents' vocabulary knowledge- passive, controlled active, and free active vocabulary- was assessed using the Vocabulary Levels Test. Though metacognitive regulation was not that preferred by the respondents, it was positively and significantly correlated with the passive and controlled active vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, a negative insignificant correlation existed between metacognitive regulation and free active vocabulary knowledge.*

Keywords: Metacognitive regulation, Selective attention, Passive vocabulary knowledge, Controlled active vocabulary knowledge.

Introduction

Vocabulary is knowledge of words and word meanings. Word knowledge comes in two (2) forms- receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary includes words that we recognize when we hear or see them. Productive vocabulary includes words that we use when we speak or write. Richard and Renandya (2002) states that vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well second language (L2) learners speak, listen, read, and write. It has been claimed that successful L2 learners have their own “special ways of learning English vocabulary”. In 1980s and early 90s, research mainly focused on categorizing the strategies found in the studies of the previous decade. As a result, several taxonomies were proposed to classify them including classification of language learning strategies in general and language sub-skill strategies in particular. Oxford (1996) has proposed a comprehensive model in which six (6) categories, classified into two groups of direct and indirect exist. The direct strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation while indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective, and social. As Oxford (1996) mentions, the indirect strategies are found less often in L2 research. This is perhaps because learners are not familiar with paying attention to their own feelings and social relationships as part of the L2 learning process. The importance of metacognitive strategies has been emphasized by O'Malley et al. (1985, p. 561) by stating “students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishment, and future directions”.

Literature Review

What is metacognition?

Baird (1990, p. 184) describes metacognition as “knowledge, awareness, and control of one's own learning”. Metacognitive development can therefore be defined as a development in one's metacognitive abilities such as the move to greater knowledge, awareness, and control of one's learning.

Scholars do not agree on the exact definition of metacognition. On one hand, some researchers like Flavell (1979), O'Neil and Abedi (1996), and Kuhn (2000) claim that metacognition has two (2) components namely the students' self-awareness of a knowledge based in which information is stored about how, when, and where to use various cognitive strategies and secondly, their self-awareness of and access to strategies that direct learning such as monitoring difficulty level and a feeling of knowing. This awareness is developmental and lies on a continuum.

On the other hand, for Pintrich, Wolters, and Baxter (2000), there are three (3) main components of metacognition namely metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive monitoring, and self-regulation and control. The first, metacognitive knowledge, consists of cognitive learning strategies which the learner uses to regulate the process of knowledge acquisition. These include, for example, elaboration strategies such as the building of links to prior knowledge or memory strategies such as note taking. The second, metacognitive monitoring, consists of metacognitive control strategies. Central here are activities like the planning and monitoring of learning activities, the evaluation of learning outcomes, and the adaptation to varying task demands and unexpected difficulties.

Metacognition and vocabulary learning

Vocabulary learning is integral in the mastery of L2. Learners are required to have a wide array of target words to be considered as proficient language users. de Groot (2006) however argues that how this can be achieved is a still unclear due to the huge challenges faced by L2 learners. It can no longer be assumed that learners will accidentally 'pick up' the necessary vocabulary as they are still in the process of language acquisition. Metacognitive strategies have a central role to play in the improvement of learning. According to Flavell (1979), when metacognition is being used repeatedly, it becomes an automatic process, thus enabling learners to be more knowledgeable in the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluating.

Kuhn and Dean (2004) assert that metacognition results in the learners reflecting and evaluating. In other words, they have to think about their thinking. They further stress that in addition to the language issues that teachers are addressing in the classroom, L2 learners should also be geared towards being aware of the thinking process as this may lead to the development of stronger thinking skills. This process will help to prepare them in making conscious decision about what they can do to improve learning. Moreover, according to O'Malley et al. (1985), metacognition enables learners to retrieve and deploy a particular strategy that has been thought in a particular context such as that it could be applicable to other contexts too.

The positive effects of metacognition have not only been evident in reading (Carrell, Pharis, & Lierto, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1985), listening (Schuartz, 1992; Jianding, 2004), and writing (Yanan, 2010), but also in numerous studies on vocabulary learning. One such study on 53 Iranian EFL students by Rasekh and Ranjbar (2003) has shown a significant positive effect in improving vocabulary learning. This is further supported by Zhoa (2009) in his study on 134 Chinese freshmen.

Literature has shown that there is a strong relationship between metacognitive awareness and the success in vocabulary acquisition. The focus of the present study, therefore, is to verify the extent to which the 360 university students utilize the metacognitive strategies and to examine the correlation between the use of

metacognitive strategies and the different vocabulary levels.

Aim of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine the effects of the students' metacognitive regulation on the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge. In particular, the study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) Do the respondents prefer metacognitive regulation as their vocabulary learning strategy?
- 2) What are the respondents' levels of the passive, controlled active, free active vocabulary knowledge?
- 3) What are the correlations between the respondents' metacognitive regulation and their passive, controlled active, free active vocabulary knowledge?

Sample

There are 5413 diploma students and according to Wunsch (1986), for a group of 5413 students, at least a sample of 346 is needed to make estimation with a sampling error of ± 5 percent at 95 percent confidence level. Nevertheless, 360 students are chosen. The sample size for this study is determined using the formula for estimating sample size and the table for sample size (Wunsch, 1986).

Methodology

Gu and Johnson's (1996) vocabulary learning questionnaire, translated into Malay language, is used to elicit students' self-reported vocabulary learning strategies. The questionnaire is pilot-tested where 78 out of 92 vocabulary learning behaviors are selected. The 78 vocabulary learning behaviors are divided into seven major parts namely metacognitive regulation, guessing strategies, dictionary strategies, note-taking strategies, memory strategies (rehearsal), memory strategies (encoding) and activation strategies. Respondents are asked to rate each statement on a 4-point scale, ranging from Extremely Untrue of Me (1) to Extremely True of Me (4).

The Vocabulary Levels Test which consists of three different vocabulary tests is used to measure the three dimensions of the respondents' English vocabulary knowledge. The three different vocabulary tests are:

- 1) The Passive Vocabulary Test for passive vocabulary size (Nation, 1990);
- 2) The Controlled Active Vocabulary Test for controlled active vocabulary size (Laufer & Nation, 1995);
- 3) The Free Active Vocabulary Test for lexical richness in free written expression (Laufer & Nation, 1995).

The Passive Vocabulary Test measures passive vocabulary knowledge and is originally based on words from five word-frequency levels namely the first 2,000 words, 3,000 words, 5,000 words, the University word level (beyond 5,000 words) and 10,000 words. However, in this study only the first four levels are used. Each level is intended to relate to specific vocabulary learning objectives. According to Nation (1990), the 2,000- and 3,000-word levels contain the high-frequency words that all learners need to know in order to function effectively in English. For instance, it is difficult for learners to read unsimplified texts unless they know these words. The 5,000-word level represents the upper limit of general high-frequency vocabulary that is worth spending time on in class. Finally, words at the University level should help students in reading their textbooks and other academic reading material.

As for the format, the Passive Vocabulary Test involves word-definition matching although, in a reversal of the standard practice, the respondents are required to match the words to the definitions. That is, the definitions are the test items rather than the words. Each frequency level of the test comprises six sections and each section includes 6 words and 3 definitions. In other words, there are 36 words and 18 definitions at each level. Although

there are only 18 words at each level, Nation (1990) argues that 36 words are tested because the respondents need to check every word against the definitions in order to make the correct matches. Words in each level of the test are representative of all the words at that level. In fact, the test is designed to be sensitive to any vocabulary knowledge held by the respondents. Therefore, each word in the test is distinctly different within each set of words being tested.

The words for each level are also selected on a random basis but with proper nouns and compound nouns excluded so that the results of the test give a reasonable indication of what proportion of the total number of words at each frequency level the learner has some knowledge of. In addition, all the words in each group belong to the same word class in order to avoid giving any grammatical clue as to the correct definition. On the other hand, apart from the correct matches, care is taken not to group together words definitions that are related in meaning. The test is intended as a broad measure of word knowledge, without the respondents to distinguish between semantically related words.

The Passive Vocabulary Test has 72 items (18 in each level). It tests the target words out of context because context might provide clues to their meanings. The researcher is only interested in the number of words the students could understand without any clues, rather than their guessing ability. The answers are scored as correct or incorrect. Each correct answer is given one point. Since the test has 72 items, the maximum score is therefore 72. "A weak score at any level is defined as knowing fewer than 15 out of 18 items, or less than 83%" according to Nation's experience using the test (Nation, 1990, pg. 140).

The Controlled Active Vocabulary Test is modeled on the Passive Vocabulary Test, in the sense that it uses the same frequency bands and the same items. It elicits target items from four frequency levels in short sentences with the items' first few letters provided in order to eliminate other possibilities. The test-takers provide the missing word in each sentence. The test also has 72 items- 18 in each level.

The scoring is in terms of correct (1 point) or incorrect/ blank (0 point). An item is considered correct when it is semantically correct- the appropriate word is used to express the intended meaning. If used in the wrong grammatical form, it is not marked as incorrect. A word with a spelling error which does not distort the word is not marked as incorrect either. Most of the incorrect answers are non-words or existing words which are incorrect in the provided context. As in the test of passive vocabulary size, the maximum score is 72. "A weak score at any level is defined as knowing fewer than 15 out of 18 items, or less than 83%", according to Nation's experience using the test (Nation, 1990, pg. 140).

When testing vocabulary, it is important to distinguish between how well a word is known and how well a word is used. One way to do this is by using the Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP). The LFP measures the amount of vocabulary from different frequency levels used by the respondents in their composition writing. The measure is normally applied using a computer program called *VocabProfile* which compares words in a text with word lists that accompany the program. A respondent's lexical frequency profile is the percentage of word types at the high-frequency level (2000 word family), the University Word List level (Xue & Nation, 1984), and not in those levels, totaling 100%. The LFP does not show how well particular words are known but indicates what use respondents are making of words at a particular frequency level. This is useful for diagnostic purposes to see if the vocabulary shown to be known on texts like the Vocabulary Levels Test is actually being used in meaning-focused performance.

In the Free Active Vocabulary Test the respondents are required to write a composition of about 300-400 words entitled "University education should be made free for all Malaysians. Do you agree?" The compositions then are analyzed using the *VocabProfile* program. This measure shows the percentage of words in the writing samples that come from different vocabulary frequency levels. For instance, a composition consisting of 200 word families contains 150 belonging to the first 1,000 most frequent words, 20 belonging to the second, 20

from the University Word List and 10 not in any list and if these figures are converted into percentages out of the total of 200 word types, the LFP of the composition is therefore 75%-10%-10%-5%. Laufer (1994) finds that simply taking the percentage of words that are not within the first 2000 words gives a clearer indication of progress in vocabulary use over one or two semesters of university study than the full profile does. The 'beyond 2000' percentage is in fact an alternative way of calculating lexical sophistication. Since the profile always adds up to 100 percent, more words beyond the 2000-word level inevitably means a smaller proportion of the high-frequency words.

The entire calculation is done by the VocabProfile program which matches vocabulary frequency lists with a text that is typed into the program. For the LFP analysis to be performed, the compositions are typed into the program with the following modifications:

- 1) spelling errors that do not distort the words are corrected in order to make the word recognizable by the program;
- 2) proper nouns are omitted- they are not considered as belonging to the lexis of a given language;
- 3) words that are semantically incorrect such as wrong meaning and wrong collocation are omitted as well since they could not be regarded as known by the respondents.

Findings

Research Question 1

Do the students prefer metacognitive regulation as their vocabulary learning strategy?

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of metacognitive regulation which basically meant learning through the natural exposure. The metacognitive regulation has two sub-strategies namely selective attention such as having a sense of which word meanings could be guessed and which could not and self-initiation for instance deciding to read other English reading materials besides textbooks to expand one's vocabulary knowledge. Semester 1 students seemed to prefer the metacognitive regulation the most (M= 2.85, SD= .32) compared to Semester 2 (M= 2.74, SD= .32) and Semester 3 (M= 2.83, SD= .34). As for the selective attention and self-initiation, they ranked the selective attention higher than self-initiation. Semester 1 students ranked the selective attention the highest (M= 2.90, SD= 0.34) and Semester 2 students the lowest (M= 2.87, SD= 0.37).

VOCABULARY LEARNING QUESTIONNAIRE						
Categories and Strategies	Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Metacognitive regulation	2.85	.32	2.74	.32	2.83	.34
Selective attention	2.90	.34	2.87	.37	2.89	.36
Self-initiation	2.78	.45	2.58	.49	2.74	.49

Table 1: How Semester 1, 2, and 3 Students Learn Vocabulary

Research Question # 2

What are the students' levels of the passive, controlled active, free active vocabulary knowledge?

Table 2 (Appendix A) shows that at the 2000 word level, 95.2% (n=120) Semester 1 students, 91.2% (n=93) Semester 2 students and 84% (n=111) Semester 3 students are in the weak group. For the 3000 word level, 96% (n=121) Semester 1 students, 90.2% (n=92) Semester 2 and 77.2% (n=102) Semester 3 students are categorized

as weak. Then, 99.2% (n=125) Semester 1, 97.1% (n=99) Semester 2 and 91.7% (n=121) students are in the weak group for the UWL. Finally, none of the Semester 1 students manages to pass the test at the 5000 Word Level; only 1% (n=1) Semester 2 and 4.6% (n=6) Semester 3 students pass.

For the Controlled Active Vocabulary Test, Table 3 (Appendix B) shows that at the 2000 word level, 76.9% (n = 97) of Semester 1 students are categorized as weak as compared to 60.8% (n = 62) for Semester 2 and 53.1% (n = 70) Semester 3. As for the 3000 word level, only 1.6% (n = 2) of Semester 1 students are not in the weak category. However, Semester 2 and 3 students comprises 6.8% (n = 7) and 12.9% (n = 17) respectively. Moving to the UWL, 95.2% (n = 120) of Semester 1, 85.3% (n = 87) Semester 2, and 87.1% (n = 115) Semester 3 students fail to get the minimum scores of 15 correct answers out of 18 which made them eligible to be put in the good group. Finally, results in the 5000 word level indicated that more students fail the test- Semester 1 students 93.6% (n = 118), Semester 2, 85.3% (n = 87) and Semester 3, 87.1% (n = 115).

Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP) which measures the amount of vocabulary from different frequency levels used by the respondents in their composition writing is utilized to diagnose how well a word is used. In Table 4 (Appendix C) results show that for a minimum score of 81.03% and a maximum of 94.85%, 38% (n = 48) compositions written by Semester 1 students contain more than 90% the 1st 1000 words compared to Semester 2 students which represent 30.3% (n = 31) and 25.7% (n = 34) for Semester 3. As for the 2nd 1000 words, with a minimum score of 0.52% and 12.14% maximum, 29.6% (n = 37) of Semester 1 students' compositions have between 6.0% to 12.5% of the 2nd 1000 words, 31.1% (n = 32) of Semester 2 and 38.7% (n = 51) of Semester 3 students' respectively. Moreover, with a minimum score of 0.53% and maximum 9.59%, 4.1% to 8.0% of the words in 31.7% (n = 40) of the compositions written by Semester 1 students are controlled by the University Word List (UWL). As for the Semester 2 students' compositions, 37.3% (n = 38) contain between 4.1% to 8.0% of the UWL but 49.1% (n = 65) for Semester 3 students. Moving to the last level- the off-list words, 13.6% (n = 17) Semester 1 students' compositions contain between 3.6% to 6.09% of the off-list words. However, 14.5% (n = 15) of Semester 2 and 12.2% (n = 16) Semester 3 compositions are covered with 3.6% to 7.09% of the off-list words. The minimum score for the off-list words is 0.00% and the maximum is 6.88%.

Research Question #3

What are the correlations between the students' metacognitive regulation and their passive, controlled active, free active vocabulary knowledge?

According to Table 5, metacognitive regulation is positively correlated with the passive vocabulary knowledge and it is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) ($r = .15$, $p = .004$). The two metacognitive regulation variables, the selective attention ($r = .13$, $p = .017$) and self-initiation ($r = .11$, $p = .029$) are also positively correlated with the passive vocabulary knowledge and are significant but at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Passive Vocabulary Test
Metacognitive Regulation	.15**
Selective attention	.13*
Self-initiation	.11*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5: Correlation between Metacognitive Regulation and
Passive Vocabulary Test

Based on Table 6, metacognitive regulation correlates positively with the controlled active vocabulary knowledge and it is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) ($r = .18, p = .001$). The two metacognitive regulation variables, the selective attention ($r = .15, p = .01$) and self-initiation ($r = .14, p = .01$) are also positively correlated with the controlled active vocabulary knowledge and are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Controlled Active Vocabulary Test
Metacognitive Regulation	.18**
Selective attention	.15**
Self-initiation	.14**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 6: Correlation Metacognitive Regulation between and Controlled Active Vocabulary Test

Analyzing the correlation between the students' vocabulary learning strategies and their free active vocabulary knowledge is done at the basic 2000 and beyond 2000 word levels (Table 7). All the positive and negative correlations between metacognitive regulation and the basic 2000 and beyond 2000 word level of the free active vocabulary knowledge are negligible because they are not significant.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Free Active Vocabulary Test	
	Basic 2000	Beyond 2000
Metacognitive Regulation	.02	-.03
Selective attention	-.04	.03
Self-initiation	.06	-.07

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 7: Correlations between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Free Active Vocabulary Test

Discussion and Conclusion

The respondents did not really prefer metacognitive regulation as their vocabulary learning strategy which may cause them to lose an opportunity to improve their vocabulary knowledge. According to Sanaoui (1995), the respondents could be categorized as unstructured learners who depend more on class materials, take less initiative and do less regular review. As a result, they are not in command of their own learning because for Pintrich, Wolters, and Boxter (2000), there are three main components of metacognition which could lead learners to be independent. The first component is metacognitive knowledge which entails cognitive learning strategies which the learner uses to regulate the process of knowledge acquisition such as note-taking. The second, metacognitive monitoring, consists of metacognitive strategies such as planning and monitoring learning activities. The third, self-regulation and control, is dedicated to resource management and self management such as time management and management of the learning environment. Structured learners, on the other hand, are better organized and systematically carry out independent study, self-initiated activities, regularly record new words in notebooks and review them, and seek out opportunities to use previously met lexis.

Since metacognitive regulation was positively and significantly correlated with the passive and controlled

active vocabulary knowledge, it could be associated with incidental vocabulary learning. Eyraud et al. (2000) put forward, “most vocabulary growth takes place through incidental learning, that is, through exposure to comprehensible language in reading, listening, discussions, bulletin board displays, videos, and so forth” (p. 2). Thus, being aware of metacognitive strategies is one key to the respondents becoming more independent and responsible for their own learning. Therefore, they should be encouraged to individualize their strategy use, which may vary based on ethnic or educational background and learning style (Yamato, 2000). Metacognitive strategies involve regulating, directing, monitoring and evaluating one's language learning. Effective learners apply metacognitive knowledge and strategies by planning their approach to the task, monitoring their comprehension and production for overall meaningfulness (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) and using strategies flexibly (Gu & Johnson, 1996). For example, the learners need to develop an awareness of when to infer vocabulary meaning, use a dictionary, or ignore lexis (Hulstijn, 1993). This means that learners will need to practice making deliberate decisions about which tasks and vocabulary learning goals are best served by using one strategy or combining several. Furthermore, Nation (2001: p. 149) says “...small amount of incidental vocabulary learning occur from reading. These small amounts can become big if learners read large quantities of comprehensible text.” Thus, not employing metacognitive regulation as a strategy to learn English vocabulary might be one of the causes of poor performance in the vocabulary test where majority of the students fails to achieve the passing level of 83% for the Passive Vocabulary Test and Controlled Active Vocabulary Test and the percentages of the beyond 2000-word level of the free active vocabulary knowledge assessed by the Lexical Frequency Profile are very low. In fact finding also shows that there were significant positive correlations between metacognitive regulation and passive and controlled active vocabulary knowledge.

Besides that, there was a negative correlation found between metacognitive regulation and free active vocabulary knowledge. Such a phenomenon indicates the respondents' metacognitive regulation did not give any positive impacts to their depth of vocabulary knowledge; they are unable to use the language. A possible reason for that is prior to developing metacognitive competence, learners need to become familiar with a variety of cognitive strategies, which entail manipulating material or applying techniques (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). However beginning and lower proficiency learners often rely on the repetition of word form and meaning to acquire new lexis, more proficient students report more frequent and elaborate strategy use (Gu & Johnson, 1996), use a greater variety of strategies and apply them to tasks for which they are well suited (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994)

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APPENDIX A

Table 2: Frequencies and Percentages of Passive Vocabulary Test Scores for Four Different Word Levels

PASSIVE VOCABULARY TEST																									
Scores	2000 Word Level						3000 Word Level						University Word List						5000 Word Level						
	Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
1																									
2	2	1.6			1	0.8	2	1.6	1	1.0	1	0.8	1	0.8					1	0.8			1	0.8	
3	3	2.4					4	3.2	2	2.0			1	0.8	3	2.9	2	1.5	1	0.8	4	3.9			
4	2	1.6	3	2.9	3	2.3	6	4.8	3	2.9	3	2.3	7	5.6	1	1.0	1	0.8	14	11.1	8	7.8	1	0.8	
5	8	6.3	3	2.9	2	1.5	8	6.3	2	2.0	3	2.3	10	7.9	5	4.9	3	2.3	13	10.3	18	17.6	4	3.0	
6	14	11.1	7	6.9	4	3.0	11	8.7	13	12.7	5	3.8	8	6.3	4	3.9	4	3.0	11	8.7	9	8.8	9	6.8	
7	11	8.7	13	12.7	9	6.8	12	9.5	9	8.8	10	7.6	11	8.7	9	8.8	7	5.3	25	19.8	16	15.6	14	10.6	
8	24	19.0	16	15.7	11	8.3	25	19.8	10	9.8	10	7.6	24	19.0	20	19.6	9	6.8	27	21.5	18	17.7	18	13.6	
9	23	18.3	16	15.6	7	5.3	27	21.5	14	13.7	9	6.8	21	16.7	14	13.7	12	9.1	10	7.9	8	7.8	26	19.7	
10	8	6.3	10	9.8	12	9.1	11	8.7	17	16.7	2	1.5	8	6.3	13	12.8	24	18.2	7	5.6	9	8.8	24	18.2	
11	10	7.9	9	8.8	23	17.4	5	4.0	5	4.9	19	14.4	11	8.7	14	13.7	21	15.9	5	4.0	5	4.9	7	5.3	
12	8	6.3	6	5.9	24	18.2	4	3.2	8	7.8	22	16.7	13	10.3	10	9.8	22	16.7	5	4.0	1	1.0	12	9.1	
13	4	3.2	3	2.9	5	3.8	4	3.2	5	4.9	6	4.5	6	4.8	1	1.0	8	6.1	4	3.2	4	3.9	5	3.8	
14	3	2.4	7	6.9	10	7.6	2	1.6	2	2.0	12	9.1	3	2.4	5	4.9	8	6.1	2	1.6	1	1.0	5	3.8	
15	3	2.4	4	3.9	8	6.1	2	1.6	1	1.0	10	7.6	1	0.8	3	2.9	5	3.8			1	1.0	3	2.3	
16	3	2.4	3	2.9	8	6.1	1	0.8	5	4.9	12	9.1					4	3.0					1	0.8	
17			2	2.0	5	3.8	2	1.6	4	3.9	7	5.3					2	1.5					2	1.5	
18											1	0.8													
Total	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100	

APPENDIX B

Table 3: Frequencies and Percentages of Controlled Active Vocabulary Test Scores for Four Different Word Levels

CONTROLLED ACTIVE VOCABULARY TEST																								
Scores	2000 Word Level						3000 Word Level						University Word List						5000 Word Level					
	Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3		Semester 1		Semester 2		Semester 3	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1						2	1.6					2	1.6			1	0.8							
2						1	0.8	1	1.0					1	1.0	4	3.2	1	1.0	1	1.0	1	0.8	
3	1	0.8				3	2.4	1	1.0	1	0.8	6	4.8	1	1.0	1	0.8	6	4.8	1	1.0	2	1.5	
4	1	0.8			1	0.8	4	3.2	1	1.0	4	3.0	8	6.3	2	2.0	1	0.8	5	4.0				
5	2	1.6				13	10.3	3	2.9	4	3.0	17	13.5	4	3.9	11	8.3	10	7.9	3	2.9	8	6.1	
6	3	2.4	1	1.0	1	0.8	15	11.9	4	3.9	6	4.5	12	9.5	4	3.9	7	5.3	3	2.4	5	4.9	7	5.3
7	7	5.6	2	2.0	5	3.8	15	11.9	4	3.9	9	6.8	14	11.1	11	10.8	5	3.8	10	7.9	6	5.9	6	4.5
8	8	6.3	1	1.0	4	3.0	26	20.6	9	8.8	8	6.1	20	15.8	4	3.9	4	3.0	26	20.7	4	3.9	5	3.8
9	4	3.2	2	2.0	2	1.5	10	7.9	14	13.7	9	6.8	9	7.1	14	13.7	6	4.5	19	15.1	7	6.9	11	8.3
10	14	11.1	3	2.9	7	5.3	16	12.7	24	23.5	13	9.8	10	7.9	17	16.6	13	9.8	14	11.1	8	7.8	10	7.6
11	9	7.1	5	4.9	9	6.8	3	2.4	5	4.9	18	13.6	6	4.8	7	6.9	18	13.6	7	5.6	19	18.6	15	11.4
12	17	13.4	16	15.7	11	8.3	9	7.1	14	13.7	18	13.6	6	4.8	9	8.8	13	9.8	8	6.3	11	10.8	18	13.6
13	13	10.3	12	11.8	10	7.6	3	2.4	13	12.7	15	11.4	5	4.0	9	8.8	14	10.6	3	2.4	13	12.7	21	15.9
14	18	14.3	20	19.6	20	15.2	4	3.2	2	2.0	10	7.6	5	4.0	4	3.9	22	16.7	2	1.6	9	8.8	11	8.3
15	15	11.9	12	11.8	23	17.4	2	1.6	3	2.9	8	6.1	4	3.2	8	7.8	9	6.8	4	3.2	5	4.9	8	6.1
16	7	5.6	8	7.8	19	14.4			3	2.9	6	4.5	2	1.6	5	4.9	4	3.0	1	0.8	4	3.9	6	4.5
17	5	4.0	16	15.7	11	8.3			1	1.0	3	2.3			2	2.0	3	2.3	2	1.6	4	3.9	3	2.3
18	2	1.6	4	3.9	9	6.8									1	0.8	1	0.8	2	2.0	2	2.0		
Total	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100	126	100	102	100	132	100

APPENDIX C

Table 4: Frequencies and Percentages of Free Active Vocabulary Test Scores for Four Different Word Levels

FREE ACTIVE VOCABULARY TEST																											
Score (%)	1st. 1000 Words						2nd. 2000 Words						University Word List						Off-list Words								
	Sem. 1 Freq.	Sem. 1 %	Sem. 2 Freq.	Sem. 2 %	Sem. 3 Freq.	Sem. 3 %	Score (%)	Sem. 1 Freq.	Sem. 1 %	Sem. 2 Freq.	Sem. 2 %	Sem. 3 Freq.	Sem. 3 %	Score (%)	Sem. 1 Freq.	Sem. 1 %	Sem. 2 Freq.	Sem. 2 %	Sem. 3 Freq.	Sem. 3 %	Score (%)	Sem. 1 Freq.	Sem. 1 %	Sem. 2 Freq.	Sem. 2 %	Sem. 3 Freq.	Sem. 3 %
80-81	1	0.8	2	1.9	1	0.8	0.5-1.09	1	0.8					0.5-1.09	5	3.9	1	0.9	2	1.5	0.5-1.09	25	19.8	14	13.7	22	16.7
82-83	5	3.9	3	2.9	4	3.1	1.1-1.59							1.1-1.59	7	5.6	1	0.9	5	3.8	1.1-1.59	18	14.1	12	11.8	21	15.9
84-85	7	5.6	22	21.6	17	12.9	1.6-2.09	1	0.8	1	0.9	1	0.8	1.6-2.09	9	7.1	9	8.8	3	2.3	1.6-2.09	24	19.1	17	16.7	30	22.7
86-87	31	24.6	17	16.7	38	%	2.1-2.59	5	4.0	2	2.0	1	0.8	2.1-2.59	16	12.7	6	5.9	13	9.8	2.1-2.59	20	15.9	21	20.7	20	15.1
88-89	34	27.2	27	26.5	38	28.8	2.6-3.09	8	6.4	6	5.9	5	3.8	2.6-3.09	17	13.5	12	11.8	16	12.1	2.6-3.09	15	11.9	14	13.8	12	9.1
90-91	33	26.4	24	23.5	29	21.9	3.1-3.59	7	5.6	5	4.9	10	7.6	3.1-3.59	14	11.1	20	19.6	17	12.9	3.1-3.59	7	5.6	9	8.8	11	8.3
92-93	9	7.2	5	4.9	5	3.8	3.6-4.09	9	7.2	8	7.8	9	6.8	3.6-4.09	18	14.3	15	14.8	11	8.3	3.6-4.09	14	11.2	6	5.9	9	6.8
94-95	6	4.8	2	1.9			4.1-4.59	14	11.2	6	5.9	10	7.6	4.1-4.59	11	8.7	9	8.9	17	12.9	4.1-4.59	1	0.8	5	4.9	3	2.3
							4.6-5.09	16	12.8	18	17.6	13	9.9	4.6-5.09	11	8.7	7	6.9	20	15.1	4.6-5.09	1	0.8	1	0.9	2	1.5
							5.1-5.59	12	9.6	12	11.8	17	12.9	5.1-5.59	7	5.5	6	5.9	11	8.3	5.1-5.59	1	0.8	1	0.9	1	0.8
							5.6-6.09	16	12.8	12	11.8	15	11.4	5.6-6.09	6	4.8	7	6.9	7	5.3	5.6-6.09					1	0.8
							6.1-6.59	7	5.6	7	6.9	16	12.1	6.1-6.59	3	2.4	4	3.9	2	1.5	6.1-6.59						
							6.6-7.09	12	9.6	6	5.9	12	9.1	6.6-7.09			1	0.9	4	3.0	6.6-7.09				2	1.9	
							7.1-7.59	6	4.8	8	7.8	7	5.3	7.1-7.59			4	3.9	2	1.5	7.1-7.59						
							7.6-8.09	4	3.2	2	1.9	7	5.3	7.6-8.09	2	1.6			2	1.5	7.6-8.09						
							8.1-8.59	3	2.4	4	3.9	7	5.3	8.1-8.59							8.1-8.59						
							8.6-9.09	2	1.6	3	2.9	1	0.8	8.6-9.09							8.6-9.09						
							9.1-9.59	2	1.6	1	0.9			9.1-9.59							9.1-9.59						
							9.6-10.09	1	0.8			1	0.8	9.6-10.09							9.6-10.09						
							10.1-10.59							10.1-10.59							10.1-10.59						
							10.6-11.09							10.6-11.09							10.6-11.09						
							11.1-11.59							11.1-11.59							11.1-11.59						
							11.6-12.09							11.6-12.09							11.6-12.09						
							12.1-12.59			1	0.9			12.1-12.59							12.1-12.59						
Total	126	100	102	100	132	100	Total	126	100	102	100	132	100	Total	126	100	102	100	132	100	Total	126	100	102	100	132	100

ESP in Thailand: Practical English Training for Professionals

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Abstract: *This paper underlines that Teachers recognize that there is no one best method in English teaching, so teachers combine methods in their teaching. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is very practical for professional training. ESP is focused on particular groups of learners, so ESP can be divided based on types of academic and professional areas (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). ESP teachers may select, adapt, or develop materials which they will use, and they have to evaluate these materials before using them with students. Two events have caused changes in ESP in Thailand. The first was caused by a change in government policy and the other resulted from the setting up of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), which will happen in 2015. To conclude, in the past, dating back to 1970, ESP was mostly taught for university students in Thailand, and Mahidol University was considered the first and the best place for ESP practice. ESP is designed for particular groups of learners to meet their specific needs.*

Introduction

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is very practical for professional training. This is because ESP, of its very nature, according to Dudley-Evans, (1998), (1) is designed to meet the specific needs of a particular group of learners; (2) makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and (3) is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre. Dudley-Evans, (1998, p. 4-5) also makes the nature of ESP clearer by listing other characteristics as follows:

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English;
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;
4. ESP courses are generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of language systems, so learners do not need to learn General English if they are qualified enough.

Classification of ESP

ESP is focused on particular groups of learners, so ESP can be divided based on types of academic and professional areas (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). (See Diagram 1.) Though English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) are in different categories, both can occur concurrently because people can work and study at the same time or students can use the target language when they start their jobs (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). In Thailand, ESP can be classified into EAP (developed and offered at Mahidol University) and EOP (arranged by the English Language Development Center). See examples in Diagram 1.

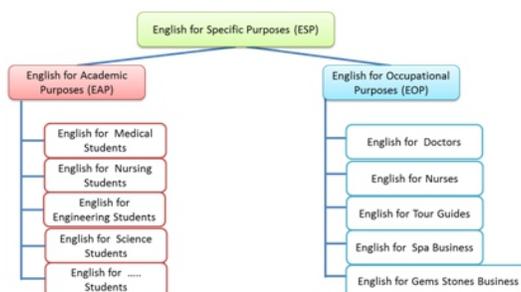


Diagram 1: Classification of ESP in Thailand classification by professional area

ESP Syllabus Development

The ESP syllabus should be developed systematically and scientifically based on the results of a needs analysis which to determine the goals and objectives of the language learners. Then ESP teachers select and sequence ESP materials, activities, and tasks which are suitable for those learners and matched to their needs before using them in class, employing various and appropriate language teaching methods and techniques. On-going ESP courses must be evaluated periodically so the courses can be improved and all stakeholders can be sure that ESP courses are efficient. In reality these four elements are interdependent (Dudley-Evan & St John, 1998). (See Diagram 2).

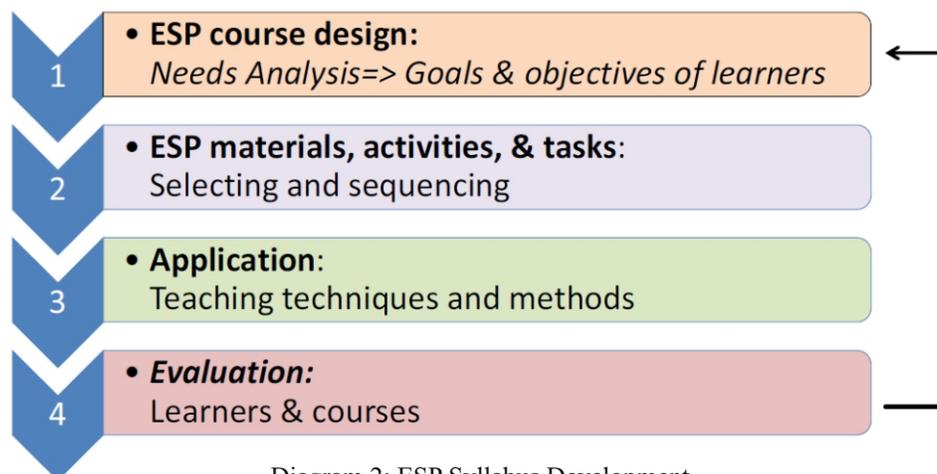


Diagram 2: ESP Syllabus Development

ESP Course Design

To develop an ESP syllabus, a needs analysis must be conducted first, so students' needs both for learning and for situations in which the target language will be used can be discovered, together with language or linguistic features which learners will use and their reasons for learning (Hutchinson & Water, 1987; Jordan, 1997). These two categories are called academic needs and job needs, learner-centered needs and target-centered needs (Bloor, 1984), learning needs and target needs, present situation needs and target situation needs. The results of the needs analysis together with language descriptions and learning theories need to be considered. Results of the needs analysis will reveal information about the learners in terms of who, why, where, or when which learners will learn or use their target language (Hutchison & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997).

At present, needs analysis has been classified into three types: deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, and means analysis (Jordan, 1997; West, 1998); the focus on learners' needs is similar to that of the past, but the factual information elicited is more specific. *A deficiency analysis* investigates strengths and weakness of learners before starting their language course. *A strategy analysis* explores how learners wish to learn, so methods of learning (styles and strategies) and teaching (techniques, materials, activities, and tasks) are investigated. Through this, how learners learn their target language efficiently can be discovered. *A means analysis* examines the teaching environment of the language course, so the constraints and opportunities of the ESP journey will be discovered and a suitable teaching environment can be offered.

Apart from needs analysis, two elements, language description (language issues or subject-specific English) and learning theories (or study skills), need to be considered in designing ESP courses (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997). *Language description* is the way language is presented for the purpose of learning such as “structural”, “functional”, or “notional”. At the same time, “form”, “function”, and “sociolinguistics” need to be included in designing ESP courses. Importantly, the purpose of ESP courses is to train students to be able to communicate, so a variety of language in particular contexts must be presented.

Thus, some ESP researchers have analyzed target language and have used the results of discourse (rhetorical) analysis to develop their ESP courses. *Learning theories in ESP* refers to “how people learn language” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 31). Researchers have described language learning strategies used by ESL and EFL learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Learning strategies are “specific actions taken by learners to make learning easier, faster, more effective, more self-directed, more enjoyable and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p.8). The relationship among these three analyses is presented in Diagram 3. Bruce (2011) suggests putting theories of discourse and of language teaching and learning into the stage of formulating aims and objectives and selection and staging of course content.

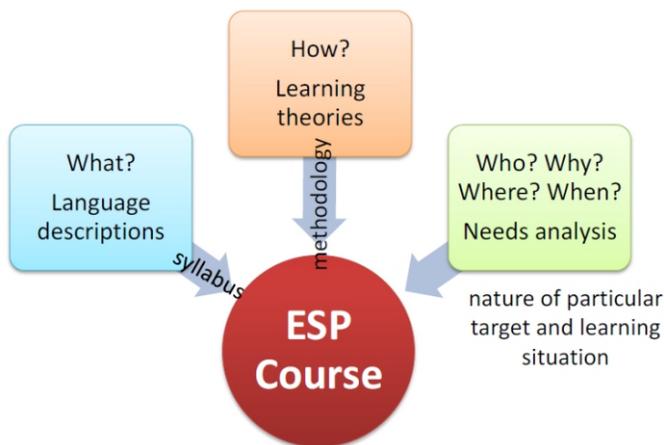


Diagram 3: Factors affecting ESP course design
Source: (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

ESP Materials

ESP teachers may select, adapt, or develop materials which they will use, and they have to evaluate these materials before using them with students. Selecting existing materials according to criteria specified is the most convenient choice. ESP teachers have to define both subjective (materials requirements) and objective (materials being evaluated) criteria for analysis. (See example of analysis in Table 1.) Then they must match their criteria with the proposed book (How far does the material match the needs?) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). (See examples of subjective and objective analysis in Table 1.)

<i>Subjective analysis</i>	<i>Objective analysis</i>
3A What kind of language description do you require? Should it be structural, notional, functional, discourse-based, some other kind, a combination of one or more of these?	3B What type(s) of linguistic description is/are used in the materials?

Source: (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 100)
Table 1 Example of subjective and objective analysis

To adapt or develop ESP materials, ESP teachers need to consider guidelines and a model of materials design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Guidelines for materials design are as follows: (1) Materials must stimulate

learning, i.e. interesting texts, enjoyable activities, using the existing knowledge and skills of learners, and coping contents by teachers and learners. (2) Materials help to organize the learning process. Thus, ESP developers organize clear and coherent units and produce materials which are systematic and flexible, so learners will work creatively, experience variety, and use high-order thinking skills. Tasks must be graded from easy to difficult or simple to complex. Teachers can use new techniques with these ESP materials. (3) Materials provide models of correct and appropriate use, so the discourse of specific fields--medicine, engineering, or sports science—should be analyzed and used for each group. The materials design model consists of input, content focus, language focus, and task. *Input* may be texts, dialogues, video recordings, diagrams, or any piece of communication data (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 108). The purpose of input is to stimulate learners to focus on their learning. *Content focus* should be specific to particular groups of learners, so learning will be meaningful. *Language focus* enables learners to analyze and synthesize the language which they are learning, so they have the “chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practice putting it back together again” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 109). Textual grammar, “the use of items of grammar and syntax as integrated features of text” (Bruce, 2011, p. 84) should be used because the context helps students to understand more easily. A *Task* is designed and learners use it for the purpose of communication, which is the ultimate goal of language learning. To evaluate teaching materials, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) suggest grading materials and methodologies as well as using multimedia or high-technology materials for teaching ESP. Bruce (2011) suggests investigating the different aspects of discourse according to subject matter, by collecting texts and data using three different approaches--ethnographic, genre-based, and corpus linguistics--because texts and contexts are related and provide meaningful information (Widdowson, 2004).

Application

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) stated that “*There is no best way*; all techniques and methods are responded to a particular situation” (p.187). Applying ESP courses, teachers need to focus on a learning-centered methodology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Learners must be encouraged to use background knowledge to understand, learn, and use new information, so the process of second language learning can be developed. Opportunities must be provided for learners to use the target language both in class and in real situations, so learners must do both psycho-motor activities and language learning activities because language learning is an active process. Learners must be able to make their own decisions about learning the target language. A balance between the conceptual/cognitive capacity and the linguistic level of the learners must be achieved, so learners can develop their target language as they did their first language. Learners' existing communication strategies must be exploited so that they can learn the target language since learners know what communication is and how it is used. A positive attitude towards the language and towards language learning must be developed among the learners by arranging fun, enjoyable, interesting, and meaningful activities and tasks. Learners must think and build relationships within their groups while they are the learning target language. A problem-solving approach to solving language problems should not be used; learners should fit the new language into their matrix of knowledge and language learning. Finally, although the process of language learning may not be systematic, communication is a system so it is important that learners must internalize what they learn.

Evaluation

ESP courses need to be evaluated in terms of both learners and the course itself (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). *Learner assessment* reflects student's performance as well as the syllabus, activities and tasks, teaching, and tests. Assessment is classified into three types: placement tests, achievement tests, and proficiency tests, based on the purposes and functions of the tests. *Placement tests* are used for placing the students into the most suitable course based on student's needs and the tests are usually done before the course starts. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest that if “students are already proficient, no further tuition is required” (p. 146). These tests should

reveal both what the learner's lack and what the potential for learning will be in the ESP course. *Achievement tests* are used for indicating how well the students have kept up with the syllabus and students may be tested at any time during the course so these tests are called teacher-made tests. *Proficiency tests* are used for assessing the ability of students to cope with the demands of a particular situation. In testing the communicative competence of learners, language knowledge and strategic competence must be emphasized (Douglas, 2000).

Course evaluation should be done continuously to determine if the existing ESP course satisfies the educational needs of the learners. In constructing an evaluation of the course, these four questions must be answered: "What should be evaluated? How can ESP courses be evaluated? Who should be involved in the evaluation? When (and how often) should evaluation take place?" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 152). Teachers may ask themselves whether the ESP course fulfills the needs of language learners in terms of learning and using language. If the answer is "No", teachers may explore the problems which "may be in the syllabus, the materials, teaching and learning techniques, the testing procedures, logistical/administrative arrangement, or the course evaluation system" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 153). Information regarding the ESP course should be gathered from learners, ESP teachers, course sponsors, and former students. ESP courses may be evaluated during the first week, at the middle, or at the end of the courses.

Bruce (2001) states that developing ESP courses requires competent teachers because developers need to have competency relating to academic practice, which includes (1) academic contexts, (2) differences among disciplines, (3) academic discourse, and (4) personal learning, development, and autonomy. Moreover, ESP teachers need to have competency in working with EAP students because ESP teachers need to be able to (1) find and analyze students' needs and use the results of needs analysis to start their ESP courses, and (2) develop critical thinking skills and autonomy in their students. The other two competencies are related to curriculum development and program implementation.

Conclusions

ESP courses are efficient because they are designed to meet the learners' needs. Thus, needs analysis must be done before the goals and objectives for learners and learning are established. Then content, activities, and tasks are carefully selected and graded before use in the classroom. Finally, appropriate tests and evaluations must be done in order to improve the on-going courses. Thus, ESP teachers must be competent.

ESP in Thailand

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Thailand was first offered by the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, starting about four decades ago. ESP courses correspond to the mission and practice of this university, which is science-oriented (health sciences in particular, such as medicine, dentistry, medical technicians, pharmacy, science, physiotherapy, radiotherapy, public health, and nursing). ESP courses were developed to meet the specific needs of these bachelor level students. Later, the Department established a Master of Arts (MA) Program focused on *English for Science and Technology*, and the first group of graduate students completed their program in 1978. Therefore, this paper will describe ESP course development at one university in Thailand, namely Mahidol University, and the development of ESP in Thailand.

Developing ESP courses in Thailand

First, in this section, the development of ESP in one university will be explained. Then large changes in ESP teaching and learning will be described. Finally, suggestions will be provided.

Between 1984 and 2004, ESP courses for particular groups of learners at Mahidol University were provided; the courses were developed based on present situation needs and target situation needs. The needs of two groups of students--medical and nursing—who were majority were ascertained. The results revealed that the language skill which students used most was reading, followed by writing and listening; speaking was the least-used skill. Then the results of the needs analysis were used in designing the ESP courses.

Learners: Target learners consisted of about 3,500 first-year university students at Mahidol University. They were grouped according to their fields of study and according to their proficiency in English. The high ability group consisted of medical students. The second group comprised dentists, pharmacists, medical technicians, science students, environmental studies students, physiotherapists, and public health students. The third group included engineering students; and the last group was nursing students. The purpose of categorizing students into four groups was to meet students' needs and to facilitate course management and administration. Students were divided into groups of 45-55 in each class.

ESP Courses: The course description for each of these English courses for the four groups was the same, but in reality, the differences among the four courses were in contents and in level of difficulty. The objectives for the courses were to help students to be able to read their English textbooks for their further studies. The courses also included writing and listening, but little was done for developing speaking skills. Students learned reading strategies during the first month. Then for three months, they learned language functions which they would face when they read their English texts in their second year or later. (See course outline in Diagram 1). Students learned critical reading strategies and critical thinking from reading in their second semester. In 2002, medical teachers from the Faculty of Medicine, the parent organization, called for teaching English for communication to their medical students so the course was arranged by using a situation-based approach. English native speakers were recruited to teach one hour a week in this course.

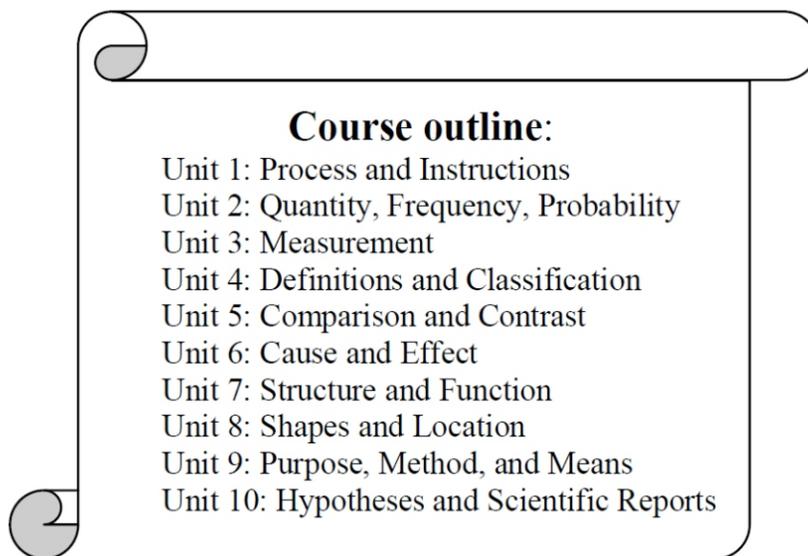


Diagram 1: **Reading and Writing for First Year Medical Students, Mahidol University, 2004.**

ESP Materials: Teachers developed the ESP teaching materials by themselves, and authentic materials were carefully selected and sequenced for use as examples of language forms and to serve as the basis for activities and tasks. The structural and functional approaches were emphasized as well as communicative English. The materials design model consisted of input, content focus, language focus, and task, based on Hutchinson and Waters (1987). Input included texts, dialogues, diagrams, and pieces of communication data. Most inputs were questions, small tests, new vocabulary, or new sentence structures. These inputs encouraged learners to focus on

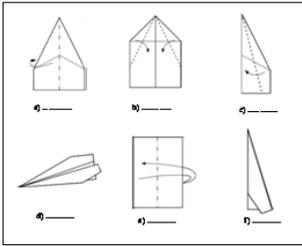
particular aspects of the language and provided background knowledge for their learning. The content focused specifically on particular groups of learners, and content provided meaningful communication. Thus, medicine-related content was selected for medical students, whereas, science-related content was selected for science students. The language was broken into pieces for students to analyze and synthesize, so they could study how it worked and practice it before putting it back together again. Tasks were placed before the end of each unit, so students used the language they had practiced and learned in communicating with their friends or teachers. (See examples below.)

Examples of Materials: English for Medicine

Input: Three types of input are presented to motivate students to focus on each chapter. The first section is “Word Study”, the second is a diagram or a picture related to the language focus in each chapter, followed by questions and answers.

<p>Actions in Sequence: Instruction & Process</p> <p>Section A: Word Study</p> <p>Exercise: For each of the following, circle the letter of the word or words which give the meaning of the underlined item.</p> <p>1. Before the students in the English class began to work on the communicative activity question, they were <u>marshalled</u> into five groups with three students in each group.</p> <p>a. instruction b. helped by each other c. arranged in proper order d. pushed</p> <p>Excerpt 1</p>
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Excerpt 1: The purpose of this activity is to introduce new words which students will face when they read the texts in each unit. Students learn new words and know their meaning and function, so students will be familiar with these new words and find texts easier to comprehend. Thus, teachers select about 10-12 words from the reading passage to construct this activity. To further increase students' background knowledge before getting into the language focus and tasks, one or two more inputs are presented. (See Excerpt 2.)

<p>Section B:</p> <p>Part I: Input</p> <p>Exercise One</p> <p>(A) The diagram below shows you how to make a paper dart. Number the diagrams in the correct order, starting from the first to the final stage.</p> <p>A paper dart</p>  <p>Adapted from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paper_plane</p>	<p>(B) Now below are the instructions which accompany the diagrams. Rearrange them into appropriate order by numbering them.</p> <p>___ Throw the dart with the point forward.</p> <p>___ Lift the wings to make them horizontal.</p> <p>___ Fold back the same corners again.</p> <p>___ Take a piece of paper, about 30 centimetres by 20 centimetres, and fold it ___ lengthwise down the middle.</p> <p>___ Fold back the same corners to the middle fold.</p> <p>___ Fold back the same corner at one end to the middle fold.</p> <p>Excerpt 2</p>
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Excerpt 2: Teachers bring their students closer to the main focus of the unit, which is language used for giving instructions or commands. This pattern begins with *Infinitive Verb + Noun*. Students learned this pattern when they were in high school, but now they learn this pattern in a new context, which is medicine or nursing. Moreover, in the language focus section, sequence markers are explicitly given in the context, so the process context is clear for students and they know which step happens first, after, or last.

Content focus: The content selected for use in each unit depended on the language focus and field of study. For example, if Unit 7 deals with “Structure and Function”, then a language focus which is related to structure and function is presented and it needs to be related to the medical field. Content was graded from easy to difficulty, simple to complex, and shorter passages to longer ones. (See Excerpt 3.)

Language focus: Both the functional and structural approaches were used in the language focus section. Now students analyze and synthesize the language which they learn, so they take the language to pieces, study its function and practice composing sentences. (See Excerpt 3.)

Whole (noun or noun phrase)	Verb Phrase	All parts must be named (noun or noun phrase)
Subject	consist of be composed of be made up of comprise	Object
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A cigarette <u>consists of</u> tobacco, paper, and a filter. 2. The respiratory tract <u>is composed of</u> the nose, the mouth, the pharynx, the trachea, and the lungs. 3. The pharynx <u>is made up of</u> the nasopharynx, the oropharynx, and the laryngeopharynx. 4. One week <u>comprises</u> seven days. <p style="text-align: center;">Excerpt 3, p. 113</p>		

Excerpt 3: After students are familiar with new vocabulary and sentence patterns which are given in the language focus section, students see that the language is broken into small pieces according to their use in the sentence (Subject-Verb-Object).

Task: Two types of tasks are offered for students: writing at the sentence level and reading comprehension. To practice writing sentences using the pattern in the language focus students learn in each unit, information is given and students use it to construct sentences. Two tasks from Unit 6: Cause and Effect are shown below. (See Excerpt 4.)

D. Write cause and effect statements using the data given and the word or words in quotation marks.

i. Use “cause”

A: Polluted air has been inhaled constantly.

B: The incidence of lung disorders has increased.

io. Use “be due to”

A: X-ray technicians have been excessively exposed to radiation.

B: Leukemia has occurred among many of them.

Excerpt 4, p. 100

Excerpt 4: Students use the knowledge which they have just acquired to practice writing. This writing is done in class, so they can ask the teacher if they do not understand.

Students have the chance to practice a lot of reading comprehension because three reading passages are provided in each unit, selected from authentic materials such as textbooks, ABC News, CNN, *Scientific American*, or a local newspaper. The length of the reading texts is about 500-800 words. Then teachers constructed exercises for each passage, and these exercises covered guessing the meaning of words from context, referent terms, answering comprehension questions, finding main ideas or details, responding to inference questions, and completing a diagram. Most are multiple choice questions. (See Excerpt 5.)

Reading Passage 2

High-tech help for deaf kids
Singapore subsidises “bionic ear”
for the hearing-impaired
Alexalesen, Singapore, AP
Bangkok Post, October 2, 2002

- 1 At lights-outs for three years-year-old Naomi Koh, her mother tiptoes into her room and takes the magnetic receiver off her skull, cutting her radio connection to the world of sound.

- 5 By day, the little girl hears very much like the other children in her pre-school class, even though she was born profoundly deaf, or with less than 20 percent normal hearing ability. With the help of a cochlear implant, sometimes referred to as a “bionic ear”, she has learned to hear and speak.

.....

.....

A. Read the passage “High-tech help for deaf kids” and choose the best answer for each question.

1. By what means can Naomi Koh learn to hear and to speak?
- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| a. with a bionic ear | c. with sign language |
| b. with a hearing aid | d. with television captions |

.....

.....

9. What does “some of them” refer to in lines 42 and 43?

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------|
| a. auditory specialist | c. deaf adults |
| b. hearing aids | d. implants |

B. Read the passage “High-tech help for deaf kids” and complete the following diagram.

Excerpt 5, p. 123-125

Excerpt 5: Students read a long text and check their comprehension by doing exercises. Some of these reading texts and excises are taken from old examinations written by teachers. A diagram is provided for students to synthesize what they comprehend from their reading texts because the reading texts are rather long. Students should find key information and be able to recall it when they want to use it.

Methodology: Teachers had the freedom to select or combine teaching techniques and methods for teaching their students in class. Moreover, the materials themselves lead teachers to a learner centered and learning-centered methodologies. I myself combined teaching techniques and methods in my teaching. For example, apart from learner-centered and learning-centered methodologies, I used knowledge=sharing, social responsibility, and constructivist approaches in my course by using project-based learning or games and simulation for learning. The core value of the university, Thai educational policy, and new trends in learning were also considered and integrated in my teaching. One of my projects: *Sharing English Knowledge to Communities* is provided as an example. (See diagram 4.)

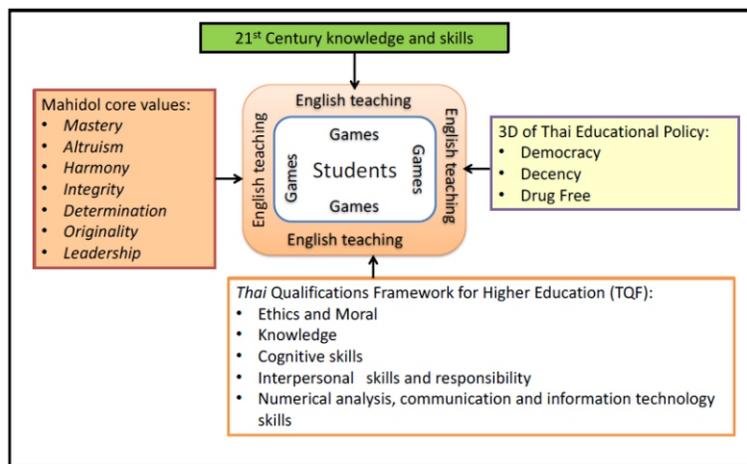


Diagram 4: Sharing English Knowledge to Communities project

At the beginning of the course, I explained the purposes of this project to my students which was to apply their English knowledge and skills by using language games and used these games with primary students in schools around the university. By doing this project, Mahidol University students had the chance to share their knowledge and kindness in schools and with students who were behind and lacked educational opportunities. Students were scared because they had never taught others formally before. I persuaded, encouraged, and empowered my students by splitting the tasks into small chunks and assessing them every week before starting to use the games in schools. First, students were divided into a group of two or three. They chose skills and a topic they wanted to use in their games. After they designed their games, they wrote them down and submitted the games and an explanation to their teacher. The teacher suggested improvements for their games. Students made the corrections and prepared materials which they would use in their games and they trialed these games in class. The teacher and their friends provided comments and suggestions. The designers of the games improved their games before using games in schools. After students finished playing games in schools, both the teacher conducted a debriefing with the students in order to learn what they had learned from this project and to improve games.

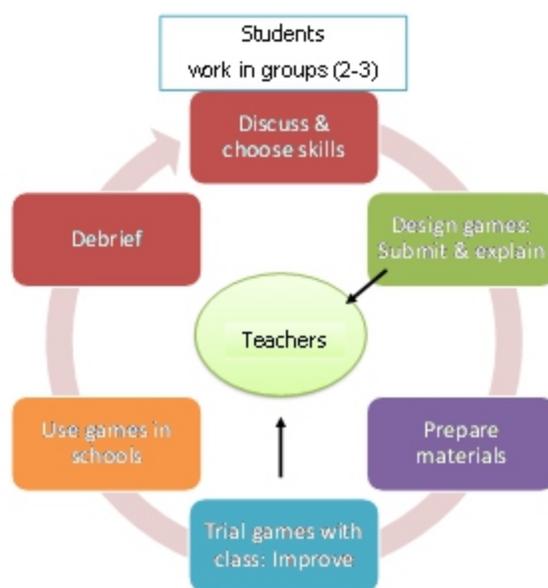


Diagram 4: The process for designing and implementing tasks

Evaluation: Traditionally, only learner assessment and achievement tests have been used to assess student proficiency at Mahidol University. The tests include mid-term and final examinations. The tests assess knowledge of the content and ability to do exercises based on the textbooks which students have studied. Teachers write new tests and some use parts of old tests. This consumes time and energy on the part of teachers. In 2003, the Department was challenged by high officials in the administration to answer the question “How do they know students have learned English what was taught by the Department and that students have progressed, not deteriorated in their knowledge of English?” To prove this, pre-tests and post-tests were conducted before and after the English for medical student courses. Moreover, the teacher-made tests were correlated to a standardized test. The results showed that medical students gained statistically significant higher scores after they completed their English for medical students course. Moreover, the teacher-made tests correlated to the standardized test in a statistically significant manner. In 2009, the Office of Higher Education required all universities to conform to the Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (TQF: HED) which is used to evaluate curricula and courses (The Office of Higher Education, 2014).

To summarize, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is very practical for professional training. This is because ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of a particular group of learners, such as doctors, engineers, scientists, or nurses. The methodology and activities used for developing English competency and proficiency correspond to the learners' practical requirements. Specifically, language selected for teaching is appropriate to activities and tasks in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre. Therefore, these professionals practice and learn the English which they need to use in their careers.

Developments in ESP in Thailand

Two events have caused changes in ESP in Thailand. The first was caused by a change in government policy and the other resulted from the setting up of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), which will happen in 2015.

Academic Developments: Senior Thai English teachers and scholars were appointed by the Thai government to reform English teaching and learning in Thailand and to establish educational standards. One of these concerns resulted from the establishment of many private universities and from the upgrading of about 75 teacher training colleges to university status. The scholars proposed that the government require all universities to teach general English (three credits) in the first semester before providing EAP or EOP (three or six credits, with a preference for six) in the next two semesters. This caused problems for older universities, especially Mahidol University, where English courses accounted for only a total of six credits, because one ESP course had to be excluded. Much feedback was given to the government, but no response was received. At the same time, high-ranking university administrators forced the Department to change the syllabus to focus on writing skills. Thus, a new English course syllabus had to be developed. In so doing, ESP characteristics disappeared from the current English courses.

Occupational Developments: Thailand will enter the AEC in 2015 and English will be used as the official language of this organization. Evidences have shown that the English proficiency of Thais, as compared to others in the community, was rather low. The community requirement for mobility among eight professional groups (medical, dentistry, nursing, engineering, architecture, surveying, accounting, hotels and tourism, and the food and beverage industry) means that individuals in these groups will be able to migrate and be employed in any ASEAN country (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2013). These employees need to have a high level of English. Thus, the government set up the English Language Development Center (ELDC) in 2003 to help Thais to learn to communicate in English. The ELDC saw the importance of training workplace personnel to communicate in English competently because of globalization and of being part of the AEC. The ELDC planned carefully and comprehensively for the development of English skills among Thais. *First*, the ELDC selected 25 occupations for specific training. *Second*, the ELDC set four standards for English for occupations. The first two concern language skills used in the workplace, while the last two concern understanding and using nonverbal communication appropriate to the audience, purpose, setting, and culture. *Third*, the ELDC opened up opportunities for all English teachers in Thailand to develop ESP courses for these 25 occupations. English for Caddies, English for Drivers, English for Spa Owners/Managers, and English for Hair and Beauty Salon Staff are examples. *Fourth*, the ELDC provided guidelines for establishing ESP training centers. University teachers designed courses and wrote textbooks and produced teaching materials for these professions. These were completed successfully. Those courses are available from the ELDC website. Companies or individuals can download and use them for teaching and learning as desired. Educational institutions could use ELDC programs free of charge to train interested people. Learners were happy to learn English which was relevant to their occupations and they were more confident. Regrettably, the ELDC did not receive further funding and it had to close in five or six years later.

The Lower Mekong Initiative (LMI) Education Pillar Symposium on English for Specific Purposes: Collaboration and Innovation Conference was held in Bangkok, 3-4 June, 2014. The purpose of this conference was to encourage LMI and ASEAN countries to use ESP because ESP is central to increasing the ability of

professionals to communicate efficiently in English. Experts and scholars from LMI and ASEAN countries will design and deliver high-level professional skills development programs that integrate ICT and can be shared across LMI borders (Lower Mekong Initiative, 2014).

To conclude, in the past, dating back to 1970, ESP was mostly taught for university students in Thailand, and Mahidol University was considered the first and the best place for ESP practice. A needs analysis of these students was conducted, and the results revealed that students needed reading and writing most for their further study. Then materials and activities were selected and designed to meet the needs of the students in the various disciplines and sequenced according to level of difficulty to provide continuity. After teachers trialed, and improved these materials, they used them in their classes. Only informal evaluation was done after implementation. Students reported that they used what they learned in English classes most in their second or later years.

Discussion and Suggestions

I will discuss three issues: learners, language description, and methodology, as well as provide suggestions in this section.

Learners

Opportunities, Motivation, and Use: Students from high socio-economic status families have a better chance than those who are from remote provinces and border areas to learn, especially to learn English. Students study general English in K-12 or grade 4-12 for an hour a day. Some learn more because they have extra classes or go to tutorial schools. Nowadays, television, the Internet and smartphones are widespread, so students all over country can learn from resources both in-class and out of class. What to do next? Two key factors need to be considered to increase the English ability of Thais: motivation and use. Motivation is the key factor for enabling Thai language learners to learn English. Learners should see the importance of using English and set their goals and find ways to use and learn English. Even though 500 World Class Standard Schools for the basic education level (K-12) have been established with the purpose of using English as a means of communication in class, and students have the chance to use English, this is not sufficient. The same efforts should be used at other levels as well, such as vocational schools or universities, because the more learners use the target language, the more they learn and become competent. This will provide students with the have basic knowledge of the language system, which is essential for their study at a higher level.

Challenges and Solutions: The issue of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) is one challenge forcing Thai students and adults to master English communication skills. The Thai Ministry of Education has developed a policy, and provided guidelines and practices for developing the English communication skills of Thais; the developments of English teaching in higher education in 2005 and the ELDC are examples. Educators opposed the former because they thought that universities should maintain the right to manage learning and teaching in their own institutions. This is because each institution is different in terms of students and learning and teaching environment. Faculty members state that they know their students and learning and teaching environment better than outsiders, so they can provide English courses which are suitable for their students. Though a high level of disagreement was communicated to the government, high-ranking administrators in each university forced the language departments to conform to the government policy. However, about 10 years later, the government called for ESP to be taught at the higher education level and for professions. *The Lower Mekong Initiative (LMI) Education Pillar Symposium on English for Specific Purposes: Collaboration and Innovation Conference 2014* is evidence. The ELDC provided EOP according to the government strategy, but the government vision may have been blurry or be short-sighted, so the ELDC lost its funding in 2011 and had to close. Resources such as ESP courses and tests on its website have disappeared. This illustrates the failure of the government. Therefore,

to prevent this vicious cycle, research on ESP must be conducted on an on-going basis so the results can be used for the strategic administration of ESP or ELT.

Language description

Teachers realize that content is an essential part of ESP. Thus, authentic materials are used for developing teaching materials. *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach*, written by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), has been used as a guide. Language functions are taught in the context of each discipline. Language is presented in “structural” and “functional” formats. Also, “form”, “function”, and “sociolinguistics” are included in designing ESP courses. The varieties of language used in particular contexts are presented, so students are familiar with different language registers. Now language is displayed using various technology formats such as emails, blogs, websites, e-databases, or You Tube, so ESP teachers may consider these new developments when developing their ESP materials.

Methodology

Teachers recognize that there is no one best method in English teaching, so teachers combine methods in their teaching. Moreover, the core values of each university and trends in teaching in the 21st century have been incorporated into curriculum design with the intention that students will be able to: (1) internalize morality and ethics in their professions and daily life, (2) gain knowledge of what they learn and use it in their future careers, (3) think critically and intelligently so they will be autonomous learners, (4) build interpersonal skills and acquire responsibility by working on tasks with their peers, and (5) develop their numerical analysis, communication and technology skills. These qualifications can be obtained by using task-based approaches, such as projects or games and simulations.

To conclude, three elements--learners, language description, and methodology—need to be considered when designing, developing, and implementing ESP courses. The learners must be the center of the courses, so language description and methodology can be selected appropriately.

Conclusion

ESP is designed for particular groups of learners to meet their specific needs. ESP was taught at Mahidol University in the past. The English Language Development Center encouraged teachers to develop more practical ESP courses for occupational purposes in Thailand. From my long experience in teaching ESP, ESP teachers need to have the freedom to organize ESP courses for their students. Students should not be experimental subjects, so any change must be carefully considered and based on scientific proof. Language description and the methodology selected for use by ESP teachers are characteristics of good practice among ESP

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Struggle, Learn, Succeed: English Language Teachers and College Preparatory Composition

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Abstract: *As more nonnative English speaking students enter colleges and universities where the primary language of instruction is English, instructors need to be prepared and equipped with the best practices to prepare these students for academic writing. Unfortunately, there is a lack of scholarship around best teaching practices of English Language and Composition to nonnative English speaking students at the collegiate level in nations whose primary language is not English. This paper will explore techniques and strategies for differentiating Language and Composition instruction for various levels of nonnative English speakers. We draw on firsthand experience to share our struggles, successes, and lessons learned while teaching English Language and Composition to nonnative English language learners at an international, American-style liberal-arts university in Chittagong, Bangladesh. We argue for using teaching techniques that appropriately meet students where they are based on skill level and cultural background. English Language and Composition instructors will leave with practical techniques and strategies to use in their teaching practice.*

Keywords: best practices, ESL, academic writing, differentiation, international university, Asia, essay, composition.

Situational Context

The Asian University for Women (AUW) is a residential, American-style liberal arts international university for representing Asian women from 13 countries across the continent of Asia and located in Chittagong, Bangladesh. All instruction is delivered in English. All students have learned English as a Second Language (ESL) and are considered L2 English learners. The Asian University for Women opened in 2008 to provide a safe space for Asian women to receive an international education that would prepare them to become “skilled and innovative professionals, service-oriented leaders in the businesses and communities in which they will work and live, and promoters of intercultural understanding and sustainable human and economic development in Asia and throughout the world.”

AUW has a pre-collegiate program: Access Academy (AA). All students have to pass Access Academy for admission into the undergraduate program. One of the major goals of Access Academy is to improve the academic English language abilities of all students so that they will be successful in the undergraduate program at AUW. In Access Academy, students are separated into groups based (roughly) on their English ability. Access Academy offers a Language & Composition (L & C) course for the purpose of English academic preparation (EAP). Even though the range of students' English abilities are vast -- from students who barely speak English to students who sound close to being native English speakers -- the objectives of AA Language & Composition are the same for all levels. This is the first year that AA has hired experienced and/or certified professionals to deliver instruction. Previously volunteers from the World Teach program would deliver instruction; every year there were new volunteers. Resources from previous years were limited and direction about how to proceed to best prepare our students academically initially in this extremely unique environment was minimal.

Andrea has been teaching middle school English Language Arts for the past four years in urban settings; two of those years she worked with English Language Learners. Andrea's background has prepared her to work with “lower level” students, but she has had to learn a lot about teaching composition. She currently teaches the higher intermediate L2 English learners Language & Composition classes at AUW. Kristen has been teaching

English Composition and Literature courses at American universities of various types for twelve years, but has little experience with ESL students at a low level. She currently teaches the advanced L2 English learners Language & Composition classes at AUW. Given our combined backgrounds, we bring a lot of expertise to our experience; simultaneously, there was still much more for us to learn to truly offer our students the best learning opportunity.

The Problem

Being situated in such a unique environment the big picture question persists: How do we best teach academic composition to prepare multi-national, multi-level L2 English learners for an American liberal arts curriculum in an environment where students main interaction with the English language is almost exclusively in the classroom? As any good educator would do, we began to look for a solution through research. Unfortunately we found very few helpful resources that met the needs of our students. The resources, techniques, and strategies for teaching ESL students found were mostly for primary and beginning language learners; the resources, techniques, and strategies found for composition instruction were primarily for the English native speaker or for the L2 English learner studying in an English speaking country. As a result, much of our time here has been research, trial, error, reflect, research, trial, and finally success. Through our research, trial, error, reflection, and success process we would like to contribute to the field of ESL suggestions for techniques and strategies for teaching composition to advanced ESL students in a country where English is not the native language.

The Language Barrier

Before classes began we were under the impression that our students were English proficient. In preparation for this course we never received any warnings about language difficulties in the classroom; we were not told that oral communication would fail. During the first week of classes, we quickly learned that many students (across all levels) could not understand our English American accents. (Simultaneously, we struggled with understanding student's accents.) Due to this language barrier, the core of our instruction -- oral instruction -- was hindered. Therefore, no matter how much we prepared, how awesome a lesson could have been, learning was limited to an extent.

Being experienced educators, and having the luxury of computers and projectors in our classrooms, our first solution to this problem was using PowerPoint and displaying more images. While those techniques were helpful, it was not enough. So we kept researching. Andrea visited the "School of YouTube" and found videos developed by Kevin Baker about teaching ESL students. There were two key strategies from those videos that she decided she would use in the classroom: 1) speaking more slowly and 2) making sure to pronounce the beginning sound and ending sound of each word. For Andrea (who worked with ELL populations before) these videos were great reminders of successful techniques she had used previously; it is so easy to forget the simple things. With an intentional focus on talking speeds and pronunciation, oral language comprehension improved tremendously across all levels.

Although this is an issue that many teachers of ESL students experience, it is important to note this obstacle because it drastically impacts the instructor's ability to meet the goals of the course as outlined by the program. At universities in English speaking countries, students are constantly surrounded by the English language and will acquire speaking and listening skills informally. They also may have access to an additional ESL class for support. Whereas here in Bangladesh, once students leave the classroom, they often return to speaking their native language; in addition, the students do not have access to an ESL course. The lack of these informal and formal opportunities for language growth resulted in a re-assessment of skills taught in the lower language and composition course. This impacts the amount of instruction dedicated to academic writing preparation which is

the ultimate goal of the course. This obstacle, other than the initial language barrier, does not impact the course with students of higher English proficiencies. Whereas in the courses with students of lower English proficiency, instruction needed to be revised to improve language skills as well.

Not only does second language proficiency impact the delivery of instruction, but it is a major factor in students' writing (Buainan, 2006). Many studies have proven the many similarities between first language composition and second language composition. Simultaneously there are distinct differences; second language composition is closely tied to the learner's language ability. Across skill levels, our students make "typical" second language grammatical writing errors. The difference we have found is that students with higher English proficiency can identify those errors and correct them in their writing, whereas students with a lower English proficiency do not know the language rules. The relative ease at which students with higher English proficiency can manipulate the words and rules affords them the opportunity to focus on ideas rather than correctness and work on academic preparation composition at the essay level with general comfort (Emig, 1971). Whereas lower-level English proficiency hinders students from accessing the skills necessary to compose on the essay level with ease. It becomes a very difficult and stressful process filled with a lot of confusion and misunderstanding. Haifa Al-Buainan states, "Thus, one of the most important aims of teaching writing in EFL is to improve learner's language ability" (2006). Unfortunately, in our program, the lower level students do not have the luxury of taking tiered writing course and moving through levels of instruction that meet them where they are; they must learn how to compose at the essay level, in addition to building their second language grammar and vocabulary skills.

Critical Thinking & Cultural Background

Critical thinking has been critiqued by scholars as being Western-centric, linear, and insufficiently theorized in terms of pedagogy. While some ESL teachers make critical thinking a primary goal, others prefer to focus on fostering correct mechanics, such as sentence construction and Standard English grammar. With little to no training in ESL composition, we discovered for ourselves what strategies worked best for the groups of students with whom we worked. Andrea's higher intermediate L2 English learners required, in the end, more explicit and scaffolded instruction, while Kristen's advanced L2 English learners (while never foregoing the desire for more grammar instruction) were more easily able to grasp principles of critical analysis and higher-order thinking.

The debate around critical thinking is so closely tied to culture. For us it brings up two issues: 1) we are teaching a thought process (critical thinking) of a dominant culture and imposing it on cultures that do not use this thought process in their writing and 2) students from Asian cultures do not think critically. Kristen and I are concerned about the fact that our instruction of American academic composition may seem a bit imperialistic; simultaneously, we are more concerned about our students' potential to be successful in an American liberal arts styled undergraduate program. Joy Reid explains, "The format of American linear prose -- that is, the product expected by the academic reader -- must be considered and taught in ESL writing classes... students must be prepared to write prose that is acceptable to professors who are native speakers -- that despite occasional second language errors is acceptable because the material has been presented in a format which matches that expected by the academic audience." (1984). Many of the Bangladeshi students who chose to attend AUW are thrilled about the opportunity to receive an American education in their native country. Since this is a choice of the students, we recognize the privilege that we bring to the classroom, and in a sense, asking students to "assimilate", but we also challenge ourselves to actively make instruction inclusive and culturally relevant for all of our students. We are strong advocates of intentionally creating space for students to insert themselves and their cultures into the composition process and the larger course.

As educators who create inclusive spaces, we strive to erase assumptions before the first day of class. The phrase, "Asian students don't write critically," was thrown around several times during new staff orientation in

relation to how we should plan instruction. We could have let that thought process guide or planning, but we did not because we both believe that anything taught well can be learned. On a personal level, we are both against stereotyping of groups of people -- especially when those stereotypes assess our students potential and what they will or will not achieve. The idea that critical thinking is Western-centric and inaccessible for students of Asian cultures and background (Atkinson, 1997) is false to us. Our students are able to access critical thinking skills and use them in the classroom. Some students have more experience with this thinking process than others, but many, if not all, with appropriate instruction and practice have demonstrated the ability to think critically. To assert that Asian students are not critical thinkers is what Ryuko Kubota defines as “‘cultural essentialism’ or the idea that certain objectively essential and stable parts exist in a culture” (2003). It is unfair to assume that culture is monolithic. We both entered our classrooms with a clean slate about our students' potential and abilities. This is necessary for us to meet students where they are and build from there. It is futile to enter the classroom with such assumptions.

As we address critical thinking in the writing process, Bloom's Taxonomy has been a tool for us to assess the level at which students are asked to demonstrate knowledge. Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Domains was created in 1956 by Dr. Benjamin Bloom as a tool for educators that explain six levels of learning from dependent/prerequisite learning to independent/creative learning. The higher-level cognitive domains require higher-level critical thinking skills, and for American academic composition, students have to use the higher-level skills of analyzing, evaluating, and creating. This tool allows instructors to meet students at their level and build up to the skill level at which instructors ask for application of assignments. Bloom's Taxonomy is often shown in a model of a triangle or stair steps to demonstrate that you can build up to the highest level. That is in fact true, and is seen much more often in the higher intermediate L2 English learners course, but it must be noted that students are constantly weaving in and out of the cognitive domains throughout the writing process proving their ability to think critically at all levels (and regardless of cultural background).

As we try to steer away from cultural assumptions about students' learning abilities, we do not enter our classrooms as “culture blind” instructors. It is extremely important that students' cultural backgrounds are taken into consideration during instructional planning. We assign readings that students can identify with culturally and cross-culturally as well as provide writing prompts that students can connect and relate to. In creating these inclusive spaces for students to participate fully in the learning process in our classes, we hope that students realize that they “need not abandon their own culture-- they simply need to acquire new cultural conventions in order to succeed in the (American) academic community” (Reid, 1984). By allowing students to share their culture and speak on and write about topics that are familiar to them, they become more invested in the learning process. In the end, it is important for instructor's to consider students' cultural background because it allows them to feel safe and comfortable in the academic space, while also supporting academic success and mastery of goals.

Teaching the Expository Essay

As educators, our question from day one has been: What writing skills do students need to be successful in undergraduate courses at AUW? After consulting with the undergraduate freshman composition instructors at AUW, it was decided that the Access Academy Language & Composition curriculum should be genre-based essay composition: narrative, expository, argumentative, and research. During the second half of the first semester we taught expository writing. Hinkel (2013) and Hale et al (1996) both conclude that exposition -- one of the most common rhetorical formats used in American academic prose -- is an extremely necessary form of writing to be taught in the English for Academic Preparation (EAP) classroom. Answer: A major writing skill that students need to be successful is understanding how to write an expository essay. Exposition and explanation are so important across many disciplines at a liberal arts and sciences school. Most academic writing is composed of two types of rhetorical usages (i.e.- an argumentative piece will include some exposition). At the core of American academic composition is the expository essay, and this must be taught in

the EAP course.

Kristen and I were excited about the prospect of collaborating to teach the expository essay, but as we brainstormed topics it became apparent that differentiation would be necessary. The information that follows details differentiation of instruction for high intermediate and advanced L2 writers learning expository composition.

Higher Intermediate L2 English Learners

For higher intermediate L2 English speaking students to excel in a composition class, composition instructions cannot be done in isolation; vocabulary and grammar instruction are necessary as well (Hinkel, 2012). My course met three days a week. Initially I planned the schedule such that one day was a vocabulary day, the second day was a grammar day, and the third day was a composition day. This caused time management issues that did not allow for enough time for the composition skills to be learned and practiced as necessary. So halfway through I streamlined vocabulary instruction so that it happened at a faster pace, cut grammar instruction out, and used the extra time to focus on essay composition. These changes allowed for tremendous essay improvements because students had more in-class writing time which allowed for more 1-1 mini-conferences which the students really appreciated and believed helped them improve their composition.

My pedagogical approach to essay composition is scaffolded process-based writing. Scaffolding is the separation of work into manageable chunks. For example, I would not teach “drafting” as a one day lesson. Rather “drafting would be broken up over the course of five days where I would teach a different type of paragraph each day (i.e.- three separate body paragraphs, introduction paragraph, conclusion paragraph). I began lessons by explaining new material, sharing an exemplar and/or modeling how to write. Then I would have students write their own example. The higher intermediate L2 English writers in my course had little to no understanding of how to write American academic essays. So they needed a lot of guidance with a gradual release of responsibility where they get the chance to write independently.

In choosing a culturally relevant topic, students were asked to explain why there is such an enormous underrepresentation of Asian women in top business leadership positions. Students were given five research articles to use for finding evidence. These articles were chosen not only for their content but the use of simple language. The higher intermediate L2 English writer still has trouble with interpreting academic texts. So it required a lot of time in class to discuss and find examples that explain why Asian women are underrepresented in top leadership positions in Asian businesses. This was the first time of many throughout this process when I realized that my students' language abilities were not allowing them to access the course material, and we would need more class time for instruction and discussion than planned. I revised the syllabus as necessary.

Since my students' English levels were really low, and their ability to think critically in English was very low, I decided to begin with the basics teaching them the 5-paragraph essay structure. Hillocks describes the 5-paragraph essay structure as a “Locking-In Formulaic Writing” (2002). The Institute for Writing and Rhetoric at Dartmouth explains, “Students too often rely on structures they learned in high school (for instance, the five paragraph theme), thereby crippling their argument from the get-go.” I believe teaching the five-paragraph structure is helpful to give students a base from which to grow. In actual teaching practice, every teacher has to decide how she can best meet students where they are. I made exceptions for the more advanced students in my classes who showed that they could manage more complex writing and I was able to give more individualized instruction during conference time. I believe in giving all students a foundation and then gradually releasing or adding more challenge once they show understanding of topics taught.

Advanced L2 English Learners

My pedagogical strategy for teaching composition has long relied on providing students an extended

opportunity to develop authority on a particular topic and construct a persuasive point of view. In the context of AUW, I chose to focus my readings around Naomi Woolf's idea of the "beauty myth" and how that manifests in various Asian cultures. We began with Woolf but soon branched out into discussions of skin bleaching, weight management and extreme dieting, the relationship between international beauty pageants and Bollywood, plastic surgery, and more. In choosing this focus as the locus of our discussions about expository writing, I hoped to get my students engaged and interested. Mostly, it worked. From this and prior experiences teaching composition, I draw the conclusion that students produce better writing when they are genuinely interested in a topic.

I also made an effort to provide them with numerous examples to use as models. We spent a lot of time talking about the features of academic writing: that a writer should demonstrate she has thought carefully about a topic, that claims should be supported by evidence (and here I also count personal experience, since my students were writing about topics that affected their lived experiences), and also that research, reflection, and careful citation are hallmark features of a successful academic essay. Prior to entering my course, most students had never before heard that an essay should have a "thesis" or that information from outside sources should be carefully cited. What struck me most was that students seemed genuinely surprised and excited that I was interested in reading about what they thought. Though there were setbacks and discouragements along the way, their delight in discovering their own voices inspired me to continue teaching critical thinking and its attendant, good academic writing, to a group of students who had initially clamored for more grammar and vocabulary instruction.

Conclusion

The best way to prepare L2 English speakers for American academic composition at the university level is to backwards plan. Begin with the ultimate goal in mind. Our goal: prepare L2 English speakers for American academic composition at the university level. Next, determine the most essential skills and knowledge necessary to accomplish that goal. Essential skills and knowledge necessary for our course: genre-based composition (i.e.- expository, argument, extended research, etc.). Then consider students' skill levels and cultural backgrounds. Skill levels: higher intermediate L2 English speaking women and advanced L2 English speaking women from various Asian countries. Last create an instructional plan that is culturally relevant and meets students where they are academically. Our instructional plan: use a culturally relevant process-based approach to teach essay composition while differentiating instruction based on the English levels of students.

Between our classes we differentiated in three ways 1) by assigning a writing topic that was appropriate for each level, 2) acquiring research and 3) format of instruction. The prompt asked higher intermediate L2 English writers to compose at the "application" level of blooms. So the prompt was very clear and straightforward about what the students should be explaining in their essay. Whereas the prompt for advanced L2 English writers asked students to work at the "synthesizing" level of blooms and required more critical thinking. Advanced L2 English writers also completed independent research, employing university databases and library resources, whereas higher intermediate L2 English writers were given five articles to use from which to find evidence. Classes for higher intermediate L2 English writers are scaffolded -- instruction delivered in a step-by-step fashion. On the other hand, advanced L2 English writers instruction used more of an inquiry and discussion format.

Even though we had leveled prompts, we agreed that in order to provide relevant topics, we must attend to our students' prior experiences and diverse cultural background. The prompts and readings assigned in our respective classes were thus focused around issues that we assumed would be relevant to our students' lived experiences, and to which they could bring some prior knowledge. While some challenges we faced were unique to our particular classes, we shared the goal of student essays being organized around a singular focus. We previously mentioned that students were genuinely surprised to discover that we cared about what they

thought. Once they internalized this epiphany, the floodgates opened. For the advanced L2 English writers, they did not struggle because they had no ideas (as sometimes occurs), but simply that they had too many. Developing and supporting a singular focus in an essay was one of our primary goals.

Many of our readings were different, but the materials we used to teach expository writing were the same. Cambridge's "Writing An Expository Essay" handout and "They Say/I Say" were really helpful resources that aided instruction across skill levels. The uniting factor in the process was that most (if not all) of our students were learning this new American academic style of writing. While our readings and focuses may have been different, the steps we led students through were the same. We both taught writing as a process-based approach that involves pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. Hinkel despises this process-based English native speaker composition methodology carried over into L2 composition instruction (2012). On the other hand, Vivian Zamel studied the composition process of advanced L2 English writers and found, "ESL advanced writers understood that composing involves the constant interplay of thinking, writing, and rewriting" (1983). For L2 English writers to understand this process of "thinking, writing, and rewriting" they have had to be taught these stages. It is important that students learn the process based writing method. Andrea uses the metaphor of writer's toolbox with her students. She explains that writer's have many different tools that they can use to build and create. Some tools are more complex to use than others. For that reason, it is important for writers to know how to use new tools and add them to their "writer's toolbox". Now they have choice as they create, and with so many tools, their options for creation becomes limitless.

In the same way, composition instructors of L2 learners have to add tools to their toolbox. We were able to find strategies and techniques that worked for our classes, but only through research, trial and error, and reflection. We did not limit ourselves to the tools we brought with us to Bangladesh. When we were at a loss, we found more tools and learned how to use them. The final lesson here is to be a critical and reflective professional who will meet the academic needs of the students. If one keeps that in the forefront of their minds, it is impossible not to achieve the ultimate goals of the course.

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The Role of Learners' Autonomy in EFL Development: A Case Study of Bandar Anzali EFL Students' Autonomy

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Abstract: *This study aims to investigate learning autonomy and self-access language learning among EFL learners in Iran by focusing on the experience of fostering learner autonomy in English classes in Iran and taking into consideration the student's role (Scharle & Szabo 2000, Thanasoulas 2000), the teacher's role (Thanasoulas 2002, Thavenius 1999), and the context (Little 1999). To this end, one hundred and ninety two EFL learners took part in the study. A questionnaire was administered to collect the data and descriptively analyzed. The findings show that the majority of respondents preferred a teacher-centered approach to learning, and that it is not the learners who are innately passive, but it is the educational system creating an environment that discourages learner autonomy. Accordingly, it is concluded that radical changes are needed in EFL teaching at Iranian universities in terms of educational curriculum, EFL teacher training, learner-centered methodology and EFL assessment in order to value the independent learner's contribution in the process of language learning.*

Introduction

Classroom-based, teacher-directed language learning has been dominant in language teaching and learning for decades; nevertheless, the notion of independent, autonomous learners is quite familiar to language teachers. The concept of autonomy was introduced when the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL) was established in 1971 in France (Benson 2001). No attempt had been made until the late 1980s to integrate self-access language learning into the school curriculum (e.g., Dam & Gabrielsen, 1988; Hall & Kenny, 1988; Karlsson, Kjisik&Nordlund, 1997). A majority of research in the English language learning field has been focusing largely on teaching or course effectiveness, but little has been done to look at what makes learners become self-determined enough to take control of their own learning, and the factors that differentiate successful and less successful self-access users. The growing interest in the socio-cultural dimension of language learning among applied linguistics researchers has made ESL researchers turn their attention to learner autonomy in classroom settings; however, independent autonomous learners and autonomy in self-access settings within the school curriculum have not been adequately addressed in the literature.

To fill the research gaps mentioned above, the present study generally aims to:

1. Identify cognitive and psychological factors which differentiate learners' levels of development of autonomous learning; and
2. Explore the effect of social and contextual influences on learners' exercise of self-control in course-based self-access language learning (SALL).

The findings will inform institutions and teachers of what to watch out for when considering integrating learner autonomy and SALL into the curriculum so as to make language learning both inside and outside the classroom more effective.

Background of the Study

Autonomy in language learning: An overview

The learner, the teacher, and the context: It is generally agreed that the current debate about autonomy in second language learning originated in Holec's (1981) *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*, first published in 1979. His definition of learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" remains the basis for many researchers. For Little (1999, p.11), autonomy is "a capacity for a certain range of highly explicit (that is conscious) behavior that embraces both the process and content of learning." Littlewood (1999, as cited in Cotteral 2000, p. 109) defines autonomy in educational terms as "involving students' capacity to use their learning independently of teachers." Scharle and Szabo (2000, p. 4) believe that autonomy means "the freedom and ability to manage one's own affairs, which entails the right to make decisions as well." For Dickinson (1987, as cited in Oxford 2003, p. 81), autonomy refers to "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerned with his/ her learning and the implementation of these decisions." Thanasoulas (2000) points out that there are at least five ways the term has been used:

For situations in which learners study entirely on their own; for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning; for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education' for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning' for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

Moreover there is not a coherent theoretical framework of learner autonomy in the field of L2 learning. For example, Oxford (2003) proposed a framework in describing learner autonomy in language education: The technical perspective on learner autonomy "emphasizes the situational conditions under which learner autonomy may develop" (p. 81). The context, which refers to the situation, background, or environment relevant to L2 learning, can be a self- access center, a classroom, a home, or a travel environment. The psychological perspective "examines mental and emotional characteristics of learners," (ibid.83) viewed as individuals or members of a socio- cultural group. The characteristics that autonomous learners have include high motivation, self- efficacy, a desire to seek meaning, positive attitudes, need for achievement, and a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation which enable learners' take on EFL responsibility for his/her own learning. The socio-cultural perspective "emphasizes social interaction as a major part of cognitive and language development; "it centers on "the development human capacity via interaction" (ibid. 85). It believes that learning is situated in a particular social and cultural setting of specific people at a given historical time, which also consists of mediated learning (ibid.86). The political-critical perspective focuses on "power, access, and ideology" (ibid. 88). It challenges the assumption that "student- centered, individualistic and autonomous learning is universally appropriate" (ibid. 89). It stresses the political issues involved in the context, including oppression, power, control, class, gender, race, and access. In other words, it draws attention to the existing unequal power structures.

The learner, the teacher, and the context

Benson (2001) further suggests that approaches to fostering autonomy may also focus on the learner (degree of his/ her motivation, ability, control, preferred learning styles and strategies etc.), the teacher (teacher's role, teaching materials, and tasks), and the context (socio-cultural condition). Scharle and Szabo (2000, p.7) aptly claim that "*motivation* is a prerequisite for learning and responsibility development alike;" they suggest that we need to "encourage *intrinsic* motivation." Gardner (1985, p. 51, cited in Ushioda 1996, p.7) defines motivation in three components: "effort expended to achieve the goal, desire to achieve the goal and attitudes toward the activity involved in achieving the goal." In other words, motivation has much to do with the subjective value of the goal for the learner. Ushioda (ibid.: 19) indicates that we need to help students see that "learning is motivating in itself," so that their intrinsic motivation can be intensified, which will lead to voluntary persistence

in learning. Naturally self-motivated learners are basically autonomous learners, who enjoy more pleasure and satisfaction from learning.

In addition to motivation, there are other factors which influence learner autonomy. Many students are resistant to self-study. Their preferred learning style favors the traditional teacher-led classroom teaching and considers it the job of the teacher to provide everything. They may feel they are not learning if there is no teacher teaching. They rely heavily on the teacher providing them with “autonomous” materials, which, in effect, become an extension of homework.

A further important factor which needs to be considered, when promoting independent learning, is the variety of learning strategies employed by the learner.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified learner strategies into three types, which they categorized as: metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies. Different learners use different strategies and a good language learner will adopt a number of different strategies. When developing learner autonomy, it is important for the teacher to help students become aware of their own strategies and how to apply them to independent learning.

Not all of the difficulties a learner may face when trying to develop learner independence are caused by the student. Much of the blame can be placed on the teacher due to inadequate support or guidance. It is too easy for the teacher to say, “There is a lot of material and resources available to you. Go and use some”. But, faced with a bank of material, the student is often at a loss as to where to begin. Learners have to be taught to be autonomous, even though this seems to be a contradiction of terms. It is the role of the teacher to make the learner aware of the range of materials and resources available and help them, not tell them, to find which ones best suit their preferred learning styles and strategies. Once this has been done, it is important, as stated earlier, to regularly monitor learner's progress and provide constant support and advice such as recommending resources or advice on how a learner may best use the resources available.

Of course, it is not only the learner who needs to be taught how to be independent, teachers also need to be suitably trained in how to best promote autonomy in their students. This could be achieved by running development workshops in which teachers share their experiences with colleagues. Benson (1996, cited in Aoki & Smith 1999, p. 22) argues that “the power structures in which learners and teachers are involved” has to be changed if the learners are to take control of their own learning. That is, the teacher's role and the relationship between teachers and students have to be modified. As Harmer (2001, p. 57) points out, in a learner-centered setting, the teacher is no longer “the giver of knowledge, the controller, and the authority, but rather a facilitator and a resource for the students to draw on” (cf. Thanasoulas 2000, Scharle & Szabo 2000, Vieira 1999). Sometimes the teacher might have to be an organizer, a participant, or an observer as well.

Furthermore, Palfreyman (2003, p. 4) proposes that teachers not only have to encourage student autonomy, but they are “potentially autonomous learners and practitioners themselves.” In other words, teachers are encouraged to achieve teacher autonomy, which according to Thavenius (1999, p. 160) is “the teacher's ability and willingness to help learners take responsibility for their own learning.” An autonomous teacher reflects on his/her role as a teacher and is willing to change it and help her learners become autonomous and independent.

Little (1999, pp: 15-16) stresses that “we must always pay careful attention to the cultural setting in which learning takes place.” Palfreyman (2003: 1-2) lists three common interpretations of culture: culture refers to national/ethnic cultures; values and proper behaviors in different kinds of community, such as culture of a school or a classroom; and “the learner in socio-cultural context as opposed to the learner in isolation.” Aoki and Smith (1999, p. 19-21) draw attention to the common misconceptions about culture as “coextensive with a political unit, i.e., a nation” or as “static and given.” It is obvious from the second meaning shown above that culture can be of any size (Aoki and Smith, 1999). Culture is susceptible to change due to the different social, economic, and political situations. Aoki and Smith remind us that we should not disempower students by limiting them to cultural stereotypes. Holliday (2003) also cautions against the dangers of culturism in TESOL, in which the native-speakerists reduce the learners to cultural stereotypes. (The native-speakerists: “we” believe

that, because students are from an inferior culture, they can never be like “us.”) In the case of native-speaker teacher, the unequal power structure between teacher and student is multiplied.

In sum, when learners are encouraged to accept responsibility for their own learning, reflect critically and make decision on what, why, how to learn, and evaluate constantly how well they learn, their autonomy is fostered. Dam and Legenhausen (1999) and Cotterall (2000) also lay emphasis on the learners' capacity of critical reflection on their learning. Vieira (1999) and Thavenius (1999), however, stress the teachers' ability or awareness to reflect on their teaching. For the teacher to develop learner autonomy in the students, it is crucial for both the teacher and the students to think critically on this *teaching/learning* process. Both have to contemplate on not only what autonomy is but also “what it is *for*” (Smith 2003, p. 260), for language learning and more general learning as well. He believes that language teaching is also “*education*, involving ideas of developing 'voice', agency, and self-esteem in general” (ibid.: 260).

Statement of the Problem

The promotion of autonomy and lifelong learning is of paramount importance in EFL courses, due to factors deriving both from the teaching and learning context (e.g. limited time devoted to EFL courses, timetable constraints that sometimes hinder class attendance, high heterogeneity in learning styles and proficiency levels) and from the current workplace context, characterized by increasing mobility, which makes it difficult to identify the situations in which students may need to use English.

Fostering language learning autonomy involves giving learners the control of their own learning, i.e. adopting learner-centered approach that pays attention to aspects such as learning style, proficiency levels and learning goals and needs, motivation, self-monitoring and self-assessment. An important role for the teacher is to help students learn strategies and activate cognitive and metacognitive processes. This involves encouraging them to reflect on their own learning, suggesting variety of strategies and making them aware of which ones they are using for a particular task and why. In the light of these circumstances, this study will investigate whether EFL students and teachers are able to direct and monitor their learning process for autonomous learning. To achieve this goal, it will raise the question whether the EFL students and teachers are able to set language learning goals and work towards them through self-directive skills, how the tasks and activities used within and beyond the classroom promote autonomous learning by taking into account three main factors involved in learning discussed above. In this context, EFL courses should be concerned with autonomous learning and self-access settings in the educational context of Iran.

The major goal of this study is thus to gain better understanding of Iranian learners learning autonomy and self-access language learning in order to develop EFL programs that better suits their needs.

In line with this goal, this study undertook to provide a satisfactory answer to the following question:

Are the students of Islamic Azad University of Bandar Anzali taking EFL courses were ready to take on the autonomous roles they were being encouraged to?

It has been hypothesized that there is a need to make a drastic change in the EFL teaching at Iranian universities in order to improve the present situation.

Research Method

Subjects

A total of 192 language learners at Azad University of Bandar Anzali took part in the study.

Material

The data were collected through a questionnaire (see the Appendix), which had four sections:

- Section 1 focused on whose (the teacher's or the student's) responsibility the students believed various aspects of learning inside and outside class should be.
- Section 2 focused on students' views of their abilities to manage the same aspects of learning inside and outside the classroom.
- Section 3 aimed to measure the degrees of student motivation.
- Section 4 explored the kind of activities students were engaged in either inside or outside the classroom which could be thought of as the manifestations of autonomous language learning behavior.

The respondents were required to mark their responses on a Likert scale.

The questionnaire design was based on Holec's (1981: 3) definition of autonomy: 'the ability to take charge of one's own learning' where 'to take charge of one's learning is to have and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning'. He sees ability and responsibility as operating in five main areas: determining objectives, defining contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has happened. An attempt was made to incorporate these notions of ability and responsibility in the five areas into the questionnaire – a modified version used by Sparrt and Humphreys in 2002 for similar purposes.

An item on motivation was also incorporated into the questionnaire, following Deci and Ryan's (1985) belief in the relationship between autonomy and intrinsic motivation, and our interest in the link between the two. However, it should be noted that motivation was not the main focus of the study.

The autonomous learning activities listed in Section 4 were the result of a brainstorming session by a focus group of students on all the activities they thought they could carry out, which might help them learn English independently. This brainstorming obviously took place at the design stage of the questionnaire.

Procedures

The questionnaire was first modified and then piloted. Afterwards, it was revised in the light of feedback and administered during the class time among the 192 participants. Respondents were allowed to ask supervisors for clarification of items and procedures, but not to consult one another. They were given 20 minutes to respond. The questionnaire data were accordingly collected and analyzed, the results of which are duly interpreted. At the first stage, to facilitate the interpretation process, a list of questions on areas requiring clarification was compiled. Small group interviews (3–5 students per group) of 5 percent of the sample were conducted. The collected data were then transcribed and recurring themes were identified.

The results were analyzed using SPSS software. Percentages of responses for each Likert point were computed for each item, and cross tabulations were run between the corresponding items in Sections 1 and 2, and between reported levels of motivation (Section 3) and frequency of engagement in outside class activities (Section 4). Chi-square tests were then carried out to determine the relationship between the differing frequencies of response with regard to:

1. Students' perceptions of their teachers' responsibilities and their own responsibilities for various aspects of their English learning;
2. Students' perceptions of their own responsibilities for and their own abilities in various aspects of their English learning;

3. Students' views of their motivation and the frequency of their engagement in outside class learning activities; The statistically significance level was set at $p < 0.01$.

Results and Interpretation

Results concerning each item in the questionnaire will be presented in a tabular form.

1. Results for Sections one and two: The relationship between students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities

In this section, students were asked 'whose responsibility (their or their teacher's) it is to take on different aspects of language learning. The relationship between students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities is shown in Table 2. Based on the questionnaire the respondents would assign more responsibility to the teacher than to the students.

As clear from Table 2, in 11 out of 13 cases there is a significant relationship between students' perceptions of their own and their teacher's responsibilities. In 8 out of these 11 cases students were assigning more responsibility to their teacher than to themselves. However, in three, 'Make you work harder', 'Decide what you should learn outside class' and 'Make sure you make progress outside classes', students gave themselves more responsibility than the teacher. In two cases in which there was no significant relationship, i.e. item 1 and 3 ('Make sure you make progress during lessons' and 'Motivate you in learning English'), students seemed unsure where to place responsibility.

These results indicate that the respondents see the teacher as more responsible for decisions relating to formal language instruction, while taking greater responsibility for what happens outside the classroom and for their own effort. They also stressed that it was the teachers' job to teach. The students expect their teachers to address the methodological changes when they seek to change the traditional classroom roles.

Item Number	Students' perceptions of teachers' own responsibilities-			Students' perceptions of their Responsibilities- %			Chi-square	df	p	
	Not at all/ a little	Some	Mainly/ completely	Not at all/ a little	Some	Mainly/ completely				(x ²)
1. Make sure you make progress during lessons	8.0	37.1	55.0	11.2	41.5	47.2	1.42	2	>0.05	
2. Make sure you make progress outside class	49.3	41.9	8.8	16.3	25.1	58.6	57.80	2	<0.001	
3. Stimulate your interest in learning English	11.1	34.5	54.5	17.0	43.5	39.5	4.68	2	>0.05	
4. Identify your weaknesses in English	7.9	21.0	71.0	12.3	42.2	45.5	13.10	2	>0.05	
5. Make you work harder	24.5	45.4	30.1	13.1	24.9	62.0	20.60	2	<0.001	
6. Decide the objectives of your English course	5.6	24.0	70.5	30.7	44.7	24.7	45.30	2	<0.001	
7. Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	6.0	22.4	71.6	32.5	45.6	21.9	53.80	2	<0.001	
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	6.6	22.1	71.4	30.7	43.0	26.4	42.80	2	<0.001	
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	7.6	27.9	64.6	32.0	45.9	22.0	40.00	2	<0.001	
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	5.6	13.3	81	38.5	44.7	16.8	83.60	2	<0.001	
11. Evaluate your learning	4.4	19.3	76.3	25.5	48.2	26.3	51.30	2	<0.001	
12. Evaluate your course	8.0	32.9	59.1	21.9	40.7	37.5	11.90	2	<0.01	
13. Decide what you learn outside class	50.3	36.7	13.0	11.2	20.7	68.1	66.70	2	<0.001	

Table 1 Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities-% of respondents and chi- square\

2. The relationship between student' perception of their responsibilities and abilities

Table 3 shows the relationship between respondents' perceptions of their responsibilities and their corresponding abilities. It gives percentages of responses on the Likert scale to items in sections 1 and 2 that focus on the same areas.

The chi-square results comparing responses on the corresponding items from section 1 and 2 are also shown. In this case, much of the respondents choosing the 'good' and 'very good' categories than the 'poor' and 'very poor' categories for all activities except 'Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons' and 'Choosing learning materials in class'. The findings in this section showed that the students generally felt positive about their abilities, and somewhat confident of their ability to identify their weaknesses and make decisions about outside class activities.

Section 1 items P	Not at all	Some / a completely little %	Mainly/ %	Section 2 items v. poor	Poor/ %	Ok v. good %	Good/ %	Chi sq (x ²)	df
4. Identify your >0.05 weaknesses in English	12.3	42.2	45.5	22. Identifying your weaknesses in English	16.0	48.9	35.2	2.60	2
6. Decide the >0.05 objectives of your English course	30.7	44.7	24.7	16. Choosing learning objectives in class	19.4	55.4	25.2	3.86	2
7. Decide what you >0.05 should learn next in your English lessons	32.5	45.6	21.9	23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	24.7	53.0	22.4	1.59	2
8. Choose what <0.05 activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	30.7	43.0	26.4	14. Choosing learning activities in class	15.0	61.3	23.7	8.76	2
9. Decide how long >0.05 to spend on each Activity	32.0	45.9	22.0	24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	17.2	60.4	22.5	6.46	2
10. Choose what >0.05 materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	38.5	44.7	16.8	18. Choosing learning materials in class	26.9	51.1	22.1	3.19	2
11. Evaluate your >0.05 learning	25.5	48.2	26.3	20. Evaluating your learning	18.2	57.4	24.5	2.25	2
12. Evaluate your course <0.001	25.5	48.2	26.3	21. Evaluating your course	16.2	59.2	24.6	6.87	2
13. Decide what you learn outside class	21.9	40.7	37.5	17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	17.9	52.7	29.4	31.2	2

Table 3 A comparison of students' perceptions of their responsibilities and their corresponding abilities in learning - % and chi-square

3. Results for Section Three: Students' perception of their motivation

In the third section of the questionnaire, students were asked to show the degree of their motivation as learners of English as learners of English language. The results are shown in Table 4.

The relationship between reported levels of motivation and engagement in a range of autonomous learning activities is discussed below.

Level	%
Highly motivated	7.2
Well- motivated	27.5
Motivated	40.0
Slightly motivated	23.7
Not at all motivated	1.6

Table 4 Students' views of their level of motivation

4. Result for Section Four: Outside class activities

Section 4 of the questionnaire sought to measure the frequency of students' engagement in specific activities inside and outside class, since we regarded these as possible manifestation of autonomous language learning behavior.

The descriptive results for the outside – class activities are shown in Table 5.

The table shows that there were 10 out of 22 activities that appeared to be widely practiced, in that the majority of students said they were engaged in them 'sometimes' or 'often'. Twelve out of twenty two activities however appeared to be less widely practiced, and all these seemed more related to the aspects of more formal learning of English. Overall, the results from this section suggest that teachers seeking to promote autonomous behavior in the form of outside activities should have more immediate success if they build on those that the students have already been engage in, rather than on those activities which would require the students to change their attitudes or behavior.

Item	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
26. Read grammar books on own	10.2	51.2	36.5	2.6
27. Done non- compulsory assignments	23.8	50.5	23.0	2.6
28. Noted down new words/ meanings	7.3	25.2	48.2	19.7
29. Written English letters pen pals	22.1	30.3	29.3	18.2
30. Read English notices around you	1.0	17.3	0.6	31.0
31. Read newspapers in English	3.6	30.8	52.6	13.0
32. Sent e. mail in English	4.1	16.7	25.6	53.5
33. Read books/ magazines in English	2.6	22.8	53.1	21.5
34. Watched English TV programs	1.6	19.1	53.6	25.6
35. Listened to English radio	18.2	50.4	23.6	7.7
36. Listened to English songs	1.6	15.8	46.3	36.3
37. Talked to foreigners	4.7	38.7	42.2	14.4
38. Practiced using English with friends	14.0	48.3	32.9	4.7
39/ done English elf- study in a group	34.3	51.5	13.0	1.2
40. Done grammar exercises	25.7	52.0	17.8	4.6
41. Watches English movies	2.4	11.0	40.0	46.6
42. Written a diary in English	51.9	28.9	15.3	4.0
43. Used the internet in English	5.8	13.0	33.5	47.8
44. Revised but not required by the teacher	19.1	47.6	28.0	5.1
45. Attended to English class outside class	33.5	38.6	20.2	7.7
46. Collected texts in English	16.9	42.1	30.0	11.0
47. Gone to see teacher about work.	18.5	48.6	29.3	3.5

Table 5 Frequency of students engaging in outside class learning activities- % of respondents

The results of the chi-square comparison between Section 3, 'Level of motivation' and Section 4 are described below.

'Frequency of engagement in outside class activities' represents what the interviewees said and what we expected them to. These are shown in Table 6.

As can be seen in the table, the frequency of 20 out of the 22 activities correlated positively at <0.01 with reported levels of motivation, i.e., the higher the level of motivation, the greater the frequency of engagement. The two exceptions were 'Done self-study in a group', which was unpopular with all students regardless of their level of motivation, and 'Used the Internet', which was frequently engaged in by all respondents. The latter is probably due to the limited choice of language on the Internet. Twelve out of the 20 activities in fact showed a particularly highly significant relationship at <0.001 , whereas six showed the $p < 0.01$ and two the $p < 0.05$. The latter two items were 'Listening to English songs' and 'Attending a self-study centre'. The weak relationship for the first item probably results from the popularity of English language songs regardless of level of motivation. In

the second item, the interviews confirmed that even the more highly motivated students tended not to make use of self-access facilities because of their disinclination to work alone.

The recurring first motif of motivation in the student interviews coupled with the results showing a strong relationship between motivation and frequency of engagement in autonomous learning activities outside the classroom led the project team to go back to the literature to see what support there was for the view that motivation might precede autonomy.

Item	Not at all Motivated	Slightly motivated	Well motivated	Highly motivated	Chi-square (χ^2)	
26. Read grammar books on your own?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	33.20	>0.001
27. Done assignments which are not compulsory?	Never	Rarely	Rarely	Rarely	16.27	>0.001
28. Noted down new words and their meanings?	Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	Often	19.14	>0.001
29. Read English texts and learn related terminology on your own?	Sometimes /Rarely	Never	Sometimes	Often	11.35	>0.01
30. Read English notices around you?	Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	Often	15.16	>0.01
31. Read newspapers in English?	Sometimes/Never/Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	28.39	>0.001
32. Sent e- mail in English?	Sometimes	Rarely	Often	Often	19.21	>0.001
33. Read books or magazines in English?	Sometimes	Sometimes	Sometimes	Often	14.15	>0.01
34. Watch English TV programs?	Sometimes/Never/Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	Often	17.97	>0.001
35. Listed to English radio?	Never	Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	19.40	>0.001
36. Listed to English songs?	Sometimes /Often	Sometimes	Often	Often	8.49	>0.05
37. Talk to foreigners in English?	Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	15.70	>0.001
38. Practiced using English with friends?	Sometimes	Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	19.37	>0.001
39. Done English self- study in a group?	Never	Never	Rarely	Rarely	7.54	>0.05
40. Done grammar exercises?	Rarely	Rarely	Rarely	Rarely/ Sometimes	14.19	>0.01
41. Watched English movies?	Often	Sometimes	Often	Often	14.11	>0.01
42. Written diary in English?	Never	Never	Never	Sometimes/Rarely	17.59	>0.001
43. Used the internet in English?	Often	Often	Often	Often	7.54	>0.05
44. Done revision not required by the teacher?	Never	Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	15.14	>0.01
45. Attended to English class outside class?	Rarely	Never	Rarely	Rarely	10.62	>0.05
46. Collected texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels etc)?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Sometimes	18.87	>0.001
47. Gone to see your teacher about your work?	Never	Rarely	Rarely	Sometimes	39.03	>0.001

Table 6 Relationship between reported levels of motivation and frequency of engagement in outsideclass activities-cross-tabulation and chi-square

General Discussion

The results suggest that generally the learners are aware of the importance of reading widely and acquiring the appropriate learning strategies. They also seem to enjoy communicative – based learning. However, majority of them prefer teacher-centered but not fully teacher-dependent classes. They prefer their teachers to be in charge, giving them feedback on their mistakes, guiding them and motivating them.

There is also a small group of autonomous learners who desire the freedom and responsibility to decide what, where, when and how to learn. They prefer to employ their own learning styles and to feel confident in themselves and believe that peer evaluation is an opportunity to enhance their language ability. But, if the learners prefer teacher-centered learning, does that mean that they are not autonomous?

The findings show that their responses are shaped by their past learning experiences as a result of which they failed to develop an autonomous attitude toward their learning. Their past learning tended to be teacher-oriented, grammar-based, and directed towards competing with one another, especially when taking examinations. It is concluded that high motivation does not automatically mean that learners are prepared to work and learn autonomously. This is why it is necessary to consciously train students to be more autonomous learners by raising their awareness of their own learning.

Consequently, the findings of this study suggest that a majority of the respondents are teacher-centered. However, this does not mean that the learners are not capable of being autonomous as they do possess

autonomous learning characteristics such as awareness of the importance of reading widely and acquiring appropriate learning strategies. Thus, it is inaccurate to conclude that Iranian learners do not have the capacity for autonomy just because they show a preference for the teacher-centered learning mode.

The learners may have the capacity to be autonomous, but this quality did not conjure up in this study, probably because of the influence of socio-cultural factors.

Conclusions and Suggestions for Further Research

Language acquisition is more than just the acquisition of linguistic competence. It is also the acquisition of discourse competence; sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence and strategic competence (Canale, 1983). Learners felt that the activities through interaction with practitioners in the workplace could increase their knowledge as well as develop their certain skills, helping them become better learners of English language as well as enhancing their confidence in using the language.

Specifically, the EFL modules should also be accompanied by tasks that promote autonomy among students. In addition, it is proposed that students be given learner training sessions that take into consideration three key kinds of preparations: (1) Psychological preparation, (2) Methodological preparation and (3) Practice in self-direction

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