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*The 21st. Century Classroom:
ELT Practices & Innovations*

A COLLECTION
OF FULL PAPERS AND
PRESENTATION REPORTS

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FOREWORD

The Penang English Language Learning and Teaching Association (PELLTA) hosted its 8th international English language teaching conference, iELT-Con 2017 from the 19 – 21 April 2017 in George Town, Penang and the theme of this conference was “The 21st Century Classroom : ELT Practices & Innovations”. It was an extremely fulfilling two and half days with many opportunities for professional discourse and social networking. Paper presentations were 30 minute-sessions while workshops were allocated 60 minutes. A total of 51 papers and 26 workshops were delivered with participants from more than 20 countries.

The full papers, paper presentation summaries and workshop reports which were submitted after the conference have been compiled into this collection and we would like to share it with all our readers, presenters and non-presenters alike. This is not a ‘proceedings’ in the conventional sense, but rather a resource for conference attendees and for interested colleagues worldwide to gain a flavour of the 8th PELLTA International ELT Conference. These articles illustrate clearly that although ELT practices in the 21st century tend to be digitally inclined, the human touch is still important such as *Sharing Our Classrooms* as a professional development exercise by keynote and workshop facilitator Emeritus Professor Tony Wright and *Creativity In Language Teaching* presented by Associate Professor Tamas Kiss in his plenary session.

This collection of articles is divided into two sections; Section I comprises eight full papers and Section II contains ten presentation reports which are further sub-divided into summaries of paper presentations and workshop reports. In this final section, the workshop presenters not only shared their activities but also provided a brief reflection which has proven to be very insightful.

Finally, we thank all presenters for their contribution to iELT-Con 2017 and to this collection of research findings and great ideas for English language classrooms and beyond. We would also like to express our gratitude to the panel of reviewers for their time and invaluable comments in reviewing the articles. We are especially indebted to Professor Emeritus Tony Wright, who not only helped us in the reviewing process but also for his guidance and words of wisdom. Without his help, encouragement and faith in us, this collection would not have come to fruition.

Rovena Elaine Capel Chair & Editor
Quah Seok Hoon Editor

PANEL OF REVIEWERS

This compilation of work presented during PELLTA's 8th. international English language teaching conference, iELT-Con 2017 would not have materialised without the contribution of the following people.

Professor Emeritus Tony Wright

Teh Bee Kim

Kam Lay Khuan

Kamala veni A/P V. Arumugam

Irene Teoh Ming See

Jamal Mohamed Bin Abdul Rahman

Loke Khoon Ee

Thum Lin Chee

SECTION 1

FULL PAPERS

1 Introducing Shakespeare To Gen Z

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Abstract

This paper describes how a *Drama in English* course was conducted in an Institute of Teacher Education in Malaysia. The course was offered to students of the Semester 2 Bachelor of Teaching (TESL) Foundation Programme who were deemed to be from the Gen Z category. One of the texts that the students had to study was a Shakespearean play. The juxtaposition of Gen Z and Shakespeare was a new challenge for the teaching team. To enhance the effectiveness and learning of Shakespeare, the teaching team had implemented the blended learning instructional approach. This made the course more learner-centred. To manage and deliver the course, the Learning Management System Edmodo was used. Other online digital tools were also incorporated as part of the blended learning. At the end of the course, the feedback given by the students was very encouraging. The students were able to understand the play and they found that the course was effectively organised. From the feedback given, the teaching team reflected on the strengths and shortcomings of the course. The lessons learnt and insights gained, were compelling enough for the teaching team to continue to collaborate and further explore the use of blended learning in future courses.

Keywords: Gen Z, Shakespeare, blended learning, digital tools, Edmodo

Introduction

This paper describes how a TSL1064 Drama in English course was conducted. In our quest to make the course more motivating and effective for our students, the teaching team embarked on this blended learning instructional approach. It was a new endeavour for us. It was also our first time planning and conducting a course fully managed through a Learning Management System (LMS) - Edmodo. This paper is introspective in nature and at the end of this paper, we share our insights and the lessons learnt from this journey.

Profile of the students

The students referred to in this paper were fresh school-leavers. On completion of the *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia*, i.e. Malaysian Certificate of Education, they enrolled for the foundation course in the Bachelor of Teaching (TESL). There were 27 students between the ages 19 –21 years old. According to The Center for Generational Kinetics (2016), students of this age range are deemed to be the *Gen Z* category. Some of the prevalent characteristics of this generation are their adeptness in web-based research, the use of technology and the importance of social media in their life. They are “global, social, visual and technological” users who not only “represent the future” but are “creating” it (Generation Z, 2016).

The juxtaposition of Gen Z of the 21st century and William Shakespeare of the 16th century had created a new challenge for the teaching team of the course *Drama in English*. Not one of these students had ever been acquainted to, or studied

Shakespeare before this course. These students were second language learners of English and none of them had taken the subject *Literature in English* in school. Their only experience with literary texts was the few poems, short stories and two contemporary novels which were prescribed text for the school English language syllabus. For them, Shakespeare was a name or a writer of the English language. Unfortunately, it was a name to be feared. This was evident from the responses given by the students in Edmodo when they were asked to post their "twits" on their first thoughts about learning Shakespeare. Their apprehension was justified because in one semester, they were expected to study, analyse and critique his work. Just how would they do that when they could not even understand his language in the first place?

Course structure: The constraints and challenges

In the requirements of the *Drama in English* course, it was stipulated that the students study two plays in one semester, followed by the staging of the chosen Shakespeare's play and finally, sit for an end-of-semester examination. The first was the short play *Trifles* by Susan Glaspell and the second, a Shakespearean play, *King Lear*. *Trifles* was a short and contemporary play which was rather easy for the students. However *King Lear* was otherwise. The study and analysis of this five-act play was to be done in sixteen hours. This might seem to be a fair amount of time for the study of the play. However, for these Gen Z students, it was not. To these students, Shakespeare's Early Modern English was almost akin to a secret code. They were more attuned to cloud and digital language than to Shakespeare's that was archaic to them. When students could not even understand the language, they would not be able to progress any further in studying or analysing the text. The language constraint is further compounded by the writing style of the playwright. The use of verses, inversions and terms which often alluded to imageries and figures of speech, were totally alien to the students.

The second constraint was the lack of prior knowledge of Shakespeare's plays. The students began the course by spending four hours on the general introduction to Shakespeare's life and historical background. Following this, was the study of the chosen text *King Lear*. In the first hour of the study of the play, the learning outcome stipulated that the students were to "critically appraise", "analyse" and "discuss setting, themes, characters, issues and development of plot, style and language" (Institute of Teacher Education, 2013). After the initial introduction to Shakespeare, the students were expected to be adept in the study of *King Lear*. It was like throwing them into the deep end. Although this method might have its strengths, it could actually intensify stress levels and kill the tiniest spark of interest in Shakespeare. Their interest in Shakespeare could be prematurely distinguished and worse, turned into fear and hostility. Mabillard (2000) discovered that many "students of English literature dread studying Shakespeare" (p. 1). If those students had so much trouble, what more these students who were second language learners? Hence, it was our immediate concern to alleviate and dispel the fear in them.

The teaching team was aware that there were many websites that supply complete analysis and resources for the play. However, the indiscriminate use of these ready-made answers and resources would deprive the students of enriching experiences, and the learning of new skills. They would have been robbed of the

experience of 'breaking the code' and discovering the meaning behind those lines. If students were expected to come to the first class ready to discuss the issues as stated in the course outline, they would only read the online notes and contemporary translation. They would skip reading the original text because they would not understand it, hence defeating the purpose of the course which was to help them gain the skills and confidence so that they could understand Shakespeare.

Pooling together and tapping into the different expertise and strengths of the teaching team, we decided on a new approach to this course. To be engaging and effective, the approach had to cater to the distinctive characteristics of Gen Z. In order to do so, the teaching team took the challenge to implement *Blended Learning* in conducting the course as blended learning "appeals to all learning styles, circumstances, needs and demands." (Gogos, 2014, p. 1). In addition, the use of technology-based instructions, motivation and student-engagement is sustained, resulting in a more effective learning experience for the students (Gogos, 2014).

As this was the students' first and most likely the only time to do a Shakespearean play, it should be the start of their adventure into the world of Shakespeare and not the torments of a nightmare. Hence, it was most essential to provide a positive experience and appreciation of Shakespeare. It was a window of opportunity to conduct this course well so that our students would not spurn Shakespeare forever. It was important to tailor the course to the students' needs and characteristics to reduce any initial anxiety or frustration which could hamper their learning process.

Blended learning

According to Friesen (2012), blended learning incorporates the face-to-face presence of the teacher and students with the use of digital media and the Internet. Meanwhile, Vaughan (2007) defines blended learning as a fusion of traditional teaching approaches and learning technologies in order for the students to experience a flexible environment. Hence, blended learning was suitable for this course because it catered to the requirements of the course which consisted of face-to-face interactions and non face-to-face interactions. For the face-to-face interactions, the students attended lectures and tutorials, while the non face-to-face interactions engaged students in web-based online learning where students did their tasks in their own time, place and pace. The online resources helped in supplementing and complementing face-to-face interaction, resulting in better learning. Blended learning was also suitable to these Gen Z students who were very adept at using technology. To manage this blended learning, the LMS Edmodo was used.

Course delivery

With blended learning as the mode throughout, the course was delivered in three phases. Phase 1 was the skill-getting stage. It focused on helping students acquire the skills to understand Shakespeare's language. A lot of support and scaffolding were given during the face-to-face interaction. The lecturer was the coach and the

model of the language. Meanwhile, Phase 2 was the skill-utilising stage. It was the time for the students to put the skills they had gained in Phase 1 into practice. In this phase, the lecturer took the role of a facilitator. Finally, in Phase 3, the Flipped Classroom was incorporated where in-depth discussions and critiques were carried out during face-to-face interaction.

Phase 1

The focus in Phase 1 was to help the students gain the needed skills to understand the language of the play. Hence, the lecturer took on the role of a coach. The lecturer modeled the reading aloud of the play, and then using the *think-aloud* strategy, guided the students step-by-step in reading and understanding the play. Students learnt how to rephrase and understand Shakespeare's style and use of language. The online contemporary English translation version of the play was also used as a learning tool. The students compared the translation to their understanding and how the actual translation was derived, and what it meant. This phase was the laying of the strong foundation for future readings of Shakespeare. It was necessary to train and equip the students with these strategies so that they could utilise them in other Shakespeare's texts independently and confidently. Besides knowing and understanding Shakespeare's language, they also learnt to make connections to the background of the text, and the images and beliefs of the people of that era. Common Shakespearean metaphors and imageries were introduced, and students began to make sense of the text.

Besides laying the foundation of understanding Shakespeare, the first phase was very important in helping students to navigate, select and use the overwhelming pool of information that they obtained from online sources. It was also vital that the students did not become over-dependent on online literature notes as this would compromise the students' self-regulated learning (Woolfolk, 2010). Woolfolk (2010) cautioned that "students need metacognitive and self-regulatory skills so they won't get lost in a sea of information" (p. 362). She cited a study by Azevedo (2005), of undergraduate students who used hypermedia encyclopedia. The result of the study revealed that the group of students who had the support of a self-regulation coach exhibited better development and learning (p. 363). Hence, she advocated that scaffolding be an integral part of student learning.

In this phase too, videos of Shakespeare's plays of various adaptations, ranging from strictly theatrical, to animated and even the *Lego* versions, were frontloaded into Edmodo under the group *Let's Watch Shakespeare*. Some of the videos used original Shakespearean language while others were more contemporary and current in nature. These broad variations gave the students a wide choice to pick videos according to their preference. The teaching team decided that an early viewing of this play before the study of it would lower the students' affective filter (Krashen, 1982), and at the same time increase their motivation. These videos opened the way to the introduction to Shakespeare.

Phase 2

After much scaffolding and laying of the foundation, the students were ready for the next phase. In this phase, the lecturer was no longer playing the central role.

The students were expected to utilise the skills gained in Phase 1, and together with the help of online resources, make sense and understand the text themselves. Students were encouraged to use online resources as a means to explore the text, and not as an end to learning. Deeper understanding and clarification were done in class through discussions and analyses. Questions and quizzes were given, and students worked on them in groups and also individually. This phase was the bridge between the building of the foundation of skills to the independent utilisation of those skills.

One of the face-to-face interactions was the discussion of characters in the play. This was followed by an online task where students took part to complete a chain response to the young version of King Lear, who was called Prince Lear - this was a change from the norm. It gave them the opportunity to voice their opinions, question the character, and engage in peer interaction. All the students were eager to participate. Even the quiet ones in class posted their views. Thereafter, they sent in the tutorial task on the character they liked most into Edmodo. Through this platform, the teaching team corresponded with the students and gave comments for improvement in the students' tutorial tasks.

Phase 3

In the third phase, the reading of the text was no longer done in class. Students were expected to go to class for face-to-face interaction and be ready for in-depth discussion of the text with their peers and tutors. They were expected to be ready to critique, analyse and discuss the elements of the play. It was in this phase too that another form of blended learning strategy was incorporated, that was, the Flipped Classroom. According to Panopto (2014), the flipped classroom is where students are introduced to materials before face-to-face classroom interaction time. The time in class is then used for further discussions and problem-solving. In addition, the flipped classroom provides an avenue for students to apply and explore ideas using the knowledge that they had gathered before the class (Institute of Teaching and Learning Innovations, 2016).

The students also had the opportunity to watch Shakespeare's play live and attend a drama workshop at the Performing Arts Centre, Penang. After the theatre visit, they commented on the play online in Edmodo. It was evident that they had gained a lot of experience and insight as they reviewed the play individually and honestly.

Edmodo as the learning management platform

To facilitate blended learning, the LMS Edmodo was used. Edmodo was the platform for the teaching team to manage and facilitate learning. It allowed communication and monitoring between the lecturers and students, paving the way for a more effective and efficient way of collaboration. Learning went beyond the boundaries of space and time, yet there was complete control over the digital classroom (Cauley, n.d.). It also fostered a 21st century learning environment which suited the characteristics of Gen Z very well. Taking cognizance of these Gen Z's technological skills, the teaching team also incorporated various digital

tools to enhance their learning and sustain their motivation through Edmodo as it supports both Google Apps for Education and Microsoft OneNote and Office (Edmodo, 2017). Other digital tools used included Kahoot, Voki and Word Search Maker. The use of these applications provided more flexibility of blended learning (Gogos, 2014). In addition, these tools helped to make the understanding of the text more comprehensible and less daunting.

Non-face-to-face online tasks, materials and links

The online tasks and materials made available to the students in Edmodo are summarised in Table 1 below:

Table 1.

Non Face-to-Face Online Tasks, Materials and Links in Edmodo

Phase	Online Tasks & Materials
1	Movies on Shakespeare's play Modern English translation of the play Notes on the play Historical and social background reading Let's Twit – First thoughts about studying Shakespeare Let's Watch Shakespeare Let's Pick the Watch
2	Notes on the play Quizzes in Sparks Notes Prince Lear – Chain response Discussions - Tutorial Task on Characters
3	Respond to Drama Workshop attended at Performing Arts Centre Penang. Making of online posters Discussions – Tutorial Task on Themes and Symbols

Students' feedback of the course

Our discussion draws on the responses to the four questions posted on Edmodo. The students made their choices by clicking on the response *Yes*, *No* or *Unsure* as in Table 2.

Table 2.

Students' Responses on the Course That They Have Attended.

Question	Yes (%)	Maybe/ Unsure(%)	No(%)
1. Was the course effectively organised?	81	19	-
2. Are you able to understand Shakespeare after attending the course?	74	22	4
3. Is the use of Google Apps (Docs, Slides) beneficial?	63	19	19
4. Can the digital applications used in the course be relevant to your own teaching practice in the future?	93	4	4

Based on the feedback given, 81% of the students found that the course was effectively organised. In Phase 1 the lecturer played a very crucial and dominant role in guiding the students in acquiring the skills of understanding Shakespeare's language and style. In Phase 2, the students began to utilise the skills acquired in Phase 1 to 'break the language code' themselves before coming to class for further questions, explanations and discussions. From this phase too, the lecturer began their roles as facilitators of learning. By Phase 3, using the flipped classroom mode, the students came to class ready to critique and analyse the play. The LMS Edmodo was able to accommodate and facilitate the progressive nature of the three phases.

As for the question on whether they were able to understand Shakespeare after attending the course, 74% responded yes. The students have also given positive responses on the digital tools that were used in the course. 63% agreed that the Google Apps were beneficial. A convincing 93% of the students felt that the applications used in the course would be relevant to their own teaching practice in the future.

Insights Gained

Based on the feedback given by the students, we, the teaching team, reviewed and reflected on how the course was conducted. The students found the course effectively planned and it had helped them understand the play better. These positive responses were strengths that the teaching team noted that would be the basis for the planning of future courses.

The journey in planning and conducting this course had been time consuming for the teaching team. There were also many moments of uncertainties and many firsts that we had attempted. However, these were eclipsed by the many insights and learning that we gained. Some of the significant insights are discussed here.

This was the first time that the teaching team conducted blended learning instruction and also the first time in using Edmodo as a learning management system for a whole course. It was indeed a new experience where we had to learn new skills while trying to navigate ourselves and do the best for our students. It was also our students' first time experiencing blended learning instruction. Although our students were of the Gen Z category, they hardly had such experience while they were in school. They were eager and open to try out the various digital tools without any reluctance.

Through blended learning, the students gained the best of both worlds. From the feedback given by the students, they have gained the skills to help them understand a Shakespeare's play without fear or boredom. Their motivation and engagement were sustained, resulting in a more effective learning experience. Blended learning has helped promote the learning and understanding of Shakespeare.

Incidentally, the use of the various digital tools also opened up a new dimension of learning experience for these students. This is especially significant for them as student teachers because this becomes part of their learning experience as learners. As Lortie (as cited in Borg, 2014) noted, teachers' experiences gained while they were learners often have a lasting stronghold on them. Despite their

formal teaching education training where they were exposed to good practices in teaching, teachers tend to fall back on their past experiences when they conducted their teaching. Blended learning with the use of web tools in this course has enriched the students' experiences and provided good models for them to begin their own professional learning.

Throughout the duration of the course, the teaching team made conscious effort to explain the rationale for the approach taken. We had also constantly reminded the students that the tools they used could be outdated in time. The students needed to keep up with current tools that would be more effective for their own pupils. Just as the teaching team had modelled to them, they were to constantly look into the different ways to make their teaching more effective for their future pupils who would be from another new generation. It is hoped that this experience can become one of their very basic principles that underpins their own professional development.

Another significant insight gained was the importance of time as a crucial element in bringing about impactful change. At every step, the teaching team spent a great deal of time planning, thinking, discussing, learning new skills, adjusting and helping each other.

The other vital element that took us through this course successfully was the support and collaboration among us. It gave us the opportunity to share and complement each other's strengths for the good of our students. Although some of us needed much help in the use of technology and the digital tools, we were constantly supported by our teammates who tirelessly guided us through.

We have also improved and learned new classroom instruction skills from each other. We look forward to learning and gaining new skills, experiences and working as a team. The satisfaction and rewards speak for itself, for we have continued to collaborate in other courses after this experience.

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2 Learning, Beliefs, And Challenges: Students' Perspectives On Schoology In English Learning

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Abstract

The use of technology has become more ubiquitous in English teaching and learning due to the availability of various digital learning media in this 21st century. Some English teachers have started to extend their classroom activities through e-learning using some online applications. *Schoology* as one of the Learning Management Systems (LMS) has become increasingly popular among teachers in providing online learning environment to support students in learning English. This paper aims to present a brief review on *Schoology*, which has been widely used by educators. Through a post survey, the writers collected the data to describe students' experiences in using *Schoology*. In this case, *Schoology* was used in a blended learning setting to support students in learning English. The participants of this study were university students of the English education program. Findings indicated that *Schoology* helped the students in learning English, created a new atmosphere in the classroom, and created opportunities for passive students to deliver their opinions through online learning. Overall, it can be concluded that in using LMS or other applications, the teacher should consider time management and ensure that in the teaching and learning process, the students should not be just learning the technology but also the target language.

Keywords: student's perspective, *Schoology*, learning media, English classroom, blended learning.

Introduction

In recent years, the use of technology in teaching English as Foreign Language has become more ubiquitous in this 21st century especially by employing variety of online applications which provide a facility to connect people around the world to communicate each others. In this digital era, young people spend their time in front of their gadgets on various social media such as *Facebook*, *Twitter*, *Instagram*, *Youtube* and so forth. From this case, the English lecturer can utilize this phenomenon to improve students' language skills through social media. Koper & Tattersall in De Jong et al. (2008) stated that the potential learning of mobile devices offers environment that flexible, rich and interactive learning, it is also accessible and easy to reach anyone and anywhere.

Another famous social media that is employed in education is *Schoology* which was established in 2009. It has successfully driven the educators' attention as one of Learning Management Systems (LMS) for virtual class. Through this LMS, the lecturer can share the learning material, post the assignments, and give feedback to students 24 hours a day. In addition, teaching with technologies will improve students' learning experience, recognize new net-based of communication technologies, and develop teaching methods by innovations (Kanuka & Rourke, 2013). The use of *Schoology* as blended learning media provides innovative and interactive environment that help the students reduce their boredom when learning in onsite classroom.

In order to implement it, the most common technique among the lecturers is blended learning which integrates face-to-face meeting class and online class. Stacey and Gerbic in Bawaneh (2011) state that learning performance and experience of the students can be enhanced by utilizing online resources which are integrated with traditional learning. While, Bawaneh (2011) mentions that blended learning approach requires hard copy study materials, face-to-face meeting and communication via email, internet-based messages, and other online resources.

This study was conducted at Salatiga State Institute of Islamic Studies in Indonesia and involved students of the English department. The survey was conducted after the students finished their English Language Intensive Study course in the first semester which their lecturer employed *Schoology* in the teaching and learning process. The aim of this study is to obtain information about students' opinion after using *Schoology* in learning English. Based on the explanation above, the researchers tried to analyze the implementation of *Schoology* as learning media for English classroom in blended learning setting based on the students' perspectives by using these three research questions, namely:

1. How popular is *Schoology* among students?
2. What are the strengths and the challenges of *Schoology* based on students' perspectives?
3. What is *Schoology's* impact on the students' learning of English?

Literature Review

Blended Learning

Bawaneh (2011) stated that blended learning approach needs study materials of hard copy, face-to-face meeting and communication via email, internet based message, and other online resources. Vaughan et al. in Mtebe & Raphael (2013) state that the combination of learning management system, internet, other related technologies and face-to-face discussion allows the teacher to use variety instructional techniques. These also assist the teacher and students in achieving effective learning outcomes. A blended learning environment also offers new experiences that are not available in non-blended learning environment (Oliver & Trigwell in Jeffrey et al., 2014).

In addition, some practitioners in Kazu and Demirkoh (2014) mention that blended learning as two different combination of education models between traditional face to face learning and electronic learning that provides difference theories, methodologies and techniques of learning and the integration of e-learning which has improved with technology developments in order to provide interaction in the classroom. Delialioğlu (2012) mentions various resources such as multimedia and simulations taken from the internet in the terms of blended learning environment provide freedom for the students to study at their own way, opportunity among the students and the teacher to have discussion on the online material, laboratory activities, and the hands-on activities. Blended learning also eliminates the obstacles in time, place, and situation and enables high quality interaction among teachers and students (Kanuka et al, in Jeffery et al., 2014). Singh in Akkoyunlu & Soylu (2008) adds that blended learning focuses on learning achievement by

transferring the “right” skill for the “right” person and by applying the “right” technologies of learning to monitor the “right” learning style at the “right” time.

Schoology

Schoology is as popular as Facebook in terms of its use as an educational tool used by teachers (Wah et al., 2013). Irawan et al. (2017) state that Schoology is education application of free web-based that allows the teacher to provide lessons digitally. In addition, Indrayasa et al. (2015) argue that Schoology provides some features that is easy to use for the students just like another social media. It helps the teacher in managing learning and the students’ outcomes including the students’ assignments and quiz, the students’ activities monitoring, and social activity facilitation. While, Wah et al. (2013) mention Schoology as a Learning Management System which provides free web-based learning. Schoology is used in university learning because it is accessible and it provides some features in social networking. Students are able to access Schoology application at www.schoology.com by using computer or download it in PlayStore or Appstore on smartphone of android. Schoology had received the title as the best educational apps in 2013, 2014, and 2015 by the CODiE Awards (Irawan, et al., 2017).

Method

Participants

There were 80 students in the English Education Program which formed the participants of this study. This paper employed survey as the research method. It used questionnaire as data collection techniques to obtain the information about students’ perspectives after using *Schoology* in English Language Intensive Study course.

Assessments and Measures

The English Language Intensive Study course was offered to the first semester students of the university. The duration of class for each meeting was 100 minutes. The topics were divided into 14 meetings, 6 meetings for grammar, 6 meetings for language skills practice and 2 meetings for examination. In this case, the lecturer used *Schoology* as a tool to facilitate the students in online communication and discussion, submission of assignment, and sharing of the learning resources.

There are three parts of the survey that consisted of 28 questions in students’ survey to answer the research questions. In the first part of the survey, the researchers gathered data on how popular *Schoology* was among the students. After the lecturer used *Schoology* in the teaching and learning process, the students filled in the survey questionnaire and the table below shows the students’ opinions:

Table 1.
Student opinions on popularity of Schoology

No		SD	D	A	SA
1.	I have been using Schoology before taking English Language Intensive Study course.	27.5 %	60 %	7.5 %	5 %
2.	This is my first time using Schoology in English Language Intensive Study course.	0 %	3.8 %	62.5 %	33.8 %
3.	I use Google to know and understand how to use Schoology.	0 %	16.3 %	62.5 %	21.3 %
4.	I ask my lecturer when I have difficulties in using Schoology.	0 %	7.5 %	61.3 %	31.3 %
5.	I think <i>Schoology</i> has similarity with <i>Facebook</i> when I use it.	2.5 %	28.8 %	57.5 %	11.3 %
6.	I found the difficulty when I used <i>Schoology</i> in learning activity.	3.8 %	57.5 %	35 %	3.8 %
7.	I always check <i>Schoology</i> notifications.	1.3 %	26.3 %	67.5 %	5 %
8.	My lecturer always uses <i>Schoology</i> in English Language Intensive Study course.	0 %	6.3 %	55 %	38.8 %

SD: Strongly Disagree, D: Disagree, A: Agree, SA: Strongly Agree

The second part of survey aimed to gather information about the strengths and challenges of *Schoology*. Table 2 shows the results of the survey.

Table 2.
Student opinions on the strengths and challenges of using Schoology

No		SD	D	A	SA
9.	Submitting the assignment through <i>Schoology</i> does not take much time and money.	0 %	10 %	51.3 %	38.8 %
10.	I can access my learning material through <i>Schoology</i> .	0 %	6.2 %	60 %	33.8 %
11.	<i>Schoology</i> creates a new learning atmosphere in English Language Intensive Study course.	0 %	3.8 %	57.5 %	38.8 %
12.	The use of <i>Schoology</i> gives me more information about the utilization of digital media for English learning activity.	0 %	0 %	36.3 %	61.3 %
13.	The use of <i>Schoology</i> for online learning needs a strong Internet.	0 %	21.3 %	57.5 %	21.3 %
14.	The use of <i>Schoology</i> for online learning needs an adequate gadget (<i>smartphone</i> , pc)	0 %	23.8 %	53.8 %	22.5 %

SD: Strongly Disagree, D: Disagree, A: Agree, SA: Strongly Agree.

In the last part of the survey, the researchers surveyed the students about the impact of the use of *Schoology* in learning English. The analysis of the students' opinions on *Schoology's* impact on learning English are mentioned shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
Impact of Schoology on student learning

No		SD	D	A	SA
15.	Blended learning activity improved my reading skills.	0 %	8.8 %	68.8 %	22.5 %
16.	Blended learning activity improved my writing skills.	0 %	5 %	73.8 %	21.3 %
17.	Blended learning activity improved my speaking skills.	2.5 %	21.3 %	61.3 %	15 %
18.	Blended learning activity improved my listening skills.	2.5 %	30 %	56.3 %	11.3 %
19.	The online learning activity helps me in learning English language.	0 %	5 %	67.5 %	27.5 %
20.	The face-to-face meeting activity helps me in learning English language.	0 %	1.3 %	55 %	43.8 %

SD: Strongly Disagree, D: Disagree, A: Agree, SA: Strongly Agree.

Table 4 shows the analysis results on the students' attitude after participating in the blended learning activity.

Table 4.
Impact of Schoology on students' behaviour

No		SD	D	A	SA
21.	I found a good balance between online and classroom learning activities.	0 %	7.5 %	67.5 %	25 %
22.	I enjoy learning activities in blended learning.	0 %	2.5 %	72.5 %	25 %
23.	Personally, I became more discipline after participating blended learning.	0 %	11.3 %	75 %	13.8 %
24.	Personally, I became more active in this subject by using blended learning.	0 %	10 %	73.8 %	16.3 %
25.	If I do not understand I have the freedom to ask my lecturers.	0 %	0 %	56.3 %	43.8 %
26.	In the blended learning activities I have the freedom to interact with my lecturer both in online or offline.	0 %	3.8 %	65 %	31.3 %
27.	I am more active in the face-to-face classroom than online classroom.	0 %	33.8 %	55 %	11.3 %
28.	I am more active in the online classroom than face-to-face classroom.	0 %	50 %	38.8 %	11.3 %

SD: Strongly Disagree, D: Disagree, A: Agree, SA: Strongly Agree.

Findings

Based on the research questions, there are three outcomes in this paper namely the popularity of *Schoology* among students, the strengths and the challenges of *Schoology* based on students' perspectives, and the impact of *Schoology* for students in learning English. The results of this study are described below.

Finding 1: How popular is *Schoology* among students?

According to the result of data analysis, 96.3% the students used *Schoology* for the first time when they took English Language Intensive Study course in the first semester. Therefore, some students found the difficulties when they used it. To solve their problem, some students used Google to find tutorials on how to use *Schoology* and the others asked their lecturer how to use *Schoology*. 68.8% of the students agreed that *Schoology* has similarity with *Facebook*. On the contrary, 31.3% of the students disagree with that statement because they unfamiliar with some features in *Schoology* which different from *Facebook*. Based on the interview, some students confused about submitting the assignment and joining the discussion forum. Even though, the students still struggles to use *Schoology*, 72.5% of them always checked their *Schoology* notification and while 27.5% rarely checked the notification because of the lack of gadget or internet connection. As a result, the researchers can conclude that *Schoology* is still new for the students because some of them seemed to have the opinion that *Schoology* looks like social media that focuses on education.

Finding 2: What are the strengths and the challenges of *Schoology* based on students' perspectives?

Schoology has many strengths and challenges based on students' perspectives in blended learning activity. The survey indicated that through *Schoology* the students can save time and money in submitting their assignments, access the learning resources easily, feel a new learning atmosphere, and provided them information on the utilization of digital media for English learning. In addition to its strengths, *Schoology* has its challenges for the students. The use of *Schoology* required strong internet connection, electricity, and adequate technological device such as *smartphone* or computer.

Finding 3: What is *Schoology's* impact on the student's learning of English?

The results of the survey show *Schoology's* impact on the students' learning English in a blended learning setting. Most of the students agreed that this activity improved their learning of the English language. 91.3% agreed that they improved their reading skills, 95.1% for writing skills, 76.3% for speaking skill, and 67.6% for listening skill. Listening skill had the lowest percentage because the students preferred to conduct listening practice in the onsite classroom rather than in online classroom. Again, it is because of the problem in internet connection. For reading and writing skills, the students could do them both in the onsite and online classroom. Whereas for the speaking skill, the students loved to upload their speaking assignment in the form of video through *Schoology*. In addition, around 90% students agreed that both online and classroom activities helped them in learning the English language.

Besides that, the researchers also found the students' behaviour improved after joining the blended learning activity. 67.5% of the students found a good balance

between online and classroom learning activities. Even though, 66.3 % of the students more active in the face-to-face classroom and 50.2% of students are more active in the online classroom. They enjoyed the learning activities as a result they became more disciplined and active after participating in blended learning. The lecturer also encouraged them to ask anything related to the course topics both online and offline.

Discussion

As mentioned before, the use of *Schoology* is to facilitate online communication and discussion, submit the assignment, and share the learning resources. From the findings there were some strengths and challenges of this mode of blended learning. However, then online classroom can support onsite classroom in solving the problems such as limitation of time and place. Moreover, online learning gave the opportunity for passive students to deliver their opinions. Sometimes, the passive students were shy and afraid to speak up in the English class because of the lack of vocabulary and language structure. Therefore, by using online learning they can improve their speaking skill because they have more time to think about their responses in written form.

The objective of this course is for the students to develop their ability to speak English fluently. Therefore, the lecturer put reading and writing skills in the online classroom via *Schoology* whereas speaking and listening skills remained in the onsite classroom. The students should repeat the topic of online discussion in the onsite classroom where there can be presentations in groups or individually. The purpose of this activity was to improve the students' speaking and listening skills. In order to make the lesson more interesting in the classroom, the lecturer asked the students to record their presentations and shared it through *Schoology*. This activity also improved the students' critical thinking and communication skills by giving comments, feedback, and constructive criticism of the other students' work.

Conclusion

Schoology is a learning management system designed for educational purposes that can be used by lecturers in their teaching and learning process. Most of the students agreed that blended learning using *Schoology* can support development of their productive and receptive language skills. Unfortunately, not all students became the active participants in *Schoology* learning activities. This was because not all the students had a *smartphone* or personal computer as tools for online learning. Moreover, a good internet connection is also needed. Therefore, lecturers who want to employ Learning Management System (LMS) or Social Networking Site (SNS) in their teaching and learning process should pay attention to their students' background and its benefit to improve the students' English language skills. Moreover, the lecturer should consider time management and ensure that in the teaching and learning process, the students are not only struggling to use the application but are, more importantly, learning the target language.

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3 Collaborative Writing Among Students With Different Personalities: Perceptions, Outcomes and Reflections of Conflict

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Abstract

Five sessions of collaborative writing among tertiary students were observed. Five Diploma in Mass Communication students completed a product-centred course which focused on play analysis and stage performance. They formed a case study group in this study when performing a script-writing task. The main objective of this study is to obtain insight into conflict occurring during collaborative writing among students with different personality profiles categorised under Leonard Personality Inventory (LPI). Using video recordings, interviews, diary entries and observations, the findings indicated that there were perceptions of conflict and outcomes of it in the course of collaboration. Attempts to improve future collaboration through instructor and participation reflection were conducted, too. These findings suggest that conflict can be advantageous but can be detrimental to group dynamics if it is not monitored closely. It is crucial for instructors and students to be aware of the existence of conflict. Additionally, positive and adverse consequences of conflict on student collaboration in the writing classroom should be given much prominence. The understanding will help further enhance and refine the use of collaboration.

Keywords: Leonard Personality Inventory, conflict, outcomes of conflict, group dynamics, collaborative writing

Introduction

Collaborative writing is described as a situation in which writers share power, make decisions together and eventually produce a piece of written work through joint effort (Allen, Atkinson, Morgan, Moore & Snow, 1987). Collaboration is traditionally conducted via face-to-face communication. In addition, collaborative writing has even involved the use of technology such as developing a process-oriented collaborative writing system called Process-Writing Wizard (Yeh, Lo & Huang, 2011); using Web 2.0 (Rice, 2009), including Google Docs in group facilitation (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014) and setting up a portal named The Writing Portal (Lee, Said & Tan, 2016) as a bid to increase student involvement.

However, conflict may result from student collaboration. Therefore, Speck (2002) has designed a framework to increase comprehension on the use of collaborative writing. Bush & Zudeima (2013) have used it as a guide to define "good" and "bad" conflict. The former is having debates regarding ideas while the latter is having arguments pertaining to personal and procedural struggles which should be reduced (Bush & Zudeima, 2013).

In addition, collaboration may be challenging due to different personalities of individuals. LEONARD Personality Profile (LPI) was used in this study to identify the preferred behavioural styles of participants. LPI was designed by Yong (2003) and consists of 100 items used to assess the personality style of an individual. The

items measure five dimensions of personality which are Openness, Neutral, Analytical, Relational and Decisive.

It is crucial for collaborators to reflect on their collaborative processes regularly. In addition, when instructors reflect on collaborative activities which are conducted in their classrooms, they are able to improve the sessions. Garrison (1997) supports the practice of reflection for self-directed learning which consists of self-management, self-monitoring and motivational dimensions are advantageous to students. The main objective of this study is to obtain insight of conflict during collaboration among students with different personality profiles and provide recommendations on how to improve future collaborations.

Method

Participants

There were five participants in this study. They were Diploma in Mass Communication students who were in their first year of studies. All of them majored in Journalism.

There were three female and two male participants. They were Susie, Alfie, Wan, Mira and Tina. Pseudonyms were used to maintain confidentiality of the participants involved in this study.

All of the participants were given LEONARD Personality Inventory (LPI) to complete in order to find out their personality profiles. Mira and Susie were Helpful Encourager (Neutral and Relational) while Alfie was Creative Relater (Relational and Open). In addition, Wan was discovered to be Exhorter (Relational and Decisive) and Tina was Creative Expert (Neutral and Open).

Writing task

A script-writing task was given to the participants to perform in this study. They self-formed a group in order to carry out the collaborative writing task. Cooperative learning which is crucial in collaborative writing is promoted when students are given the choice in selecting whom to collaborate with (Cote, 2006). Susie was appointed as the group leader after much negotiation over the appointment of a leader because of the reluctance of other group members in leading the group.

The length of the script should be about 2000 words. It should consist of three acts. The script could be based on tragedy, comedy, problem play, farce, comedy of manners, fantasy, melodrama or musical play or even a combination of a few types of drama.

The participants collaborated in writing the script. It meant they had to discuss in making decisions regarding the setting, characters, description of scenes and producing dialogue lines for the script. Eventually, the group performed a play in their classroom. The participants needed a total of five sessions to perform the writing task.

Data Collection

The instructor cum researcher video-taped all of the collaborative writing sessions. In addition, she observed the participants during the collaborative sessions. She produced observation notes to record down significant episodes which emerged in the course of collaboration.

Two other research methods used in this study were interviews and diary entries. The participants described their experiences and provided their views on the collaborative sessions through them. Triangulation of data was obtained through the different research methods used in this study.

Results and Discussion

Critical incidents related to conflict

There were a few critical incidents identified in which conflict was perceived as present in the course of collaboration. They were pertaining to situations created from a lack of in-depth discussion, leader's facilitation ability and group's refusal to accept instructions. The critical incidents produced mixed results which affected student collaboration and group dynamics. The results observed arising from perceived conflict were concerted efforts in task performance, progress in work and tense situations which inhibited free flow of interactions. In addition, the instructor and participants involved in this study reflected on the collaboration as a bid to improve future.

Critical Incident 1: A lack of in-depth discussion.

Generally, the group faced difficulties in having deep discussions on their writing task. They moved rapidly from one topic of discussion to another without much deliberation which failed to lead to effective decision making. These actions created conflict among the group members due to their different levels of commitment towards their work.

It was observed that Alfie was solely responsible in changing topics of discussion introduced by Susie as the leader of the group. Alfie who was a Creative Relater was talkative and inattentive. He changed the direction of the discussion on the cause of the death of the protagonist's mother to strong emotional bond shared by the protagonist and her father. In addition, he initiated a discussion on the polygamous marriage of the protagonist's parents as his group members were elaborating on the way the protagonist was self-supporting herself. Alfie also started talking about the protagonist's brother being immature as his group was elaborating on how the protagonist was raised by a single father. His continual actions exasperated his group members.

The rapid change of topics of discussion resulted in the group being unable to make decisions effectively on ideas to be included in the script. It was also observed that the group was interrupted in their decision making on role allocation and size of props to be used for their play. The group members were frustrated and described their collaborative sessions as "aimless" and "confusing" through their interviews and diary entries. They were uncertain if future collaborative writing sessions would be beneficial to them since they experienced a lack of focus in the previous discussions.

Outcome from Critical Incident 1: Having More Concerted Efforts in Task Performance.

The situation of lacking focus on their writing task resulted in the group leader, Susie placing much effort in guiding her group to concentrate on their task. She was a Helpful Encourager who was described as harmonious and resolved tension well. Susie did not want her group to be delayed in their work and decided to play a proactive role.

Susie expressed her frustrations through her interviews and diary entries of the situations before taking control of the discussions. She described them as, "So far, it's like everyone giving different ideas. Haywire. I get temperamental and upset because I don't like distractions when I'm writing. Each of us are playful." Susie was instrumental in asking leading questions to ensure the discussions were progressing well. She provided questions for her group members to answer regarding the selection of type of drama for their play, role allocation, year, trends, vehicles, clothes pertaining to their play and details regarding the plot. Her action was to ensure that her group was concentrating on their task and not distracted by Alfie and other group members who would join him as he moved from topic to topic without having any in-depth interactions.

Critical Incident 2: Leader's Facilitation Ability.

Susie was inexperienced in leading her group during the collaboration. In the earlier sessions, she adopted a relaxed and open approach in guiding her group but later changed her leadership style to becoming strict and controlling. It was prompted by her observations that her group was aimless in their discussions.

Susie, being a Helpful Encourager was sociable and did not like to create friction in her group. She expressed her hope through the interviews and diary entries that "groupwork was interesting becoz. everyone can share ideas freely and happy". Therefore, she decided to be friendly and open in her manner of leading the group initially.

However, after a few sessions of collaborative writing, she discovered that her group was playful and was unable to focus on their task. Susie described her group as "playful" through her interviews and diary entries and decided to change her leadership style. She became too controlling and filtered ideas more thoroughly than before. It could be concluded that Susie being an inexperienced leader did not know how to seek a balance between being relaxed and controlling when facilitating her group.

Outcomes from Critical Incident 2: Progress in work and unhappiness among group members.

There were mixed results from the second critical incident. Firstly, there was more progress in the group's collaboration than earlier sessions. On the other hand, Susie's change of manner in leading her group created dissatisfaction among her group members.

Susie's strict manner of guiding her group's discussions caused her group to concentrate on their writing task. She successfully guided her group in making decisions on finalising the characters and the plot of the play. Simultaneously, it created tense situations when Susie disallowed the group members from diverting attention to matters which she felt were unimportant. Alfie and Wan paired up in opposing her guidance openly such as protesting verbally when she attempted to

move to new topics of discussion and select suitable ideas for the script. Susie's group members except for Alfie voiced their dissatisfactions through their interviews. They stated that "open and clear communication start early", "have to stop group member argue" and "leader critical" when describing their collaboration. It showed their disapproval of Susie's change in the manner of facilitating the discussions.

Critical Incident 3: Group members' refusal to accept instructions

The third critical incident observed was the group members' unwillingness to follow the leader's guidance. Their action was consistent in all of the collaborative writing sessions. The group members except Tina were influenced by Alfie in ignoring Susie's guidance.

Alfie, being a Creative Relater, talked incessantly during the discussions. Besides that, he had many ideas flowing through his mind being a creative person and he was spontaneous in presenting them to his group. Therefore, he was unable to take time to listen to others and to accept guidance from Susie. Mira and Wan interacted with him actively and failed to allow their leader to facilitate the sessions. Consequently, the group except for Alfie acknowledged their slow pace in their writing task after a few sessions. It can be concluded that the group lacked Socially Shared Regulation of Learning (SSRL) due to the group's inability to coordinate their actions during collaboration. SSRL can only result when group members co-operate to complement and negotiate shared insights and aims for the task in order to complete the group task (Ku, Tseng, & Akarasriworn, 2013; Malmberg, Järvelä, Järvenoja, & Panadero, 2015; Malmberg, Järvelä & Järvenoja, 2017).

Outcome from Critical Incident 3: Tense situations created

The refusal of group members to follow the guidance resulted in tense situations formed. Susie became strict and controlling towards her group members. She openly filtered their ideas and urged them to perform their sub-tasks such as props selection and making decisions on characters in the play. It was achieved at the expense of Susie ignoring some of her group's suggestions which she deemed as unimportant.

Alfie, Wan and Mira decided to discuss matters they regarded as important instead of being totally led by Susie. Alfie challenged Susie's decisions in rejecting their ideas which seemed inappropriate to her. Wan even joined Alfie in ignoring Susie and laughed at their private jokes which diverted attention from the topics being discussed. In addition, Mira refused to let Susie continue writing their script when Susie observed that she was not writing out everything they had discussed. Mira gently pulled the paper from Susie and continued writing without explaining her action. The tense situations created much frustration and unhappiness which the group expressed through their interviews and diary entries. Therefore, they described their experiences as "leader too much in control", "no creativity in discussions" and "i dun care i do what i like".

Researcher Reflections on Collaborative Sessions

This section provides insight the researcher obtained from the participants' collaborative writing sessions. The researcher attempted to comprehend the

critical incidents and outcomes which occurred in order to improve future student collaborations. The insight was pertaining to personality profiles of participants, nature of the collaborative writing task, and guidance during collaboration.

It was observed from this study that personality profiles of the participants affected the course of collaboration. It is recommended that collaborators be provided with knowledge about their own personality profiles and of other group members in the group. LPI can be administered to them and a briefing can be conducted to increase their awareness of their others' personality profiles. Consequently, conflict may be reduced when they understand each other well.

The collaborative writing task for this study was producing a script of about 2000 words. The participants might easily be carried away during their discussions and lose focus on their task as they attempted the creative task. Therefore, the instructor's involvement in preparing them for collaboration could be important. Firstly, guidance in the form of sub-tasks to be performed for each collaborative session can be provided for the participants. Secondly, the leader can be trained before the sessions in order to equip her in being a better leader than before. Thirdly, the instructor can be present in the collaborative sessions at random to help the collaborators in facing challenging situations in the course of collaboration. Consequently, the discussions would be focused and productive.

Conclusion

According to Kirschner and Erkens (2013), success in student collaboration is not guaranteed in all situations. Conflict which may be caused by many factors can be detrimental to collaborators. The findings in this study revealed that critical incidents such as a lack of in-depth discussions, a leader's inexperience in facilitating a group and refusal of group members to follow their leader's instructions were perceived to breed conflict. Consequently, there were mixed results on the outcomes of collaborative writing.

When conflict is handled successfully, collaborative writing can be advantageous to students. According to Bush and Zudeima (2013), productive collaborative writing sessions can enable students to learn academic teamwork which is impossible to be taught by instructors in the classroom. The required skills can only be honed when students are directly involved in the process of collaboration itself.

Reflection is important in the process of becoming effective collaborators. According to Higgins, Flower and Petraglia (1992), critical reflection is important in the process of effective planning in collaborative writing. It is because the thinking process is refined when one is able to challenge one's thinking and consequently, progresses to higher level of cognitive skills. According to Hilgers (1987), it is important that collaborative skills be taught to students. Instructors can determine the skills to be taught through their observations and reflections on collaborative sessions in their classrooms.

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4 The Impact of Self-Assessment for Speaking on Washback Effect

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Abstract

Alternative assessment is a new assessment culture that values processes of learning and the unique performance of an individual. Self-assessment, as an alternative assessment process, encourages learners to take greater responsibility for their own learning. Here, discovering any washback effect of self-assessment towards students' speaking proficiency could be very helpful for the teaching and learning process. This paper aims to uncover the washback effect, both positive and negative, of the implication of self-assessment for students' speaking proficiency. The findings indicate that self-assessment has a significant impact i.e. both a positive and negative washback effect on language skills, especially speaking. It was found that self-assessment can improve students' speaking proficiency in the learning process.

Keywords: self-assessment, speaking skill, washback effect

Introduction

In line with theories of self-directed learning and learner autonomy, self-assessment is assuming a larger role in language teaching nowadays. The procedure involves students in making judgments about their own learning, particularly about their achievements and learning outcomes. Many researchers and practitioners deem self-assessment as a vital part of learner autonomy and argue that teachers should provide the opportunity for students to assess their language level so as to help them focus on their own learning (Blanche, 1988; Blue, 1994; Oscarson, 1997). Hunt, Gow & Barnes (1989) even claim that without learner self-evaluation and self-assessment "there can be no real autonomy" (p. 207).

In addition, self-assessment is considered necessary for effective lifelong learning (Boud, 2000). There is a common understanding that university education should equip students with the skills and attitudes required throughout their lives. As Boud (2000) argues, "Assessment involves identifying appropriate standards and criteria and making judgments about quality. This is as necessary to lifelong learning as it is to any formal educational experience". Given as such, when asked to assess their own language performance and progress in the classroom, students will identify appropriate standards for the task in hand and seek forms of feedback from the environment (including peers, teachers, written or oral sources), and gradually develop a critical attitude towards their learning, which will in the long run prepare them for their future roles in the workplace.

Research into the reliability and validity of self-assessment among ESL/EFL students has yielded mixed results. Some studies have reported agreement between students' self-awarded ratings and ratings awarded by their teacher (AlFallay, 2004; Chen, 2008) or scores that students expected to get in a test and those they actually obtained (Bachman and Palmer, 1989) and suggested that students are able to assess their language proficiency accurately. However, discrepancy has also been found between students' self-ratings and ratings from other sources (Blue, 1994; Yang, 2002).

Literature suggests that student participation in grading is a viable method to encourage learner autonomy because the ability to assess one's proficiency with a reasonable degree of accuracy and supplement any deficiency therein is essential preparation for lifelong learning. The more often students are exposed to self-assessment the more accurate their assessment becomes.

This paper aims to uncover the washback effect, both positive and negative, of the implication of self-assessment for students' speaking proficiency.

Literature Review

Types of Self-Assessment

Bachman in Saito (2014) have attempted to define the term by identifying two types of self-assessment according to their purpose. One is the performance-oriented assessment that measures the outcomes related to selection, certification, placement, achievement, diagnosis, etc. and the other is development-oriented self-assessment that measures the process of learning (usually in a classroom environment) in which self-managed activities are incorporated. For instance, if self-assessment is used as a placement exam in a university ESL program, it will be administered to the students only once prior to programme entrance. In this case, students are asked to evaluate their language ability on whatever is being assessed. The advantage of the performance-oriented assessment is it eliminates concerns with cheating as well as security issues and is also cost and time efficient. This approach not only promotes autonomy in student learning, it also helps the teachers measure the students' progress in the course whereas development-oriented self-assessment may presently best serve as a complementary instrument to traditional assessment.

Process of Self-Assessment

McMillan (2008) provides three processes of self-assessment. They are self-monitoring, self-judgment and learning target. In self-monitoring, the students pay deliberate attention to what they are doing, often in relation to external standards. Thus, self-monitoring concerns awareness of thinking and progress as it occurs and involves identifying progress towards targeted performance. Made in relation to established standards and criteria, these judgments give students a meaningful idea of what they know and what they still need to learn and as such, identify part of what students do when they self-assess. As for the learning target, the students choose subsequent learning goals and activities to improve partially correct answers, to correct misunderstandings and to extend learning. They need skills in determining learning targets and further instruction that will enhance their learning. Overall, in a self-assessment process, the students identify their learning

and performance strategies, provide feedback to themselves based on well-understood standards and criteria, and determine the next steps or plans to enhance their performance.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Self-Assessment

Many researchers have shown that self-assessment can motivate and improve a student's learning. Alvarez and Munoz (2009) said that self-assessment can be related to beneficial washback because it helps learners develop internal criteria for progress and success, and thus develop learner autonomy. Esmat Babaii, Shahin Taghaddomi and Roya Pashmforoosh (2015) pointed out that getting learners involved in assessing their own ability would help them improve learning. NFER (2012) argued that assessing their own work or that of others can help pupils develop their understanding of learning objectives and success criteria. Therefore making judgments about the progress of one's own learning is integral to the learning process.

An advantage of self-assessment is that it may lead to more confidence while performing a task (Oscarson, 1997). Oscarson (1997) also mentions six advantages of using self-assessment in the language classroom: promotion of learning, raised level of awareness, improved goal-orientation, expansion of range of assessment, shared assessment burden, and beneficial post-course effects. Blue (1994) identifies benefits such as encouraging more effort, boosting self-confidence, and facilitating awareness of the distinction between competence and performance as well as self-consciousness of learning strengths and weaknesses.

Schwartz gives some advantages and disadvantages of self-assessment. The advantages of self-assessment are: encouraging student involvement and responsibility; encouraging students to reflect on their role and contribution to the process of the group work; allowing students to see and reflect on their peers' assessment of their contribution; and focusing on the development of a student's judgment skills. While one of the disadvantages of self-assessment is potentially increasing lecturer workload by needing to brief students on the process as well as on-going guidance on performing self-evaluation, self-evaluation also has the risk of being perceived as a process of presenting inflated grades and being unreliable; and students might feel ill equipped to undertake the assessment.

Washback Effect

Washback is not restricted to learners and teachers. Bachman and Palmer (1996) consider washback to be a subset of a test's impact on society, educational systems and individuals. They believe that test impact operates at two levels: The micro level (i.e. the effect of the test on individual students and teachers); and the macro level or the impact the test may have on society and the educational system.

Discussion

Investigations concerning self-assessment in language learning have examined the value of self-assessment in proficiency testing with participants of all ages in

different language skills and the results with these learners show that self-assessment positively correlates with language abilities, including oral language or speaking ability. For example, Finch and Taeduck (2002) examined applying self-assessment as a valuable additional means of improving oral abilities. They developed a test focusing on the improvement in spoken English of 1700 Freshman University students over an academic year (64 hours). This was administered and evaluated using established oral-test criteria. They looked at improvement rather than the level of achievement, and the Conversation-English course taken by the students was the basis of the test. Results showed that:

- 1) preparation for the test necessitated active spoken participation in lessons,
- 2) lessons tended to utilize task-based communicative teaching methods, and
- 3) the means became the end - the test was not only a reason for developing oral skills, but also a means of achieving that goal.

Another research about the impact of self-assessment on students speaking proficiency is also held by Naeini (2011) entitled "Self-assessment and the impact on language skills". She did not only focus on the impact of self-assessment on students speaking proficiency but also their writing ability. The results of the study indicated the outperformance of the experimental group over the control group in both writing and speaking. The data analyses also revealed that the experimental group scores significantly differed from the scores of the subjects in the control group in all the components, both in writing and speaking. This is an evidence for the treatment effect. Hence, self-assessment is suggested to be applied as a booster for the other skills. In other words, the study began with the intention of developing a means whereby language learners would be able to monitor their learning by evaluating their performance on writing tasks. Then, it became evident that this ultimately resulted in the improvement of the other language skill, for instance, speaking.

Moreover, there is also a research held by Sammy (2009) entitled "Self-assessment in the School-based Assessment speaking component in a Hong Kong Secondary Four classroom: A case study". This study examines the process of implementing student self-assessment in a local secondary school to prepare students for the SBA speaking assessments. It was found that most of the students in the study had not participated in self-assessment before the study began. The data collected from the various sources support the assertion that self-assessment has positive impacts on students' perceived performance but the students were reserved about doing it. They also responded differently to the various class activities. The students valued feedback from others most but it was found that the way the teacher gave students feedback might have a significant influence on how students do peer and self-assessment. The most significant finding was that the negative psychological impact self-assessment has on students cannot be neglected.

Reviewing on some researches about the effect on the use of self-assessment for speaking, it can be seen that self-assessment for speaking performance has several washback effects, both positive and negative. However, most of the results show about positive effects on learning outcomes. By using self-assessment, language learners would be able to monitor their learning by evaluating their performance. After assessing themselves, learners' speaking proficiency would be increased because self-assessment can encourage more student effort, boost their

self-confidence, and facilitate awareness of the distinction between competence and performance as well as self-consciousness of their learning strengths and weaknesses. This is Oscarson's (1997) argument about the advantages of doing self-assessment. He states that the advantages of using self-assessment in the language classroom are: promotion of learning, raised level of awareness, improved goal-orientation, expansion of range of assessment, shared assessment burden, and beneficial post-course effects.

Conclusion

Self-assessment is a process of alternative assessment where the students judge or evaluate their quality of their work, the outcome of their learning and also identify their strengths and weaknesses. Self-assessment might have a significant impact i.e. both positive and negative washback effect on language skills especially speaking and may be possibly related to some other variables such as gender, age, personality-type and teachers' attitudes towards self-assessment. However, viewing the results of some researches, it can be summarized that the effect of self-assessment stands mostly on the side of positive washback because it can improve students' speaking proficiency in the learning process.

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5 The Relationship between Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract

This quantitative study was conducted at Kocaeli University English Prep School, Turkey with four B (beginner/ elementary) and four A (pre-intermediate/ intermediate) level classes to identify the level of students' learner autonomy and their use of language learning strategies. It also aims to find out whether there is a relationship between their learner autonomy and strategy use. Findings indicate that students took half of the responsibility of their own learning. They were aware of the language learning strategies and sometimes used them; thus, they did not have strong control over their learning process. The data also shows that there is a relation between learner autonomy and language learning strategy use; the more the students were autonomous, the more language learning strategies they employed to cope with the difficulties they faced in their language learning process.

Keywords: learner autonomy, language learning strategies, strategy use, language learning process, language learning proficiency

Introduction

The focus of much research in education is on defining how learners can take charge of their own learning and how teachers can help students to become more autonomous (Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Holec (1981) describes an autonomous learner in various aspects. An autonomous learner is capable of determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.) and evaluating what has been acquired. Autonomous learners have the capacity to determine realistic and reachable goals, select appropriate methods and techniques to be used, monitor their own learning process, and evaluate the progress of their own learning (Little, 1991). According to Dam (1990), an autonomous learner is an active participant in the social processes of learning and an active interpreter of new information in terms of what she/he already and uniquely knows. Autonomous people are intrinsically-motivated, perceive themselves to be in control of their decision-making, take responsibility for the outcomes of their actions and have confidence in themselves (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Bandura, 1989; Doyal & Gough, 1991). Dickinson (1995) underlines the importance of learner autonomy while giving five features of autonomous learners; they i) understand what is being taught, i.e. they have sufficient understanding of language learning to understand the purpose of pedagogical choices, ii) are able to formulate their own learning objectives, iii) are able to select and make use of appropriate learning strategies, iv) are able to monitor their use of strategies, v) are able to self-assess, or monitor their own learning.

The literature showed that students do apply strategies while learning a second language and that these strategies can be described and classified. The taxonomy of language learning strategies used in this study is Oxford (1990) in which strategies are grouped as direct or indirect language learning strategies. Language learners employ strategies; however, they vary in their choice of strategies. Ellis (1994) defines some factors that affect the strategy choice of learners. Learners' beliefs about language learning affect strategy choice. Ellis (1994) states that learners who emphasize the importance of *learning* tend to use cognitive strategies (direct strategies), while the ones who emphasize the importance of *using* the language rely on communication strategies (indirect strategies). Learner factors such as age, aptitude, motivation, personal background, and gender also affect strategy choice. Ellis (1994) states that young children employ strategies in task-specific manners, while older children and adults make use of generalized strategies. Aptitude, related to learning styles, also affects strategy choice. Oxford and Ehrman (1990) suggest that introverts, intuitives, feelers, and perceivers have advantages in classroom contexts because they have more aptitude for language learning and use more strategies. Ellis (1994) suggests that highly motivated students use more strategies related to formal practice, functional practice, general study, conversation, and input elicitation than poorly motivated students. Learning experiences also affect strategy choice; students with at least five years of study use more functional-practice strategies than students with fewer years of experiences (Ellis, 1994). The nature and range of the instructional task affect strategy choice and use as well. Learning languages that are totally different from learners' native language may result in greater use of strategies than learning similar ones (Ellis, 1994).

Method

Participants

In this study, the population was Kocaeli University 2013- 2014 academic year Foreign Languages School students. Eight classes were randomly chosen; four B (beginner/ elementary) level and four A (pre-intermediate/ intermediate) level classes. The students were assigned to the classes based on their grades of the placement test administered at the beginning of year. The study focused on learner autonomy in a school context where the students proceeded through already defined content; therefore, what we refer to as autonomy should better be regarded as reactive autonomy. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Oxford) was conducted to identify the strategy use of the students and Learner Autonomy questionnaire prepared by Karabiyik (2008) was used.

Results

The results in Table 1 show that the mean score falls within the range of a score of "3" on the Likert scale. That is, the students considered their teachers to be neither the only authority nor the facilitator in the class, but falling somewhere in between.

Table 1.
The role of the teacher

Answer	Sole authority			Facilitator			X	SD
	1	2	3	4	5			
N	12	13	40	24	10	3.06	1.126	

As the results displayed in Table 2 indicate the mean score falls within the range of a score of "3" on the Likert scale. The students considered themselves neither autonomous nor teacher- dependent, but falling somewhere in between.

Table 2.
Learner Autonomy

Answer	Dependent on the teacher			Autonomous			X	SD
	1	2	3	4	5			
N	6	6	46	29	13	3.38	.993	

As shown by the data in Table 3, there were no items which were clustered in the "frequently" category of the scale. The items that attained the highest percentages were "participating in group/pair work activities" (item 9), "choosing partners to work with" (item 12), "participating in a project work" (item 13), "setting learning goals" (item 16) and "evaluating the courses" (item 17), which were "sometimes" carried out by the participants in their high schools with mean scores of 2.93, 2.65, 2.79, 2.93 and 2.68 respectively. The items that had the lowest mean scores were "preparing portfolios" (item 19), and "deciding what to learn next" (item 18) with mean scores of 1.98, and 2.09 respectively. Frequency counts show that in total, more than half of the respondents were "rarely or never" asked to engage in these activities.

Table 3.
About high School Education

Throughout your high school education, ...	Frequency Percentages (%)				X	SD
	Never 1	Rarely 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4		
9. How often were you asked to participate in group/pair work activities?	6	23	43	28	2.93	.872
10. How often were you asked to evaluate your own work?	13	35	43	6	2.46	.834
11. How often were you asked to evaluate your peers' work?	23	39	31	7	2.22	.889
12. How often were you asked to choose your partner to work with?	11	34	34	21	2.65	.935

13. How often were you asked to participate in a project work?	5	30	45	20	2.79	$.813$
14. How often did your teachers ask you to choose what activities to use in your lessons?	18	42	30	10	2.32	.857
15. How often did your teachers ask you to choose what materials to use in your lessons?	21	40	30	9	2.27	.890
16. How often were you asked to set your own learning goals?	7	28	29	36	2.93	.966
17. How often were you asked to evaluate your course?	8	37	33	22	2.68	.915
18. How often were you asked to decide what you should learn next?	35	32	22	11	2.09	1.009
19. How often were you asked to prepare portfolios?	37	35	22	6	1.98	.916

In the next part, participants were asked to indicate their perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities while learning English. There were 13 items related to perceptions of responsibility, and the respondents ranked their answers on a three-point Likert scale that ranged from *completely the teacher's* to *completely mine*. Table 4 shows the percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations of each item. As shown by the data, for items 20 and 31, the participants gave more responsibility to themselves with mean scores of 2.72 and 2.64 respectively. These items include the responsibilities for "*making sure they make progress outside class*" (Item 21) and "*evaluating their course*" (Item 31). In these items, the majority of the participants chose "completely mine" option. In particular, the results of Items 21 and 31 show that more than 70% of the participants had a tendency to take more control for the responsibilities taken outside the class.

Table 4.
Responsibilities

Items	Frequency Percentages (%)			X	SD
	Completely the teacher's	Half mine, half the teacher's	Completely mine		
	1	2	3		
20. Make sure you make progress during lesson	2	89	9	2.72	.328
21. Make sure you make progress outside class	1	23	77	2.74	.466

22. Stimulate your interest in learning English	37	56	7	1.71	.598
23. Identify your weaknesses in English	20	52	28	2.09	.689
24. Make you work harder	16	44	40	2.34	.713
25. Decide the objectives of the English course	24	55	21	1.96	.675
26. Decide what you should learn next	62	31	7	1.45	.632
27. Choose what activities to use in your English lessons	53	46	1	1.49	.527
28. Decide how long to spend on each activity	61	30	9	1.48	.652
29. Choose what materials to use in your English lessons	61	35	4	1.43	.567
30. Evaluate your learning	39	50	11	1.72	.653
31. Evaluate your course	10	18	72	2.64	.660
32. Decide what you learn outside the class	26	62	12	1.87	.604

In the next part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked 6 questions about their perceptions of their decision-making abilities in a range of activities/responsibilities included in the first part. In other words, they were asked to indicate how successful they would be if they were given the opportunity to make decisions about their own learning. They ranked their answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *very poor* to *very good*. Table 5 shows the percentages of the responses of the control group participants given to the individual items. As shown by the data, most of the responses are clustered under the "OK" category of the scale. The activities that the participants rated themselves as "OK" at managing were mostly in-class activities: "*choosing learning activities in the class*" (item 33), "*choosing learning objectives in the class*" (item 35) and "*choosing learning materials in the class*" (item 37). The data also shows that the percentages of the participants who chose "*poor/very poor*" categories were generally quite low as compared to the percentages in the other categories.

Table 5.
Abilities

Frequency Percentages (%)							
If you have the opportunity, how good do you think you would be at:	Very poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very good	X	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
33. choosing learning activities in class?	3	5	44	38	10	3.45	.877
34. choosing learning activities outside class?	12	33	38	17	0	3.60	.914
35. choosing learning objectives in the class?	2	6	45	33	14	3.49	.892
36. choosing learning objectives outside the class?	1	7	31	35	27	3.77	.960

37. choosing learning materials in the class?	4	18	46	28	4	3.10	.869
38.choosing learning materials outside the class?	4	11	38	13	14	3.44	.995

In the fourth part of the questionnaire, students were asked to indicate the frequency of the autonomous learning activities they engaged inside and outside the class. On a four point Likert scale, students were asked to indicate how often they carried out 8 out-of-class activities that require autonomy. Table 6 presents the frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of each activity engaged in outside the class. The activities that attained the highest percentage in the "always" and "often" categories were "*listening to songs*" (item 46) and "*trying to learn new words*" (item 41) respectively. Additionally, more than half of the participants said that they "always" and "often" *watched English TV programs and films* (item 43) in total.

Table 6.
Use of English

In the last academic term, without having been assigned to do so, how often did you ...	Frequency Percentages (%)					X	SD
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never		
39.do grammar activities on your own	4	17	39	26	14	3.04	.905
40.do optional homework	11	12	36	26	14	3.04	1.014
41.try to learn new words	20	46	22	7	5	2.22	.990
42.use English on the internet (chat, search, etc.)	18	24	29	22	7	2.84	1.205
43.watch English programs or films	31	28	22	12	7	2.38	1.172
44.read materials written in English	8	11	34	38	9	3.16	.956
45.speak English with native speakers	18	6	27	33	16	3.50	.954
46.listen to English songs	42	27	19	10	2	2.19	1.136

The results suggest that the students considered their teachers to be neither the only authority nor the facilitator in the class, but falling somewhere in between. Also, they indicate that the students consider themselves to be autonomous. The overall results show that the students had mid level of readiness for learner autonomy. Their general tendency was to take half of the responsibility "*stimulating student interest in learning English*", and "*identifying their weaknesses in learning English*", "*deciding on the objectives of the English course*", "*evaluating your learning*" and "*deciding what you learn outside the class*". Students were given Oxford's SILL (1990) questionnaire with fifty strategies and asked to rank their employment of these strategies on a 5 point Likert scale that went from "never or almost never" to "always or almost always".

The results suggest that the students in groups are aware of the language learning strategies that may help them take control over their learning process leading to better language proficiency. The fact that they sometimes use language learning strategies shows that they have weak control over their learning process. They are aware of the strategies that may provide them necessary help in their language learning process; however, they fail to use them effectively.

Table 7.

Language learning Strategies

Part	Control Groups Strategy Pre- test	X	SD
Part A	1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.		
	2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.		
	3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.		
	4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.05	1.17
	5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.		
	6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.		
	7. I physically act out new English words.		
	8. I review English lessons often.		
	9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.		
Part B	10. I say or write new English words several times.		
	11. I try to talk like native English speakers.		
	12. I practice the sounds of English.		
	13. I use the English words I know in different ways.		
	14. I start conversations in English.		
	15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.		
	16. I read for pleasure in English.		
	17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	2.89	1.17
	18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.		
	19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.		
	20. I try to find patterns in English.		
Part C	21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.		
	22. I try not to translate word-for-word.		
	23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.		
	24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	2.95	1.14
Part C	25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.		
	26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.		
	27. I read English without looking up every new word.		
	28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.		
	29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.		

Part D	30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.		
	31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.		
	32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.		
	33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	3.34	1.06
	34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.		
	35. I look for people I can talk to in English.		
	36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.		
	37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.		
38. I think about my progress in learning English.			
Part E	39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.		
	40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.		
	41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.		
	42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	2.73	1.16
	43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.		
	44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.		
Part F	45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.		
	46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.		
	47. I practice English with other students.	3.16	1.10
	48. I ask for help from English speakers.		
	49. I ask questions in English.		
	50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.		

As the results described in Table 8 indicate, responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey are related (46.5%) to the total strategy use. Thus, we might conclude that students who are autonomous use strategies. Students who are autonomous organize and evaluate their learning (Strategy D; 43.4%) and learn with others (Strategy F 43%). The strategies in groups D and F are the strategies that are mostly related to learner autonomy. Strategies to remember more effectively (Strategy A) are related to responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey (23%). Responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey are related to using all mental processes (Strategy B). Also, there is some relationship between to compensate for missing information (Strategy C) and responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey (13.2%). Responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey are related to organizing and evaluating their learning (Strategy D; 43.4%). Also, there is some relationship between managing emotions (Strategy E; 11.7%) and responsibility, ability and use of English sections of autonomy survey.

Table 8.

Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the Responsibility, Ability and Use of English Sections with Strategy Total

Part	Section	B	SH	β
Strategy Total	Responsibility	.717	.691	.095
	Ability	1.413	.677	.213
	Use of English	3.037	.553	.549
Strategy A	Responsibility	-.008	.170	-.005
	Ability	.189	.167	.138
	Use of English	.457	.136	.402
Strategy B	Responsibility	.439	.205	.187
	Ability	.583	.201	.283

	Use of English	.859	.164	.501
Strategy C	Responsibility	-.118	.144	-.096
	Ability	.282	.141	.260
	Use of English	.148	.115	.163
Strategy D	Responsibility	.041	.182	.021
	Ability	.210	.179	.123
	Use of English	.844	.146	.594
Strategy E	Responsibility	.056	.126	.053
	Ability	.097	.123	.104
	Use of English	.216	.101	.276
Strategy F	Responsibility	.308	.113	.257
	Ability	.052	.111	.049
	Use of English	.512	.091	.582

Discussion

The fact that most of the responses regarding teacher and learner roles tended towards the mid-point of the scales suggests that most of the participants came to the university without having been exposed to autonomous activities in their early education. Although they felt that they could take responsibility for certain areas of their learning, they still saw the teacher as an authority and expert who made most of the decisions about students' learning in the classroom. Consistent with the students' general acceptance of teacher authority, they expected the teacher to make most of the decisions in the learning process as they probably did not feel that they had the abilities to make the right decisions about their own learning. The fact that they rated their abilities lower regarding responsibilities which mostly included the methodological aspects of their learning indicate their incompetence in making decisions about their own learning, at least within the formal classroom environment, assuming such responsibilities is considered important if students are expected to have control over their learning (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2000; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991). However, we cannot say that the general picture on this issue is completely pessimistic, because only very few of the participants felt that their decision making abilities would be poor if they were given the opportunity. As Holec (1979; 27) points out, "few adults are capable of assuming responsibility for their learning... for the simplest reason that they have never had the occasion to use this ability". As Holec (1979) states, students can ultimately make crucial decisions in their learning if only their teachers gradually give them more responsibilities and train them to be more autonomous. This could be done by slowly increasing the dose of responsibility, allowing students to feel more competent in making their own decisions in their own learning.

Ellis (1994) states that learners who emphasize the importance of *learning* tend to use cognitive strategies (direct strategies), while the ones who emphasize the importance of *using* the language rely on communication strategies (indirect strategies). The overall results suggest that students emphasize both learning and using the target language. Also, the results suggest that there is a relationship mostly between language learning strategy use and use of English. This supports the result that the students in this study emphasize using the target language. Thus, we may conclude that students' autonomous behaviors may lead them to use their mental processes to study or practice English, and organize and evaluate

their learning to cope with their weak points and learn with others. It can be said that with guidance and strategy training, they can be trained to have more control over their learning.

Conclusion

The analysis of the data reveals important pedagogical implications that can inform future language teaching practices in Turkey. Regarding the participants' learner autonomy, the results show that the preparatory students had some role expectations, which affected their perceptions of responsibility inside and outside the class. They still largely saw the teacher as an authority figure in the classroom, who should take most of the responsibilities and make most of the decisions about their learning in the classroom context. This might be considered the reason why students could not show autonomous behaviors in the classroom.

As students regard the teacher as the authority in the class, showing autonomous behaviors may be considered unacceptable by the teachers and the students themselves. According to Kennedy (2002), as a result of his study with Turkish prep students, who were learning English indicates that promoting learner autonomy in the EFL classroom in Turkey is not an easy task and it would be a mistake to expect too much too soon from Turkish learners who have traditional experiences prior to entering English language classrooms.

They are aware of the strategies that may provide them necessary help in their language learning process; however, they fail to use them effectively. What we need to do is to train students, since as Holec (1985) explains - the aim of the training is to prepare learners to direct their own learning so that they may gradually move from a state of dependence on a teacher to the greatest degree of independence or autonomy possible in a particular set of circumstances. Tudor (1996, p.37) describes learning training as "the process by which learners are helped to deepen their understanding of the nature of language learning and to acquire the knowledge and skills they need in order to pursue their learning goals in an informal and self-directed manner". As this study shows learner autonomy and the use of language learning strategies are related. The more strategies or more frequently the students employ, the higher level of autonomy they have by shouldering the responsibility of their own learning process.

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6 Ideas To Motivate Students To Use English Outside Class

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Abstract

English is one of the most important subjects at the University of Economics, Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam. However, our students are with us every week for just a limited number of hours. What happens when they leave class? How can they use English outside the classroom? From my teaching experience and my analysis of students' needs and interests, I have come up with some ideas to motivate the students to use English outside of class and help them acquire as much practice as possible. These ideas are to get students to do the sort of *good homework* (some kind of homework but isn't like homework and often isn't even called homework), that encourages them to use English on their own in their own way. The ideas may be diverse, but all of them adopt a task-based approach, which allows the students to generate their own language and creates an opportunity of natural language acquisition.

Key words: ideas, motivate, English, outside class

Introduction

At the University of Economics, Ho Chi Minh City in Vietnam and the whole higher education system in Vietnam as well, English is a compulsory subject. Students study 12/140 credit hours of English, accounting for nearly 8.6% of the total credit hours of an undergraduate program. During their semesters, students are required to attend English class once a week, for a duration of 3 hours. Obviously, that amount of time cannot provide enough adequate exposure to English which would lead to success in learning English. Therefore, I hope this paper will contribute to solving that problem by suggesting some practical ideas to motivate students to use English outside class. I will first provide a brief literature review of some studies on guided learning and motivation factor in second language learning. The main section is devoted to a presentation of five ideas of getting students more engaged in using English in non-class environment.

Literature review

The following review of literature will present briefly an array of studies on guided learning in order to determine how exactly language teachers can provide motivation and guidance outside the classroom for the students to be able to practice within a scaffolded learning environment. In addition, motivation in language learning is also mentioned as it contributes to theoretical background of this research.

Teacher-directed learning, self-guided learning and directed self-guided learning in language acquisition

Teacher-directed learning (TDL) and self-guided learning (SGL) are common terms in education. While TDL is most essential when the learning process involves exposure to an unfamiliar and complex environment, SGL is often noted as being an appropriate learning approach of the twenty-first century. There is cultural shift within education field as autonomy is increasingly transferred to students' self guided language learning outside the classroom (Benson, 2011). However, it is not easy at all to hand over control to students hastily. Actually, SGL is a double-edge sword; while students may be able to exert their autonomy in such a way as to prepare them to become life-long learner, the facts show that students do not take advantage of their learning opportunities when left with poor guidance. King (2011) asserts that the provision of "effective support for learners, be it from a classroom teacher or a learning advisor, is critical to the success of self-access learning" (p.258)

To make use of the positive aspects of both TDL and SGL, Brydges et al., (2010) developed a concept termed Directed self-guided learning (DSGL) where educators use "validated learning principles" to create a scaffolded learning environment where students are "given control of an element of practice and therefore are metacognitively, behaviourally and motivationally active in their learning" (p. 1833). In other words, DSGL is the approach in which an increased level of teacher-based guidance is needed from the beginning in order to help students to develop to the point where they have the knowledge and experience to effectively guide their own learning.

Motivation in second language learning

Motivation in second language acquisition refers to the attempt and desire to learn a language and positive attitudes toward learning it. It has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influences the rate and success of second/foreign language learning. As emphasized by Dornyei (2001), "teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness" (p. 116).

Motivation in SLA has been extensively investigated. Oxford and Shearin (1994) have examined a number of motivational theories and six variables that influence motivation in language learning (Al-Bustan & Al-Bustan, 2009, S454):

- Attitudes (i.e. sentiments towards the target language).
- Beliefs about self (i.e. expectations about one's attitudes to succeed, self-efficiency, and anxiety).
- Goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning).
- Involvement (i.e. extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the learning process).
- Environmental support (i.e. extent of teacher and peer support).
- Personnel attributes (i.e. aptitude, and language learning experience).

Lambert (1963) has developed a 'social psychological model' where he has underlined cognitive aspects like intelligence and language abilities, and affective variables like motivation and attitudes. In his theory, he argues that the level to

which a person effectively learns a foreign language will rely on motivation, attitudes towards the foreign language, and ethnocentric predispositions. Gardner (1985), another early advocate in this discipline, identifies motivations as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (p. 63); in particular, motivation is believed to include three elements: attitude towards language learning, willingness to learn the language, and level of motivation.

Today, research in language learning motivation is diverse and vibrant with increasing interest being paid to such issues as: cultural differences, language learning as a dynamic process and autonomy.

Suggested activities

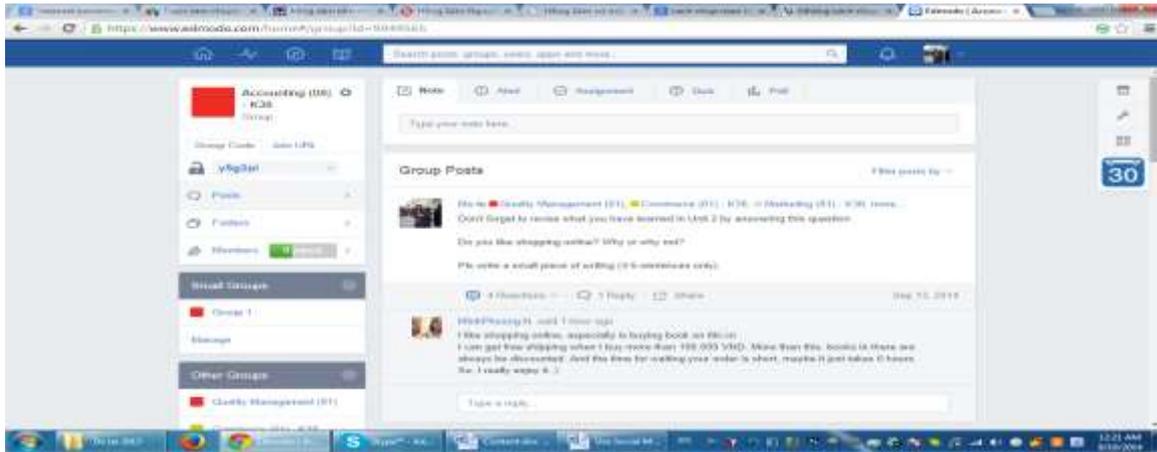
Whenever talking about English teaching situation in UEH, we always mention limited time in class as the first problem. We certainly don't want our students to restrict themselves to using English in class. We want them to get as much practice as possible. One solution can be come up with easily, that is assigning homework activities. However, I question how much learning actually takes place. Do they really try to do their homework by themselves? Are they interested or not? Can they actually get something from those homework activities?

Having experienced failures in piling on homework, I decided to try some other ideas, something easier, more interesting and more inspiring to both my students and me. Some of them have been used in my classes and they have been effective; some still need improvements to be able to keep students motivated; and some are ideas I thought of when working on this research paper. However, all the assigned tasks apply the following principles:

1. They must be within our students' linguistic reach.
2. They must be meaningful so that the students can use English outside of class to achieve particular goals
3. They must be able to exploit the power of enthusiasm in order to keep the students interested.

Idea 1: Use social media

Social media is something obvious in this era and it is exerting great attraction to young people. It is here to stay. We can ignore it or embrace it. But why don't we embrace it if it is a great tool we can use to make our classes more engaging and our students use more English outside; and if you don't have to be a tech-savvy teacher to share things through social media? A Twitter account, a Facebook page or a Google class seem to be the most popular ways. In this scientific paper, I would like to recommend you edmodo.com. It is often referred as “a facebook for schools”. It is absolutely a user-friendly site allowing you to create digital classrooms where you can post assignments, announcements, share interesting video clips, create quizzes, etc. You can also interact easily with your students, as well as other English teachers.



It takes you only about 3 minutes to create an account on edmodo.com and your digital class. Each class has its own group code, just share this code with your students and you will have a free participatory environment that provides a safe and secure collaboration between you and your students.

Idea 2: Group project

This is an assignment that students have to perform in class but it requires a lot of work outside class. I usually assign my students this task when they are in their fourth module and their average English level is quite good. The students are supposed to dream up some mock products such as a *magic pen* (a pen to give right answers to any questions), *seasonal hair* (a tonic to encourage hair growth for balding men), and an *I-helmet* (an advanced helmet to avoid traffic police), etc, give the products names, slogans and descriptions, and design radio, television and/or magazine advertising. The students imagine that they are entrepreneurs and try their best to launch the product successfully. The project is assigned at the beginning of the semester and in week 9 or week 10, we organize a mock expo. On the expo day, each group chooses an area of the room for their product presentation display. Posters need to be put on the wall and videos need to be set up. I have even had students bring table cloths, candy and balloons to entice people to visit their booths. Each group has 10 minutes to show their commercials and introduce their products briefly. Then, the students can go to each booth, asking and commenting, joking, and trying these special products. It is a little bit inconvenient with the traffic but there is always so much fun.



Idea 3: 5 minutes for news

I learned this technique from one of my teachers at college. Students are required to prepare a short news story, lasting just about 1 minute before they go to English class. Teachers can choose 4 or 5 students at random to report their news in front of the class.

Teachers should provide their students with some easy English news websites and encourage to report news concerning their class, their student life, their school, or anything that catches their interest and attention.

Idea 4: Email buddies and language exchange partners

Teachers can help to establish an email correspondence between students in a class or from different classes. Though teachers are not involved in such student online dialogues, we can suggest topics to stimulate these emails. Hopefully, through those email exchanges, students can develop their relationship as well as their English writing.

Looking for language exchange partners is also a suggestion teachers can make to students. On the Internet, there are many trustful penpal websites such as *mylanguageexchange.com*, *italki.com* or *lingzone.com*. In addition to helping people find a partner to exchange languages and cultures, these websites are usually wonderful environments to learn target languages by providing a designed system of lessons, a forum for users to give and take feedback and useful resources of the languages you are learning. However, the suggestion is totally optional and we need to remind our students of internet security.

Idea 5: 7 days: Using English outside the classroom

I obtained this idea from George Chilton's ESL lesson plan on the website <http://designerlessons.org>. His lesson plan was inspired by Matt Cutts' famous talk titled "Try something new for 30 days". It advises us to choose whatever challenge we want and to do it for 30 days, so it will be an incredible experience in our life. If not, the next 30 days will pass whether we do something or not. This lesson plan aims to help students become motivated in their use of English out in the real world. They will start to plan and track their use of English and reflect upon their progress with other students in the class in what will hopefully become part of the weekly routine. The period of 30 days, I myself think is too long for our students to take a shot at. Therefore, I have created a version of "**7 days: Using English outside the classroom**" with the hope to help our students to change their attitude and habit of using English.

Step 1: *(This is a warmer but you can extend the activity if your students enjoy the discussion.)*

- Ask the students to think of things they could realistically do for a period of 7 days and that would have a real impact on their lives. Give them examples and encourage them to think of ways together: *Change hair colors; Take a photography course; Do a language exchange with someone online; Stop using the internet; Start a blog...*
- Put the students in groups. Ask them a question: *"How would your life be impacted if you made changes for 30 days?"*

Step 2: (Optional)

This is when you play the video “Try something new for 30 days” (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JnfBXjWm7hc>) and Step 2 can be used to teach listening skill while checking the students’ video comprehension. You can show your students some questions concerning the video before playing it. I am quite sure that it is an amazing and fantastic video and that the students will love it.

Step 3: (English out of the classroom)

Ask the students to think of particular activities they can do to use more English outside of the classroom for the next 7 days, and decide how much time they dedicate to each activity. They can construct a table similar to Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Using English outside class (adapted from Steven. H, 2012)

Activity	Time per week	Completed
Read the news in English	2 hours	Yes
Listen to a podcast once a week	30 minutes	No
Speak to my partner in English	1 hour	Yes
Watch a series in English	2 hours	No
Go to the cinema	2 hours	No
Set my phone to English	0	Yes
Write emails in English	1 hour	Yes
Set my Facebook to English	0	Yes

After 7 days, the students meet each other again in their English class; they can compare their accomplishment, and discuss the impact these activities had on their life for the last 7 days. Hopefully, they can continue doing those and turn them into their routines.

Conclusion

Once again, I would like to emphasize that the students who try to use English outside the classroom, for sure, improve the most. Obviously, motivation is the key here and I also believe that “*fun homework*” is an important tool for more English exposure. However, when reading the ideas in this research paper, some of you probably doubt their effectiveness or some of you probably wonder whether they work for lazy or low level students. I don’t deny that when trying to realizing those ideas, the results I got were below my expectations many times. When I shared group code on **edmodo.com** with a class at the first time, I had only 4 students out of 40 on board. When I asked my students to prepare for their news in the first week, most of them looked indifferent and the next week, they came back with very poorly-prepared news stories, some even did not remember to do it. Nevertheless, things can be changed. Interesting videos and quizzes caught the 4 initial students’ fancy and the number of participants in my first digital class got bigger. Reporting news became a fixed part of our lesson and most of my students came to the class with some cool news to talk about. However, my effort still cannot have any impact on some particular students; they keep their own way and do not want to give it a go. That, for me, is not a big failure. The thing here is as a teacher, I have tried to offer ways to help my students who really want to

get better at English to use their target language when they are not in the class, to motivate and change their learning routines in a positive way.

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7 Teaching Composition for EFL Beginners Using Film

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Abstract

Communication with a second or foreign language is distributed over four modes, two receptive (listening, reading) and two expressive (speaking, writing). We can classify these modes as oral (listening, speaking) in contrast to literate (reading, writing). However, the use of written language actually dominates the classroom (blackboard, presentations, textbooks, etc.). So it is not really possible to delay L2 literacy. Instead, literacy must be taught and evaluated from the start of instruction. Beyond everyday literacy, teachers can introduce students to more academic writing--e.g., going beyond the ubiquitous 'personal essay' and, instead, writing an essay from primary sources. One type of academic writing that many EFL teachers have a background in is literary analysis. This paper is about how films and their screenplays are appropriate authentic materials for EFL beginners. It will cover the use of modern, robust and readily available techniques and technology to teach realistic writing tasks for beginning-level young adult and adult learners and consists of the following: (1) literacy skills and writing tasks; (2) typical needs and wants of learners; (3) explanation of the basic types of writing tasks for beginners; (4) a set of tasks that introduce to students writing about film and literature, including advanced organizers (e.g., semantic maps) and multimedia (e.g., DVDs). The goal is to demonstrate how teachers can create and conduct tasks that enable beginning-level learners to write about film and literature (e.g., a critical response to a dramatic film). The aspects of literary analysis that are taught include character analysis, plot summary, character development (as a function of the plot), theme, and a considered, critical response to the film or story.

Keywords: EFL beginners, EFL literacy, composition, literary analysis, film

Introduction

In language teaching, communication in a second or foreign language is thought of as distributed over four modes--two receptive (listening, reading) and two expressive (speaking, writing). Sometimes these modes are classified as oral (listening, speaking) in contrast to literate (reading, writing). The reality in EFL teaching and learning, though, is more complex and problematic. First, the modes of fluent communication are not necessarily useful categories for teaching and learning the L2. Second, in real communication, the modes are mixed and complex. For example, the learner--as a language user--may be required to respond both orally and in written form to input that is both spoken and written (such as when they attend a class or lecture). Third, SL or FL learning may not progress anything like the course of language and literacy development for native speakers of a language (who acquire since infancy much of a language outside of formal instruction). A fourth factor is the dominant use of written texts at the very beginning level of second and foreign language learning. It is for such reasons that it is not really possible or desirable to delay literacy (receptive reading or productive writing) in an L2 just so that the language can be acquired orally first. Therefore, language teachers need to introduce, teach, and evaluate literacy tasks for their learners from the very start of their L2 learning. This paper will look at ways to use modern (but robust and readily available) technology and

infrastructure to plan, manage and evaluate realistic writing tasks for beginning-level young adult and adult learners.

Specifically demonstrated will be the use of advanced graphic organizers (e.g., semantic maps, etc.) and multimedia (e.g., DVDs) to create and conduct tasks that go beyond the near universally done 'personal essay'. These tasks will support and enable beginning-level learners to write about film and literature (e.g., a critical response to a dramatic film), an academic style of writing that uses primary sources. The aspects of film and literature that are taught include character analysis, plot summary, character development (as a function of the plot), theme, and a considered, critical response to the film or story. Film then is treated largely like narrative fiction for the purpose of these writing tasks. Film, it is argued, makes a great introduction for EFL learners to beginning-level academic writing tasks, and is especially close to literary analysis.

Robust and pervasive technologies for recording, storing, copying, playing, editing, and otherwise manipulating video have been adopted in educational settings around the world. In the digital age, these include CDs, DVDs, Blu-ray discs (BDs), compressed MP4 files, multimedia-capable computing devices, and stand-alone playback devices. Adding to the convenience, some of the current technology can even be used to play, copy and convert to digital form legacy content, such as older collections of analog VTRs into a library of DVDs, BDs, or folders of ISO and MP4 files stored on a computer or 'cloud' drive.

Such pervasive, usable technologies make adapting video and film as materials for the EFL classroom more tempting and appealing than ever before. This paper corresponds to the workshop of the same title and reviews and expands on some of the possibilities for the use of video to create language learning tasks and activities, even at the beginning levels--such as, (1) movie tie-ins with bilingual screenplay books for extensive reading; (2) DVDs and BDs with multilingual subtitling for extensive listening and discussion; and (3) a writing task that can even be adapted to low-beginning level students—such as the film review in short essay form.

Resources

For an example of some of the possibilities, it is useful to look at a large EFL market—Japan. Japan has a huge market for books and multimedia, such as DVDs and BDs. These are typically published in Japanese for the almost 128 million native speakers and readers of the language in the domestic market. However, there is also a strong interest in the books, films and TV programs of other countries, including, of course, Anglophone countries, especially the US and UK.

One type of book that caters to the desire of many Japanese to watch foreign films in the original language (usually English) is the bilingual screenplay, which presents the dialogue of the film in both written English and Japanese. These commercially marketed screenplays also provide extensive explanatory annotations about vocabulary, idioms, cultural items, and history, all pertaining to the content of the film. These are available from a number of publishers with nationwide distribution, including Fourin / Screenplay, Nan'undo (a prominent publisher of college textbooks as well), Kokusai Gogakusha, Cosmic (Cosmic Mook), Takarajimasha, and Cine-script. Sourcnext, a software publisher,

provides inexpensive language-study programs that run on computers, tablets and smart-phones, with key features for language learners like content from popular films, bilingual subtitles, and language practice exercises tied in with the content and language of the film. Some of the commercially marketed screenplay books come with their own DVD for personal viewing; these feature older films that are in the public domain (although what is considered public domain in Japan and Asia might be contested in other countries).

Outside of publishing for LT and LL, it should be noted that many foreign films and TV programs (and even some Japanese titles, such as Ghibli anime) are available on rental and retail DVDs and BDs, and these include many films and programs with both subtitles in Japanese and English. One interesting development has been the appearance of many films on DVD and BD with multi-lingual features--Asian languages because discs made in Japan, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Taiwan are marketed elsewhere in Asia, but also European languages because Japan is part of Region 2 for coding (the same as the U.K.).

One basic use of the sort of screenplay books available in Japan is to assign them as textbooks. (If screenplay books are not available in a specific country, many screenplays and scripts are available for download over the internet.) In class or as homework teachers can assign them for extensive reading and/extensive viewing practice. If a teacher wants to show all or parts of a film in class, it might be best to stay with the older films in the public domain. With such films there are usually no copyright issues for public showings or copying for classroom use. In Japan, the bilingual screenplay books that are for the older, public domain films typically include a DVD with the book, so the student has easier access for personal viewing.

DVDs and BDs often include multi-lingual features, such as English and Japanese sub-titles and close-captioning for the hearing impaired. The versatility and flexibility of these technologies is a considerable advance over the previous generation of VHS and digital VCDs. Such multi-lingual features allow the teacher to play the film with sub-titles in the students' first language, or English, or no sub-titles at all. The language features of the disk can then be used to complement the texts of the screenplay books.

Short Film Review

One practical task requires students to write a short essay reviewing a film that they have seen. This is good practice for the short essays required on some language tests, and it is also a good introduction to writing about literature, since many of the same elements (e.g., character, character development, plot, theme, climax, etc.) have to be discussed. If students are at a beginning level or have never written a short film review before, the teacher might need to provide considerable support to get them started and prevent them from becoming too frustrated at such a challenging task. For example, the teacher could break the entire exercise down into a series of tasks that build up until it is time to require the students to write the review. It is also helpful to choose a film with 'literary qualities', which does not necessarily mean an art film. For example, *To Kill a Mockingbird* (Mulligan & Pakula, 1962) is a classic film that adapts and dramatizes much of the modern classic novel of the same name, but it is very much a conventional Hollywood film of the 1960s in terms of its construction. Two other

films with literary qualities available on mass-market DVDs are *It's a Wonderful Life* (Capra & Capra, 1946) and *Anne of Green Gables* (Sullivan & Sullivan, 1985). Also, all three of these films have corresponding bi-lingual screenplay books available in Japan (*It's a Wonderful Life*, Capra, 2008; *Anne of Green Gables*, Sullivan, 1996; *To Kill a Mockingbird*, Foote, 2011).

Short Film Review Task 1

This task requires the students to watch a sufficient part of the film and then list the major characters using the conventions of the movie review (i.e., the character's name and then the actor's name in parentheses after it). This can be done as individuals, pairs or small groups, and then as a whole-class exercise to make sure everyone has a complete and correct list. (See Figure 1)

LIST OF MAJOR CHARACTERS IN THE FILM CHARACTER NAME (NAME OF ACTOR)

Figure 1. Template for listing the major characters in a film (and the name of the actors).

Short Film Review Task 2

These tasks continue with the enumeration of the characters, but in these students are also asked to describe and analyze each character. The last part of the worksheet in Figure 2—explaining how the character develops and changes by the end of the film—requires that the students watch the film at least once to the end. This worksheet is only designed for the description and analysis of one character. One way to do it is to have students work individually, in pairs or small groups, completing a worksheet for each major character. An alternative method is to assign a different character to each group and then have them share their results (e.g., making enough photocopies of each completed worksheet so that all the students have completed worksheets on all the characters). The task in Figure

2 requires students to attribute traits to a particular character and then find evidence for those traits in the film or screenplay. Basically, the evidence is based on (1) what the character does, (2) what the character says, and (3) what other characters say about the character. (See Figures 2 and 3)

CHARACTER ANALYSIS WORKSHEET
Name of character (Name of actor) : _____
What does the character look and sound like?
What does the character say, think, feel?
How does the character change by the end of the film?

Figure 2. Simple writing task for character analysis.

Short Film Review Task 3

This task is the last preparation task and prepares students to write their film review. A typical film review includes a plot synopsis that is sufficient in depth and length to explain to someone who has not seen the film what the 'problem' of the film is. The worksheet asks the students to list these elements: the key events, the key events that comprise the 'rising action', the key events that comprise the 'climax', the key events that are the 'falling action' leading to the conclusion, and finally the key events of the film's conclusion. If more space is needed, students can continue on the back of the worksheet, or the teacher can make prints that concentrate on separate elements of the plot. (See Figure 3)

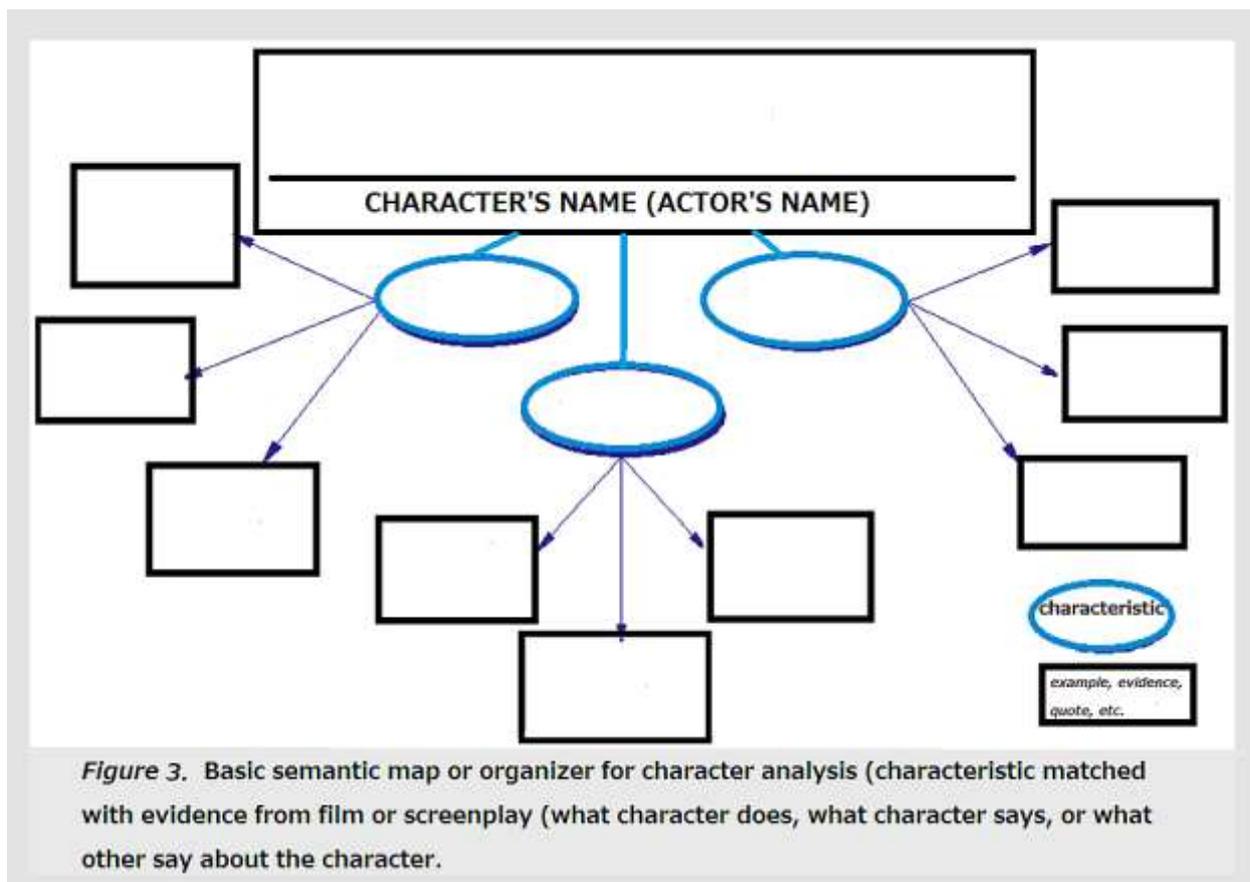
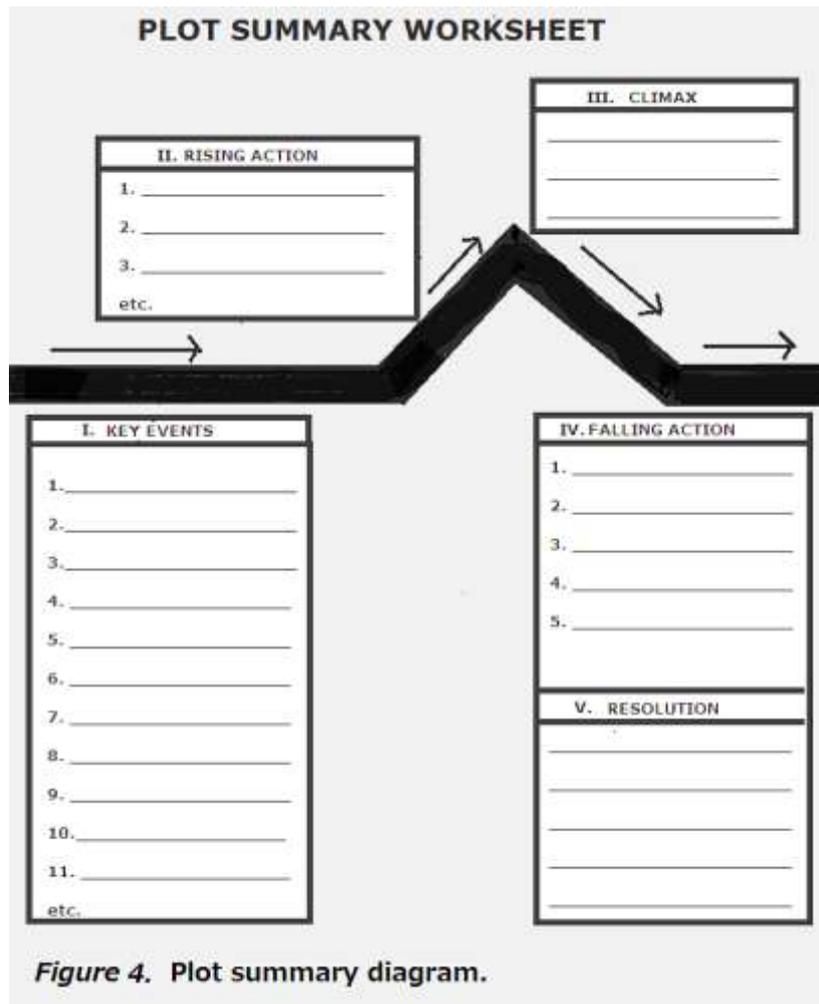


Figure 3. Basic semantic map or organizer for character analysis (characteristic matched with evidence from film or screenplay (what character does, what character says, or what other say about the character).

Short Film Review Task 4

This task requires the students to use their notes and their knowledge and experience of the film that they got from viewing it in order to write a short review. Typically the review is 5-10 paragraphs long and informs the readers about the main characters (and the actors who play them), provides a plot summary related to the theme or problem of the film, and explains what the author thinks of the film (good or bad), usually by answering a question like, "Should the reader see this film too? Why or Why Not?" (See Figure 4).



Conclusion

Recent technological developments--like DVDs, BDs, compressed MP4 video, and multimedia-capable computers, tablet PCs and smart-phones, etc.--make the use of film and video content for language and cultural study more convenient and versatile than ever before. This article has only touched upon the many possibilities for using film and video in the EFL classroom. However, teachers should consider expanding the use of video beyond narrow, intensive listening practice and language study--especially if course structure, institutional constraints, and the needs and interests of students allow for it. For example, they might consider adapting some of the discussion and writing activities explained here, even for beginning-level learners.

One alternative is to use film and TV programs that are of a documentary nature instead of narrative. Here the possibilities expand into areas that address student needs beyond writing about literature. For example, the film documentary, *Supersize Me* (Spurlock & Spurlock, 2004), which has a bilingual screenplay available in Japan, can be used as the basis for learning and practicing the sub-technical English vocabulary concerned with health and nutrition. So too would the documentaries *Food, Inc.* (Kenner & Kenner, 2011) and *King Corn* (Woolf & Woolf, 2007). Writing tasks about these films could center on having students

produce a short review essay. But they would have to deal more with summarizing the science of these films in their reviews, and not elements of literary analysis.

Finally, with classes and students for whom the main focus is not short-essay writing, written tasks might still be appropriate--just not as ambitious. For example, after watching a dramatic film, students could be asked to complete a written task where they write a short review of the film. The review should incorporate character descriptions and only a very small amount of the previously completed plot summary for the writer to say why they did or did not like the film and why. For example, they can answer the question: Why would they recommend the film (or not) to a friend to view?

AUTHOR'S NOTE: Some of this content comes from two previous articles by this author in the UK publication, English Teaching Professional: (1) From theme to thesis ... and beyond (Issue 54, January 2008) and (2) Making the most of film (Issue 96, January 2015).

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8 Code Switching in the 21st Century Malaysian ESL Classroom

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Abstract

The evolving views of code switching in English language teaching have raised many discussions in the 21st Century. Though there is no absolute consensus that bans code switching while teaching English in Malaysia, there is a general view that the use of English should be maximised within the English language classroom to enable students to master the language effectively (Lee, 2010). This paper reviews literature on code switching research in the ESL classroom and goes further to discuss the implications code switching has towards English language teaching and learning in the ESL classroom in Malaysia. Literature suggests that English language teachers in Malaysia do have a positive attitude towards code switching and use it to explain vocabulary and grammar as they find it facilitates students' understanding of the lesson as well as saving time on explanations which minimises interruptions, allowing the lesson to proceed more quickly. It also allows students to learn in a comfortable, relaxed and secure environment which enhances their ability to learn the target language and improves their understanding of the lesson. However, code switching should be cautiously applied in order not to jeopardise target language acquisition. This study would allow practicing teachers, teacher trainers and teacher trainees to make well informed decisions when deciding to participate in code switching in their language classrooms.

Keywords: code switching, TESL, English language teaching, language learning, language education.

Introduction

Through the development of globalisation and technology, different cultures and languages start to interact as immigration across different continents for better career opportunities and quality of life becomes more common. This development in turn has impacted the education system of many countries and the issue of English Language teaching as English is the international lingua franca of the 21st century. As societies become more multilingual, code switching in the English Language teaching and learning process has become more prominent. Once thought of as poor method of teaching language, utilising code switching in the teaching and learning of the English language started to be looked at differently in the 21st century.

Definitions of Code Switching

Early research by Gumperz (1982) defines it as the use of more than one language or code within a speech event while Eldridge (1996, p.303) briefly defines it as 'the alternation between two (or more) languages'. More recent research defines code switching 'as the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation inclusive of dialect changes and style changes' (Cheng, 2003, p.59). Another definition of code switching derived by Don (2003, p.24) is the 'use of

more than one code in the course of a single discourse in a multilingual setting'. Balakrishnan (2011, p.9) summarizes in her studies that code switching can be considered as an 'act of switching between two languages within a single discourse.' Sridhar (2005) states that when two or more languages are present within a community, its speakers have the tendency to code switch. Traditionally, the phenomenon of code switching is considered as a random process caused by language interference, laziness and poor mastery of the target language. However, various studies in the last two decades show that this phenomenon does not happen at random but follows certain linguistic rules that allow its speakers to communicate and attain mutual understanding which is the main aim of the phenomenon (Sridhar, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Dong & Zhang, 2009; Katz et al, 2009; Gulzar, 2010). This claim is further supported by Heredia & Altarriba (2001) who reports that code switching follows certain functional and grammatical principles and is a complex, rule-governed phenomenon. There are perfectly good explanations as to when and why people participate in code switching. One reason is due to the speaker's lack of vocabulary or proficiency in the target language. Cheng (2003) explains that when a speaker lacks specific vocabularies in English, they would code switch as a strategy to compensate the deficiency so that the meaning is carried across effectively.

Multilingual speakers often use terms from their mother tongue or L1 because they do not know the appropriate words in the second language (Holmes, 2013). This is different from code mixing, lexical borrowing and translanguaging as they are each distinctively different from one another. Code mixing is defined as the combination of words of two or more languages while reducing the linguistic forms and use of a language (García, 2009). This is also different from lexical borrowing which happens due to lack of vocabulary in English to express a concept or object as there are no exact equivalents in the English vocabulary and their meaning cannot be fully carried over into English (Holmes, 2013). According to García (2009, p.45), translanguaging refers to 'multiply discursive practices which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds'. This means that bilingual speakers use different languages for different needs and context in order to construct meaning. However, the main focus on this paper would only be on code switching.

Code switching can be divided into two types, 'intrasentential' and 'intersentential'. Intrasentential refers 'to instances in which the switch occurs within the boundaries of a clause or a sentence' (García, 2009, p.49) while intersentential occurs 'when the switching occurs at clause or sentence boundaries' (García, 2009, p.50). Don's research (2003) also mentions the social meaning of code switching and how switching from one code to another is consistent both linguistically and sociolinguistically. Wardhaugh & Fuller (2015) describes these kinds of code switching as 'situational code switching' and 'metaphorical code switching'. 'Situational code switching' is viewed as a social strategy that is used to magnify or minimise social distance between each other to show intimacy or estrangement (Dong & Zhang, 2009, Holmes, 2013) while 'metaphorical code switching' takes place when changes occur within a speech event like when a new member is added to the conversation (Holmes, 2013; Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). Speakers use this kind of code switching in order to express certain purposes such as to show solidarity. It occurs when speakers use it to express convergence or divergence when building conversational relationships and to avoid topics, to decline, or to

display affections (Dong & Zhang, 2009; Deckert & Vickers, 2011; Holmes, 2013; Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

Wardhaugh & Fuller (2015) mentions how age also plays a role in code switching among multilingual speakers. Age plays a significant role in a lot of societies, especially in the Asian community which Malaysia is a part of. Hence, to show respect while trying to close the gap between social distances is also one of the reasons why multilingual code switch to a language that is understood by both speakers and address each other at a level that is both acceptable and respectable.

Early views on the use of code switching in English language teaching

In second language acquisition, code switching is viewed as an error and an indication of a lack of competence in the target language (Rampton, 1995 cited in McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008). This notion has led to the banning of code switching in the language classrooms for some time. Most second language acquisition methods involving the teaching and learning of English have insisted in the 'English only' method for a long time. Code switching is a strategy used by language learners for language learning and second language instructors believe that thinking in the L1 would inhibit learners from thinking directly in the target language (Auerbach, 1995). They believe that as code switching involves translation from the L1 to the target language, it may encourage literal translation where learners attempt to translate word for word from their L1 to the target language to communicate meaning (Cheng, 2003). This believe was demonstrated in a study conducted by Cheng (2003) where it was found to be a strategy employed by both Malay and Chinese respondents within the study as both Malay and Chinese structures were found to be used to answer questions in English. This phenomenon is known as interference which is the occasional misapplication of L1 rules to the L2 (Weschler, 1997). This study further substantiated the claim that by allowing code switching in the second language classroom, translation from the L1 to the L2 would cause interference and this might impede the language development of the learners' attempt to master the target language.

Code switching may also cause fossilisation of interlanguage and deter the main aim of second language acquisition which is to master the target language (Selinker, 1992). This raised another cause for concern by second language instructors. Sert (2005) cautioned that permitting code switching may be positive for the short term by providing mutual understanding but it may lead to fossilisation of a deficient form of the target language in the long run. An example by Weschler (1997) from Japanese learners supports this notion through the existence of 'Japlish' which is a hybrid form of English which includes frequent code switching between English and Japanese. As it was understandable among its mutual speakers, 'Japlish' has managed to take root and become an acceptable form of English spoken in Japan. Like 'Japlish', 'Rojak English' or more fondly known as 'Manglish', also involves frequent code switching between English and Bahasa Malaysia, and has come to be accepted in Malaysia (Rajandran, 2011). Although these basilectal varieties of English are not used in formal and international functions, nevertheless, code switching is attributed as one of the factors that caused the fossilisation of these inaccurate forms of English by its learners which ultimately led to the acceptance of these basilectal forms of English within its community.

Besides interference of the L1 in the L2 acquisition, code switching is also seen as a 'crutch' for second language learning that should be removed as early as possible (Weschler, 1997). As code switching allows the L1 to be present during the teaching and learning of the target language, students would have a tendency to rely on it during their lesson and that prevents learners from fully immersing themselves in the target language. The belief is that in order to learn the target language better, students need to come in contact with it more. One of the many methods used is to provide learners with multiple L2 samples and make them practise these samples in the target language so as to maximise the usefulness of the L2 samples by totally avoiding the use of the L1 in order for learners to be fluent in the target language (Littlewood, 1981). Learners need to learn to operate in the target language as they may not have the opportunity to practise outside of the classroom. Therefore second language instructors believe that by allowing only the target language to be present within the classroom, learners would be able to better acquire and master the target language.

Code switching is used in the classroom as a strategy which bilinguals employ to communicate more effectively (García, 2009). In a bilingual and multilingual context, learners acquiring a second language need to have the same L1 before they can understand each other through code switching using their L1 and the target language. The ability to communicate with each other through code switching suggests that learners are positive towards it as they see it as a way to communicate more effectively. This is substantiated by Sampson (2012) who believed that banning the L1 would hinder communication and learning. Furthermore, Huerta-Macias & Quintero (1992, p.86) found that, 'code switching serves to not only enhance communication in the teaching/learning process but can also help to maintain and develop the languages of a bilingual'. This is because learners who are weak are not proficient in the second language and hence they would resort to code switching during interactions in the classroom in order to communicate effectively. Pollard's (2002) comparative study on code switching in an immersion setting to a bilingual setting further suggests that code switching in a bilingual classroom allows students to better convey their ideas to their peers and the teacher. Students in the bilingual setting find it a valuable strategy to communicate their thoughts and carry out discussions without language barriers as compared to the immersion settings where students find the language barrier difficult to communicate their ideas and knowledge to each other. This further supports the case that code switching helps second language learners to communicate more effectively while incorporating the target language into their language learning acquisition.

Multiple early researches supported the notion of not allowing the L1 to be utilised throughout the whole lesson. They have been critical of the idea that code switching would cause second language learners to acquire deficient forms of the target language and therefore should not be encouraged (Corson, 2001). Many second language instructors have therefore tried to minimise the use of the learners' L1 and discourage the use of code switching amongst learners but this may have reduced the optimal effectiveness and quality of learning a second language (Flyman-Mattsson & Burenhult, 1999). However, the concerns by these researches have seen started to shift as new research indicated that there were benefits to code switching in second language acquisition.

Evolving views on the use of code switching in English language teaching

Research such as Nguyen, Grainger & Carey (2016) suggests that allowing learners to switch between learners' L1 and the target language not only facilitates their language learning development but also builds up their confidence in using the target language. This is supported by Eldridge (1996) who said that the removal of code switching may increase learners' language acquisition but can damage their confidence and motivation in learning the language which could impede their language development. Heredia & Altarriba (2001) find that one of the strengths of code switching is that it increases language use and word frequency. Learners are not afraid to make mistakes and this encourages them to use the target language more often, thus giving them more practice in the target language which eventually leads to their decrease in relying on the L1 while gaining confidence in using the target language. Comparatively when learners learning a second language are discouraged by the language barrier without the avenue of a coping strategy like code switching which can help them communicate their ideas across to others, they will not just lose confidence in themselves but the motivation to learn the target language. This may result in their reluctance to participate in classroom discussions and the appearance that they are uninterested or detached from the lesson when the real reason is their lack of language proficiency which makes them unable to accurately convey their ideas to their peers and teachers.

Code switching is also found to facilitate language teaching. Tien & Liu (2006) in Taiwan claim that code switching is unavoidable in classrooms where learners are not very proficient in the target language. They find that within a multilingual setting like Taiwan where Mandarin and other regional dialects are more prominently used in society, learners do not actively communicate in English after school hours as they see it as having no practical functional value outside the classroom. Therefore, teachers and learners alike have no choice but to rely on code switching within the classroom during the teaching and learning of the target language in order to facilitate the transfer of knowledge despite the language barrier. It not only simplifies the explanations of grammar and vocabulary during classroom activities but it also ensures that lessons can continue to be conducted without constant interruptions due to explanations and clarifications. This example also supports the suggestion by Cook (2001) who says that permitting the use of learners' L1 would generate discussions among learners which will lead to learners' better understanding of the task required of them. The use of L1 to explain activities is beneficial to the learners as they would be able to participate in the activities and understand what is required of them instantly without the teacher having to explain the activity multiple times in the target language with the probability that learners may not understand at all. Thus, allowing the use of learners' L1 through code switching not only engages learners to the target language but it also helps in language teaching of the second language.

McKay & Bokhorst-Heng (2008) mentions that as more and more speakers of English are bilingual with many of them code switching at a regular basis, teachers today need to re-examine their attitude towards code switching to minimise the negative attitude toward it. Teachers should start to find ways to incorporate code switching into the classroom and utilise it as positive resource for language teaching.

Code switching plays multiple roles for learners from bilingual and multilingual situations. According to studies conducted by Eldridge (1996) in a Turkish secondary school and Tien & Liu (2006) in a school in Taiwan where many of its students are bilingual, both studies found that many of the switches in language by both learners and teachers alike are multifunctional and are open to functional interpretations. The main five functions are floor holding, reiteration, maintaining solidarity, equivalent comprehension and instructional procedures. Conversely, the research done by Then & Ting (2011) in the Malaysian context found that the primary reasons why teachers code switch are reiteration and quotation. This is because the change of language helps capture students' attention which in turn allows the planned structure of the lesson to be maintained. Code switching not only reduces the time spent on negotiating meaning but allows the teacher to spend the time saved to concentrate on teaching the syllabus which teachers struggle to complete within a year. Johansson's (2014) study in Sweden found that teachers code switch to clarify their teaching. They also do so to compensate for their lack of proficiency in the target language in order that their student would fully comprehend and benefit from their lesson to complete their required task.

Code switching in 21st century Malaysia

Malaysians had been bilinguals even before the 21st century when different ethnic communities started interacting with each other for commerce, government and social purposes (Watson, 2011). The need for a common language for interaction between communities while maintaining the mother tongue of different communities has helped shape the language climate of Malaysia today. The multilingual environment encourages the development of code switching and code mixing among Malaysians as it has become a part of national identity while promoting solidarity among Malaysians. The maintenance of the language diversity found in Malaysia was never considered a problem as it is seen as a legal constitutional right that is enshrined in the Constitution of Malaysia where all citizens have the right to learn their mother tongue even though Bahasa Malaysia is held as the national language (David & Govindasamy, 2005, Wee, 2010).

Malaysia is considered to be in the Outer Circle where English is widely spoken as a second language according to Kachru's 'three circle modal' (1985 cited in Kirkpatrick 2007). This suggests that English is widely used in society where a native variety of Malaysia English exists and has its own spoken norms but tend to rely on British English, an exonormative modal during formal contexts, especially for written English (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). As a former British colony, English was introduced to the local society as a language of power and governance and is still viewed in present day Malaysian society as a language for professionals, government and business (David, 2000). This led to the interactions of English with the local languages and cultures in Malaysia which played a major role in influencing the development of the local Malaysian English variety which has fondly come to be known as 'Rojak English' (Kirkpatrick, 2007) or 'Manglish'.

'Manglish' is considered a low level or basilectal form of Malaysian English (Rajandran, 2011). It is a result of constant code switching and code mixing among the local languages and dialects which is unique as it contains a mixture of multiple mother tongue languages including Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin, Tamil and various dialects from diverse ethnic communities like Hokkien, Cantonese, Malayalam and Hindi, to name a few, with English. Competent English speakers might code mix and code switch less but would utilise lexical borrowing while

others who are not proficient in English might code switch and code mix more in order to get their meaning across. Nonetheless, 'Manglish' is widely used by Malaysians young and old, both proficient or not proficient in English, to communicate daily with each other in informal settings like ordering food in hawker centres or shopping in fresh food markets as the ability to use 'Manglish' not only decreases social distance but represents a form of solidarity among fellow Malaysians regardless of ethnic backgrounds as it is a perceived form of national identity (Foo & Richards, 2004).

The ability to code switch can be considered as part of national pride that starts young and this notion is supported with evidence from a study conducted by Cheng (2003) with Malaysian pre-school children. He finds that these children code switch to communicate with each other as well as with adults without being taught. It was concluded that the children have most probably acquired the ability to code switch from their parents and teachers through natural observation. Cook (1999) also gave examples of overhearing teachers code switching between English and Bahasa Malaysia while chatting with each other in the staff room. These examples further indicate that code switching is integrated into Malaysian society and has even infiltrated the education sector. This skill could prove to be an advantage as we slowly progress into the 21st century where interactions between nations and its people become more interconnected.

Impact of code switching in the 21st century Malaysian ESL classroom

In a multicultural society like Malaysia, code switching is normal and natural (Kirkpatrick, 2007). As local teachers are bilingual and participates in code switching themselves are absorbed into the public education system, it is not surprising that code switching is carried into the realm of education. In teacher colleges and universities across Malaysia, teacher trainees were taught not to code switch in class to maximise students' exposure to English during classroom learning. However, many of them find it hard to abide by the rule when they enter into service as they find a lot of scaffolding is needed by their students when learning the target language and find that in order to make get their lessons across better, code switching does occasionally help (Then & Ting, 2009). This has led to it being a common feature in English language classrooms in Malaysia.

Many English language teachers in Malaysia feel that code switching helps learners understand and learn English better and this notion is supported by Lee (2010). His study was based on English language teachers in Labuan, a federal territory off the coast of East Malaysia, who 'indicated that code switching is necessary when the situation requires the use of mother tongue or the L1 in the classroom' (Lee, 2010, p.38). The teachers believe that as code switching helps low proficiency learners acquire English, it should be maximised as much as possible. Then & Ting (2009, p.12) further explains that 'in circumstances where students' proficiency in the instructional language is lacking, code switching is a necessary tool for teachers to make their messages more comprehensible to students'. Teachers find it useful as it facilitates learners' understanding of the lesson while students find it a useful learning strategy that facilitates their acquisition of English as a second language. These researches concluded that teachers code switch for multiple functions in the classroom and the reasons are mainly aimed at increasing learners' affective support and learning development.

Permitting code switching within the classroom also helps learners respond better to acquire the target language. A study by Badrul Hisham & Kamaruzaman (2009) on Malaysian students show that students with low proficiency in the English language react positively and fully support teachers' code switching in class. Learners in the study indicated that code switching allowed them to enjoy their classes and felt that they learned more as they understood the lessons better when the teacher code switches in class. This notion is also substantiated by a study conducted by Then & Ting (2009) in a secondary school in Kuching, the capital of the state of Sarawak in Malaysia, where learners are observed to respond better with code switching within the English language classroom. Learners are able to negotiate meaning and give appropriate responds to the teachers' instructions and questions which not only save time but also allows the lesson to progress well. These researches proved to show that learners do respond better to the target language through code switching.

Conclusion

Even though there has not been any mutual agreement from scholars of both divides on allowing code switching in the language classroom, there has been research supporting this notion in the 21st century (Eldridge, 1996; Lee, 2010; Harahap, 2016). These researchers believe that code switching facilitates learners to achieve better communicative competence of the second language and should be encouraged for the betterment of the future of language teaching and learning. It is important to note that most negative aspects of code switching are presented by second language researchers who are mostly from monolingual backgrounds (Weschler, 1997, García, 2009). The notion that code switching should be withheld altogether so learners could master the target language and achieve the same level of language competence as monolinguals as monolinguals did not have another language to rely on when learning the L1 should then be debunked.

In a multilingual society like Malaysia, code switching can be seen as a tool to facilitate language teaching and learning and should be given due recognition for its effectiveness. Nevertheless, teachers need to use this device with discretion. Taking what was cautioned by Sert (2005) in mind and depending on the context of their classroom, allowing code switching in the Malaysian English language classroom by the teacher should be viewed with the learners' interest at heart.

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SECTION II
PRESENTATION REPORTS

Paper Summaries

9 Perceptions, Paradoxes, And Practices: Creativity In Language Teaching¹

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The importance of creativity

Creativity nowadays is strongly linked to educational discourse, which tries to reform education and introduce 21st century skills. For example, the Australian group called Partnership for 21st Century skills (2009) emphasizes the need to prepare learners for a complex life and work in the 21st century, while in Singapore, students are encouraged to engage in "critical and inventive thinking" (Ministry of Education Singapore, 2010). I believe this is only rhetoric and we need to distinguish between action, i.e. what goes on in the classroom and empty talk which degraded creativity to 'educational common sense' that is taken for granted.

The general perception of creativity – a born quality that you either possess or not – offers no definition but 'signs' that may tell us if someone is creative or not. It's not surprising as creativity is an abstract concept; you cannot see it, you cannot touch it. When we want to study it, we need to operationalize it, i.e. find ways of pinpointing areas / skills / processes / products that can tell us something about creativity.

What is creativity?

We have some general, working definitions of creativity (e.g., Csikszentmihalyi, 1996, 1997; Robinson, 2006, 2009; Robinson & Aronica, 2015). Ken Robinson's (2006) definition is "having original ideas that have value" and Sternberg (2011, p. 479) has a similar one: "something original and worthwhile". It means that originality alone does not define creativity. The value of ideas and products needs to be accepted by others.

If we look further, we can talk about creativity at different levels:

- Personal creativity vs historical creativity
- Individual creativity vs. collective creativity
- Western creativity vs Eastern creativity

Western creativity focuses on divergent thinking, due to the work of American psychologists like Guilford (1950, 1968) and Torrance (1962). The Torrance test, one of the most used measurement of creativity, originates from cognitive psychology and measures how people 'think outside the box'. It allows researchers to 'quantify' creativity and then use statistical analysis to interpret results. However, the Torrance test does not measure creativity. It only offers an idea of the individuals' creative potential (strictly defined from a cognitive aspect) (Maley & Kiss, in press).

¹ This paper was presented as a plenary session by Associate Professor Tamas Kiss.

The Torrance test also unjustly simplifies creativity to a logical, cognitive process although other forms of creativity, e.g. artistic, should also be discussed in language teaching since artistic creativity contributes significantly to what makes us human.

In his famous novel, *Zen and the art of motorcycle maintenance*, Pirsig (1999) talks about two different world views – the classical scientific and the romantic views. He says that someone with a classical training sees a motorcycle as an engineering masterpiece, whereas the romantic view sees it as art. These two, however, complement each other. Therefore, it is foolish to separate a complex phenomenon into two opposite views. It is important to keep the whole, complex picture in mind – whether we talk about motorcycles, language, or language teaching. Creativity is in the whole, it is not restricted to separate parts.

Creativity in language teaching

Language teaching and learning form a complex, dynamic system that is adaptive and unpredictable (see e.g., Davis & Sumara, 2007; Kiss, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Mallows, 2002) and in which, as Maley and Kiss (in press) argue, creativity and the creativity of the teacher play a crucial role. In their survey they asked language teachers from a variety of cultural and teaching contexts what characteristics a creative language teacher has (Maley & Kiss, in press). Interestingly, the most common answers indicated that a creative language teacher is:

- resourceful;
- effective;
- reflective;
- a good materials writer;
- trained;
- a rebel.

In other words, a creative teacher is a 'good teacher'. How can you achieve this? Pirsig (1999) says: "You want to know how to paint a perfect painting? It's easy. Make yourself perfect and then just paint naturally." If we follow a similar logic, making yourself more creative is the first (and only?) step to becoming a creative language teacher.

Creativity is not born with us; it is a skill that needs to be developed. One way of developing one's creativity is to enable new connections: emotional, cognitive, imaginative connections. These enable the individual to perceive and experience the world in a new light and this would feed into one's teaching. Some suggestions on how this could be done is offered by Maley and Kiss (in press):

- *Learn a new skill*
- *Read a book*
- *Build a network of friends*
- *Develop noticing*
- *Experiment with your life*
- *Re-discover physical awareness*

Developing creativity in the language classroom

Creativity can be taught, if teaching is viewed as a process of enabling, encouraging, supporting others, facilitating the development of skills and thoughts. However, teachers need to consider the complexity of creativity when they make decision about classroom practice. They can encourage collaboration, or nurture individual creativity. Depending on the pedagogical goal, classroom practice can focus on the process, or the product of creativity. Sometimes students engage in activities that are inherently creative without actually producing something creative. This should not be seen as a problem, since learning to be creative is skills learning where the focus should be on the process and not necessarily on the product.

It is personal creativity is what teachers should develop in the classroom. Instead of setting unattainable goals for the learners, it is better to remain within the realms of classroom realities. Learning a foreign language is a challenging task, but one which calls for creativity. During the process of learning to communicate with others, students need to improvise, use expressions that they have never heard before, even creating new words when they lack the appropriate vocabulary to express themselves; that calls for personal creativity.

Furthermore, teachers can encourage language play in the classroom in the form of allowing students to create jokes, use unusual collocations, even non-standard language. Experimenting with language which may not be part of the curriculum can give learners the chance to unleash their creative potential. They need the freedom to make mistakes and errors, after all, these can be indicators, as some argue, of creative language use (and the learning process in general).

Perceived obstacles to teaching creativity in the language classroom

Teachers blame standardized assessment and exams as the reason why creativity is neglected. Many times I hear people say, 'I wish I could do something creative in the classroom, but there is no time for it. Tests are coming soon.' 'Yes, creativity is important, but getting good test scores is more important.' However, I believe that assessment can actually encourage creativity.

Testing can be viewed as a measure to impose a certain framework on teaching, but teachers should look at assessment as an opportunity to develop their learners' creativity. Creativity is not freewheeling; it needs limitations and boundaries that language assessment can provide. Assessment limits the format of a task, for example: sets the topic, the genre, or the word limit for a writing task, but it does not prescribe *how* the task should be completed. It is up to the individual student to perform the task in a way that shows their mastery of the language and that often calls for using their creative energy.

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10 Experiential Learning: Strategies for the Malaysian Classroom

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The Experiential Learning approach or ELM (Experiential Learning Model) was developed by David Kolb as an alternative to the traditional rote and didactic learning approach. The symbiosis between concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation has removed the teacher-centered equation in the traditional classroom to one that focuses on the learning process of the individual. In addition, the ELM emphasizes on the learning of elements that is often personal, reflective, and grounded in experiences that give a multi-dimensional learning paradigm to the learner. This paper explores some of those approaches (as highlighted below). The authors have suggested some Experiential Learning approaches for the Malaysian classroom in the teaching of English Language and other skill-based subjects. Among the strategies proposed are visual metaphors and props, categorization and movement, sensory/cognitive stimulation, "coffee and papers", and sound and digital voice in providing timely feedback.

Visual metaphors and props

In the use of visual metaphors and props, which is a widely practised because of the relative ease to obtain images from the digital realm (the Internet), the use and adaptation of visual metaphors is used to illustrate and to stimulate the learner in using the experience from this exercise as a consolidation of the learning experience.

Categorisation and movement

The Categorization and Movement Strategy is an approach that makes full use of the visual and physical movement stimuli to incorporate and reinforce better thinking and memory skills for the learner. In this method, learners are taught problem-solving skills with colourful post-it notes which are then applied to the board.

Sensory and cognitive stimulation

In the third strategy which involves sensory and cognitive stimulation, the method proposes that the instructor carries sensory props related to the subject taught in a backpack. This is usually called the "sensory backpack" and it is usually used in early childhood and special needs education settings.

"Coffee and papers"

In the "coffee and papers" approach, the outcome of this strategy is to ensure the learners spend their time reading materials relevant to their research and this is partly because many students in this age do not have time allocated for uninterrupted reading and a platform for the students to do self-reflection.

Sound and digital voice

In the final proposed strategy, the use of sound and digital voice is suggested in providing timely feedback to the students. This strategy calls for the use of a voice recording device and software by the instructor to maximize time as well as in providing precise, constructive, and effective feedback.

Conclusion

While the ELM approach is not new, this paper highlights the possibility of the different approaches, and how the methods could be used by language teachers to engage learners in a manner that prioritizes the learning environment and reflective learning in the Malaysian classroom setting.

11 Meaning-Making In ELICOS Writing Programs: Investigating The Value Of Multimodal Approaches

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International education is a very lucrative business worldwide. In Australia, as in many other Western countries, the international student market is extremely important. With the globalising of international education, traditional academic literacy teaching practices in ELICOS programs that emphasise one mode of writing are being challenged because they have not responded the needs of today's international meet the needs of today's international students in a globalising and digitally mediated society. The multiliteracies approach to language has changed the views about narrative and text production and paved the way for new perspectives on the kinds of literacy practices that move away from drawing on one mode in writing and towards the ability to write multimodally. However, although some research on multimodal writing reveals that it has a lot to offer English as a second language (ESL) learners in the ELICOS sector, scepticism about the implementation of multimodal writing in higher education classroom practices and an overemphasis on monomodal forms of writing still exist.

The study

This paper reports on an action research project focused on teaching English in an ELICOS setting in Melbourne, Australia. The project is a response to calls in the literature for change in current ELICOS writing pedagogy, as it lies in a disjuncture between the global digital forms of communication and traditional academic writing practices. This study investigated whether and to what extent the use of different modes in the teaching of writing can assist low-proficiency adult ESL learners in making meaning more easily in their academic writing.

Findings

Data collected from student interviews revealed that participants experienced a fear of writing, a reluctance to write and at times a disinterest in writing because they tended to focus more on the accuracy of their writing than on meaning and ideas.

Quotes from students interviewed for the study, as well as samples of their writing, demonstrate deeper layers of meaning and more sophisticated ideas than those presented in their monomodal writing. Multimodal writing not only assists students' meaning-making but also engages them in writing and in the process of learning. The findings from this action research reveal that linguistic theory based only on purely structured pieces of writing can significantly constrict low-level ESL learners' abilities to make meaning in their academic writing. Furthermore, different modes of communication extend the range of meaning that learners make multimodally without anxiety and stress. Given the opportunity to express meaning using other modes, the participants are less anxious about vocabulary and spelling and show a mature and more expert use of language. Their writings

show a wider and more sophisticated range of vocabulary and sentence structures and consequently create more meaning. In short, by using multimodal approaches, participants make their meanings visible.

12 Use of Higher Order Thinking Questions to Increase Student Achievement in Reading Comprehension

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This action research was conducted to explore the impact of using higher order thinking questions in the reading programme where guided reading instruction is used to increase students' engagement and comprehension of the text. The study was targeted at the Intensive English Programme (IEP) students. It was observed that IEP students had great difficulty in answering higher order thinking questions in the exam. Thus, this study aimed at exploring teacher-guided intervention in improving their reading comprehension skills through the use of higher order thinking questions in the reading programme. Ten students participated in the research study. Data for this study were collected from pre-assessment to post-assessment through pre and post reading comprehension assessments with scoring rubric, pre and post reading attitude surveys, teacher observation checklists for each lesson, peer observation and reflective journals. The study revealed that there was a significant improvement in the students' final test achievement. The result showed that the use of higher order thinking questions and teacher-led instructions in class could improve students' achievement in reading comprehension.

Rational for the research

Every semester, the researchers observe that students struggle with the reading comprehension section of the mid-term and final assessments. A conspicuous cause of poor performance is the questions in the reading comprehension section that require higher order thinking. To find a solution to this, a deliberate evaluation on classroom practices was carried out. The teachers also reflected on their classroom instructional delivery while they examined student engagement in reading.

A review of the literature indicates that high-level questioning not only has effects on students but also on instructional delivery. A varied level of higher order thinking questions aid students' comprehension of a text (Kängsepp, 2011; Fordham, 2006; Lundy, 2008) while it heightens curiosity, creates interest and drives motivation (Caram & Davis, 2005; Lorent Deegan, 2010). Furthermore, students who can think about their thinking tend to connect to the text better and thus have greater understanding (Walsh & Sattes, 2005). All these require greater amount of reflection on the teacher's classroom practice. Teachers need to think about the questions they ask in class and the effectiveness of questioning. Additionally, employing high-level questioning encourages teachers to collaborate. Teachers conduct peer observation and reflect on the types of questions used in the classroom. Through observation and collaboration, teachers are more reflective and more effective in using high-level questions (Peterson & Taylor, 2012). Thus, this increases the effectiveness of delivery.

Methodology and result

The study was carried out over a 6-week period. Each week, the teachers met the students for a total of 6 hours. A pre-assessment was administered at week 1. Then, guided instructional reading class activities took place. Each week, one higher order thinking question was given. At week 6, the assessment was conducted. After the completion of the study, a post-assessment was given. The pre-assessment and assessment questions are the same, and based on Bloom's taxonomy, Levels 3 – 6. However, the post-assessment contained a different text but same levels of questions. Teachers' observation and reflection were also used for analysis of the data.

In the pre-assessment, it is noted that students struggled with the top 2 levels. However, in the assessment, students showed greatest improvement at level 5 (evaluating). Finally, at post-assessment, students also showed greatest achievement at level 5 (evaluating).

Reflection

Teacher intervention seemed to benefit all students but the weaker ones showed greater achievement. Some seemed to have scored better at pre-assessment. Some possible reasons could be absenteeism and lack of concentration as the study was conducted in the afternoon, after usual class hours. The researchers also recognised that vocabulary played a major role in students' understanding of the text, especially for the less proficient. They seemed to have the idea but were unable to produce adequate responses due to vocabulary inaccuracies. The teachers observed that week after week, students progressively became more participative and responsive. The most significant outcome of this study was the final assessment (of the Intensive English Programme) achievement indicated that students' ability to respond to high level questions had increased significantly.

13 Developing Resources for ESL Classrooms: Whose Responsibility?

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Introduction

Material selection, adaptation and production are essential in a language classroom, a process commonly carried out by teachers. Textbooks and reference books are chosen by the teachers and students become mere recipients, with hardly have any voice in their own learning.

In addition, one must understand that textbooks and reference books are written for the majority without taking into consideration students' individual needs. The content in textbooks is sometimes outdated and irrelevant, resulting in teachers adding, deleting and adapting resources for teaching. When materials tend to be teacher-centered and there is little opportunity to learn outside the classroom, students' struggle to 'stay alive' in the classroom.

Research aims

This study was designed to explore how the process of material selection by students empowers them to take ownership of their own learning. It also seeks to capture the sense-making process, as well as concerns and considerations by students before the actual material selection is made. This study was based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and Swain's collaborative dialogue.

Method

The participants of this qualitative case study were 16-year old ESL students, in a public school in Malaysia. Data was collected in the form of group discussion via Whatsapp and Messenger, Project Survey Sheet, and informal chats. These were then analysed using a constant comparative method. Data analysis indicated five themes : student empowerment, students' shouldering of responsibility, motivation, student-chosen versus teacher-chosen issues and the "talk" that scaffolds learning.

Findings

The findings revealed that as students explored the process of material selection, they were empowered and took ownership of their own learning. The materials chosen were based on their own interests, needs and wants. Furthermore, as they defined the parameters of the topics and materials selected, they were motivated by the genuine conversation that took place. In other words, students' voice in determining what they wanted to learn was evident.

The findings also demonstrated that before the actual materials were selected, the teacher and students embarked on a journey of scaffolding thought processes. Students displayed critical thinking through calculated decisions made while

collaborating with each other. They looked at issues that were relevant and real to them and took into account the validity, reliability, and availability of their resources. Students were also aware of the need to have sufficient information from reliable sources. Finally, this study suggests teachers should consider taking on their students as partners in education.

Workshop Reports

14 Sharing Our Classrooms

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I set out in this workshop with the intention of providing a setting and a structure in which participants could experience sharing some of their classroom experiences with each other. By doing this, I hoped to raise awareness of the potential and the benefits of sharing experiences and passions in professional development. There are several principles which underlie this approach.

1. Talking together stimulates thought in both speakers and listeners. Talking AMONG teachers is more likely to lead to reflection on and development of practice than being talked AT by a tutor or expert.
2. The social and emotional context of such talk is significant in building trust among colleagues. For this reason, participants were invited to talk semi-privately i.e. without interference from the facilitator. Participants need to feel comfortable and not pried upon.
3. We don't talk about our practice until we are comfortable talking with others about ourselves, even in apparently trivial ways. This explains the organisation of the workshop, moving from simple to complex, personal to professional, past/present to future through the 'courses'.
4. We don't necessarily need 'materials' in such workshops; teacher participants typically have a treasure chest of 'material' to refer to. The workshop 'menu' provides a structure in which this can be accessed and revealed.
5. We need to talk about the past and present before projecting into the future.

I based the session on ideas from Theodore Zeldin (2015) and his website, www.oxfordmuse.com. The idea was to see the session as a meal menu with a drink and three courses, a starter, a main course and a dessert. Participants were divided into pairs, and invited first to choose an item from the menu and then to spend time sharing it with their partner. Only 'rule' is that partners listen to each other and, if in the listener role, take the opportunity to clarify and ask questions when the 'speaker' had completed what they were saying. (I noticed the rule was soon abandoned or forgotten and pairs were involved in animated conversations).

Drink – Participants were offered 'water' of different sorts, literal and metaphorical, and to share with their partner for the 'meal' why they had chosen the type of water they had.

Starter – Choices for talk invited participants to look back at personal experiences in their early days in teaching.

Main – The current teaching situations and practices of participants were the focus of this segment of the ‘meal’.

Dessert – Participants were given some choices about aspects of their classroom practice that they would like to develop.

After each ‘course’, participants were invited to talk about what they had discussed with the whole group. At the end of the meal, participants were invited to talk about their experience of the workshop, and observations they had, and any thoughts they wanted to share. I shared some of my observations of the interactions and atmosphere, and talked about the principles (above) which informed the design of the session. I hope the idea of ‘sharing’ was well-illustrated.

Reflection

This was the first time I had organised a professional development session in this way. In future, were I to do this again (which I am sure I will) I will make the ‘drinks’ choice slightly more transparent, or substitute another individually-centred topic or task. The three subsequent discussions seemed to become more intense as the session continued. The time allocated was soon eaten up, and I wished I’d had more time in which to try to pull together some of the participants’ experiences and perceptions more coherently and in more depth. Maybe I’ll build in a @post-meal treat’ like “what would you tell your friends or colleagues about after this workshop?”

The idea of a ‘menu’ of things to talk about is a good one (thanks Theodore!) and I’ll definitely use it again.

Reference

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15 Teaching and Assessing Language through Erasure

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The American writer, filmmaker, and political activist Susan Sontag once said “existence is no more than the precarious attainment of relevance in an intensely mobile flux of past, present, and future.” Change can come in many forms in our lives. To me personally, change is a necessity; and because I perceive life to be always in flux, *erasure*, as an artistic adaptation tool, has become an important part of my academia and free time activities.

Part of my participation in the 2017 International English Language Teaching conference in Malaysia last April was to present on Teaching and Assessing Language through Erasure. In the workshop, I gave a brief history of what erasure is and some of the methods used by erasure artists to reconstruct new genres, forms, and semantic layers. Erasure, as an adaptation method, is understood to maintain fluidity between adapted textual mediums and their adaptations. It is a tool that one can use to create autonomous textual mediums with newly constructed forms and meanings. Erasure is applied as a result of employing a number of different methods such as cutting, removing, rubbing out or discarding parts of a textual medium to create a new form and meaning.

Erasure

One of the earliest examples of erasure application started with the idea of the palimpsest, which is defined by *The American Heritage Dictionary* as “a written document, usually on vellum or parchment that has been written upon several times, often with remnants of erased writing still visible. Remnants [of which] are a major source for the recovery of lost literary works of classical antiquity” (*The American Heritage Dictionary* 894). This feature worked in favor of the people who worked on these palimpsests as the visible residue of what was erased as a result of cultural appropriation worked as a tool for retrieving what was lost as a result of erasure. Nevertheless, modern manifestations of erasure are still being analyzed as modes of cultural appropriation. This modern drive to analyze traces of erasure mainly started with Martin Heidegger, the German philosopher who developed a strategic philosophical device which he called “*sous rature*”, or “under erasure” (Taylor 113). This device is described as the “typographical expression of deconstruction” because the process involved is always in flux, and is driven by progress (113). In other words, the materials that undergo any of form of erasure are bound to go through deconstruction in order to be reconstructed again in order to resonate with the shifting of its creator’s cultural, social, political and economic needs and interests.

Workshop purpose

The purpose of the workshop was to shed the light on the traditional methods and ways of utilizing erasure theory to teach and assess language. These methods vary from cloze exercises to reverse reading comprehension practices and others. It also looked at new and modern ways of implementing erasure in the curriculum, for language teaching and assessment.

Results

The attendees were thoroughly engaged during the practical part of the workshop, where they were asked to freely erase by "blacking out" some words/lines from *A Poison Tree* by William Blake. One of the outcomes of this artistic activity was the production of various poetic adaptations of Blake`s poem. Not only were the attendees able to artistically adapt Blake`s poem through erasure and recite it to each other, they were also able to appreciate the educational element of the activity. Erasure was utilized to develop learning autonomy and students` writing, reading, grammar, and speaking skills in an ESL context.

16 Let Your Senses Tell You

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Learning to write well takes time and practice. However, it can be made easier by using sensory details. Oakley Hall reiterates, "If there is a profound secret to good writing, it lies in the engagement of the senses." Good writers use the senses to paint the audience a picture. We can use them to enrich writing whether it's fiction or non-fiction. The objective of this workshop was to lead the participants through a series of activities to show them that using their senses can improve their writing. All senses can be used or a few can be chosen.

Workshop activities and reflection

- 1) **Listening to sounds:** The facilitator made sounds using different materials e.g. pouring water into a bottle, crushing aluminum can, tearing paper etc. While the participants tried to guess what these sounds were and wrote them down. This not only increases the imagination and acuity of the senses but also the vocabulary when writing down the sounds.

When checking the number of sounds recorded, it was found many could not recognise a lot of sounds made. So there was a short discussion on barriers to listening. Hence, this activity also encourages oral interaction between facilitator and participants. Alternatively, get participants to lie on the grass / or sit in an open field, close their eyes for 3 minutes and listen intently to the sounds around them (birds chirping, cars honking, footsteps, etc). Then ask them to do this for a longer duration. They will hear more sounds.

- 2) **Imagination:** With eyes closed, participants try to picture their favourite place e.g. kopi tiam (coffee shop), bakery, seafood restaurant, beach, classroom, etc. They imagine the sounds, smell, taste. Ask them to write a short paragraph on what they see. They can later share in pairs then in the big group.
- 3) **Write me a poem:** In groups, assign two members as an "actor" and a "scribe" respectively. The actor will be blindfolded, given a fruit and asked to describe its smell, shape, texture. As they speak, the scribe will record the words they use. The fruit is then cut. Once again, the actor describes the cut fruit (juicy, seeds?) and its taste. The scribe continues to record the words uttered. Finally, the group creates a poem on the fruit incorporating words used by the actor. The group then presents the poem in as creative a way as possible.

The participants thoroughly enjoyed this third session. After writing down their creative poem, one group used the juicy skin of the dragon fruit to decorate the paper they wrote on! I have tried this activity at different workshops but this is the first time, any group performed something as unique as this.

Conclusion

Conducting courses is always a learning experience. Many a time although we are the facilitator, we learn a lot from our participants. And these experiences add on the richness of my learning journey.



17 Rhythm & Poetry: When Lit And Pop Culture Collide

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Alphonse de Lamartine said "Music is the literature of the heart; it commences where speech ends." Music is a stimulating and engaging method to teach literature in the classroom. Pop songs have always been used as a resource to promote language learning, but other genres are not that popular among teachers. Rap, for example, has a bad reputation among educators for its sometimes explicit lyrics and unorthodox content. This workshop therefore focuses on how teachers can use rap songs to promote not just oral fluency, but how to get students to learn poetry in a fun and motivating way, while also increasing the learners' confidence.

A little bit of theory

According to the Oxford Dictionary (2016), 'rap' means to utter sharply or suddenly. Rap music is the combination of rhyming and poetry to a beat. Actually, the word **RAP** is an acronym for **R**hythm and **P**oetry!

What we know from research is that music:

- creates a learning environment that lowers the affective filter;
- elevates student interest;
- provides an ideal way to teach prosody, the rhythm, pitch, and tone of a language;
- creates a bridge between generations and breaks down possible teacher-student role barriers

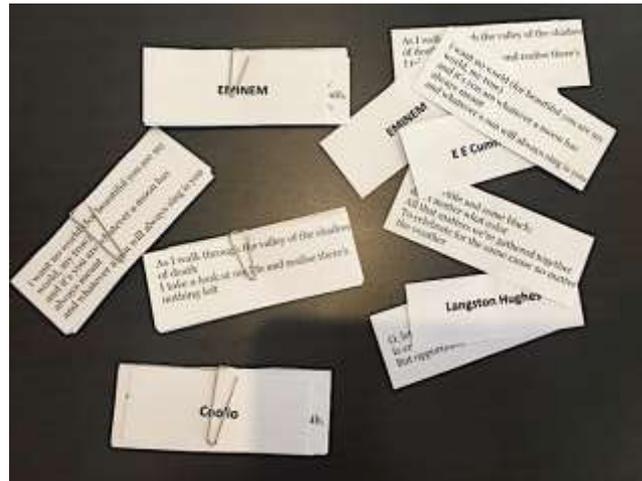
But why RAP?

- You do not need to know how to sing or have an educated voice
- according to Weinstein (2006), rap is known for being a form that is
- characterized by its lack of elevated language, but it is known for its ability to
- communicate in a deeply social manner.

Weinstein (2006) has documented case studies of underperforming students improving in literacy skills as rap was introduced as a literacy for teaching and learning.

"Understanding the ways that participating in rap as a writer, performer, or fan connects people to their peers; to histories of oral, musical, and political discourse; and to communities that have the potential for social action adds to the field of literacy studies. (p. 280)"

The first activity we did was Match 'Em. In this activity, participants were required to match sentences to artists who wrote them. Some of these were quotes from Rap songs, while others were lines from poems by prominent literary figures. Here are some examples from the activity:



The second activity was a Scavenger Hunt. RAP lyrics from various artistes were put around the room. Participants were asked to go around the room to hunt for different literary techniques like simile, metaphor, personification, alliteration, assonance, hyperbole, consonance, onomatopoeia. The aim was to show that Rap lyrics are (or can be) in fact poetry.

We also discussed Grammar. As Prof. Paul Kei Matsuda mentioned in his plenary, it is understandable that teachers worry about this. However, we should not forget that language is changing and literature has a great part in that. Shakespeare invented a lot of words; Lewis Carroll, for example, invented portmanteau, a concept which would not have existed until the genius musing of Jabberwocky! Rap – like any other form of literature – can also contribute to language change with its sometimes unorthodox language use.

The last activity was the Rappin' Sonnets. As Tamas Kiss mentioned in his plenary, there has to be a boundary within which creativity is exercised. This was put to the test when the participants are required to come up with a sonnet, a quatrain with an e-f-e-f rhyme structure. They then presented their quatrain in RAP style.



Reflection

This workshop is one of a few RAP for ELT workshops which I have designed. Getting feedback from participants on what they learned in my workshop and finding out questions and problems they might face, using RAP in their classroom helps me improve the content of my workshop to make it more practical for teachers.

It was good to see the participants enjoying themselves. My note to them was, if you enjoyed yourself so much, then wouldn't your students enjoy themselves too? The first few activities were to get participants to see the relationship between RAP and literature, and how we have often misunderstood the genre because of the explicit lyrics. It was fun watching the participants attempt to rap a quatrain of a sonnet. As Tony Wright mentioned in the closing ceremony of iELT-Con 2017 "I learned how to rap!"

18 Slicing & Splicing, Linking & Marking: Reading Strategies For English

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What the workshop covered

The original title of my workshop was “Pizzas & Punctuation, Chains & Connectors –Reading Strategies for English” but along the way, I decided to call it “Slicing & Splicing, Linking & Marking” instead to highlight the 4 different strategies for reading.

After considering how the teaching of reading skills has changed over time, we agreed that students these days may have shorter attention spans. Their difficulties with reading comprehension may not just be a problem of vocabulary. Many seem to struggle with long passages & even long sentences (especially complex-compound sentences with a lot of embedding). Some students’ idea of reading is simply to highlight every line indiscriminately. Clearly, that is NOT the kind of active reading we want to cultivate in our classroom.

For the first strategy “Slice It”, I suggested that we could teach students to read texts the way a pizza is first cut up before consumed. Just as we usually don’t eat a whole pizza in one mouthful; so in the same way, we could slice up a text and even sentences into smaller parts to make it easier to ‘digest’ and understand. This strategy is similar to chunking but the ‘slicing’ analogy seems more accessible. Participants of the workshop worked in pairs to practise slicing long sentences after examples were shown on Powerpoint. The benefit of using MS Word & PPP is that the same sentences can be shown in a variety of ways with line breaks, highlighted punctuation and contrasting colours for logical connectors.

The next activity, “Link It” revolved around the skill of identifying connections in pronoun referents or topic chains in a text. As participants are quite familiar with this strategy, more time was spent on the third strategy: “Splice It”. Students could be encouraged to play around to combine short phrases or bits of information in different sentences. This seems more like a writing exercise but it is intended to raise more awareness about how sentences are put together. If teachers spend some time in class developing familiarity with various sentence structures – from simple to complex-compound - and connectors, students would be able to recognise certain patterns whenever they encounter new texts.

The last part of the workshop, “Mark It” involved annotating the reading passage. First, the main idea of each paragraph in an expository text has to be identified and expressed in key words in the left hand margin of the text. Such an exercise is good practice for summarizing and paraphrasing skills which should lead to more advanced reading proficiency. The other way to mark the text in the right-hand margin would be to ask what the writer is doing – contrasting, classifying, defining, etc.

What the workshop taught me

Preparing for the workshop has been rewarding in itself as it has led me to some useful ideas in Court Allam's blog and to the work of Dr. Louisa Moats, Kathleen Stevens, Tim Shanahan and Cheryl Scott. I am equally grateful to those who came for my workshop for indeed it is their participation that makes any workshop come alive. I also thank them for their patience; even though I had told myself to be prepared for any technical hiccup, I was still caught by surprise when my Powerpoint slides initially failed to appear on screen (that is, until a PELLTA member eventually came to my rescue). Lesson to self: Have Plan B ready; in short, a PPP-less workshop, just in case.