About the University of Sydney Journal of TESOL

The University of Sydney Journal of TESOL is a peer-reviewed online journal with open access. Like its forerunner, the *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, it is published by the TESOL Research Forum in the Sydney School of Education and Social Work, The University of Sydney, Australia.

This journal provides a space for postgraduate students, scholars, and practitioners to share theory, research, and practice in TESOL and TESOL-related areas. We aim to foster a community in which the voices of postgraduate students, scholars, teacher trainers, teachers, and other practitioners can be heard.

The journal accepts for submission the following types of contributions:

- reports of original research

- discussions

- pedagogical practices

- interviews with experts

- reviews.

The journal welcomes contributions from a wide range of TESOL and TESOL-related areas. To give some examples:

- bilingualism/bilingual education

- discourse/pragmatics

- English for specific purposes

- intercultural communication

- language testing and assessment

- language policy and planning

- online teaching and learning

- second-language acquisition

- teacher professional development.

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Editorial

Aek Phakiti[1], Marie Stevenson, Phil Chappell and Margaret Kettle

It is with pleasure that we present Volume 2 of the *University of Sydney Journal of TESOL. This volume* features a broad range of topics, methodologies, and perspectives within the TESOL field, showcasing the multifaceted nature of TESOL research and practice. The contributions within this volume demonstrate a shared emphasis on innovation and enhancement within the field of TESOL. From pioneering pedagogical approaches to the integration of emerging technologies, each contribution shows a commitment to advancing the efficacy and impact of TESOL.

OVERVIEW OF THIS VOLUME

Reports of original research

David Gutteridge explores the disparities between teachers' perceived and actual approaches to incorporating Australian English in ELICOS classrooms. Using data from a teacher survey (n = 21) and follow-up interviews (n = 6), the study reveals teachers' awareness and strategic decisions regarding classroom practices. Thematic analysis of qualitative responses suggests that while teachers make nuanced language decisions, they may not be aware of such decisions. This study underscores the need for teacher professional development in the area of the different varieties of English and reflexivity in practice.

Jialiang He examines the effectiveness of the *Praat* Program in enhancing English pronunciation among Chinese university students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Pronunciation, a crucial aspect of spoken language for conveying intended meanings, often poses challenges to Chinese EFL students due to limited practice and feedback. In a six-week study involving 18 participants, significant

pronunciation improvement was observed after *Praat* training. Qualitative findings underscore *Praat*'s role in providing valuable feedback and a stress-free learning environment that contribute to enhancing students' pronunciation skills.

Discussion articles

Jack C. Richards focuses on the complexities surrounding the use of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) for teaching academic subjects. The paper is structured around eight key questions: (1) Reasons for adopting EMI; (2) Nature of EMI; (3) Language demands of teaching in EMI; (4) Teachers' views on their primary role and responsibility in EMI; (5) Impact of EMI on teachers; (6) EMI teacher professional identity; (7) EMI learner; and (8) Strategies for developing academic literacy among students.

Keith Cheng Lin draws on research on the Noticing Hypothesis to help improve English learners' awareness of language forms. The paper discusses research on input enhancement and external/internal factors influencing the quality of learners' noticing. This article introduces a synthesised method of form-focused instruction that incorporates input enhancement and other techniques. It provides suggestions for future classroom research.

Pedagogical practices

Shogo Yamamoto highlights the significance of incorporating various modes of communication in English language classrooms beyond traditional language use. The article argues for a multimodal perspective in considering classroom space to promote communicative language teaching. Through a Japanese public high school classroom example, Yamamoto examines how traditional spaces often support didactic, teacher-centred pedagogy. The author suggests leveraging modes and technologies to empower students and enhance teachers' professional development. The article emphasises the importance of teachers' awareness of utilising semiotic modes and technologies to enhance language teaching and learning in classroom settings.

Adam Steinhoff presents an application of a genre-based approach (GBA) for teaching writing in both ESL and EFL contexts. The paper discusses the pedagogical applications and theoretical background of GBA and reviews existing research. Three lesson plans are outlined: two on email writing to recommend a job (Lesson Plans 1 and 2) and one on recipe writing (Lesson Plan 3). The paper includes guidelines to aid teachers in implementing these lesson plans.

Interview

Aek Phakiti interviews Professor Ken Cruickshank regarding his enthusiasm for TESOL, his current research projects, and the significant impact of his Institute for Language Community Education. Professor Cruickshank offers invaluable advice for PhD students, emphasising strategies for maintaining motivation in academia. Furthermore, he provides insightful guidance for TESOL coursework students and educators.

Book review

Finally, in her review of Lindy Woodrow's (2022) book "Introducing Researching English for Specific Purposes," *Louise Kaktins* applauds this book as a useful resource for delving into critical research aspects within the essential realm of English language teaching. She underscores Woodrow's contribution as a foundational guide for aspiring English for Specific Purposes researchers. Kaktins notes Woodrow's meticulous organisation of the book, lauding her efforts to demystify complex concepts and facilitating students' progression from interns to independent researchers.

The disconnects between what teachers say they do and what they actually do: A study of the selection of Englishes in ELICOS classrooms

David Gutteridge[1]

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigates the apparent disconnects between teachers' perceptions of how they address the role of Australian English in the ELICOS classroom and what the evidence from interviews suggests that they actually do. Through data sets from a broader teacher survey (*n* = 21) and follow-up interviews with teachers (*n* = 6), perceptions of classroom practice in relation to Australian English and other Englishes were explored. Being qualitative in nature, the text responses from teachers were analysed using thematic analysis. A theme and sub-themes were identified and aligned with the guiding research question. The thematic analysis results suggest that teachers are not necessarily aware of some of the decision-making they are carrying out daily in their classrooms. Although, in many cases, they were making sophisticated judgements on the use of varieties of English and colloquialisms in their classrooms, they sometimes did not seem to have an active awareness of their decision-making. The current study provides implications for teachers' professional learning and how reflexivity may be brought into their practice.

Keywords: teacher agency, teacher cognition, professional learning

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INTRODUCTION

The English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) sector in Australia has a distinct identity. It has been an essential part of the growth of the Australian International Education sector. According to Davis and Mackintosh (2011), it provides pathways for students to further study in higher education and the vocational sector and the stand-alone provision of English language learning for tourism and employment. The sector initially focused in the 1980s on full-fee paying English language learners but has now become an integral part of the pathways for international students in Australia. There appears to be limited current research about the varieties of English used in ELICOS classrooms and how teachers select the materials they use to teach. Tonsuncuoğlu and Kırmızı (2019) noted that most English language course books used American English or British English.

General research issues in the ELICOS sector include corrective feedback (Liu, 2022), fluency feedback, assessment issues and student motivation. Other recent areas of interest include the move to online learning and its impact on students and teachers (Starford, 2021). This is highly relevant in the recent global pandemic, which has reduced face-to-face activities across a wide range of human interactions, including teaching. There is limited previous research about the specifics of teacher decision-making across the selection of different varieties of English. Riazi (2022) also noted that only a very small number of action research projects were published in TESOL and advocated for more research to be carried out and published by teachers themselves. This was part of my motivation to publish this paper.

The questions of why teachers do what they do in their classrooms and how they make decisions are asked in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) classroom and across the whole education sector. For example, van der Steen, van Schilt-Mol, van der Vleuten and Joosten-ten Brinke (2022) considered how formative assessment activities were aligned with other aspects of the curriculum and how teachers made decisions based on the activities employed. Wherfel, Monda-Amaya and Shriner (2022) analysed how data-based decision-making drove practices in the general education sector. Teacher cognition is considered to be related to their thought processes, beliefs, and knowledge (Mardle & Walker, 2018). This, in turn, influences how they teach and why they do what they do in their classrooms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review for this study focuses on the theoretical framework for teacher cognition and how this informed the design and analysis of the results of this study. The concept of teacher cognition itself is considered. A brief consideration is made of the different varieties of English and how Australian English specifically sits in this family of language varieties. This is relevant to the ELICOS sector as teachers need to make decisions, either consciously or unconsciously, about the varieties of English that they bring into their classrooms. The variety they use daily will be a factor in this, as well as the published and unpublished resources they use in their teaching. The theoretical framework around teacher cognition will also be discussed.

Theoretical framework for the study

Much previous research on teacher cognition and decision-making is built around Borg's schematic conceptualisation of teaching framework (2006). This framework describes the place of teacher cognition in the context of the school and the classroom. Factors such as the teacher's educational background play a part, as do the teachers' contexts in terms of the education curriculum, goals and policies. Borg's framework provides advice to researchers about the methodological options they have when undertaking language cognition research. In the case of this study, "Self-report instruments" (2006, p.332) are employed in the form of questionnaires and interviews. These instruments position the classroom as part of the context, not just an external factor. Borg then goes further into the elements and processes in language teacher cognition and presents these in terms of contextual factors "around and inside the classroom" (p.333) as well as unconscious decision-making or practice informed by conscious reflection. The following section explores the concept of teacher cognition in more detail, especially as it relates to language teaching contexts.

Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition is a theoretical concept that is related to the thought processes, beliefs and knowledge of teachers. Borg (2006) considers that this cognition relates to thinking, attitudes, and decision-making in relation to materials, activities, assessments, and many other aspects of their practice. In an ESL context, Chmarkh (2021) notes that teacher cognitions are "complex, multifaceted, recursive and sometimes impenetrable" (p. 498). Another aspect of decision-making is the role that emotions may play and there is research suggesting the

importance of emotions in the pedagogical practices of language teachers. Benesch (2018) found that there was a conflict between feeling obliged to do something and uncertainty about what to do. She recommended that teacher education programs should explicitly increase teachers' awareness of these issues. Cheung and Hennebry-Leung (2020) found that emotions are an important part of teacher cognition. The authors adopted a three-level framework of teacher emotions, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, and intergroup to explore the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. In a Malaysian ESL context, Philip, Hua and Jandar (2019) reported on a "lack of congruence" (p. 174) between what a teacher in their study said and what he actually did. They speculate that this could be explained by actual classroom practices being influenced by the context of teaching time available, students' abilities or education policies in place.

Although Borg (2019) observes that teacher cognition has been a focus of empirical and practical research in language education since the 1990s, other authors note that this aspect of teaching has been largely ignored (Shi, 2021). Previous studies on teacher cognition have been completed through the lens of testing (Chappell, Bodis & Jackson, 2015), and they found that teachers did not have standardised approaches to test preparation in their classrooms.

Teacher decision-making is significant in the language classroom when different language varieties are available for teachers to use or choose not to use. This is highly relevant to all teachers working in the ELICOS sector, especially as Australian English is not as widely spoken as the two dominant standard varieties of English, British and American English. This consideration led to the guiding questions for the present study.

Teacher decision-making

The classroom is a complex social environment that offers a challenging place for teachers to make decisions. Decision-making itself has been defined by Harris (2015) as identifying an issue, collecting relevant information, and evaluating options before deciding how to act. Previous literature reviews have found that the research carried out to date has not always reflected the actual complexity found in real classrooms, for example, in Blackley, Redmond and Peel (2021). They found that the majority of previous studies involved college students in laboratory experiments, and they were responding to hypothetical scenarios. This resulted in a lack of realism. Their paper also found that there is an intersection between "cognition, affect and decision-making" (p. 549) and the process of decision-

making involves either classical rational decision-making or intuitive decision-making. The consequences of this for the ELICOS sector is that teachers can change long-formed habits through a reflective framework based on classroom observations. Teachers make decisions about varieties of English which are discussed in the next section.

Varieties of English

The English language started its life as a minor European language spoken on a small island on the edge of the continent and has developed over a long period of time into the Modern English that we know today (Crystal, 2004). Within modern English, there is a whole family of Englishes, for the most part, that are mutually intelligible, and these are called world Englishes. Mahboob and Szenes (2010) note that these varieties are generally named according to the nation state where they are spoken, for example, British English. However, this can be problematic as sovereign borders may not be the best way to define these varieties. A pioneer in this area, Kachru (1985) established the concept of World Englishes to indicate how English could no longer be considered a single language. Later, Kachru and Nelson (1995) referenced the speaker of English into three circles, namely, the Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle.

Before the invasion and colonisation of Australia in 1788 by the British, over 300 languages were spoken on the continent by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples (Simpson & Wrigglesworth, 2019). After the invasion, British varieties of English were dominant, and Government policies, such as the White Australia policy and restrictions on migration by nationality, ensured that this continued. The speaking of languages other than English was actively discouraged, and assimilation into mainstream culture was expected (Sadeghpour & Sharifian, 2017). Over time, a distinct variety of English emerged in Australia, with a standard acceptable variety recognised as Australian English (Kirkpatrick, 2007). The literature now suggests that Australian English is a homogenous variety of the language with limited regional variation (Przewozny & Viollain, 2016).

In a multicultural country like Australia, there is a need for all users of English to be familiar with a range of different accents and varieties of English. This is the case for both L1 and L2 speakers of English. The current study, therefore, investigates how teachers in Australian ELICOS classrooms make decisions about the Englishes that they use and whether they are making active decisions or underestimating their agency. This is an important consideration for all ELICOS

teachers – are they considering how which varieties of English they teach in an active way? How do they make those decisions?

Guiding questions

The guiding questions for this study are:

How do English teachers decide on the varieties of English they use in their classrooms, and is this an active decision?

METHODOLOGY

The research approach

As this was a small-scale study, it was determined that quantitative methodologies would not be utilised since broad generalisations were not being sought. Instead, the aim was to ask questions of individuals and increase the understanding of why teachers are doing what they do in classrooms with regards to their selection of resources and use of different varieties of English. Hence, a qualitative methodology, predominantly interviewing, was employed to "give voices to participants, and it probes the issues that lie beneath the surface of presenting behaviours and actions" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 219). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) observe that qualitative research uses words as data in place of the numbers used in quantitative research. The design also broadly fits in with an explanatory mixed methods design, as the survey results were used to inform the subsequent qualitative design and data collection (Creswell, 2014).

Participant selection

Contact was made with a selection of educational institutions and a peak body for EAL teachers. Agreement was sought to send a link to an online survey to all their ELICOS teaching staff. A positive response was received from all these organisations, so a link and set email text was provided to each contact to forward onto their teaching teams. A total of twenty-one useable surveys were received from participants. The initial teacher survey invited participants to volunteer for the second phase of the study which was a one-on-one interview with the researcher. Seven teachers who had participated in the survey volunteered to proceed with an interview. Of these seven volunteers, six actually completed an interview. Specific demographic data was not obtained for the participants due to

the small sample group. All of the teachers interviewed were experienced teachers of English to students in Tasmania in face-to-face contexts.

The study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of Tasmania with scope for the researcher to prepare journal papers using the datasets generated. The ethics issues described by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) include informed consent, beneficence and anonymity. Consent was obtained directly from participants, who were advised that they could terminate their participation in the study at any time without penalty. All responses to the survey and transcripts have been anonymised, and pseudonyms have been assigned to each participant. The participant key to the pseudonyms was destroyed shortly after coding was completed. The research offered teachers the opportunity to reflect on their practice and assist in filling the identified research gaps in this teaching area.

Administration of the survey and interviews

The online teacher survey was administered through the Qualtrics tool online. For this study, there is one rating question and four short answer responses that are relevant to the guiding questions. A clickable link was sent to administrators at each participating institution, and this was sent to English teachers with a participant information sheet attached. The survey was forwarded to around sixty individuals; it is impossible to determine an exact number as some teachers work in multiple places and are also peak body members, resulting in some overlap. The questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.

The teacher interviews were conducted using Zoom web-conferencing software. Some guiding questions were provided in advance, and the researcher used these to conduct the interviews. The guiding questions are provided in Appendix 2. Each interview participant was required to lodge a consent form before commencement. Each interview was recorded, and a transcript was generated using voice recognition software. The researcher then manually refined these transcripts for accuracy.

Data analysis

The data obtained from the interviews was coded using a process of thematic analysis. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017), thematic analysis is "the process of identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data" (p. 2). The researchers Braun and Clarke are proponents of this method of analysing

qualitative data and they suggest that this is the first qualitative data analysis method that researchers should learn (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This is because it provides a set of core skills in coding that can then be employed in the future. In later research, they note that thematic analysis is highly flexible as it does not describe how data should be collected nor is it aligned to a particular theoretical framework (Braun and Clarke, 2013). The data was coded according to the guiding question using a complete coding process whereby everything of interest and relevance to this question was coded. It was determined that software would not be used in the analysis so the resulting immersion in the data could lead to richer connection with its nuances. The interview transcripts were systematically read, and items found to be relevant to the guiding question were coded. This was administered using Microsoft Word and its highlighting and commenting features. The resulting themes were then synthesised into more concise formats. This resulted in an overall coding that is "inclusive, thorough and systematic" (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 210).

Figure 1 summarises the major themes and sub-themes from the teacher interviews. The themes are shown in the black boxes, and links have been established with the sub-themes shown in the white boxes.

Horses for courses – resources for local needs and interests

Published versus self-prepared – a balance for teachers

Published resources are mostly in British and American English

Language empowers – helping students to counter discrimination and life challenges

Our students need guidance

Teachers are making active decisions about English varieties – even if they don't think they are

It's all about local needs, student interest and our culture

Set in stone – we treat written English differently to spoken

Teachers are underestimating their agency and decision-making in the classroom

Language is a tool for communication

Language is more than a series of words – culture matters

The relative prestige of Englishes is known, but is not driving the teaching and learning

Australian English is not as prestigious

My country, my variety of English

We are talking about the American dream

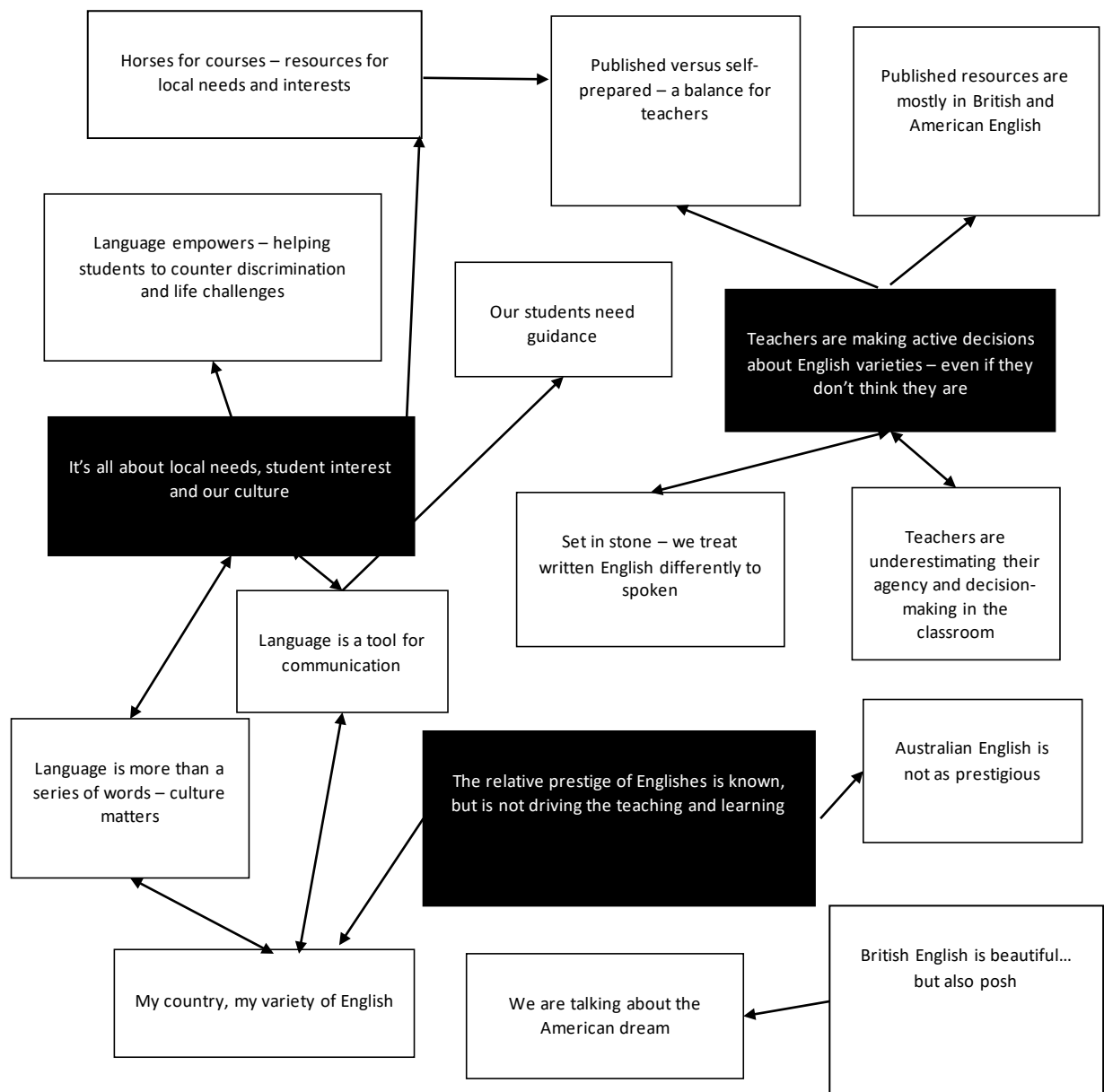British English is beautiful… but also posh

Figure 1 Major themes and sub-themes from the teacher interviews

RESULTS

In general, teachers reported in the initial survey that they did not believe they made active decisions about the English varieties used in their classrooms. However, the results of the subsequent follow-up interviews suggested the opposite—that they were indeed making decisions about the selection of English varieties as part of their teaching strategies. This decision-making did seem to be unconscious.

Results based on the teacher survey

The teacher survey showed that not all teachers felt that they make active decisions about the varieties of English used in their classrooms. The first four survey questions were background questions to collect some broad characteristics of the survey respondents (n = 21). As the overall study is qualitative, no specific biographical data such as age or gender was collected, as there is no intention to conclude how different groups of teachers respond. All but one of the teachers reported having a variety of English as their first language. One teacher had a Slavic language as their first language. All twenty-one participants stated that they used Standard Australian English in their everyday lives, which was not unexpected given that they were all residents of Tasmania. Four teachers also used British English, and one used American English. All twenty-one teachers had lived and worked in Australia, with a wide range of other countries reported globally. Over three-quarters of the participating teachers only taught adults, with the remainder teaching both adults and children, with one teacher only working with children. For this paper, only one of the statements presented to the teachers for rating on a Likert scale is relevant. This was a question about their classroom decision-making in relation to the varieties of English chosen. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1 *Response to statement below on the teacher survey*

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I have made an active decision on how much of each variety of English I include in my classroom activities.	4 (19.05%)	5 (23.81%)	3 (14.29%)	6 (28.57%)	3 (14.29%)

As can be seen, there was quite a mixed set of responses to this statement. The participants who either somewhat agreed or strongly agreed were equally balanced by those who either somewhat disagreed or strongly disagreed. This suggests that teachers are not all making active decisions about the varieties of English that they are using.

The results from the free text questions asked in the survey revealed widely different views amongst teachers on how and why they were treating the different varieties of English in the classroom. When asked for a definition of Standard Australian English, some teachers even advised that they had not ever heard this phrase used. In contrast to the result from the Likert scale question above, all the teachers who responded to the follow-up questions were able to describe in some detail how they brought different varieties of English to their classroom, providing evidence that they were making active decisions, perhaps without being explicitly aware of what they were doing. The responses are included in Appendix 3.

Results based on the teacher interviews

The design of the guiding questions for the interviews was informed by the results from the questionnaires. The interviews were designed to provide more detail from the volunteer participants to explore the issues in more depth. The coding of the transcript from the teacher interviews completed (*n* = 6) provided evidence of one major theme in relation to the guiding question for this paper. It was found that there was a significant difference between the teachers' perceptions of how active their decision-making about English varieties was, compared to the evidence gleaned from the transcript. This reinforced the earlier finding from the

teacher survey responses where teachers were not necessarily in agreement that they made active decisions on English varieties in the classroom, but their subsequent free text responses suggested that they, in fact, were making such decisions. This theme can be summarised as Teachers are underestimating their agency and decision-making in the classroom. This was then broken down into three sub-themes which will each be explored in further detail below:

1. **Sub-theme 1:** Major disconnects exist between what teachers say and what they do – in interviews, they report that they are not considering varieties, but the evidence of what they do suggests the opposite

2. **Sub-theme 2:** Teachers are making clear judgments on how much Australian English to use versus other varieties

3. **Sub-theme 3:** Some quite sophisticated socio-linguistic discussions are held with students about the nuances of the different varieties of English

Sub-theme 1: *Major disconnects exist between what teachers say and what they do – in interviews, they report that they are not considering varieties, but the evidence of what they do suggests the opposite*

During the teacher interviews, participating teachers were asked how they considered the different varieties of English and their strategies for selecting resources and bringing in the Englishes to their teaching. All the teachers initially reported a lack of consideration of the varieties of English beyond the use of Australian English. They noted that they were meeting student needs for localised English. The following two comments from teachers were typical of what was heard, "I would not bring in other varieties I tend not to - I tend to focus on just Australian English" (Terry, teacher) and "Different terminologies and accents… but that doesn't impact on what I actually teach - I'm always using Australian English to teach" (Chen, teacher).

However, as the interviews proceeded and the teachers were asked more follow-up questions about the Englishes used in their classrooms, it became clear that the picture was more complicated than these initial comments suggested. Teachers were making decisions and judgments on a daily basis about the Englishes that they were using, but they appeared to take this for granted and may not even have been conscious of what they were doing. For example, a teacher who had strongly stated at the start of the interview that they only used Australian English because their students were living in Tasmania, later on in the interview said:

> Sometimes I actually do refer to English as Englishes with students… I would talk about multiple Englishes, and philosophically I probably lean towards more blending languages, because ultimately, it's about developing their capacity to communicate effectively (Morgan, teacher)

All of the teachers discussed how they dealt with the spelling differences across the different Englishes and assisted students with how to navigate these in their written work and when dealing with assessors in their mainstream courses who may correct spelling to the Australian standard or not.

Sub-theme 2: *Teachers are making clear judgments on how much Australian English to use versus other varieties*

Teachers also found that they were providing significant guidance to their students about Englishes and they were asked about acceptable forms of English in Australia. They seemed to be making considerable judgments on when to highlight differences when to focus on Australian English, and which aspects of Australian English to teach explicitly. Again, this directly contradicted their general perceptions that they were not making choices about the Englishes they were teaching. Based on the interviews, it would seem that teachers may underestimate what they are doing in the classroom, or perhaps it is a process of thinking that has become automatic or so much part of their classroom practice that they are no longer actively aware of it. One teacher who had advised earlier in the interview that they did not particularly focus on teaching strategies between different Englishes, subsequently advised that they provide practical tips to their students about using word processing spell check software:

> And then practical things like letting them know that if they're using a word with spellcheck, there's a way to switch that to English, you know it defaults often American, but if you switch it to English - that is a bit of a handy hint as well (Morgan, teacher)

Again, this seems to suggest that this teacher may not recognise that their teaching practices in the classroom are assisting students to navigate the different varieties of English. It just seems to them like something commonplace and unremarkable. As this was not a focus of the research questions for the broader initial study, I cannot further analyse why this might be the case. Still, I can speculate more experienced teachers may be so used to this type of decision-making that it becomes invisible to them. This could be an interesting focus for future research.

Sub-theme 3: *Some quite sophisticated socio-linguistic discussions are held with students about the nuances of the different varieties of English*

Some of the teachers interviewed initially defined their language teaching as simply providing students with enough language to communicate on a day-to-day basis in their school or workplace settings. Later in the interviews, there was evidence of some quite complex and detailed teaching involving religious nuances, social class, spelling, age and gendered differences in language, and the nuances of spoken versus written communication. For example, a teacher spoke about their work in an academic classroom where they also provided cultural assistance as well:

> And I found that it is sort of an equal balance in what they need - it's sort of half academic and half social or cultural, so I cover a lot more social matters or social language like idioms, for example, and I found myself even chatting about what can you do if you're a Muslim woman who doesn't shake a man's hand - what if he offers you his hand? Students come to me with all sorts of questions to tackle: how do I bring food to share, what kind of language to use and so on? Today I've just been putting together something on sarcasm. (Kasey, teacher)

In summary, it was found that teachers seemed to underestimate the complexity of their decision-making in the classroom. They seemed to be unaware of the sophistication of their thought processes and treated these as commonplace and unremarkable. There appeared to be a disconnect between what the teachers say they do and the strategies that they are actually employing.

In terms of the research question, "How do English teachers decide on the varieties of English they use in their classrooms, and is this an active decision?" it was determined that teachers are providing students with the English that they perceive that they will need in their classrooms, social and workplace interactions in Australia. However, as the interviews unfolded, it was discovered that more sophisticated thought processes were at play, with teachers making quite sophisticated judgments about multicultural interactions and religious nuances for example. It also appeared that the teachers did not consider this decision-making particularly active – it was just remarked upon as part of their classroom practice. However, based on the evidence from the interviews, the teachers unconsciously considered the varieties of English employed in their classrooms.

DISCUSSION

The survey and interview responses have implications for teachers' initial education and ongoing professional learning. The concept of reflective practice could be explored further. Additional data would need to be collected to investigate teachers' self-efficacy further.

An unexpected observation

During the data analysis for the study, as the transcripts and survey responses were being coded, an unexpected theme of the disconnectedness between what teachers said they did and what they appeared to do began to emerge. The researcher noticed that teachers seemed to initially either ignore or discount the decision-making and considerations that they were making about English varieties, but then, when asked to expand further, they generally provided evidence of highly active decision-making and sophisticated understandings of socio-linguistic nuances of language use which they were able to bring into their classroom teaching. The researcher, therefore, reanalysed the datasets through the lens of a new guiding question relating to what teachers say they do and what the evidence suggests that they actually do. This is a significant area for ELICOS teachers and the teaching sector as a whole. Teachers reflecting on their practice and making conscious active decisions about what they do in classrooms is important for teacher initial education and ongoing professional learning. Borg's framework (2016) discusses how some decision-making in the classroom is unconscious, and some is informed by conscious reflection.

Teacher agency

The findings of the current study suggest that teachers are not aware of making active decisions about their teaching, perhaps due to a lack of explicit reflection about their day-to-day practice. Agency has been researched and has been broadly defined by Leijen, Pedaste and Lepp (2020) as active participation in the forming of realities which are critical for effective functioning, particularly in the workplace. Not only must agentic individuals make sound judgments, they must also be able to evaluate the success or otherwise of their actions, in line with the objectives and motive when they acted (Ghamoushi, Zenouzagh, & Hashamdar, 2022). Many studies have found that teachers' agency can be significantly increased through reflective practice (Jones & Charteris, 2017; Reichenberg, 2022; Ruan, 2018). This seems to be an important consideration regarding teachers' professional learning. Molla and Nolan (2020) noted that reflexivity is "the act of

questioning taken for granted assumptions that underlie action and inaction" (p. 70). The results of the interviews with teachers implies that further work needs to be done by and with teachers to increase the level of reflexivity within their practice. Unfortunately, it was out of the scope of the data collection for this study to consider why there is this lack of awareness. It could be speculated that this might be due to a lack of open or pedagogical debates about the roles of the different Englishes in Australia? It may also be due to an assumption that Australian English is the dominant variety in the country, so little active consideration is being made by teachers about the roles of the other varieties. This would be a fruitful area for future research. Moonthiya (2022) considered how the self-efficacy of English language teachers impacted on their practice. Further specific studies on teacher agency amongst English language teachers would be useful.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The current study uncovered that the TESOL teacher participants underestimated their agency in the classroom and the nuances they bring into their teaching practice. Some of the teachers surveyed and interviewed claimed not to be considering which varieties of Englishes they employed in the classroom. Still, they would provide clear and sensible strategies for how they were teaching. Teachers were found to be intuitive in their practice and are perhaps not taking the time to reflect on their decision-making. Teachers were also spending considerable time self-preparing resources to bring in the Englishes they felt was appropriate in their classrooms. This could be a focus for managers and heads of schools of English institutions, to bring together teachers as part of their Professional Learning to share this knowledge and these resources explicitly. In fact, Edwards (2015) found that agency can be trained.

Due to limited time and lack of external funding, the project was completed in one state with a small number of participants. This led to a major limitation of this study, namely its small sample size and selection of participants from one state without any randomisation. This means that the overall results may not be able to be applied in general terms to teachers of English in Australia. Queirós, Faria, and Almeida (2017) found that interviews may not result in data that can be used to generalise situations. Due to a relatively small population of teachers of English to international students in Tasmania, no attempt was made to select a randomised sample of survey or interview respondents. The survey link was simply sent out to

all institutions who were willing to share it with their English teachers. Teachers were then asked to volunteer at the end of the survey to participate in an interview if they wished to. Hence, there was no statistically valid selection process. However, Braun and Clarke (2013) note that qualitative research has a 'ecological validity' resulting from its connection to the relationship between the 'real world' and the research in question.

The finding that language teachers underestimated their decision-making and agency in the classroom could be an interesting area for future research. Teacher cognition and agency have been considered in some studies relating to language teachers (Benesch, 2018; Borg, 2019; Shi, 2021), but there is room for more research to be carried out. In particular, it would be relevant to explore whether teachers are self-reflecting in their early careers but may become less explicitly reflective as their practice becomes an intuitive part of their teaching. Further statistical analysis could also be carried out to determine if and how teachers' demographics and educational backgrounds play a part in their ability and desire to reflect on their practice. In addition, I suggest that some observations in ELICOS classrooms would be useful ways to gain more insights into teachers' practice.

As a teacher, I believe that it can be easy to start taking for granted the work that teachers do every day to prepare to teach and improve their practice. This article has prompted conversations and further self-reflection among teaching professionals. It is important for all teachers, not just language teachers, to explicitly recognise their practice and not let it become lost in day-to-day work.

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AUTHOR

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

1. Which statement describes the type of teaching that you do?

   - Teaching English to children

   - Teaching English to adults

   - Teaching English to both adults and children

2. What is your first language?

    *   English

    *   Other – text box to define

3. Which variety or varieties of English do you personally use in your everyday life?

    *   Standard Australian English

    *   Aboriginal Australian English

    *   Standard American English

    *   British English

    *   Other – text box to define

4. Have you studied, worked or lived in countries other than Australia? Y/N
5. If so, please indicate which countries

    *   New Zealand

    *   United Kingdom and Ireland

    *   United States of America

    *   South Africa

    *   Western Europe (except UK and Ireland)

    *   Eastern Europe

    *   South Korea

    *   Japan

- China

- Other – text box to define

Please indicate your agreement, disagreement or neutral view on the following statements.

The abbreviations in the questionnaire are:

- SA = strongly agree (5)

- A = agree (4)

- N = neither agree or disagree; neutral (3)

- D = disagree (2)

- SA = strongly disagree (1)

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
I use several varieties of English in my teaching	5	4	3	2	1
Most published resources for teaching English are predominantly in either British or American English	5	4	3	2	1
I can easily access published resources in Standard Australian English to use in my classroom	5	4	3	2	1
I have made an active decision on how much of each variety of English I include in my classroom activities	5	4	3	2	1
I prepare my own teaching resources to bring Australian English into my classroom	5	4	3	2	1
I modify my own use of English in the classroom to bring in sounds, grammar and vocabulary from other varieties of English that I would not use in my everyday life	5	4	3	2	1

Given that Standard Australian English is only spoken by a small number of native speakers, students who do not intend to settle in Australia are better to focus on a more widely used variety of English	5	4	3	2	1
My students expect to hear Australian English in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1
My students expect to be exposed to other varieties of standard English in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1
My students generally have a clear preference on which variety of English they wish to focus on	5	4	3	2	1
Most of my students recognise that there is a standard variety of Australian English	5	4	3	2	1
Australian English has a lower prestige than American or British English	5	4	3	2	1
American English is the most significant variety of English for students to learn due to the global power of the United States of America	5	4	3	2	1
Students should only focus on one variety of English or they may become confused	5	4	3	2	1

Open Ended Responses

Please provide a response to the following questions

Which varieties of English do you use in your teaching? Why do you select those varieties?	
How do you bring Standard Australian	

English into your classroom? If you don't, why not?	
How do you think your students view the varieties of English around the globe? Do their preferences stem from perceptions in their own countries?	
Do you teach Australian slang explicitly to students? Why/why not?	
Do your own language and cultural background impact on the varieties of English that you bring into your classrooms? If so, how? If not, why not?	

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix 2: Teacher interview guiding questions

Teacher interviews

Thank you for generously agreeing to take part in this interview.

Our interview today will explore your views and perceptions of the use of Australian English in your classrooms. If, at any time you would like to cease the interview, please let me know and we stop immediately. As previously discussed, this interview is being recorded and will be transcribed. I will provide you with a copy of the transcript of your interview, and you could remove aspect of the transcript, or to request a withdrawal of your interview transcript from the total data set.

1. Please describe your teaching context.
2. What varieties of English are you most familiar with? Which do you use in your everyday life on a regular basis?
3. How would you characterise the different varieties of English in terms of relative prestige? What factors give individual varieties more or less prestige than the others? Does this impact on the English varieties you use in your teaching?
4. How do you select the resources you use to teach? Are they mostly published or self-prepared?
5. What do you do if a student uses a different spelling or pronunciation of English words that are not considered correct in Australian English but are correct in a different variety?
6. Do you have any further comments or observations on Australian English?

Appendix 3: Responses to the question - How do you bring Standard Australian English into your classroom? If you don't, why not?

Through audiovisual content that is locally produced and relevant, speaking and listening with a wide range of people in the school and community, books, and a wide range of text within the environment such as signs and community messages. I often create resources to extend on these kinds of resources and engage students in exploring more deeply. Recently I used an Australian childrens book about a

family trip around Australia, making it more engaging and accessible by creating a video story with sounds to support the story. I then created a set of Australian places playing cards for students to play games that help them to practice place names and also improve knowledge of Australian states, capitals and towns. Very time consuming by though.

I write my own curriculum (I am contracted by a school to do this). There is some absolute rubbish out there for Aus specific curriculum. I find it easier to just write my own.

I use what I'm familiar with and try to note differences as required

I place a significant emphasis on pronunciation and the general flow of the Australian language. I make sure commonly used slang play a major role.

In every day conversation, reading materials, library visits, vocabulary activities, and online resources.

I use my own material

The <centre> delivers EAP courses so main focus is on preparing students for academic life through exposure to academic and general English, not Australian English

I try to use and highlight as many commonly used Austrlaian idiom as posible. for example

Constantly, by contrasting material used for teaching with how it would be phrased/pronounced, etc. in Australian English. Australian English listening material.

Make my own resources like recordings

Teaching idioms, colloquialisms, slang, teaching the accent used here and how it differs to other English

I have been involved in making materials for our course and we chose to use authentic Australian sources - newspapers, videos etc. This gives teachers the opportunity to draw student's attention to Australian phrases/ pronunciation etc. Often Australian sources will include people speaking with an accent and I think

this is a good opportunity to point out to students that as a multicultural country many Australians do speak with an accent.

Small talk dialogues in the workplace Australian slang vocab activities

Through TV, audio recordings....I don't ever make a big deal out of who they are listening to.

Impromptu and mainly as a response to a topic, receptive skill text or direct enquiries from students.

I often focus on local idiom and pronunciation.

Preparing my own lesson content   Adjusting non SAE texts   Teaching SAE equivalents when necessary   Using Australian produced texts and other media

I bring it in with newspapers, clips from TV news and shows

The efficacy of the Praat Program for self-improvement in English pronunciation of Chinese EFL university students

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigates the efficacy of the *Praat* Program (hereafter *Praat*) in improving Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) in university students' English pronunciation. Pronunciation is one of the essential components of speaking skills as it helps enunciate the intended meaning. However, it is also one of the most challenging aspects due to a lack of practice or opportunity to use English regularly or receive corrective feedback or objective evaluation from an independent source. 18 Chinese EFL university students participated in the study, and training sessions were held on *Praat*. The study lasted six weeks. The participants took two English pronunciation pretests from PTE "Read Aloud" tests before participating in the training sessions. They received ongoing technical support during their *Praat* use. At the end of Week 6 of their participation, they were given two English pronunciation posttests. Statistical comparisons between the pretest and posttest results suggested significant pronunciation improvement ($p < 0.05$) with a moderate effect size. Six participants were then recruited for individual interviews based on their pronunciation performance to investigate their perceptions of *Praat* and factors that explained their processes and efficacy in using *Praat*. Qualitative results suggest that the students perceived *Praat* as helpful in improving their pronunciation (e.g., providing listening input, opportunities for output, and feedback on their pitch contour, which was not ordinarily available to them in the English learning context). Factors such as Praat's stress-free environment were identified as influential in helping them use *Praat* effectively.

INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is a sub-skill of speaking, which is critical to communicative success in an English as the lingua franca world (Björkman, 2013). For this reason, pronunciation is considered elementary for learning a foreign language and improving speaking skills (Mahdi & Al Khateeb, 2019). However, despite the increased importance of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), many studies have reported that pronunciation is often overlooked in the curricula of English in English as a foreign language (EFL) country (e.g., Alghazo, 2015; Baker & Murphy, 2011; Sakale, 2012), in which English is not a medium of everyday communication (Neri et al., 2006).

Over the past few decades, computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) applications have captured great attention in linguistics and language education. They have been used to improve English learners' pronunciation (Mahdi & Al Khateeb, 2019), which is considered as one of the most challenging skills in English learning and teaching (Haghighi & Rahimy, 2017; Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2017; Sadeghi & Mashhadi Heidar, 2016). Most CAPT applications are designed to allow users to view their pronunciation and compare it with model pronunciation (Li et al., 2016). To achieve this aim, CAPT applications are usually equipped with Automated Speech Recognition (ASR), which visualises users' speech signals and presents users' prosodic features, such as their pitch (Tsai., 2015). Such functions can be used to diagnose and assess their users' English pronunciation, provide feedback, and assist the users in improving their English pronunciation (Agarwal & Chakraborty, 2019). For example, *Praat*, developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink of the University of Amsterdam, is an application which allows its users to record their pronunciation and view it in the form of pitch contours. These features of *Praat* have been argued to enable its users to compare their English pronunciation to native speakers' vocally and visually (Osatananda & Thinchan, 2021).

The present study investigates Praat's effectiveness and usefulness in helping Chinese university (EFL) students improve their English pronunciation. Little is known about how it can be integrated into a classroom context to assist Chinese EFL students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, CAPT has captured the attention and interest of many researchers due to the widespread availability of CAPT programs on the market and the widespread use of CAPT programs by universities and language institutes (Pourhosein et al., 2019). For example, Neri et al. (2008) conducted a study to explore the effectiveness of the *Parling* Program on 28 Italian EFL children's English segmental pronunciation. The experimental group used *Parling* to train the pronunciation of the target words by listening to and reading an English story. In contrast, the control group was taught using a traditional "reading after the English teacher" way. The results revealed that the experimental and control groups made comparable and significant progress in their English segmental pronunciation. Both groups significantly improved difficult English words in their study, possibly unknown to the participants before the study. However, Luo's (2016) study revealed that CAPT applications contributed to 55 Taiwanese English-major first-year students' more significant progress in their English segmental pronunciation than in-class instructions. Furthermore, a few empirical studies have investigated the effects of CAPT applications on EFL learners' suprasegmental pronunciation features (e.g., Felps et al., 2009; Hardison, 2004; Tanner & Landon, 2009; Tsai, 2015). For example, 75 EFL learners who participated in Tanner and Landon's (2009) 13-week study were divided into one experimental group using a CAPT application called Cued Pronunciation Readings (CPRs) and one control group. The pretest and posttest results revealed that CPRs significantly influenced the experimental group's suprasegmental pronunciation features, including pausing, word stress and intonation.

Input provided by CAPT

Listening is an essential category of input that lays the foundations of speaking for EFL learners since listening allows learners to improve their pronunciation, vocabulary, and phrases (Listiyaningsih, 2017). Although it is not realistic for EFL teachers to provide adequate FL listening materials in traditional classrooms, EFL learners are given adequate opportunities to receive authentic input on CAPT applications (Mahdi & Al Khateen, 2019; Rogerson-Revell, 2021; Thomson, 2011). Rogerson-Revell (2021) added that various audio input sources could be available on CAPT applications, such as educational websites and social media. These categories of audio input enable FL learners to hear and see how FL pronunciation is expressed.

Output provided by CAPT

EFL learners should have sufficient opportunities to practise their target language and to produce comprehensible output. Sidgi and Shaari (2017) stated that EFL output on CAPT applications promotes EFL learners' speech production due to a stress-free environment, where EFL learners are more willing to use the pronunciation learning materials and to produce their speech. Those audio-learning materials provide EFL learners with diverse kinds of pronunciation practice, such as repeating EFL phonemes, answering questions structurally and interacting authentically in contexts (Rogerson-Revell, 2021). These pronunciation practices benefit EFL learners' confidence in their oral language (Sidgi & Shaari, 2017).

Feedback provided by CAPT

One crucial reason CAPT applications are helpful to EFL learning is the feedback they provide for EFL learners (Mahdi & Al Khateeb, 2019). CAPT applications can provide users with two main kinds of useful feedback. The first category is corrective feedback. Feedback is imperative for EFL pronunciation improvement (Sato & Lyster, 2012), which Li (2010) referred to as the response to a learner's non-target-like L2 production. This type of response has been justified by Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis, which claims that corrective feedback can boost FL learners' linguistic awareness. Neri et al. (2008) found that corrective feedback can improve FL learners' segmental pronunciation features. The use of ASR holds the key to segmental feedback (Neri et al., 2002). Although ASR may not teach FL learners how to produce a single phoneme or a word, it can inform FL learners when their pronunciation is non-target-like. This advantage contributed to the popularity of using ASR in CAPT applications (Hansen, 2006). Visual feedback is another important kind of feedback on CAPT applications (Mahdi & Al Khateeb, 2019). According to Thomson (2011), visual feedback allows EFL learners to compare their EFL pronunciation properties with native speakers' pronunciation features. This is based on Tsai's study (2015), which stated that visual feedback enables FL learners to contrast their pitch contours with a model teacher's pitch contours, meaning that FL learners can better understand the differences between their pronunciation and model pronunciation. Such an advantage of visual feedback seems to be the most effective way of improving suprasegmental pronunciation features (Neri et al., 2002). Presenting suprasegmental pronunciation features in pitch contours and visual feedback of

CAPT applications makes suprasegmental pronunciation features more understandable to FL learners (Thomson, 2011).

Research Questions

The above studies and theories show that CAPT applications benefit EFL learners' English segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation. However, personality, as one of the most recognised individual differences (Irani et al., 2003), has been considered an essential factor influencing people's ways of learning (Lawrence, 1997). Irani et al. (2003) added that different personalities can lead to different views about the same teaching method. Few studies have investigated people's perceptions of CAPT applications that differ in their personalities. Thus, in addition to the effectiveness of *Praat*, this study investigates the research participants' perceptions towards their pronunciation learning through *Praat*. Two research questions were addressed in this study:

1.   To what extent does *Praat* improve Chinese EFL university students' pronunciation quality?

2.   How do students perceive the usefulness and limitations of *Praat*?

RESEARCH METHOD

Research participants

The participants were 18 Chinese-speaking EFL university students (eight males and ten females) aged between 18 and 24 (mean = 21.4, SD = 1.539). All of them had read and signed two documents related to ethical considerations: *Participant Information Statement and Participant Consent Form.* They had all been learning English for approximately 15 years since primary school. In addition, it was ensured that the research participants had received minimal professional training experience in English pronunciation before.

Prior to the commencement of this study, the participants were invited to take an English language proficiency test (https://www.transparent.com/learn-english/proficiency-test.html). The results indicated that all 18 final participants' English proficiency levels were intermediate. During the study, all participants were requested not to participate in other English pronunciation training.

The current study also investigated the perceptions of Chinese EFL university students of the usefulness of *Praat*. Six research participants were invited to individual semi-structured interviews based on their performance in the posttests (high, average, and low). The definition of each performance level is based on a concordance report between PTE Academic and IELTS Academic published by Clesham and Hughes (2020) (see Appendix A). Gender balance was also considered, so three males and three females participated in the individual semi-structured interviews. The details of these participants are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. List of interview participants

Student Name (Pseudonym)	Age	Gender	Pronunciation test performance	Average overall scores of two posttests
Jenny (P1)	21	F	High	83.750
Harvey (P4)	19	M	High	78.050
Jeffrey (P6)	21	M	Average	54.100
Faye (P9)	20	F	Average	56.200
Leo (P11)	19	M	Low	29.450
Maggie (P15)	20	F	Low	33.900

Research instruments

The instruments used in this study included a technological pronunciation learning application (*Praat*), pronunciation learning materials (an English native speaker's pre-recordings), four English pronunciation tests (two pretests and two posttests), and six individual semi-structured interviews.

Praat

Praat is a linguistic software package created by Paul Boersma and David Weenink from the University of Amsterdam (Styler, 2013). It allows its users to record their voices and see their pitch contours (Boersma & van Heuven, 2014). The pitch

contour diagrams visualise users' intonation and word stress (Boersma & van Heuven, 2014). For example, rising pitch contours represent rising intonation, while falling pitch contours represent falling intonation.

Figures 1 and 2 below present Martin's (Participant 2, average achiever) and an English native speaker's pitch contour feedback diagrams of the same sentence (The goal of anthropology is to provide a holistic account of humans and human nature.) in Training Session 1. It can be observed that there were more changes in the native speaker's intonation when he read the sentence, while Martin's (Participant 2) intonation was more monotonous. It was expected that the research participants would improve their English intonation by comparing *Praat's* pitch contour diagrams after the training sessions.
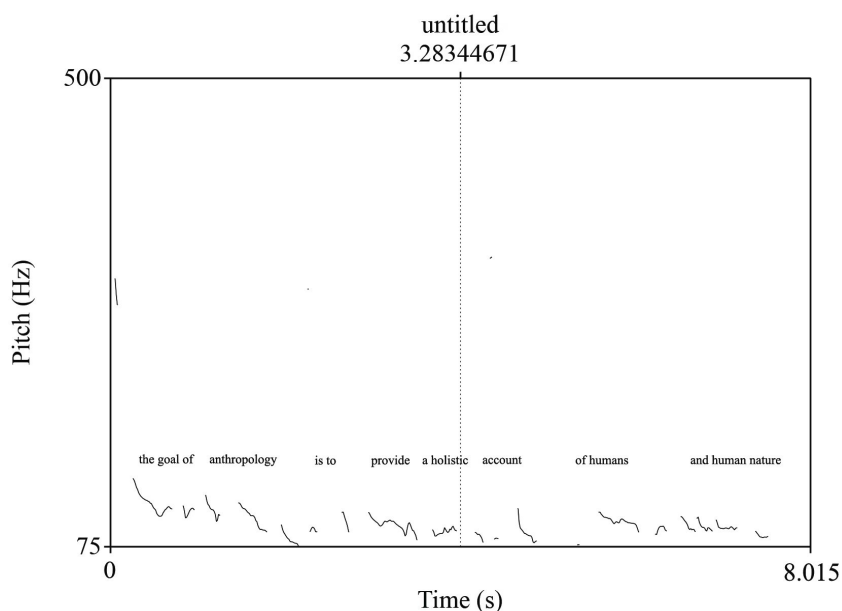

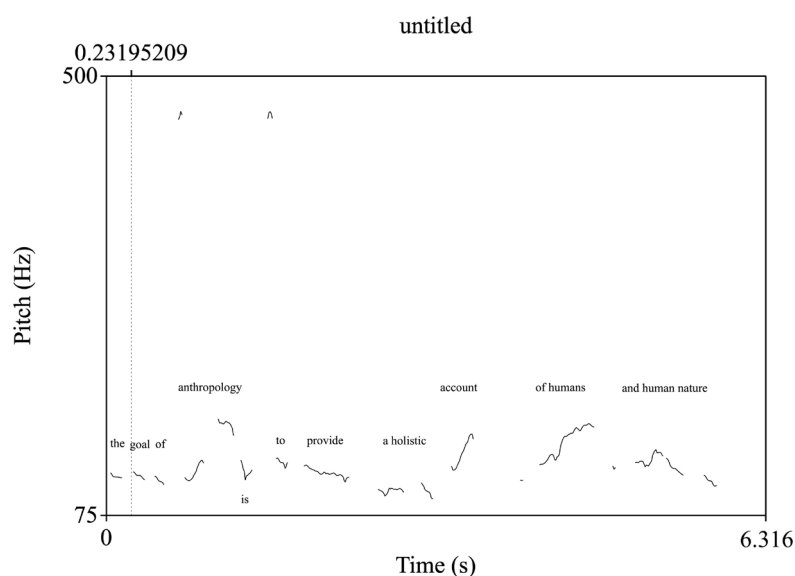**Figure 1.** Martin's pitch contours provided by Praat

Figure 2. The native speaker's pitch contours provided by *Praat*

The Pronunciation tests

In this study, the participants received four English pronunciation tests, including two pretests (one week apart) and two posttests (one week apart). Appendix B presents Pretest 1 as an example. In each pronunciation test, the participants were asked to read ten short English texts from the "Read Aloud" tests of the Pearson Test of English Academic (PTE Academic). In PTE "Read Aloud" tests, test candidates are given 30-40 seconds to look at an English text and another 40 seconds to read the short text (Pearson, n.d.). The test candidates can start reading the text once the preparation time is over. In this study, every question was recorded only once.

PTE Academic was chosen for this study for two reasons. Firstly, PTE features accurate automated marking without human interference (Pearson, 2022). Secondly, the "read aloud" test merely assesses the participants' pronunciation in terms of their "content", "pronunciation", and "oral fluency". By contrast, IELTS speaking tests require test candidates to generate ideas (Fernandez, 2018); TOFEL speaking tests measure test candidates' ability to communicate in English, so reading and listening are also included in speaking tests (Bridgeman et al., 2012). Appendix C presents a detailed description of each criterion.

Training materials

On *Praat*, the maximum length of audio is set at 10 seconds. Thus, in each of the two English training sessions, the researcher prepared 20 shorter sentences. The texts were extracted from the "read aloud" tests of the Duolingo English Test (DET). It is a computer-adaptive test of English proficiency accepted by many universities for admission purposes (Wagner & Kunnan, 2015). Appendix D presents the texts used in Training Session 1 as examples. Subsequently, the participants recorded their pronunciation repeatedly and tried to imitate the native speaker's pronunciation by looking at his pitch contours and listening to his recordings repeatedly.

Semi-structured interviews

In this study, semi-structured interviews were used to collect the qualitative data. During the interviews, the 21 interview questions (see Appendix E) developed based on RQ2 guided the interviewees to share their perceptions of *Praat's* advantages and disadvantages. All the interviews were conducted in Chinese.

Research procedure

This study employed a sequential Quan → Qual MMR design (Ivankova & Greer, 2015). It began with two English pronunciation pretests (one week apart). Then, the participants took part in two one-hour *Praat* training sessions, where each participant was assigned to a personal breakout room so that they would have private space for practice without being disturbed by each other.

During the training sessions, the participants were informed of the basic concepts of English segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation features, such as stress and rising and falling intonation. They were given 20 English sentences to read and a native speaker's pre-recordings to imitate. The researcher visited each participant's breakout room, listening to them read the short English texts. The researcher provided the participants with slight hints when they asked for help. However, the instruction time was limited to five minutes because it was expected that the results of their posttests would not be influenced by the instruction time.

After the training sessions, the participants received two English pronunciation posttests. Finally, six participants were invited to participate in an individual semi-structured interview. Figure 3 below presents the entire research procedure.
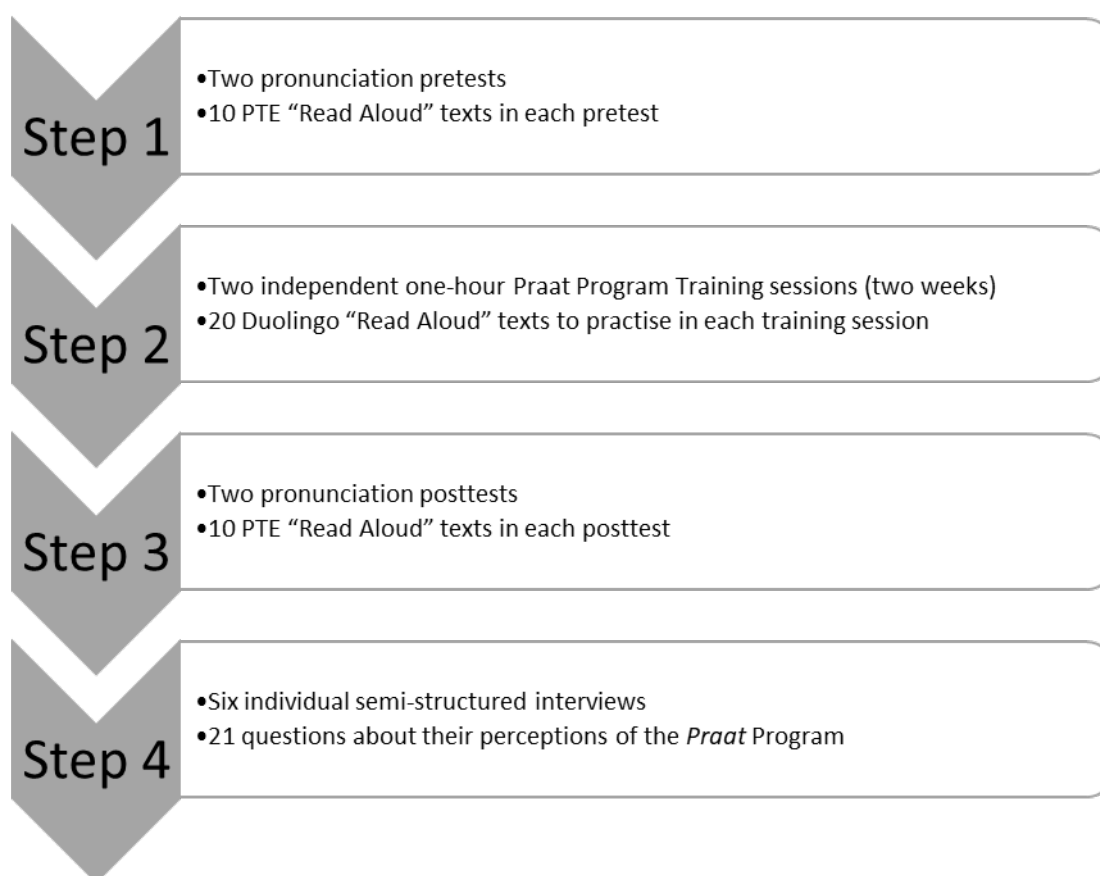
Step 1
- Two pronunciation pretests
- 10 PTE "Read Aloud" texts in each pretest

Step 2
- Two independent one-hour Praat Program Training sessions (two weeks)
- 20 Duolingo "Read Aloud" texts to practise in each training session

Step 3
- Two pronunciation posttests
- 10 PTE "Read Aloud" texts in each posttest

Step 4
- Six individual semi-structured interviews
- 21 questions about their perceptions of the *Praat* Program

Figure 3. The procedure of this study

Data analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were used to address the research questions. The participants' quantitative data were all entered into and analysed on IBM SPSS Statistics 26. Descriptive statistics were calculated, including mean scores, standard deviations and medians. Cronbach's alpha (1951) reliability analysis was conducted on IBM SPSS Statistics 26. The results revealed that each of the four pronunciation tests had a reliability of 0.90 or above. Paired-samples t-tests and effect size were computed to determine whether the participants improved their English pronunciation significantly ($p < 0.05$) after two *Praat* training sessions.

Finally, the six individual semi-structured interviews were analysed based on Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-stage thematic analysis, which can be used to identify, analyse, and report the themes of the interviews (Abedin et al., 2021).

RESULTS

This section presents the results of data analysis to answer the two research questions.

Answers relevant to research question 1: To what extent does *Praat* improve Chinese EFL university students' pronunciation quality?

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the participants' pronunciation performance in each pretest and posttest.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of all four pronunciation tests (N = 18)

Criteria	Tests	Mean	Median	SD
Content	Pretest 1	57.711	54.700	16.123
	Pretest 2	57.878	52.900	15.791
	Posttest 1	65.211	66.850	14.696
	Posttest 2	65.022	67.350	14.424
Pronunciation	Pretest 1	44.756	41.700	14.894
	Pretest 2	45.017	41.250	14.652
	Posttest 1	51.272	51.650	14.121
	Posttest 2	51.344	53.600	14.551
Oral fluency	Pretest 1	54.911	52.050	16.057
	Pretest 2	54.483	53.250	15.190
	Posttest 1	59.739	59.800	15.130
	Posttest 2	61.006	60.300	15.310
Overall	Pretest 1	51.183	47.700	15.495
	Pretest 2	51.250	46.700	14.830
	Posttest 1	57.344	57.650	14.309
	Posttest 2	57.711	58.900	14.475

Note. SD = standard deviation.

Table 2 suggests rising trends in the research participants' mean scores of their pronunciation performance across the four categories of scores. As shown in Table

2, their "content" mean scores improved slightly more than the other three kinds of scores. In addition, "pronunciation" seemed to be the most challenging criterion for Chinese EFL university students. The details of each criterion are presented in Appendix C.

To answer RQ1, Noah's (Participant 5, average achiever) detailed scores in each pronunciation test (Table 3) and his pitch contours (Figures 4 and 5) in one pretest and one posttest are used to illustrate the improvement. Noah was selected because his scores in each pronunciation test were similar to the average scores of 18 research participants. His improvements in English pronunciation might represent the research participants' improvements in their English pronunciation after *Praat* training sessions.

Table 3. Noah's (Participant 5) pronunciation test scores

	Pretest 1	Pretest 2	Posttest 1	Posttest 2
Content	52.100	50.500	67.100	66.100
Pronunciation	41.000	42.800	54.700	53.500
Oral fluency	50.300	48.300	57.900	59.200
Overall score	46.700	46.400	58.100	58.100

Figures 4 and 5 below illustrate two short extracts of Question 2 (spend on average eighteen hundred hours per year in our jobs and will work forty years before retirement) in Pretest 1 and Question 8 (along with customary classes on subjects, such as finance and marketing, today's MBA students) in Posttest 2. It can be observed that Noah had more changes in his English intonation in the posttests, such as the combination of rising tones and falling tones, after two *Praat* training sessions. By contrast, his intonation was monotonous in pretests, with falling tones throughout the text. Based on the official PTE "Read Aloud" criteria, such intonation diversity might have led to his progress in his "pronunciation" scores in PTE "Read Aloud" tests.
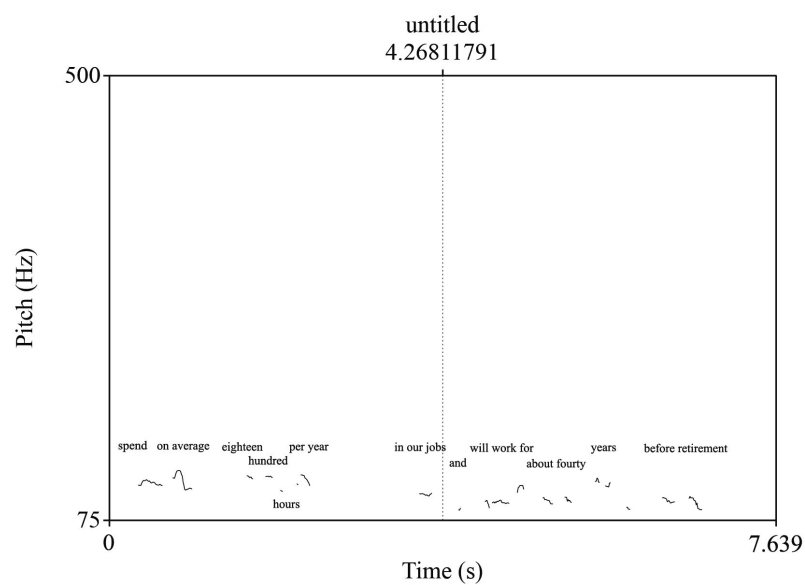
Figure 4. Noah's pitch contours in Pretest 1

Note. The recording was extracted from Question 2 in Pretest 1 due to the ten-second limit.
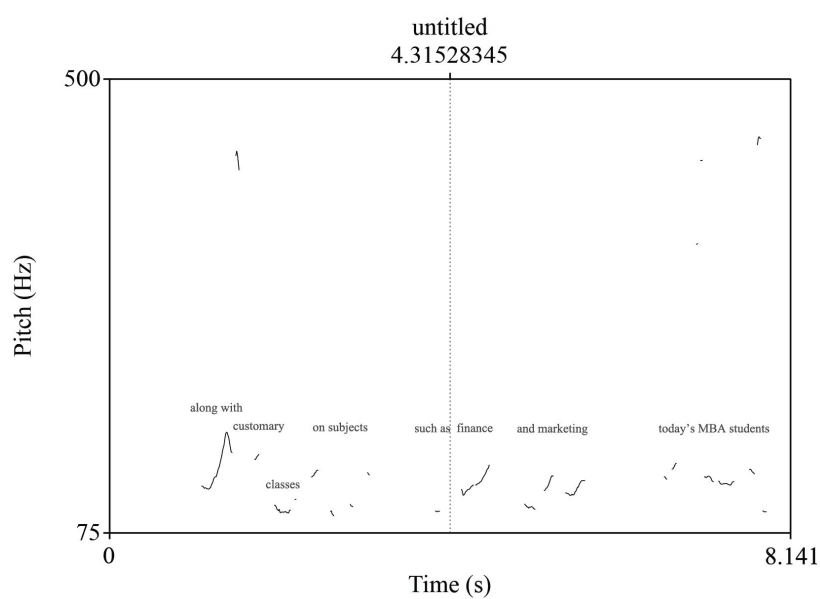

Figure 5. Noah's pitch contours in Posttest 2

Note. The recording was extracted from Question 8 in Posttest 2 due to the ten-second limit.

Table 4 presents the results of the paired-samples *t*-tests and Cohen's *d*-value. It shows no statistical differences in the research participants' pronunciation performance between two pretests or posttests ($p > 0.05$). This indicates the participants' pronunciation performance stability in the pretests and posttests. In addition, after two *Praat* training sessions, the eighteen research participants made statistically significant progress ($p < 0.05$) in their overall English pronunciation in the posttests across all four categories of scores. Finally, Cohen's *d*-value results reveal that the two *Praat* training sessions had either medium ($0.5 < d < 0.8$) or large effects ($d > 0.8$) on the research participants' four categories of English pronunciation scores. Therefore, based on the results of descriptive statistics, paired-samples *t*-tests, and Cohen's *d*-value presented above, the answer to RQ1 may be that the *Praat* may significantly improve Chinese EFL university students' English pronunciation performance in medium or large effect size.

Table 4. Paired-samples t-test and effect size results (N = 18)

Criteria	Tests	Md	*t*-statistic	Sig (2-tailed)	Cohen's *d*
Content	Pre1-Pre2	-0.167	-0.169	0.868	-0.040
	Post1-Post2	0.189	0.276	0.786	0.065
	Pre1-Post1	-7.500	-3.880	0.001	-0.915
	Pre1-Post2	-7.311	-4.305	0.000	-1.015
	Pre2-Post1	-7.333	-3.418	0.003	-0.806
	Pre2-Post2	-7.144	-3.374	0.004	-0.795
Pronunciation	Pre1-Pre2	-0.261	-0.305	0.764	-0.072
	Post1-Post2	-0.072	-0.113	0.911	-0.027
	Pre1-Post1	-6.517	-3.794	0.001	-0.894
	Pre1-Post2	-6.589	-4.173	0.001	-0.984
	Pre2-Post1	-6.256	-3.254	0.005	-0.767
	Pre2-Post2	-6.327	-3.299	0.004	-0.778

Table 4. Paired-samples t-test and effect size results (N = 18)

Criteria	Tests	Md	*t*-statistic	Sig (2-tailed)	Cohen's *d*
Oral fluency	Pre1-Pre2	0.428	0.428	0.674	0.101
	Post1-Post2	-1.267	-1.872	0.078	-0.441
	Pre1-Post1	-4.828	-2.801	0.012	-0.660
	Pre1-Post2	-6.094	-3.682	0.002	-0.868
	Pre2-Post1	-5.256	-2.684	0.016	-0.633
	Pre2-Post2	-6.523	-3.360	0.004	-0.792
Overall	Pre1-Pre2	-0.067	-0.077	0.939	-0.018
	Post1-Post2	-0.367	-0.590	0.563	-0.130
	Pre1-Post1	-6.161	-3.643	0.002	-0.859
	Pre1-Post2	-6.528	-4.170	0.001	-0.983
	Pre2-Post1	-6.094	-3.196	0.005	-0.753
	Pre2-Post2	-6.461	-3.397	0.003	-0.801

Note. Md = mean difference.

Answers relevant to research question 2: How do students perceive the usefulness and limitations of *Praat*?

This section presents the themes related to the six selected interviewees' perceptions of *Praat's* usefulness and limitations. Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-stage thematic analysis, presented in Figure 6 below, determined these themes.
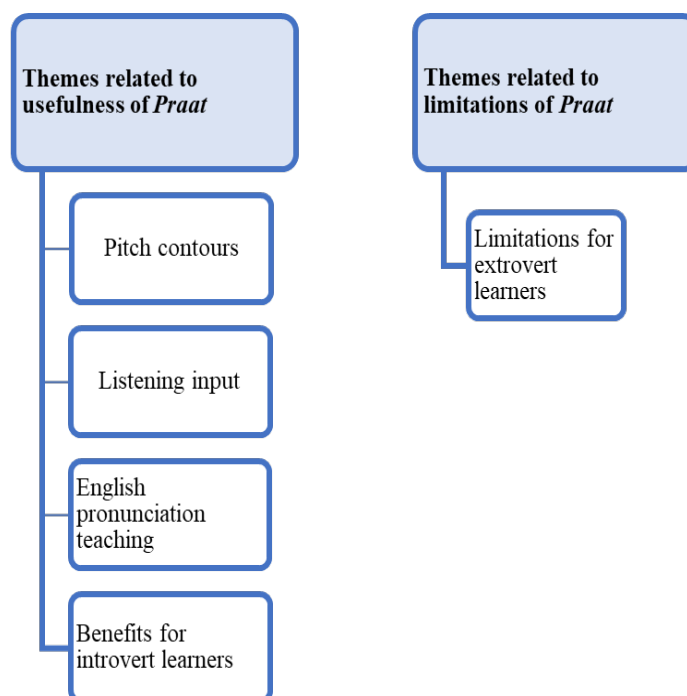
Figure 6 Themes on students' perceived usefulness and limitations of *Praat*

When discussing the usefulness of *Praat*, pitch contours were mentioned by the six interviewees most, regardless of their pronunciation performance. The interviewees emphasised that *Praat*'s pitch contours made it convenient for them to compare their intonation with the native speaker's so that they could realise the gaps and imitate the native speaker. Leo (Participant 11, low achiever) stated, "I always used falling tones in all the words in English sentences, but I have been able to produce rising tones when reading English sentences after two *Praat* training sessions."

Similarly, all six interviewees considered the availability of unlimited listening input on Praat helpful to both English segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation. The two achievers (Jeffrey, Participant 6 and Faye, Participant 9) agreed that repeatedly listening to the native speakers' pre-recordings benefited their segmental and suprasegmental English pronunciation. Similarly, Harvey (Participant 4, high achiever) stated, "I think *Praat* presented the native speaker's recordings pronunciation in a visible way, which was beneficial to my English word pronunciation and intonation."

In addition to the functions equipped with *Praat*, five interviewees agreed that *Praat* can be an essential English pronunciation teaching tool in China. For example, Maggie (Participant 15, low achiever) stated that *Praat* provides child students with "access to idiomatic English pronunciation at a young age, which may positively influence their accent". Similarly, Faye (Participant 9, average achiever) stated that *Praat* could improve Chinese English-major students' passion for English pronunciation learning. Furthermore, Jenny (Participant 1, high achiever) stated that the *Praat* could be widely used as an English pronunciation teaching tool in China, where even English teachers may not be experts at English pronunciation due to first language interference.

Personality is widely regarded as an indicator of learners' differences, which leads learners to have different perceptions of the same educational method (Irani et al., 2003). An interesting finding of the interviews is that four of the six interviewees mentioned introverts might benefit more from *Praat*. Leo (Participant 11, low achiever) and Jeffrey (Participant 6, average achiever) both mentioned that introverts may feel shy and nervous when talking to others face to face. However, they may feel less shy when practising their English pronunciation towards computer screens. In addition, Maggie (Participant 15, low achiever) and Jenny (Participant 1, high achiever) stated that *Praat* provides introverted users with a "stress-free environment where introverted learners can practise pronunciation repeatedly without being heard by others".

On the other hand, two low achievers (Leo, Participant 11 & Maggie, Participant 15) stated that extroverts are likely to feel bored when they speak to computer screens since extrovert learners may prefer to talk with other people, because they may feel more comfortable if they can see other people's faces and reactions.

DISCUSSION

This section discusses the main findings related to *Praat's* effectiveness in improving Chinese EFL university students' English pronunciation and their perceptions of its usefulness and limitations.

The Effectiveness of *Praat*

The pronunciation test results indicated that *Praat* could help Chinese EFL university students improve their pronunciation of English segments and suprasegments significantly ($p < 0.05$). Such findings are in accord with previous

studies investigating the effectiveness of CAPT applications in improving EFL learner's segmental pronunciation (e.g., Liu & Hung, 2016; Luo, 2016; Neri et al., 2008; Tejedor-García et al., 2020) and suprasegmental pronunciation (e.g., Felps et al., 2009; Hardison, 2004; Tanner & Landon, 2009; Tsai, 2015).

Based on the studies and theories discussed above, Chinese EFL university students' pronunciation improvement might be attributed to *Praat's* listening input, output opportunities, and pitch contour feedback. According to Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis, input is indispensable to FL learning success. Celce-Murcia et al. (1996) stated that by listening to model pronunciation, EFL learners can improve their English pronunciation by imitating the model pronunciation. In this study, the participants were provided with a native speaker's model pronunciation to imitate in the training sessions, which might have improved their pronunciation.

According to Swain's (1985) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, FL learners' comprehensible output could be produced by sufficient FL practice. In this study, the participants had unlimited opportunities to practise their English pronunciation on *Praat*. This might have been an essential reason for the significant improvement in their English pronunciation since sufficient opportunities for output may contribute to FL pronunciation accuracy and fluency (de Bot, 1996; Kendrick, 1997). Furthermore, *Praat* can be used to teach suprasegmental pronunciation with the help of its pitch contour feedback (Le & Brook, 2011). Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis suggested that FL learners may have more vital linguistic awareness when they receive visual feedback for their pronunciation. In this study, the participants' improved pronunciation might have resulted from their increased linguistic awareness caused by *Praat's* pitch contours.

Chinese EFL university students' perceptions of *Praat*

The participants perceived *Praat*'s pitch contours, unlimited audio input, and valuable output opportunities. Their positive reflections on *Praat* in the interviews might indicate Chinese EFL students' positive emotions when they use *Praat* to improve their English pronunciation. According to Pekrun (2014), negative emotions have damaging impacts on learners' motivation, thereby undermining their learning success (Pekrun, 2014), whereas positive emotions can contribute to more robust learning motivation (Villavicencio & Bernardo, 2013). Gardner and Lambert (1972) stated that FL learners' motivation is closely related to their FL

learning outcomes. Thus, this study may indicate Praat's usefulness in boosting Chinese EFL university students' English learning motivation.

Another finding related to RQ2 is that the participants consider Praat a critical tool for teaching English pronunciation in China. During the six individual interviews, the interviewees mentioned that *Praat* can be an essential tool in China. This is possible because technological tools are necessary to build cost-effective and efficient learner-centred classrooms, where teachers can provide personalised teaching instructions, and students can have individualised study goals (McCombs & Vakili, 2005). Reigeluth et al. (2015) added that learner-centred classrooms provide students with immersive learning environments which boost their motivation.

On the other hand, extrovert Chinese EFL university learners may not enjoy speaking English on computer screens, perhaps because they prefer to practise their English pronunciation by talking to people. Suliman's (2014) study supports this, claiming that extroverts tend to socialise and cooperate in groups when they learn English. Thus, the interviewees stated that Chinese EFL university learners who are extroverts may find using the computer-based *Praat* tedious, dull, or not interactive.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

Some limitations of this study should be noted. The first limitation is that this study does not have a control group or random assignments, so statistical claims on cause-effect are deemed limited (i.e., *Praat* had a significant, positive effect on the research participants' pronunciation test results). To increase the reliability of the statistical findings, a control group (which does not receive *Praat* instruction and use) and randomisation will be needed in future research. Accordingly, the current findings remain suggestive and inconclusive.

The second limitation is that the research participants received only two *Praat* training sessions. In contrast, Tsai's (2015) study provided ten-week training sessions for the research participants to practise their English pronunciation, which might have yielded more robust research results. Therefore, future research needs to increase the treatment period so that observations of learning or non-learning can be better evaluated.

Thirdly, due to the COVID-19 pandemic at the time of data collection, data were collected via an online platform instead of in class or face-to-face, so it can be challenging to claim the generalisability of the instruction and results in a face-to-face classroom. Future research may investigate whether in-classroom CAPT users can improve more significantly than those outside the classrooms.

CONCLUSION

The current study has examined Praat's effectiveness and usefulness in improving Chinese EFL university students' English pronunciation and has discovered their generally positive perceptions of *Praat*. The current findings encourage the use of *Praat* in English pronunciation learning and teaching. Because computer technology will further advance and any limitations or technical issues with *Praat* will likely be resolved, *Praat* will become more user-friendly, and teachers and students will find it much easier to use. Nonetheless, we must remind ourselves that no technology can completely replace teachers, as students need strategic guidance to make their learning effective and pleasurable. Technology is one but not all things that aid teaching and learning.

AUTHOR

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APPENDIX A. 2020 PTE ACADEMIC AND IELTS ACADEMIC CONCORDANCE REPORT

Clesham and Hughes (2020) collected 562 test takers' pairs of PTE Academic and IELTS Academic overall scores. These test takers, who were from 59 distinct countries, spoke 53 different languages. Figure A below presents the concordance results of PTE Academic and IELTS Academic.

Figure A Concordance results of PTE Academic and IELTS Academic

PTE	IELTS	PTE	IELTS
23	4.5	66	7.0
29	5.0	76	7.5
36	5.5	84	8.0
46	6.0	89	8.5
56	6.5		

APPENDIX B. PRONUNCIATION TEST PRETEST 1

1. For graduates looking to give something back, volunteering, either in the UK or overseas, is a popular option. Voluntary projects can cost anything from nothing up to a few thousand pounds, and with that in mind it is essential to look into the project carefully before signing on the dotted line.

2. Most of us spend on average 18 hundred hours per year in our jobs and will work for about 40 years before retirement. When you consider the amount of time spent in the office, you soon realize how important it is to feel a sense of achievement at the end of the day, rather than just meeting financial objectives.

3. Nature offers no greater splendor than the starry sky on a clear, dark night. Silent and jeweled with the constellations of ancient myth and legend, the night sky has inspired wonder throughout the ages—a wonder that leads our imaginations far from the confines of Earth and the pace of the present day and out into the distant reaches of space and cosmic time itself.

4. Yet this landscape, which appeared so alien and confronting to the white settlers and explorers, had been home for thousands of years to Indigenous

Australians for whom the plains, ranges and deserts were a sustaining, spiritual and integral part of their existence.

5.   Whether you're climbing your way up the corporate ladder or overwhelmed with the organizational tasks of home and kids, a luxurious vacation to an exotic paradise may seem like an impossible dream. You can only fantasize about an outdoor massage among fragrant island flowers or a nap after enjoying a brunch ripe with fruits fresh from the vine.

6.   With a population of only just over 30million living in the world's second largest country, Canada is justly renowned for vast tracts of wilderness untroubled by pollution either from industry or from intensive farming methods. A major conservation issue is the battle to stop the logging of virgin forest in northern Ontario and on the west coast.

7.   Smart phones have become an everyday essential for millions of us–we rely on them for everything from updating our social media profiles to banking. Taking out a smart phone contract that bundles together your calls, data, and texts with the cost of the handset can help spread the cost–but can also mean you'll pay more over the long run.

8.   During the Early Modern period, the universities of Europe would see a tremendous amount of growth, productivity, and innovative research. At the end of the Middle Ages, about 400 years after the first European university was founded, there were twenty-nine universities spread throughout Europe.

9.   The main production of soft drink was stored in 1830's. Since then, from those experimental beginning, there was an evolution until in 1781 when the world's first cola-flavoured beverage was introduced. These drinks were called soft drinks, only to separate them from hard alcoholic drinks. Today, soft drink is more favourite refreshment drink than tea, coffee, juice, etc.

10.   Human beings most certainly contribute to climate change by adding greenhouse gases to the atmosphere, but this is only part of the equation. Earth's climate can change over time not only because of changes in the atmosphere but also because of interactions between the atmosphere and various geologic, chemical, biological, and geographic factors.

Appendix C. Detailed Descriptions of Each Criterion of PTE "Read Aloud" Tests

Pronunciation	Descriptions
5 Native-like	All vowels and consonants are produced in a manner that is easily understood by regular speakers of the language. The speaker uses assimilation and deletions appropriate to continuous speech. Stress is placed correctly in all words and sentence-level stress is fully appropriate.
4 Advanced	Vowels and consonants are pronounced clearly and unambiguously. A few minor consonant, vowel or stress distortions do not affect intelligibility. All words are easily understandable. A few consonants or consonant sequences may be distorted. Stress is placed correctly on all common words, and sentence level stress is reasonable.
3 Good	Most vowels and consonants are pronounced correctly. Some consistent errors might make a few words unclear. A few consonants in certain contexts may be regularly distorted, omitted or mispronounced. Stress-dependent vowel reduction may occur on a few words.
2 Intermediate	Some consonants and vowels are consistently mispronounced in a non- native like manner. At least 2/3 of speech is intelligible, but listeners might need to adjust to the accent. Some consonants are regularly omitted, and consonant sequences may be simplified. Stress may be placed incorrectly on some words or be unclear.
1 Limited	Many consonants and vowels are mispronounced, resulting in a strong intrusive foreign accent. Listeners may have difficulty understanding about 1/3 of the words. Many consonants may be distorted or omitted. Consonant sequences may be non-English. Stress is placed in a non-English manner; unstressed words may be reduced or omitted, and a few syllables added or missed.
0 Non-English	Pronunciation seems completely characteristic of another language. Many consonants and vowels are mispronounced, mis-ordered or omitted. Listeners may find more than 1/2 of the speech unintelligible. Stressed and unstressed syllables are realized in a non-English manner. Several words may have the

Oral Fluency	Descriptions
	wrong number of syllables.
5 Native-like	Speech shows smooth rhythm and phrasing. There are no hesitations, repetitions, false starts or non-native phonological simplifications.
4 Advanced	Speech has an acceptable rhythm with appropriate phrasing and word emphasis. There is no more than one hesitation, one repetition or a false start. There are no significant non-native phonological simplifications.
3 Good	Speech is at an acceptable speed but may be uneven. There may be more than one hesitation, but most words are spoken in continuous phrases. There are few repetitions or false starts. There are no long pauses and speech does not sound staccato.
2 Intermediate	Speech may be uneven or staccato. Speech (if >= 6 words) has at least one smooth three-word run, and no more than two or three hesitations, repetitions or false starts. There may be one long pause, but not two or more.
1 Intrusive	Speech has irregular phrasing or sentence rhythm. Poor phrasing, staccato or syllabic timing, and/or multiple hesitations, repetitions, and/or false starts make spoken performance notably uneven or discontinuous. Long utterances may have one or two long pauses and inappropriate sentence- level word emphasis.
0 Disfluent	Speech is slow and labored with little discernable phrase grouping, multiple hesitations, pauses, false starts, and/or major phonological simplifications. Most words are isolated, and there may be more than one long pause.

APPENDIX D. TRAINING SESSION 1

1.   The goal of anthropology is to provide a holistic account of humans and human nature.

2.   Medium-size motors of highly standardized dimensions and characteristics provide convenient mechanical power for industrial uses.

3.   The spillway entrances are located behind each dam abutment, running roughly.

4.   parallel to the canyon walls.

5.   Much of the backstory to the game is simply alluded to or told through the environment.

6.   The mercenaries spied a military aircraft conducting aerial reconnaissance over the area.

7.   This destruction alters the functioning of the ecosystem and can permanently alter species composition and biodiversity.

8.   The woman was also raped by several pro-Russian rebels from the battalion.

9.   An oligarchy is a government ruled by a small group of powerful people.

10. Tools are not viewed as involving complex systems which alienate the user from the act.

11. Widely differing definitions of drug abuse are used in public health, medical and criminal justice contexts.

12. Centuries of careful selection and breeding have had enormous effects on the characteristics of crop plants.

13. Chaotic systems are unpredictable in practice due to their extreme sensitivity to initial conditions.

14. After the war, Soviet politicians again began to control and criticize artistic life very hard.

15. Some important things they traded were cacao, salt, seashells, jade and obsidian.

16. At the same time, dharma operates in practical ways beyond mere meaning.

17.   He claimed that his decision was because he was concerned for the orchestra's well-being.

18.   Rather, it lent its stimulus to linguistic studies, political thought, and scientific research.

19.   Following the war, Japanese conservatives briefly returned to politics but were largely purged from public office.

20.   The activity of applied mathematics is thus intimately connected with research in pure mathematics.

21.   Sociologists have studied the changing structure of these groups.

APPENDIX E. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. I will ask you questions about your perceptions and opinions about using *Praat* to improve your English pronunciation.

Background information

1.   Can you tell me your name, your age and which grade you are in at university?

2.   How long have you been learning English?

3.   Why are you studying at this educational institution?

4.   Is English pronunciation a difficult part for you? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

5.   Does your English pronunciation affect your scores on your English tests, such as IELTS and TOEFL? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

6.   Has your English pronunciation affected your communication with native English speakers? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

7.   Do you think computer-based programs can help you to improve your English pronunciation? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

Interview questions for RQ2

Now that we have finished the training sessions and posttests, I would like to ask you about your opinions about *Praat*'s effectiveness and limitations.

1.   Do you think the visualised pitch contours on *Praat* are helpful to your English pronunciation? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

2.   Can you elaborate on how *Praat* and its pitch contours improved your English pronunciation?

3.   What are the essential differences between *Praat* and other English pronunciation programs you have used before?

4.   Can you elaborate on the advantages of *Praat* in improving English pronunciation?

5.   What are *Praat*'s disadvantages in improving English pronunciation?

6.   Can *Praat* be an important pronunciation-teaching tool in English classrooms? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

7.   Will you recommend *Praat* to your friends to improve their English pronunciation? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

8.   Does your language proficiency influence the effectiveness and usefulness of *Praat* on your English pronunciation? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

9.   Does your personality influence the effectiveness and usefulness of *Praat* on your English pronunciation? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

10.   Do you think the success of *Praat* is affected by your language proficiency and personality? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

11.   Do you think *Praat* can be suitable for every single Chinese EFL student? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

12.   Will the learning environment be an essential factor influencing the learning outcomes of pronunciation training via *Praat*? Why or why not? Can you elaborate?

English Medium Instruction (EMI): Some Observations

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ABSTRACT

The use of English to teach academic subjects raises many issues. Central is the notion of disciplinary literacy, and the role language plays in teaching and learning in a discipline. This article provides an introductory discussion of English medium instruction (EMI). It is organised around nine questions that readers need to know about EMI: (1) What are the reasons for adopting EMI?; (2) What is the nature of EMI?; (3) What are the language demands of teaching in EMI?; (4) What are teachers' views of their primary role and responsibility in EMI?; (5) What are teachers' views of their primary role and responsibility in EMI?; (6) What is the impact of EMI on the teacher?; (7) What is the EMI teacher professional identity?; (8) What is the EMI learner?; and (9) How can students be helped to develop academic literacy? The impact of EMI on teachers' ability to present content in depth is reviewed, as well as its impact on their sense of professional expertise.

Keywords: Academic literacy, English medium instruction,

INTRODUCTION

English Medium Instruction refers to situations for the use of English to teach academic subjects in contexts where a national or local language would otherwise have been used (Macaro, 2018; Richards & Pun, 2022). One context is in post-colonial countries and territories such as India, the Philippines, Hong Kong, and Singapore, where English has often been used as a medium of instruction from

primary to university education. EMI also has a long tradition in university education in the Nordic Countries, Turkey, and the Gulf States. In recent years, EMI has also been introduced as an option in many other parts of the world, including Spain, Italy, Russia, Japan, and China (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011; Wilkinson, 2017). Over 40 universities in China now offer an international MBA taught in English.

WHAT ARE THE REASONS FOR ADOPTING EMI?

The reasons for the interest in and adoption of EMI include the following:

1.   To provide a common language of instruction in countries with multilingual populations.

2.   To develop the skills needed to use English as an academic lingua franca.

3.   To enable institutions to attract international students.

4.   To increase the prestige of an institution.

5.   To promote the competitiveness of universities.

6.   To promote economic competitiveness through developing a proficient English workforce.

7.   To facilitate regional and international communication.

The adoption of EMI is usually a result of national or institutional language policies that determine which languages will be used in education, how they will be used and when, and how they will be introduced, monitored, and assessed. EMI differs from approaches such as Content-based instruction (CBI), English for specific purposes (ESP), and English for academic purposes (EAP) in that EMI is an approach to the teaching of disciplinary content and is taught by content specialists through the medium of English. In contrast, CBI, ESP, and EAP are approaches to the teaching of English and are normally taught by English specialists. The adoption of EMI reflects the assumption that it will result in the successful learning of both academic subjects as well as English.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF EMI?

Central to the nature and practice of EMI is the notion of disciplinary literacy and the role language plays in teaching and learning in a discipline (Airey, 2011). There are four key dimensions of disciplinary literacy:

1.   Each academic discipline is based on a core set of assumptions, concepts, ideas, and theories, together with the processes and modes of thinking and inquiry that define it as a field of study.

2.   Learning in a discipline involves participating in the communicative practices and accomplishing the academic tasks that provide the basis for the teaching and learning of academic content in that discipline.

3.   Disciplinary literacy in EMI depends on the nature of the discipline-specific genres and text types used in spoken and written academic discourse.

4.   Disciplinary literacy encompasses both the literacy skills (reading and writing) and the specialized uses of language that are used in the genres and text types of a discipline.

Language plays a central role in developing disciplinary literacy. In content-based modes of instruction such as EMI, students learn their academic subjects through learning language and, at the same time, learn language through learning their academic subjects. For example, in science, students are expected to use language to describe, explain, and analyse scientific phenomena. Description involves learning to use language as it is used in science to identify, label, name, and specify things or phenomena science (Bruna et al., 2007). Comprehension is facilitated by the teacher's explanation of abstract science concepts with the support of a range of multimodal representations such as tables, graphs, and diagrams (Pun, 2017). During the process, students develop not only the language used for explaining scientific concepts and principles, but also the means of expressing their thinking processes in English, such as reasoning, questioning, problem-solving, and evaluating. Reporting the results of an experiment involves the specialized use of English to inform, recount, narrate, present, and summarize. Evaluating a piece of research requires the learner to be able to judge, argue, justify, take a stance, critique, recommend, comment, reflect, and appreciate. Disciplinary literacy in English thus involves learning the concepts, processes, academic tasks, and genres that characterize the nature of a discipline and how these are realized through English (Clegg, 2007).

WHAT ARE THE LANGUAGE ASSUMPTIONS AND DEMANDS OF TEACHING IN EMI?

A general assumption in many EMI contexts is that if a lecturer has proficiency in English, however that is defined, there should be little difficulty in transferring their ability in English to use it to teach academic content. However, this assumption misrepresents the specialized uses of English needed to successfully teach an academic subject through a second language (Elder, 2001). Academic uses of language are acquired through content-based learning. Academic language is a vehicle for the transfer of information, has a high information load, may be lexically dense, and often requires the use of complex sentence structure (Halliday & Martin, 1993).

Cummins (1991) described the specialized uses of English needed to accomplish academic tasks as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). CALP refers to the language used to support academic learning, including the academic vocabulary, grammar, and modes of thinking and analysis used to express abstract concepts and thinking processes. Cummins compared this with BICS – basic interpersonal communication skills. This term refers to everyday non-academic uses of language when it is used for social interaction rather than learning. BICS can be understood as the language students use at home or outside of the school or university campus, whereas CALP refers to the language they need to learn to master their academic subjects.

In EMI settings, some students may have developed fluency in BICS before they commence EMI; however, this does not mean they can rely on the language and skills that characterize social uses of language as a basis for academic learning through English. Successful learning through EMI requires the learning of new ways of using English (Brown & Kelly, 2007). A student's apparent fluency in English does not necessarily correlate with his or her ability to use language for learning academic content, for which different language skills are needed. The same is true for EMI teachers.

WHAT ARE TEACHERS' VIEWS OF THEIR PRIMARY ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITY IN EMI?

Teachers may differ too in the extent to which they feel the need to adapt their teaching to facilitate the learning of both English and academic content. If they see EMI as paralleling CLIL in its aims (e.g., to improve students' English language

skills), they may make use of language-supportive strategies that link content learning and language learning. They may spend more time on lesson preparation and making use of slides and scripts. However, content teachers may also feel that helping learners with their English is *not* their responsibility (Tan, 2011). One math teacher observed by Tan in Malaysia commented on his approach to grading students:

> I'll only look for facts. The language is the secondary part there. So we don't really bother.

Similarly Costa (2012) found that EMI lecturers in the Italian higher education context focused on teaching their academic subjects and did not see learners' language improvement as a priority in their teaching, findings similar to those reported by Airey (2012) in the Swedish higher education context.

WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF EMI ON THE TEACHER?

The requirement to teach in EMI can influence teachers' views of their own effectiveness or self-efficacy – that is, the ability to perform well as a teacher of their subject, to achieve their goals and potential, to maintain their commitment to teaching in spite of difficulties they may encounter, and to provide support for students' learning. The extent to which an EMI teacher is positively or negatively affected by having to teach their academic subject through English may also be influenced by their proficiency in English, the teaching context (e.g., heterogeneous or homogeneous groups), their academic discipline, the level of the class they are teaching, as well as their teaching experience (Vu & Burns, 2014). For some teachers, making a switch to teaching their subject in English does not negatively influence their ability to provide quality instruction, and some teachers feel it is the natural medium to use for their subject.

Teachers in a Danish university interviewed by Mees et al. (2017,) appeared to accept EMI as a good thing:

> I never really reflected on it. If students are invited from abroad to study, it's obvious that we need to teach them in English.

> I haven't questioned it. I don't think: "Would I like to teach this in Danish?" This is the way it is. It attracts international students and that's the name of the game.

I have benefited from the opportunity to practice my oral English.

I think it is completely natural to use English at the university level because it has been the language of science, language of publication for years. In that regard is completely natural .... it is all in English.

However, some EMI teachers report that teaching in English has a negative impact on their teaching and that they would teach better in their mother tongue. Studies on EMI teachers' concerns about their ability to deliver academic lectures in English report that teachers sense a lack of details and depth in their explanations of content and reduction in their ability to improvise and respond spontaneously, which are important ways of establishing rapport with students. A Korean teacher cited in Kim (2017) commented:

I received my PhD in the United States and have taught for more than 10 years. But I have to admit that I can convey only 70 to 80% of my knowledge when I lecture in English.

EMI teachers in a Spanish university described some of the stress that resulted from EMI teaching as a result of the need to be seen by students and colleagues as equally competent compared to non-EMI teachers and the need to demonstrate a high level of proficiency in English.

WHAT IS THE EMI TEACHER PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY?

Teacher professional identity is shaped by the teacher's explicit or implicit understanding of themselves as a teacher, of teaching in their discipline, and of those features that uniquely define them as a teacher in the context in which they work. Teachers may see their professional identity as linked to their discipline, each having its own specific pedagogies. Content and language teachers may have very different understandings of teaching, as seen when a teacher says, "I'm a geography teacher. I teach differently from the way history or English teachers teach." Consequently, teachers may resist advice given by teachers in other disciplines, such as when subject and language teachers work collaboratively.

In the case of the EMI subject teacher, a number of issues arise related to the teachers' sense of their professional identity. For example:

1. Do they view themself primarily as a subject teacher whose expertise and status depends on disciplinary knowledge rather than English language competence?

2. Do they see their role as including to develop the students' proficiency in English?

3. Do they view their ability in and knowledge of English as constituting a core part of their professional identity?

4. Do they feel that teaching in English enables them to fully realize their sense of authority and expertise as a teacher?

The experience of teaching through EMI may also require the teacher to rethink the nature of their teacher identity and to highlight different aspects of their professional identity in the EMI context than would be realized in a non-EMI class (Volchenkova & Bryan, 2019). Because of the unique nature and dynamics of an EMI class, particularly an international class, more "identity work" may be needed to help the teacher realize the sense of academic authority that they have when teaching in their L1, and to be accepted by their students as a competent university lecturer.

WHAT IS THE EMI LEARNER?

Learners commencing EMI courses may have very different profiles in terms of proficiency in English. Some may be transitioning from secondary schools where they have developed varying levels of proficiency depending on the context. For example, secondary learners in Nordic countries might well have developed reasonable fluency in spoken English by the end of their secondary education, and it may be assumed that they can transition to EMI at university with little difficulty. This would be very different from secondary learners in countries such as South Korea, China, or Japan who would experience far greater challenges in transitioning to EMI. One might assume, therefore, that entry to EMI should be dependent on students achieving a threshold level of communicative ability in English and that English proficiency should be a factor accounting for learners' ability to cope with and their subsequent success in learning academic content through EMI (Aizawa, & Rose, 2019). However, strong motivation for academic success may compensate for limited proficiency in English. A teaching approach may also reflect culturally-based norms related to the nature of classroom

teaching. He and Chiang (2016) comment on the perceptions of international students in EMI courses in China, who found that Chinese students often view learning as dependent on listening, note-taking, and studying the textbook with the teacher seen as an information provider and the students as information receivers.

The relationship between language proficiency and academic learning in EMI has been investigated in various studies (Woodrow, 2006; Yen & Kuzma, 2009). Some of these studies have found a correlation between scores on IELTS and TOEFL tests and academic achievement in EMI. Others, however, have not confirmed such a correlation, suggesting that other factors, such as motivation and academic preparedness, may be involved (Krausz et al., 2005).

HOW CAN STUDENTS BE HELPED TO DEVELOP ACADEMIC LITERACY?

Developing academic literacy involves understanding the core concepts and thinking processes of a discipline, completing academic tasks, and understanding and producing the genres and texts in a discipline. Language plays a central role in developing academic literacy, whether the context is learning through the learner's L1 or through EMI. However, in the case of EMI, the learner is a developing language learner and faces the challenge of mastering academic literacy through the medium of a language in which he or she may have restricted capacities and skills (Evans & Morrison, 2011). In this situation, the responsibility lies with the subject teacher firstly to recognize and understand the special challenges facing the EMI learner, and secondly to accommodate his or her teaching to the challenges learners face in learning through EMI.

Effective teaching in EMI involves the teacher providing careful scaffolding and support to clarify the nature and demands of tasks. Over time EMI students develop a repertoire of productive knowledge and skills that are needed to accomplish familiar academic tasks in English and what the learning strategies, resources, and other requirements of tasks in particular disciplines are. This also involves learning how the language used to prepare a written report differs from that used in a personal recount, or how a written report in geography differs from a written report in a science class (Hafner & Miller, 2019).

In order to provide focused language support during EMI lessons the teacher first needs to preview the language demands of their lessons. While these may differ for different students depending on their language proficiency as well as extent to which they have prepared for the lesson (e.g., by completing assigned readings

from the textbook or other sources), planning any EMI lesson, activity, or task, involves the questions such as these:

1. What learning arrangements, such as lecture, group work, or individual work, will be involved?

2. What cognitive demands are involved, such as classifying, problem-solving, or evaluating?

3. What productive and receptive language skills are involved?

4. What kinds of specialized uses of language may be involved, such as the use of passive voice, sequence markers, or technical registers of vocabulary?

5. What kinds of preparation will the learners need to accomplish the linguistic demands of the task, such as learning lists of keywords or completing concept maps or other aids?

6. How will the procedures needed to carry out the activity be clarified, such as through a written template, through demonstration, or through watching a video?

7. What resources will help students manage the linguistic dimensions of the task, such as a checklist of language features to be incorporated in a writing activity or a template showing the stages to be used in preparing a science report?

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Developing an understanding of the language demands of academic tasks is obviously a long-term process for the EMI teacher. Providing specific language support to scaffold language development in EMI takes a great deal of planning and can also benefit from collaboration between EMI teachers and teachers of English. Over time, the EMI teachers' experience of the difficulties their academic subjects and tasks pose for their EMI learners serves as a source for the development of strategies they can use to improve the effectiveness with which content and language are integrated and supported in their lessons.

FURTHER READING

Breeze, R. & Carmen, S.G (2022). *Teaching English-medium courses in higher education: A guide for non-native speakers*. Bloomsbury.

This book focuses on the pedagogy of teaching in EMI, focusing on issues experienced by "non-native speaker" lecturers. The book would, in fact, be equally relevant to lecturers who are native speakers of English. It provides a comprehensive account of how to deliver effective instruction in EMI including lectures, interaction with students, and approaches to assignments and assessment.

Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction*. Oxford University Press.

This influential book offers a comprehensive overview of EMI, covering the history of EMI, how it is understood and implemented, and its impact on teachers and learners. Each chapter provides a critical survey of key research findings and identifies issues and problems that EMI raises. The book provides a masterly account of EMI and is essential reading for researchers and advocates of EMI.

Richards, J.C. with Pun, J. (2022). *Teaching and learning in English medium instruction: An introduction*. Routledge.

This is the first book to offer an introductory textbook for use in graduate TESOL and other programs. While the topics covered are similar to those in Macaro, the book aims at a more general audience, assumes no background in applied linguistics, and contains discussion questions and follow-up activities related to each topic.

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Enhancing Language Input to Promote Noticing Skills on Language Form: From Research to Practice

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ABSTRACT

This article applies research findings in the area of the Noticing Hypothesis to help enhance English learners' awareness of the language form. This article first clarifies focus-on-forms, focus-on-form and form-focused instruction to provide a pedagogical framework for the instructional techniques presented. Then it considers research on *input enhancement* (i.e., target forms are made salient through bolding, etc.) that suggests a strategy to facilitate language learners' noticing of the language form. The article also considers both external factors (e.g., target form and instructed focus on meaning) and internal factors (e.g., communicative value, prior knowledge, and first language background) that contribute to success in noticing. To translate research into practice, this article introduces a conflated method of form-focused instruction as a practical way to apply research and theory for classroom teaching and learning. This method includes input enhancement combined with other instructional techniques, such as input flood, recast, explicit instruction, and multimodal input, considering the role of working memory capacity. The paper concludes with suggestions for future classroom research directions.

Keywords: Noticing Hypothesis; focus-on-forms; focus-on-form; form-focused instruction; input enhancement; conflated method

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INTRODUCTION

In second language teaching practice, many teachers employ the communicative language teaching approach and focus on meaning, which advocates that teachers should only focus on meaning-centered activities in the classroom, without attending to linguistic form (Loewen, 2018). The approach is rooted in *the Input Hypothesi*s which suggests that learners will automatically infer the rules and meaning if they are exposed to enough comprehensible input in the communicative activities, just like children learning their first language (Krashen, 1981). However, teachers may notice that second language learners have different levels of ability in inferring language forms such as grammar and vocabulary leading to slow development of the language.

One way to explain this is through *the Noticing Hypothesis* (Schmidt, 1990, 2001, 2010) which claims that, unlike children, second-language learners need to be able to notice the language form to make successful language acquisition possible. Schmidt (2010) explained three levels of awareness: a) No Awareness (i.e., learners do not consciously perceive or notice the linguistic feature in the input), b) Implicit Awareness (i.e., learners have a subconscious or implicit knowledge of the linguistic feature) and c) Explicit Awareness (i.e., learners consciously and explicitly notice the linguistic feature in the input). Based on such, He acknowledged that noticing does not always lead to explicit knowledge of a linguistic feature (caused by explicit awareness) but can still contribute to implicit learning (caused by implicit awareness), where learners acquire language knowledge without conscious awareness.

For teachers, Schmidt's noticing hypothesis leads to various pedagogical implications in classrooms, one of which is form-focused instruction (clarified further below). This article, therefore, aims to clarify form-focused instruction and a teaching strategy called input enhancement. Then, it discusses why research yields mixed results regarding input enhancement in classrooms. Through distinguishing attention, deeper processing and learning, this article synthesises previous literature to propose the conflated method of form-focused instruction.

FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION

Several second language acquisition researchers (e.g., Ellis, 2016; Ortega, 2009; Spada & Lightbown, 2008) have long supported the principle that second language learners should be assisted to understand and use linguistic structures that they might not acquire naturally or through exposure alone. Therefore, form-focused instruction came under the spotlight. It is an umbrella term that covers *focus-on-form* and *focus-on-form* (Ellis, 2001). Long (1991) distinguished *focus on form* (i.e., students' attention is drawn to linguistic elements that arise spontaneously during meaning-focused interaction) and *focus on forms* (i.e., the traditional teaching of grammar where teachers present rules and students engage in the practice of rules afterwards) which are then subsumed under the umbrella term *form-focused instruction* (Ellis, 2001; Loewen, 2018). Therefore, form-focused instruction includes a continuum (see Figure 1) in which focus-on-form and focus-on-forms represent the two ends. The two ends differ in terms of whether the primary goal of instruction is communication or language features. Hence, various form-focused instruction options can be placed on the continuum either in the middle or towards either end. Input enhancement, as the focus of this article, is more implicit and, therefore, is more towards the focus on the form end, while explicit instruction, such as metalinguistic feedback, is more towards the focus on the forms end.

On the left end, focus-on-forms is more towards a type of pedagogical approach where heavy emphasis is put on reading, word-for-word translation and memorizing words and grammatical rules. On the right end, focus-on-form involves directing learners' attention to specific linguistic structures within the communicative language they are learning (Ellis, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 2008). In other words, focus-on-form is based on the communicative language teaching context where there is often an emphasis on making learners consciously aware of the language rules and structures while still engaging in meaningful communicative content.
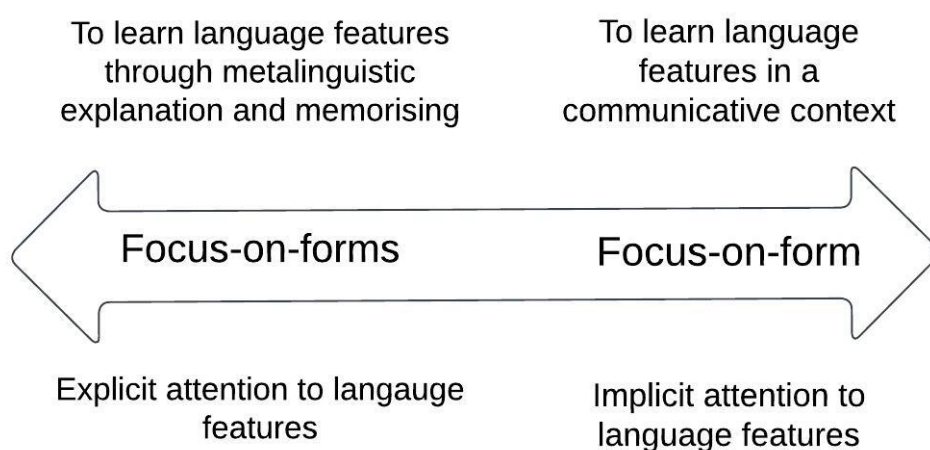
To learn language features through metalinguistic explanation and memorising

To learn language features in a communicative context

Focus-on-forms   Focus-on-form

Explicit attention to langauge features

Implicit attention to language features

Figure 1. *A continuum of form-focused instruction (based on R. Ellis, 2001)*

This article mainly focuses on the focus-on-form end, discussing teaching strategies such as input enhancement, while also considering the focus-on-forms end as complementary to the focus-on-form end. This focus considers the commonality and popularity of the traditional practice of focus-on-forms in English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL) context. For countries such as China, an abrupt change from the traditional way of teaching grammar to teaching integrated grammar, as in the focus-on-form approach in task-based language teaching, can be challenging (Liu, 2015). Nevertheless, this article does not aim to suggest that English language teaching goes back to the old ways and teaches language form outside the communicative context.

The following sections further explain form-focused instruction by discussing a) isolationist and integrated approach and b) implicit and explicit instruction for a better understanding of the continuum.

Isolationist vs. Integrated Approach

There are many techniques that teachers can use to draw learners' attention to forms. According to Spada and Lightbown (2008), in an isolationist approach, teachers provide direct explicit instruction of the target language form before doing meaning-based activities or provide reactive instruction to specific grammatical issues that arise during the activities. This approach is more towards the focus-on-forms end of the continuum, and it separates the traditional way of teaching grammar explicitly with the modern communicative teaching focus. In an integrated approach which is more towards the focus-on-form end of the continuum, language form learning can be integrated into the communicative language teaching so that teachers may use input flood or input enhancement to make the target language form implicitly embedded in the meaningful input (see Figure 2). Hence, integrated and isolationist approaches differ in how they incorporate language forms into teaching, with the integrated approach blending forms and meaning, and the isolationist approach focusing on forms independently of the communicative context (Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

Explicit and implicit instruction

Another way to explain how form-focused instruction can be done in classrooms is based on R. Ellis's (2005) terms *explicit instruction* and *implicit instruction*. Explicit instruction is characterised by direct teaching and awareness of language rules (R. Ellis, 2005). It involves clear explanations of language forms and structures (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). Hence, it leans towards the focus-on-forms end. For example, the teacher may provide a few example sentences containing the target language form such as conditional clauses (i.e., subordinate clauses lead by "if"). The teacher may present the rules regarding "the first conditional" by explaining the example sentences as follows:

> Example: "If it rains tomorrow, we will cancel the picnic."

> Teacher's explanation: "The first conditional is used in English to talk about real and possible situations in the future. It is formed using the structure: if + present simple, ... will + base form of the verb. This conditional deals with situations that are likely to happen under certain conditions. This sentence suggests that the cancellation of the picnic is contingent on a future event (rain) that could realistically occur. The condition is possible and the outcome is likely if the condition is met."
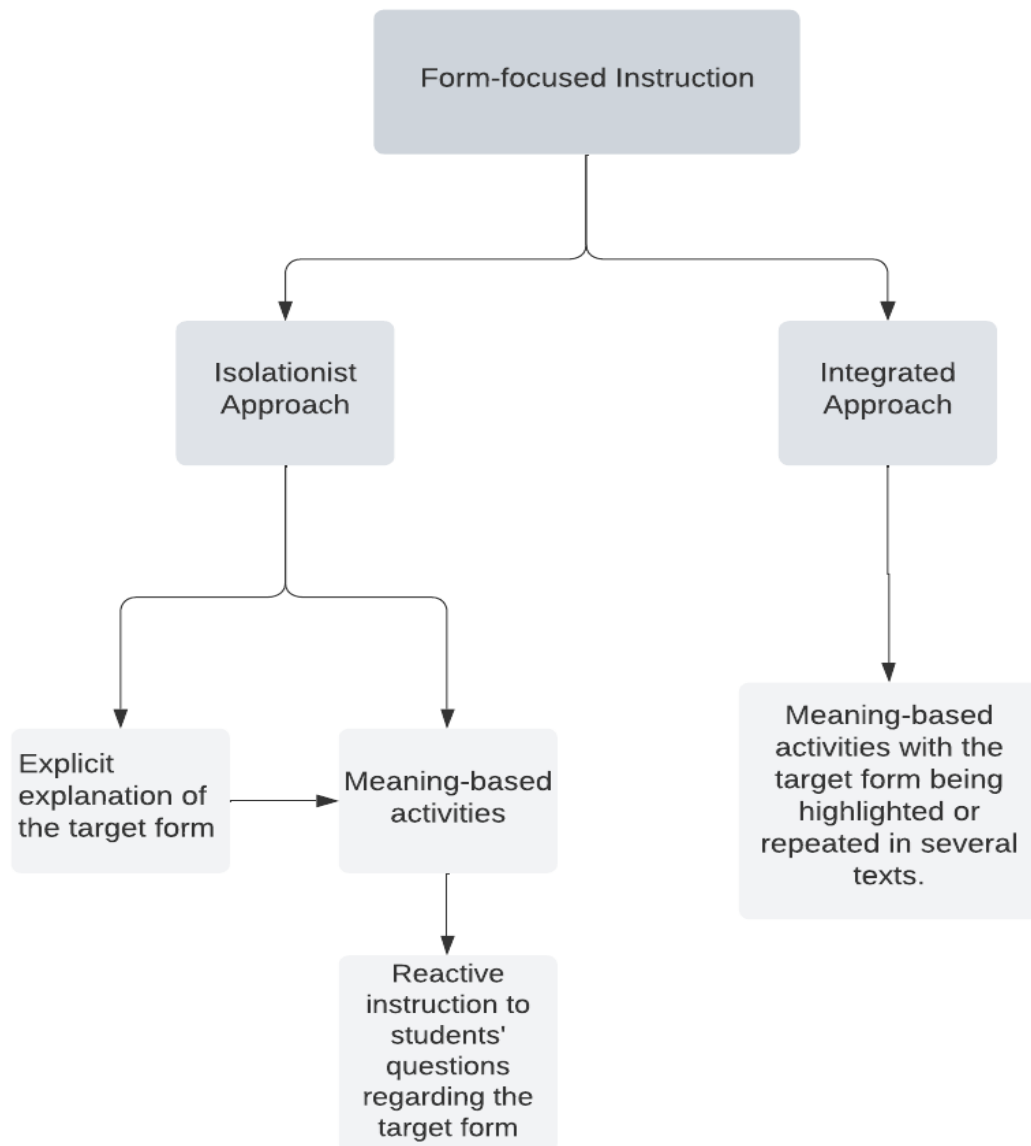
Figure 2. *Two approaches to form-focused instruction*

On the other hand, R. Ellis (2005) explains that implicit instruction is the indirect teaching of language, where learners infer rules without explicit awareness and teachers do not present rules or explicitly direct attention to forms. Hence, it leans towards the focus-on-form end. He described input enhancement as one way of

doing implicit instruction, and it has received attention from researchers throughout the past three decades (e.g., Alanen, 1995; Fakher Ajabshir, 2022; Izumi, 2002; Leow, 2009; Leow & Martin, 2017).

An example of implicit instruction with input enhancement is shown in the following:

> The students are presented with this sentence "**If** it **rains** tomorrow, we **will cancel** the picnic". Words such as "if", "rains", "will cancel" are highlighted to draw students' attention and presumably induce deeper processing and learning.

However, this simple method of implicit instruction seems to cause a debate due to mixed results on its effectiveness in facilitating learning.

INPUT ENHANCEMENT

Sharwood Smith (1993) first described the input enhancement techniques which focus on the external manipulation of the input. Textual or oral/aural input can be enhanced through typographical or phonological cues to raise the chance of noticing (Robinson, 1995). Common ways to manipulate textual input are to change the colour, font size, and font styles of the target forms while ways to manipulate aural input are to increase the volume and insert pause before or after the target forms (Cho & Reinders, 2013).

Among the earliest studies that investigated the effect of input enhancement on young adult learners, Alanen (1995) reported that input enhancement does not influence learners' performance. Although the use of italics was noticed, target forms were not acquired. Since then, research has focused on this issue and tried to explain the cognitive process of learners through various methodological approaches. However, mixed results have been produced.

Although implicit instruction, such as input enhancement, may be useful in promoting noticing, whether it can facilitate acquisition is doubtful, according to previous research. Han et al. (2008) stated that the sole use of input enhancement can lead to noticing enhanced forms, but whether acquisition occurs depends on learners' prior knowledge. Furthermore, a meta-analysis of empirical research conducted by Lee and Huang (2008) indicated that "second language readers provided with enhancement-embedded texts barely outperformed those who were

exposed to unenhanced texts with the same target forms flooded in them" (p. 307). This finding denies the effectiveness of input enhancement at least at the acquisition level. It seems that the argument is on two issues: 1. whether and how input enhancement can draw learners' attention to the target forms, and 2. whether and how input enhancement can induce learning of the target forms, presumably after noticing.

For the first issue, research indicates that input enhancement is most likely to promote learners noticing of the target language forms including grammatical and lexical features, but the effectiveness is related to the level of salience of the target language form (Alanen, 1995; Alsadoon & Heift, 2015; Han et al., 2008; Labrozzi, 2014; Liu et al., 2021). To improve the salience of target forms to raise the possibility of noticing, textual enhancement including increased font size (Labrozzi, 2014), a combination of colouring and bolding (Alsadoon & Heift, 2015), and a combination of capitalizing and underlining (Liu et al., 2021) may be more effective than other treatments. However, these findings do not address the second issue which focuses on the acquisition of the language.

FACTORS INFLUENCING MIXED RESEARCH RESULTS ON THE LEARNING LEVEL

As discussed before, whether attention necessarily leads to learning is questionable. What factors can affect this causal relationship is key to realizing effective input enhancement on the learning level. This section will discuss the issues causing mixed results on the learning level by discussing external and internal factors and concluding with their relations to the cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994). Figure 3 is provided to supplement the discussion.
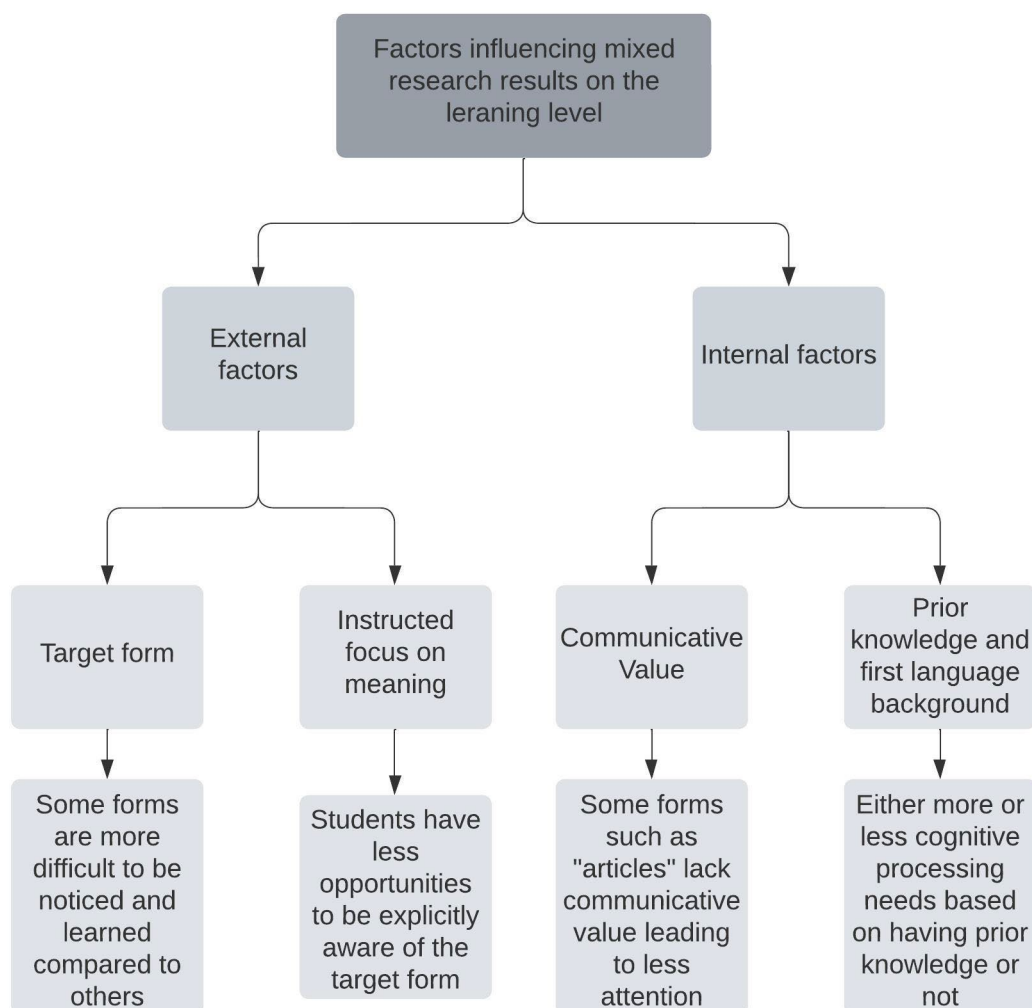
Figure 3. *Factors influencing mixed research results*

External factors

External factors that might prevent learning include the various difficulty levels of the target form and the teacher's instruction to focus on meaning instead of the language form.

Target form

The difficulty level of the target linguistic features could affect the outcome of learning and retention. Montero Perez et al. (2015) found no significant relationship between attention to and learning of novel words, suggesting that this relationship is less straightforward. This could be because of the difficulty of recalling the meaning of an unknown or unfamiliar word after one viewing (Montero Perez et al., 2015). On the contrary, Alsadoon and Heift (2015) found that enhanced target words have not only drawn participants' attention but also facilitated their learning of spelling. This could be because learning the spelling of the words that learners already know the meaning seems to be easier than learning the meaning of unknown words. Therefore, it seems "not all forms are equally amenable to input enhancement" (Han, 2012, p. 315).

Similarly, Lee and Revesz (2018) reported a positive effect on learning of anaphoric reference (i.e., a word in a text that refers to other ideas in the text for its meaning). Results suggest that students' attention to grammatical features is associated with the development of grammar knowledge. Fang's (2016) study on antecedent and anaphor also indicates that the enhanced group outperformed the control group. However, Meguro (2019) reports that enhanced auxiliary tag questions (e.g. am, are, is, was, were, have, has, had) did not lead to learning while enhanced do-support tag questions (e.g. do, does, did) and modal tag questions (e.g. will, would, can, could, must, should) indicate a positive effect on learning.

These mixed findings suggest that the difficulty or nature of target linguistic features plays a role in facilitating learning (Simard, 2018). However, it is still unclear whether more difficult features induce less learning because Meguro (2019) points out that do-support tag questions are the most difficult among the three types, yet learning still occurs.

Instructed focus on meaning

Leow and Martin (2017) claimed that although learners' attention can be drawn to the target forms which are made salient, it does not necessarily mean a deeper processing and robust learning. They explain that this issue might be because the primary purpose of the reading activities is for learners to access information (in other words, meaning-focused) as instructed by most researchers in their studies. Thus, whether deeper processing can occur seemingly depends on whether students are required to focus on the language features, but if they are required to

do so, input enhancement will not be implicit, contradicting the underlying idea of its use in form-focused instruction.

Internal factors

Deeper processing may not occur because there is a trade-off between learning target language forms and accessing information from the whole text (Han, 2012). Looking at the relation between a substantial amount of noticing and deeper processing, Lee and Revesz (2018) pointed out that more attention does not necessarily lead to more learning. Instead, it is possible that deeper processing might be triggered by more attention and then lead to more learning. Whether learners choose to process target language forms in depth or to simply notice and go on accessing the information of the whole text might be dependent on internal factors. These include the communicative value of the target form in processing the meaning of the input and learners' prior knowledge and first language background that may affect the cognitive processing needs.

Communicative value

Choi's (2016) findings indicated internal factors (e.g., learners' cognitive load or working memory capacity) in play. He found that participants have spent a large amount of time on the enhanced target collocations which leads to less cognitive resources for processing other content words, so learners' overall comprehension of the text is affected. Although the results showed better learning of target collocations, which were made salient, the recall of the rest of the unenhanced information was impaired. This can be explained by Han et al.'s (2008) statement that learners tend to automatically notice the meaningful forms; in this case, collocation is more meaningful.

On the contrary, Labrozzi (2014) reported that textual enhancement did not affect overall reading comprehension which is aligned with Han et al.'s (2008) claim that the enhancement of a non-meaningful form does not impair comprehension. This could be due to the low level of communicative value of the target grammatical form (Simard & Foucamber, 2013).

Prior knowledge and first language background

Alternatively, these findings could also be attributed to participants' prior knowledge of the target form which might lead to less cognitive processing needs, and therefore participants can allocate more cognitive resources to accessing the

meaning of the whole text (Han et al., 2008; Revesz et al., 2021). It may also be that learners knew that the collocations would be tested and therefore chose not to focus on the communicative meaning of the overall text. It could also be the learners' first language background that may affect their learning of particular forms (Revesz et al., 2021). Nevertheless, there is a cognitive trade-off between the attention to and processing of the enhanced input and the overall meaning of the input.

Overall, the mixed results of the research can be explained as caused by both external and internal factors, but these can all be attributed to the distribution of cognitive resources based on cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1994). Some learners may have some prior knowledge of the target forms, be it difficult or not, so they could pay less attention to the enhanced features to process it and acquire it, while in the meantime being able to comprehend the whole text (Han et al., 2008; Revesz et al., 2021). Some learners may have higher working memory capacity (Ahmadian, 2020), so they could pay enough attention to process and learn the enhanced features, be it with high or low communicative value, while still having enough capacity to process the overall meaning of the text. Some learners may have a first language that can facilitate the learning of a particular language form (e.g., Revesz et al., 2021), so they spend less cognitive resources on this.

Therefore, researchers need to pay attention to these variables as it is likely that participants' achievement is not attributable to the intervention; instead, it may simply be that learners do not have enough cognitive resources to be distributed to process either the enhanced features or the overall input comprehension.

PEDAGOGICAL METHODS FOR APPLYING INPUT ENHANCEMENT - THE CONFLATED METHOD

With an understanding of the limited efficacy of input enhancement in inducing deeper processing and learning, it is now useful to review and discuss the conflation of input enhancement and other methods under form-focused instruction to maximise the potential of implicit instruction in inducing learning.

This type of conflation is named the *conflated input enhancement* to differentiate between stand-alone input enhancement that only highlights the target forms in the input activities. A conflated input enhancement method means combining typical input enhancement such as bolding with other form-focused instruction techniques such as repeating the same text several times (i.e., input flood) or

providing metalinguistic explanations before reading the text (i.e., explicit instruction or isolationist approach). It is originally named by Leow (2009) who divides previous studies on input enhancement into conflated and non-conflated sub-strands. He explains that some research included input enhancement with other variables such as explicit metalinguistic instruction (i.e., conflated input enhancement) which is the opposite of other studies that methodologically teased out other variables (i.e., non-conflated input enhancement). Therefore, a distinction between these two sub-strands of input enhancement studies is critical to understanding the results.

Four conflated methods are discussed. These include a) input enhancement plus input flood, b) input enhancement plus recast, c) input enhancement plus explicit instruction and d) input enhancement plus multimodal input. These methods are presented based on previous research and are each promising in promoting reading, speaking, vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics.

Method 1: Input enhancement plus input flood to improve reading skills

The practice of input enhancement plus input flood could be repeating the same input activity (e.g. reading) with the target form made salient several times. For example, a text can be given to students for reading several times with the unfamiliar vocabulary being highlighted. The assumption of this method is that with more times of exposure to the enhanced form, there will be more opportunities to notice it. However, there is research that indicates a non-significant effect of this method, such as White's (1998) finding that when combined, the effect of input enhancement is cancelled out by input flood.

Szudarski and Carter (2016) also investigated the effect of input flood plus input enhancement on learners' acquisition of collocation. Their results indicated that this combination is effective in promoting learners' recall of the collocation. However, it did not show a positive result in semantic gains indicating that deeper processing did not occur. They claim that input enhancement might reduce the times of repetition as in input flood, but they suggest a more explicit treatment combined with input enhancement for deeper processing and learning to occur.

Although studies (e.g., Szudarski & Carter, 2016; White, 1998) show a non-significant result of this method, it can potentially have a more significant effect by varying the context across different texts as showcased in Liu et al.'s (2021) research. They found that varying contextual richness, which involves presenting words in a variety of contexts, leads to more significant and sustained lexical gains

than simply increasing exposure to L2 target words (input flood). Particularly for low working memory learners, they gained more in the condition where both variations in contextual richness and input flood were present compared to mere input flood. Such a variation requires a sufficient number (e.g., six encounters) of exposures to be effective (Liu et al., 2021). This suggests that manipulating contextual richness can optimise the effect of input flood. For example, the teacher may provide several sentences with an idiomatic expression "break the ice" being highlighted (see following examples).

1. "At the start of the party, nobody was talking to each other, so John told a funny story to **break the ice**, and soon everyone was laughing and chatting." (Context: social gathering)

2. "On the first day of school, the teacher played a getting-to-know-you game with the students to **break the ice** and make everyone feel more comfortable." (Context: classroom)

3. "To **break the ice** at the beginning of the corporate retreat, the facilitator organized a team-building exercise that helped colleagues get to know each other better." (Context: business meeting)

Then, students can be tested on producing a sentence that contains this expression (i.e., production tests). A counterexample (an example that should be avoided) would be translating "break the ice" into students' home language, solely focusing on memorising the expression out of the context and then testing their memory by dictating the expression after listening to its translation.

Method 2: Input enhancement plus recast to improve speaking

Recast is a way of giving focused feedback to learners who just produced a flawed output (N. Ellis, 2005). The teacher may rephrase the flawed output by illustrating more appropriate forms of expression. For example, a student might say "He go to school at 9 am", and the teacher can repeat "He goes to school at 9 am" as a correct form. Rassaei (2020) found that the combination of recast and input enhancement works better than recast alone and input enhancement alone in learning English articles. The way to implement this conflated method is to provide students with textually enhanced texts (e.g., articles such as 'a' and 'the') and ask them to read aloud. Recasts can be provided when an error occurs (e.g., omitting the article). According to Rassaei (2020), input enhancement can maximise the benefit of recast because it can help learners be aware of the recast which is not necessarily

attended to (Panova & Lyster, 2002). Meanwhile, recast, as a form of corrective feedback, can be complementary to input enhancement of which its effectiveness in learning is largely dependent on learners' own deeper processing.

Method 3: Input enhancement plus explicit instruction for students with less cognitive capacity in improving pragmatic skills

Further to this, compared to input enhancement plus recast as implicit instruction, Ahmadian (2020) found that explicit instruction is more effective in improving learners' production and comprehension of the pragmatics of refusal. He found that implicit instruction condition is expected to help learners expand their working memory capacity, but not learners with relatively smaller working memory capacity. Therefore, explicit instruction of refusal strategies can provide an equal learning opportunity for learners with various levels of working memory capacity. With explicit instruction of the target form beforehand, students with low cognitive capacity are more likely to process the enhanced target form in meaningful input without interrupting their overall access to the meaning of the text.

Method 4: Input enhancement plus multimodal input in improving vocabulary and grammar

A common multimodal input is video which requires seeing and listening at the same time. When it comes to language learning, videos are usually accompanied by captions, so learners can listen and read at the same time. Both vocabulary and grammar can be improved through this method. For vocabulary, Montero Perez et al. (2015) used three types of captioning of videos, namely full captioning, keyword captioning and full captioning with highlighted keywords, to investigate participants noticing and learning of novel words. They found that visual salience in the captioning line can help learners process more of the target words. Similarly, Peters (2019) found that both captions and imagery played a beneficial role in the vocabulary acquisition process. The findings suggest that when learners are exposed to words both visually and aurally in a meaningful context, their ability to learn and retain new vocabulary is enhanced. This underscores the importance of multimodal input in language learning and the potential benefits of incorporating audiovisual materials with supportive on-screen text and imagery in language education.

For grammar, Lee and Revesz (2020) found a significant effect of textually enhanced captions on drawing attention to and processing the English present

perfect and the past simple. They explained that a multimodal input activity (e.g., listening to audio while reading the transcript) might make the textual enhancement more salient than in unimodal reading activities.

Overall, different conflated input enhancement methods may have different levels of efficacy, but since multiple factors are in play, it is difficult to determine which is the best. What can be inferred from previous discussions of each method is that input enhancement can be conflated with other methods to be used for promoting the acquisition of vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics in reading, listening and speaking.

FUTURE CLASSROOM RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

A review of the literature on input enhancement has suggested a conflated method of input enhancement that is needed for classroom research and practice. As the conflated methods are being employed, teachers may conduct classroom research to observe their effectiveness. Here are some directions that teachers can consider.

1. To research conflated input enhancement, future research needs to distinguish between attention, deeper processing and learning, and focus on investigating whether deeper processing and learning have occurred.

2. It is also important to include delayed post-tests in future research, as learning involves not just immediate recall but also long-term retention and the ability to apply language forms appropriately (Ahmadian, 2020; Vu, 2023).

3. Apart from delayed post-tests, production tests (see Fakher Ajabshir, 2022) can also be included to test learners' productive knowledge of the targe forms, allowing one to conclude whether learning has occurred and to which level.

Teachers and researchers should be cautious that the conflated method presented in this article is based on the focus-on-form end of the continuum. That language form should not be taught and learned outside of the communicative context. Otherwise, it goes back to the early days of grammar-translation teaching when students only memorise metalinguistic rules and vocabulary out of context and thus are unable to use the language in a communicative way. Similarly, tests should not only focus on the target form that is taken out of the communicative context

such as asking learners to explain a grammatical rule, asking learners to dictate and translate a word into the target language, or multiple-choice questions that do not provide a meaningful context. What should be done is to instruct students to access information and the overall meaning of the input and test them on this, not just on the target forms made salient.

CONCLUSION

This paper has delved into the intricacies of input enhancement and its pivotal role in the second language classroom, underscoring its effectiveness in fostering learners' noticing and acquisition of language forms. Through a comprehensive examination grounded in the Noticing Hypothesis and form-focused instruction, it has been identified that input enhancement can draw learners' attention to target linguistic elements but may not be enough to induce deeper processing due to both external and internal factors. With various individual levels of cognitive capacity and factors influencing cognitive load and distribution, not all learners can infer the target forms without teachers' directions.

To address this, the paper has suggested that input enhancement, when conflated with other methods, can bridge the gap between noticing and deeper processing, leading to the internalisation of the target forms. Four conflated input enhancement methods (conflated with input flood, recast, explicit instruction, and multimodal input) are discussed. To further understand the efficacy of conflated input enhancement methods, it is essential to distinguish between conflated and non-conflated input enhancement as Leow (2009) suggested.

In conclusion, using conflated input enhancement in second language classrooms can be promising. Grounded in the noticing hypothesis and form-focused instruction, teachers are encouraged to harness the potential of input enhancement, tailoring their approaches to meet the dynamic needs of their students and embracing the ongoing evolution of language teaching methodologies.

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Reconsidering classroom space and language teaching and learning from a multimodal perspective

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ABSTRACT

In the English language classroom, many modes of communication beyond language, such as still images, moving images, and gestures, are commonly used, as are technologies such as blackboards and PowerPoint that enable different modes. This paper will argue that the role of modes and technologies in facilitating more communicative language teaching cannot be overlooked and that teachers need to consider their use of classroom space from a multimodal perspective. The paper explores classroom space and language teaching and learning through the example of a classroom in a public high school in Japan. It discusses how didactic, teacher-centred pedagogy tends to be promoted by traditional classroom spaces. It also outlines how modes and technologies can be used in the classroom space to mitigate teachers' power and fulfil students' needs and how consideration of the use of modes and technologies can contribute to teachers' professional development. The paper illustrates the significance of raising teachers' awareness of their use of semiotic modes and technologies in the classroom space to improve classroom language teaching and learning.

Keywords: English language teaching, multimodal perspectives, classroom space

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INTRODUCTION

More and more English teachers worldwide have been teaching communicatively in recent years. They focus on the use of language in context rather than just on the structure of language. They also allow students to interact and engage more in communicative activities (Harmer, 2015). In the Japanese context, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) emphasises communicative language teaching in the curriculum. For instance, the Japanese curriculum document MEXT (2018) states that English teachers should use English to facilitate authentic communication and should consider how to teach grammar effectively in meaningful contexts. However, attention to language alone does not necessarily lead to language teaching that is effectively communicative. This is because, as Iedema (2003) indicated, language relies on other semiotic modes. These are conceptualised as communication channels and resources for meaning-making (Bezemer, 2012). Textbooks utilise semiotic modes other than the language, including visual images, music, and colour. Likewise, in the classroom, teachers use a variety of semiotic modes such as position, gestures, and gaze. They also utilise semiotic technologies that support integrating semiotic modes into classroom teaching, such as blackboards, projectors, and PowerPoint. It is known that semiotic modes and the technologies associated with these influence teaching and learning in classrooms (Lim, 2021). Specifically, language teaching needs to be approached from a multimodal perspective that considers different modes of communication. In the next section, a classroom I taught in at a Japanese high school will be used as an example of considering classroom space and language teaching and learning from a multimodal perspective.

THE KBHS CLASSROOM

The classroom discussed below is at Kumagaya Boys High School (KBHS) in Saitama, Japan. The school was founded in 1895 and is one of the most traditional public high schools in Saitama Prefecture. There are about 40 students in the classroom, most of whom aim to take university entrance examinations to attend prestigious universities after graduation. I taught general English to students in Years 10-12 at this senior high school for five and a half years until 2022.

Figure 1 is a photograph of one of the English classrooms I taught at KBHS. The discussion of the space in this classroom will cover two aspects. The first is the physical layout of the classroom, including the features of each of the spaces within the classroom and how the classroom layout is shaped. Second, interaction

patterns and movements in the classroom are explored. The pedagogical implications for teachers' future practice are then discussed.

Figure 1. My English classroom at KBHS (KBHS, personal communication, December 22, 2023).

THE PHYSICAL LAYOUT OF THE CLASSROOM

The KBHS classroom has many elements in common with traditional classroom features, as Wright (2005) described. The primary features of the classroom layout are shown in colour in Figure 2, which also shows photographs of both the front and the back of the classroom.

The figure shows that students sit at individual desks in rows, facing the teacher, screen and blackboard. There are two small blackboards on the right and left of the main blackboard, which are typically filled with information about daily and weekly schedules for students. Therefore, these blackboards are not very useful for English teaching and learning, as it may be difficult for the teacher to write on

them. The screen is positioned in the centre of the main blackboard, occupying about one-third of the blackboard space. The projector is attached to the ceiling, so it is immovable. There is a teacher's desk and chair between the teacher and the students. The teacher usually places teaching materials such as a textbook, a CD player, and a Chromebook on the desk.
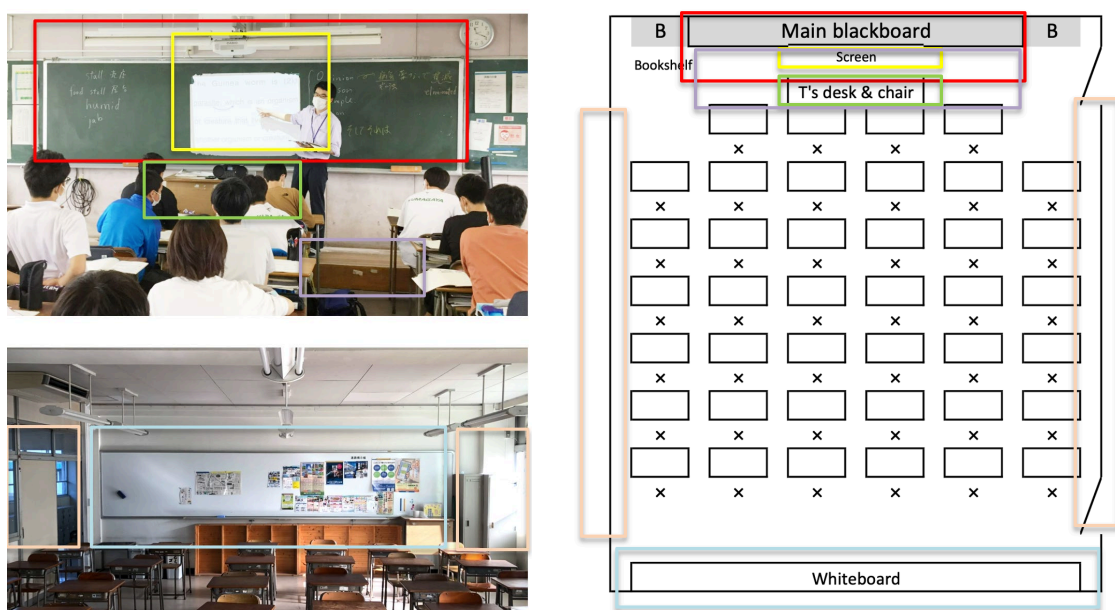

Figure 2. The analysis of the KBHS classroom layout (KBHS, personal communication, December 22, 2023).

There is a stage for the teacher where (s)he usually stands during the lesson. On the two sides of the classroom are windows and doors without visual displays. The classroom has a whiteboard at the back, but this only functions as a notice board for information such as scholarships and career education. For this reason, it is unusual for the teacher to write on the whiteboard in the English classes.

Lim (2021) categorises four different kinds of classroom spaces: Authoritative Space, Supervisory Space, Interactional Space, and Personal Space. In Figure 3, each of these kinds of spaces in the KBHS classroom is colour-coded.
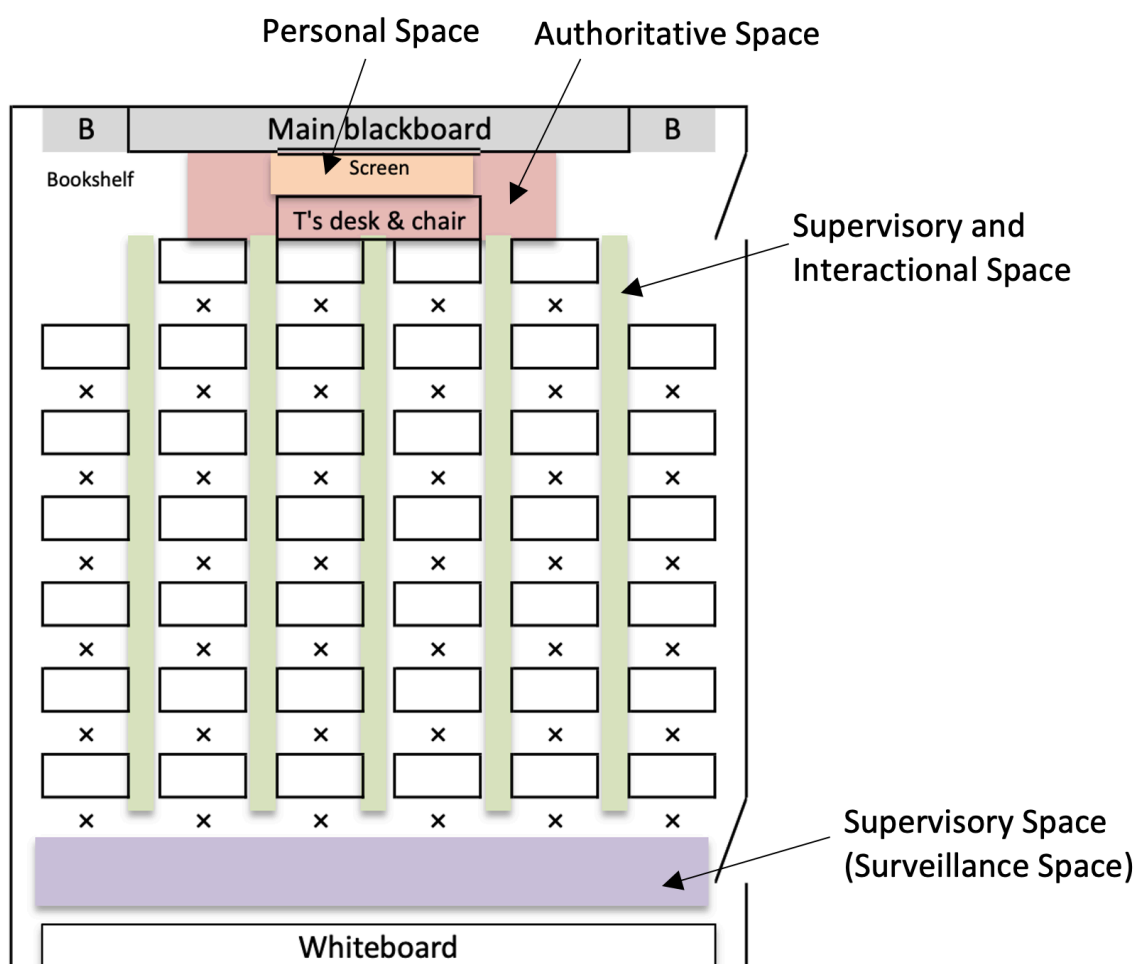
Figure 3. Four spaces in the classroom. Based on Lim (2021).

The figure shows that the front centre position of the classroom is the Authoritative Space, where the teacher shows their authority. In the KBHS classroom, this space is distinctive due to the teacher's stage. The Supervisory Space indicates an area where the teacher moves between the students' desks. It includes the space behind students, defined by Lim (2021) as the Surveillance Space. In this space, the teacher can monitor learners effectively by making her/himself invisible. The Supervisory Space, including the Surveillance Space, expresses the teacher's power and authority because these spaces allow her/him to observe the students. The Interactional Space signifies a place where the teacher can offer personal advice to students. In this classroom, it overlaps with the

Supervisory Space (the Surveillance Space excluded). Lastly, the Personal Space is located behind the teacher's desk. There is an invisible wall between the teacher and students when the teacher stands there due to the furniture. In the KBHS classroom, the teacher's power is strengthened in the Personal Space because it overlaps with the Authoritative Space. Thus, each space in a classroom has different meanings and influences the relationship between the teacher and the students.

Classroom layout is affected and shaped by various external factors. Kress et al. (2005) and Jewitt (2006) provide some examples of these factors, such as government policies, examinations, local forces in the community in which the school is situated, history of the school, and school policy. Figure 4 shows the interactions between these factors. These factors explain how the KBHS classroom layout is shaped. For example, at the macro government policy level, the Japanese curriculum (MEXT, 2018) states that the teacher needs to effectively employ technologies such as audio-visual teaching materials and computers to enhance the quality of students' learning. Following this governmental policy, the Saitama Prefectural Board of Education installed projectors attached to the ceiling in all the classrooms in KBHS. The standardised university examination, which assesses the test taker's reading and listening skills and is taken by most KBHS students, may reinforce the traditional classroom layout. The examination facilitates individual work rather than communication and cooperation with peers because, for the exam, students need to be able to read and listen by themselves. At the meso level of the local community, the KBHS classroom can be influenced by graduates and residents who may expect the school to be disciplined and traditional. This expectation may make it difficult for the classroom design to change. At the micro level of the school, an influential factor is that students take many subjects a day in the same classroom. Therefore, keeping visual displays on the wall after class is unusual. The classroom space is complex due to these layered factors, and teachers need to pay attention to such factors to understand how their classroom spaces are shaped.
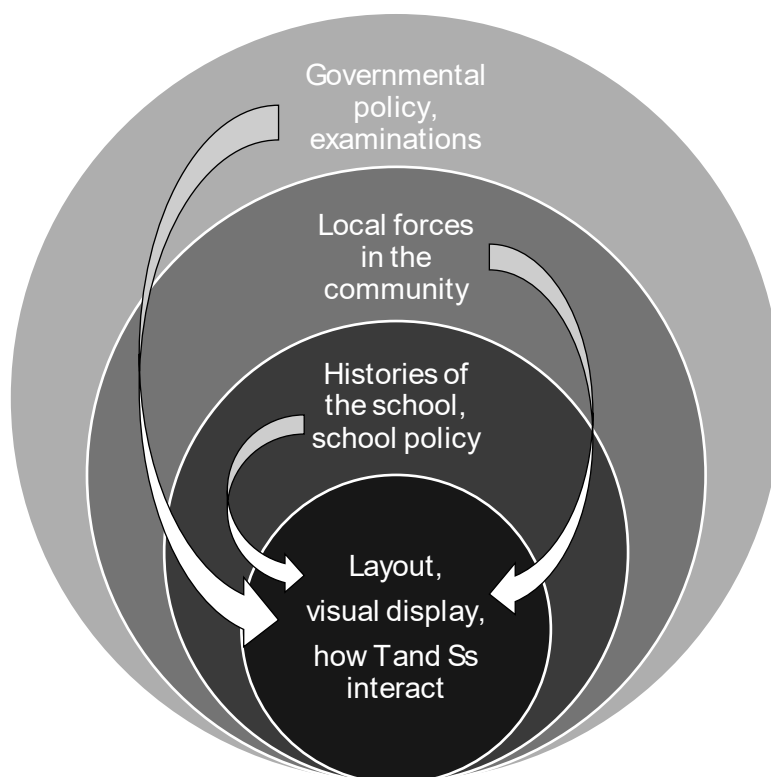
Figure 4. How external factors shape the classroom. Created based on Kress et al. (2005) and Jewitt (2006).

INTERACTION PATTERNS AND MOVEMENTS IN THE CLASSROOM

Interaction patterns between the teacher and students in the KBHS classroom can be didactic and authoritative. These patterns are reinforced by the traditional classroom layout in which students are individually seated facing the teacher, who is on the stage. The Authoritative and Personal Spaces where the teacher tends to teach also facilitate didactic and authoritative pedagogy. There are a range of factors that compel teachers to stay in these spaces. For instance, the fact that the two small blackboards and the whiteboard behind the students are not intended to be used in the English class can hinder the teacher from using the classroom dynamically. Students' backpacks in the Supervisory and Interactional Space also likely interrupt teacher movement. Moreover, technologies should not be overlooked as placing possible constraints on interaction patterns and teacher

movement. Lim (2021) explains that the whiteboard, which he calls a traditional semiotic technology, can be associated with formality since it keeps the teacher in the Authoritative Space. He also claims that PowerPoint limits flexibility, resulting in teachers' limited use of semiotic modes, less spontaneous feedback to learners, and less frequent unexpected lesson development. These characteristics of PowerPoint may result in students being less actively involved in the lesson. In the KBHS classroom, Chromebook restricts teacher movement and forces the teacher to stay in the Authoritative and Personal Space due to its connection to a projector via a cable and the fixed position of the screen. The characteristics and arrangement of semiotic technologies can increase teachers' prominence in the classroom and negatively affect interaction patterns. This contradicts the emphasis that the Japanese curriculum MEXT (2018) places on the need for English teachers to stimulate proactive, interactive, and authentic learning in their classrooms.

In the KBHS classroom, interaction patterns between students and students' movements can be more flexible than ones between the teacher and the students. Pair work is easily facilitated due to the students' proximity to each other. It is also facilitated by the current position of the projector on the ceiling, as the students can interact more freely with each other since the teacher no longer needs to place the projector between the students in the first and second rows (see Figure 5).

As Kress et al. (2005) indicated, the classroom layout can transform relationships among students and between the teacher and students. This also applies when students collaborate in groups by arranging desks together. In this communication pattern, students communicate autonomously while the teacher observes them in the Interactional Space. They can also attach posters, for example, butcher's paper, to the classroom walls to make a presentation (see Figure 6). In doing so, they circulate the classroom with roles as speakers and listeners. This can encourage students to feel a sense of ownership of the classroom, which is psychologically crucial (Wright, 2005). These examples show that the classroom layout can have transformative effects on interaction patterns between students and students' movements within the classroom space.
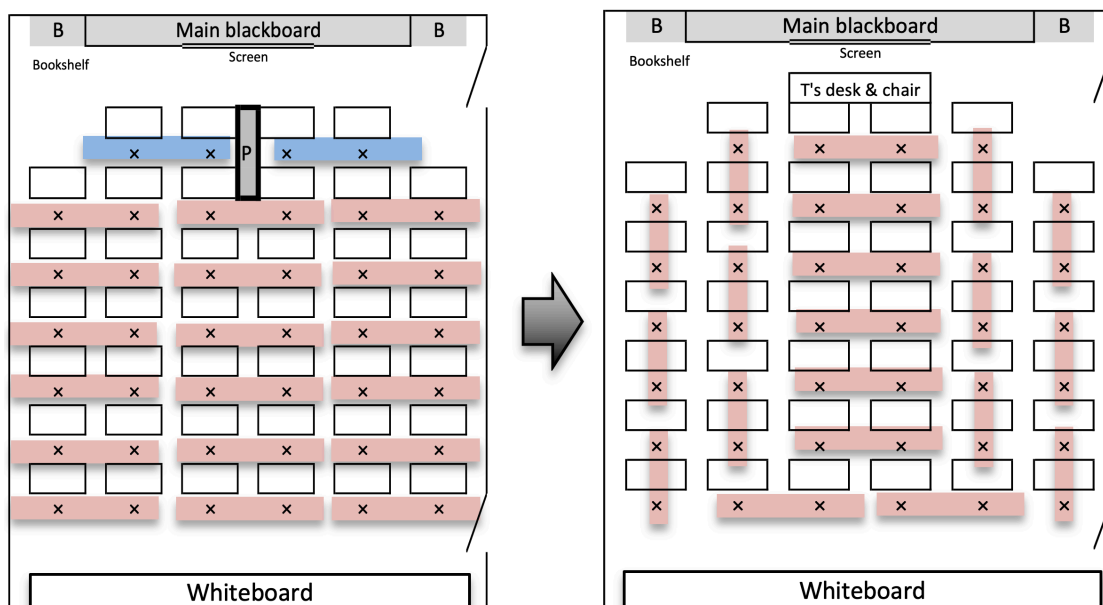
Figure 5. Installing the projector attached to the ceiling has transformed interaction patterns among students.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Four pedagogical implications are suggested based on the preceding discussion of classroom space and language teaching and learning. First, English teachers' awareness of semiotic modes in the classroom needs to be raised to encourage language teaching that is more communicative and learner-centred. Authoritarian and didactic pedagogy often does not allow learners to show their interests or challenge norms (Jewitt, 2006), so teachers need to be able to consider ways of making their classrooms less teacher-centred. For example, English teachers can try to lessen power differences by teaching at each end of the Authoritative Space rather than in the centre (Lim, 2021). Standing in the off-centre position can lead to less frequent use of the Personal Space in a classroom like the one in KBHS. The introduction of technologies such as a wireless presentation clicker also enables teachers to move and even teach in Supervisory and Interactional Spaces. Although Supervisory Space reinforces the teacher's power, as mentioned above, the dynamics of teacher movement can arguably be increased through this space. The teacher can also utilise the Interactional Space to provide students with more individualised attention, for example, by squatting down and speaking at the eye

level of learners. In doing so, it becomes easier to provide formative and individual feedback. Some semiotic modes and technologies discourage authoritarian and didactic pedagogy, whilst others facilitate such pedagogy as discussed in the previous sections. Teachers should strive for so-called structured informality – a relationship between teachers and students in which a harmonious learning environment and classroom rapport are achieved, thereby minimising hierarchical power relationships (Lim, 2021). English teachers need to consider how to use semiotic resources to achieve structured informality in their classrooms.
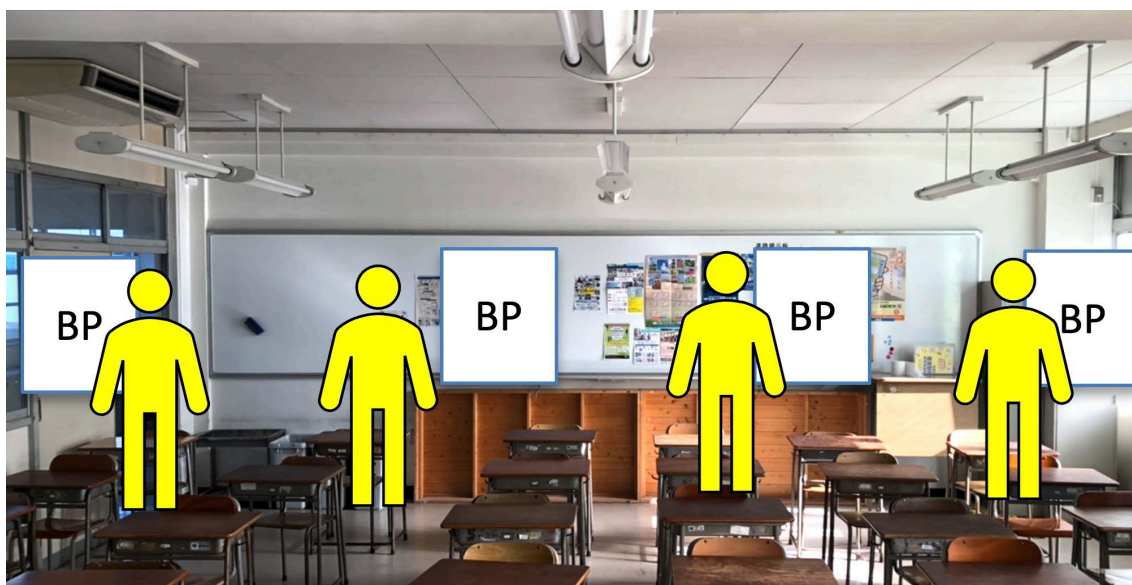

Figure 6 Students put butcher's paper on the wall to make a presentation (KBHS, personal communication, December 22, 2023).

Second, PowerPoint is so commonly employed in the classroom that teachers should consider its benefits and drawbacks deeply. While it can facilitate effective learning for students, specifically in conveying ideational and textual meanings, it also promotes teacher-centred pedagogy that transmits information from the teacher to students (Lim, 2021). Therefore, it is vital that teachers consciously allocate some time for students to learn inductively and to discuss open-ended questions. Also, concerning the classroom layout, if the screen used to display PowerPoint occupies the entire blackboard or whiteboard, there is no space for teachers to write freely. In this case, an additional blackboard or whiteboard could

be installed. Lim (2021) pointed out that using a board can allow the teacher and students to form knowledge together.

Third, the dynamic utilisation of the classroom can assist the teacher in accommodating students' different learning styles (see Kress et al., 2005) and encourage students to take advantage of various language learning strategies. For instance, among strategies outlined by Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), group presentations in which butcher's paper is used to retell a story can provide an opportunity for learners to effectively use cognitive strategies, such as summarising and using images, along with social strategies such as collaboration with classmates.

Lastly, attention to semiotic modes beyond language can contribute to the professional development of English language teachers. In particular, considering semiotic modes before and after a lesson improves teaching skills. While teachers usually plan what and how to teach when preparing for a lesson, they should also consider their positioning and movement by incorporating these semiotic modes into the lesson plan. For instance, when modelling pronunciation, teachers should plan to stand in the centre of the classroom to be visible and audible. When monitoring, the teacher can instead move unobtrusively throughout the classroom. It is also crucial to carefully consider the teacher's positioning and movement if any student has hearing problems (Scrivener, 2012). Detailed preparation of a lesson in terms of these semiotic modes, rather than teaching on an ad hoc basis, enables teachers to teach more effectively. Moreover, increasing awareness of these modes enables teachers to reflect on their practices. It is worthwhile to record a lesson to analyse it in terms of space and positioning. In particular, teachers should reflect on how they use the Authoritative Space because, as Scrivener (2012) explains, by avoiding the space, they can implicitly convey to students that the teacher does not necessarily play the leading role in the lesson. Such reflection allows teachers to consider how to best utilise semiotic modes to create structured informality. Paying ample attention to semiotic modes before and after teaching, they will be able to make English classes more student-centred.

CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed classroom space and language teaching and learning from a multimodal perspective through the example of a KBHS classroom. It has shown that, due to the traditional classroom layout and technologies, the teacher tends to teach in the Authoritative and Personal Spaces. Consequently, the

pedagogy may be didactic, authoritarian, and teacher-centred. However, developing teachers' understanding of the benefits and drawbacks of semiotic modes and technologies can help redress power imbalances in the classroom. English teachers are encouraged to consider how they can create structured informality through an understanding of the features of each semiotic resource in their classroom. Reflection – before and after lessons – on using semiotic resources should not be overlooked in teacher professional development.

This paper has shed light on the significance of aspects other than language in the English language classroom. While semiotic modes and technologies are commonly used in the classroom worldwide, it is doubtful whether ample attention has been paid to them. English teachers need to further increase their awareness of a wide range of semiotic modes and technologies because, as Jewitt et al. (2016) emphasise, it is crucial to examine all semiotic resources to study meaning. A multimodal perspective enables teachers to reflect on and develop teaching and learning in their classrooms.

AUTHOR

Shogo Yamamoto is a teacher at Kumagaya Boys High School, Saitama, Japan. He is interested in the role of technology and multimodality in harnessing learning and teaching capacity and embracing the classroom teaching environment.

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Enhancing EFL Learners' English Writing Skills through a Genre-based Approach

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ABSTRACT

A genre-based approach (GBA) to teaching writing is used in both English as a second and foreign language (ESL/EFL) contexts. The paper discusses a GBA's pedagogical applications and theoretical background before reviewing previous GBA-related research. Following this, the three lesson plans are presented. Lesson Plans 1 and 2 focus on email writing to recommend a job, while Lesson Plan 3 is focused on recipe writing. The article also provides guidelines to assist teachers in using the lesson plans before concluding with a brief section on the limitations of a GBA in teaching writing.

Keywords: Genre-based approach, lesson plan, TESOL, writing

INTRODUCTION

A GBA to writing offers teachers an additional approach to writing instruction in the language learning classroom. A GBA places greater emphasis on writing for specific purposes, thus making it more applicable to real-life situations. However, according to Hao and Sivell (2002), test preparation can often be a priority in EFL contexts in China. Thus, teachers may assign written tasks deemed fit for this purpose, such as essays, rather than authentic forms of communication, such as letters or emails, resumes, or subject-specific assignments. Although this practice

may be effective for exam preparation, it can be problematic for overall writing development as, according to Widodo (2006), even after dedicating years to the development of writing skills, EFL learners, in general, still find writing to be the most challenging skill to master. In light of this, we encourage its use in language learning classrooms in general and specifically as an approach in EFL classrooms in junior high schools in China. Hence, the lesson plans presented in this article have been designed with a particular group of public junior high school students in China in mind, where English is a compulsory subject. Based on the CEFR, the language proficiency level of the students can be said to be B2. The class consists of approximately 40 students with an equal mix of male and female students.

This paper discusses pedagogical implications, the theoretical background to a GBA, and previous GBA-related research. Following this, Lesson Plans 1 and 2 are presented, which aim to teach students the fundamental structure of an email, expose them to linguistic elements and sentence structures related to job recommendations, and provide them with the opportunity to engage in independent email writing to recommend a job to a friend. Furthermore, Lesson Plan 3 aims to teach students how to write a recipe. These lesson plans are supported by guidelines to assist teachers in their use, and a brief section on the limitations of a GBA in teaching writing follows this section.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES

The development stage of the genre-based approach

The genre-based theory is rooted in the systemic functional linguistics of Michael Halliday (1994), and it was further developed by Martin (1999a, 1999b) and Rothery (1996) – two prominent scholars during the early stage of systemic functional genre analysis (Paltridge, 2014). Martin and Rothery doubted the ability of progressivism in English teaching to benefit working-class students and instead believed that it would favour middle-class students (Whittaker et al., 2006). Similarly, genre theorists from the Sydney School advocated the use of genre theory and pedagogy for students whose 'voice is closest to the literate culture of power in industrial societies' (Whittaker et al., 2006) to tackle this language-related inequality and solve the literacy needs of students (Christie & Martin, 1997; White et al., 2015). Over time, genre pedagogy has become increasingly common in second language (L2) writing courses as a result of communicative approaches and due to increased comprehension of literacy (Hyland, 2004b).

Theoretical framework of the genre-based approach

The theoretical framework of the genre-based approach has five stages. These stages include (1) building the context, (2) modelling and deconstructing the text, (3) joint construction of the text, (4) independent construction of the text, and (5) linking related texts. These stages are explained below.
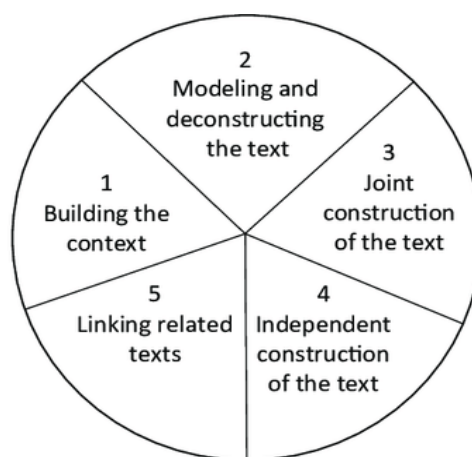

Figure 1. The stages of a genre-based approach (Feez, 1998)

First, building the context emphasises the importance of understanding the background and meaning of texts before engaging in writing. During this stage, teachers seek to gain a greater awareness of learners' life experiences to enhance their comprehension. Second, modelling and deconstructing the text involves encouraging students to analyse how the events are arranged in the model texts and to identify the structural and linguistic characteristics employed. Engaging in discussions regarding these aspects further enhances their understanding. Third, joint construction of the text refers to students collaborating in group projects, responding to guided inquiries, gathering information, and reconstructing, for example, a recount or story based on the model texts. Fourth, in the next stage – independent construction of the text – students are expected to produce their writing text independently, with teachers assisting only when necessary. Finally, linking related texts encourages students to compare what they have learned with different genres, thus aiding their comprehension of how genres are used to achieve specific goals. This comparative analysis enhances their overall understanding of genre-based writing.

Review of previous empirical research on the genre-based approach

To assess the effectiveness of a GBA in teaching writing, scholars (e.g., Abdel-Malek, 2020; Dyson, 2016; Mingsakoon & Srinon, 2018; Nagao, 2022; Wicaksono et al., 2022) have conducted empirical research to investigate its impact on students' writing performance and skills. Wicaksono et al. (2022) found that using the GBA facilitated students' text creation and ability to achieve success. Similarly, Dyson (2016) found that when comparing a GBA with an alternate approach used in an EAP program, the GBA was superior in overall performance.

Other researchers (e.g., Abdel-Malek, 2020; Mingsakoon & Srinon, 2018; Nagao, 2022) have explored using the genre-based approach to improve students' writing performance in various contexts. Mingsakoon and Srinon (2018) showed that a GBA enhanced Thai EFL upper secondary school students' comprehension and writing skills in recounts. Additionally, Abdel-Malek (2020) found that a GBA empowered Arabic students to expand their linguistic repertoire in addressing the sociocultural purpose of recounts of habitual events. Nagao (2022) employed a GBA to instruct Japanese EFL university students in descriptive report writing and found that both low- and high-proficiency EFL students demonstrated enhanced comprehension of essays. However, they derived benefits from distinct aspects. In China, Deng et al. (2014) demonstrated that genre-based training could improve students' genre awareness, while Cai (2016), in exploring the effectiveness of a GBA in teaching and learning academic lexical phrases, found that employing an integrated GBA effectively assisted master's students' acquisition of this language feature. Finally, He (2022) found that implementing a GBA could enhance persuasive skills in advertisement writing among college students.

Challenges exist around the implementation and instruction of a GBA. Regarding the former, research is needed to address (1) teachers' concerns around their limitations in understanding the fundamental principles of a GBA and (2) how to find suitable material relevant to students' lived experiences (Shi, 2015; Syafitri, 2018). Regarding the latter, research should focus on providing sufficient detail around the generic structure of written texts during writing instruction (Liu & Chen, 2022; Shi, 2015).

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE THREE LESSON PLANS

The three lesson plans presented below are designed as part of a broader EFL syllabus in a high school context in China (15–18-year-old students), which aims to

develop students' writing skills in authentic situations. Lesson Plans 1 and 2 are designed to teach students how to write an email to recommend a job to a friend. In doing so, students learn certain conventions of email writing while gaining an awareness of the specific functional language and content used in emails written with a purpose to recommend. Lesson Plan 3 is designed to promote familiarity with reading recipes while also developing writing skills in creating a recipe. Since these students may be travelling overseas in the future, the skill of reading recipes and subsequently cooking the dish in question is considered necessary, and it is argued that writing a recipe through a GBA will enhance their understanding of the different parts of a recipe.

The learning outcomes that relate to these lesson plans are that students will learn (1) the conventions of writing an email, (2) the content and functional language related to writing an email to recommend a job to a friend, and (3) vocabulary and functional language (e.g., imperatives) used in writing a recipe. Other skills that will be developed through these lesson plans are (1) critical thinking skills, (2) interactive skills through group work, and (3) making links between the content of the writing tasks and prior knowledge.

LESSON PLANS

The following three lesson plans have been designed for teaching 15-18-year-old high school students in China. The lesson plans are divided into three parts: (1) lesson procedures, (2) what the teacher will do, and (3) what the students will do, thus providing teachers with a snapshot of what the teacher and students will be doing at any one time. Regarding the lesson procedures, three stages will be delivered in one class due to the duration of a given class in high school. The number of steps in each stage may differ depending on the aim of the stage.

Figure 2 presents Lesson Plan 1, which aims to teach students how to write an email to recommend a job to their friends.

Lesson Plan 1		
Topic: To write an email to recommend a job *Time*: 50 minutes *Grouping*: 4 groups *Material*: four phones, handouts, a job-search website *Objectives*: To learn the structure of an email. To learn job-related lexis. To practice writing an email.		
Lesson Procedures	**What the teacher will do**	**What the students will do**
Building the context (10 minutes)		
Step 1: Establish links to students' prior experience	Ask the following questions: What kind of job do you want to do in the future? What do you consider important when applying for a job (e.g., salary, working time, etc.)?	In groups, discuss these questions.
Step 2: Build the relevant contextual background	The teacher uses authentic materials where possible: Open the job search websites to show how to use the job website (see Appendix 1). Ask students to interview one student in their groups about their favourite job and then search for this job on the job website to finish the task (see Appendix 2).	Complete Handout 1 (see Appendix 2).
Note: Before the class, the teacher distributed four smartphones to the groups and signed them up for the job website.		

Figure 2 Lesson Plan 1

Modelling and deconstructing the text (20 minutes)		
Step 1: Model text	Provide students with the sample text (see Appendix 3). Ask students to identify the genre and discuss the structure of the text.	Discuss in pairs. Choose one person as a representative to answer the class report.
Step 2: Deconstruct the email structure	Analyse the structure and identify the main features of the email (see Appendix 4).	Participate in the whole-class activity.
Step 3: Deconstruct the content of the sample text	Distribute Handout 2 (see Appendix 5)	Please read the email and answer the questions (see Appendix 5) by discussing them in groups.
Joint Construction (20 minutes)		
Step 1: Matching activity	Distribute the matching activity to the students (see Appendix 6)	Students finish the matching in groups.
Step 2: Reassembly exercise	The teacher asks the students to answer the following questions while reading the model text: What kinds of verbs or modal verbs are used in this text? Circle these modal verbs. Finish Handout 3 (see Appendix 7).	In groups, students circle the modal verbs in the text (see Appendix 7).
Step 3: Joint construction of the text	Instruct students to: Choose a job in their groups. Collaborate to write a job recommendation for another group. Follow the structure of Handout 4 (see Appendix 8)	In groups, students complete Handout 4 (see Appendix 8).

Figure 2 Lesson Plan 1 (continued)

Figure 3 presents Lesson Plan 2, which focuses students on the actual independent writing of the email to recommend a job to their friend.

Lesson Plan 2		
Topic: Learn how to write an email to recommend a job to your friends *Time*: 40 minutes *Objectives*: To write an individual email to recommend a job to a friend. To learn the specific features to be included in an email.		
Lesson Procedures	**What the teacher will do**	**What the students will do**
Independent construction (30 minutes)		
Step 1: Review	Guide students in reviewing an email's structure and job recommendations' content.	Review specific handouts and materials used in previous lessons on the structure of an email.
Step 2: Independent construction	Give students the writing topic: Write an email recommending a job to your partner based on the interview content in handout 1.	Students are given 25 minutes to complete the writing task. Students can use the sentence structure they learned from the sample text.
Step 3: Provide help	Monitor students and provide support if needed.	Students write their respective emails.
Linking related texts (10 minutes)		
Step1: Reflection	Ask students to reflect on the following: What is the function of an email?	In pairs, students discuss this question and summarise the key points.
Step 2: Comparing	Provide students with several other emails to summarise the key points of an email (see Appendix 9).	

Figure 3 Lesson Plan 2

Figure 4 presents Lesson Plan 3, which aims to teach how to write a recipe. The content for this lesson comes from an authentic cookbook. Given the simplistic

nature of the model text for this lesson plan (i.e., ingredients and instructions), the five stages of the GBA can be completed in one lesson.

Lesson Plan 3		
Topic: To learn how to write a recipe *Time*: 50 minutes *Grouping*: 4 groups *Materials*: Dictionaries and a bowl of salad *Objectives*: To learn specific vocabulary and phrases about recipes. To know the conventions of a recipe. To practice writing a recipe.		
Lesson Procedures	**What the teacher will do**	**What the students will do**
Building a context (5 minutes)		
Step 1: Lead in	Show students a bowl of salad and ask the following question: How many ingredients can you see in this bowl?	Think, pair, share. Different students from each pair answer the question.
Step 2: Link to prior knowledge and build related knowledge	Ask the students: Imagine you are making a salad. Write down the ingredients you want to include.	In groups, discuss this question. One person in the group writes down the ingredients for the salad (see Appendix 10, Handout 5).
Modelling and deconstructing the text (10 minutes)		
Step1: Model text	Show students a model text of a salad recipe (see Appendix 11).	
Step 2: Deconstructing the structure	Ask students to discuss the following: What textual features should be included in a recipe? Ask students to complete the matching activity based on the structure of this text.	Finish the matching activity for the recipe text (see Appendix 12).

Figure 4: Lesson Plan 3

Step 3: Deconstructing the context	Ask students to categorise the ingredients by bowl and platter and fill in the blanks (see Appendix 13, Handout 6).	In pairs, students complete Handout 6.
Note: Since this recipe is from authentic material, some words are difficult for students at this level. Students are advised to bring their dictionaries to the class.		
Joint Construction (15 minutes)		
Step 1: Circle keywords	Ask students to circle the verbs and verb phrases in the text. Encourage students to use a dictionary to check unfamiliar vocabulary.	In groups, students circle the verbs and verb phrases in the recipe text.
Step 2: Reassembly exercise	Ask students to select the correct verbs to complete the flow chart according to the sample text (see Appendix 14).	In groups, students complete Handout 7.
Step 3: Joint construction	Ask each group to choose a particular type of salad that they would like to make. Ask groups to write a recipe for their chosen salad. Encourage students to use the verbs and verb phrases learned in Step 2.	In groups, students collaborate to write a salad recipe using the verbs and verb phrases learned in Step 2.
Independent construction (15 minutes)		
Step 1: Independent construction	Assign the following 15-minute individual writing task: Write a salad recipe. Please encourage students to use the verbs and sentences they learned before.	Students write their recipes.

Figure 4: Lesson Plan 3 (continued)

Step 2: Monitor	Monitor the students and provide help if necessary.	
Linking related texts (5 minutes)		
Step 1: Reflection	Guide students in reflecting on the following question: What is the purpose of a recipe?	In pairs, students discuss this question.
Step 2: Comparing	Provide students with other recipes to identify and summarise commonalities (see Appendix 15). Elicit ideas from students.	As a whole-class discussion, students provide ideas.

Figure 4: Lesson Plan 3 (continued)

HOW TO APPLY THESE LESSON PLANS

Guidelines for teachers

Teachers can consider the following guidelines when using these three lesson plans.

Lesson Plan 1

- Check the job-search website in advance to ensure that students will be able to log on successfully.

- Ensure all materials are prepared before class.

- During Step 2, teachers should specify the time available (i.e., 7 minutes) for job searching to prevent excessive time spent on this step.

- The primary purpose of Step 2 is to help students to know the modal verbs used to express the job requirements. Teachers can also use other activities to achieve this goal.

Lesson Plan 2

- In the beginning, teachers should guide students in reviewing what they have learned in the previous class to help students transition more smoothly into independent writing.

- During the independent stage, teachers should only offer assistance when needed, and students should be reminded to finish their tasks within the given time.

Lesson Plan 3

- The recipe contains some difficult words. Before class, teachers should tell students to bring a dictionary. In Step 1 of modelling and deconstructing the text, teachers can choose one authentic recipe from other sources, but they should ensure that this recipe is suitable for students' language level.

- During the joint construction stage *(Steps 1 and 2)*, the grammar in a recipe is typically not complicated, so the teacher should emphasise the recipe's vocabulary and procedural aspects.

- During the same stage *(Step 3)*, students may have different opinions about what kinds of salad and ingredients they will use. If students struggle to agree, teachers should assist in the decision-making process.

LIMITATIONS OF GBA FOR DESIGNING LESSON PLANS

As we have developed these lesson plans, we recognise some potential limitations of a GBA in terms of the potential for decontextualisation in the classroom, unintentionally stifling creativity through the provision of samples, and focusing on a formula for writing rather than focusing on the purpose of writing. Teachers need to be mindful of the importance of creating a context in the classroom that allows the students to immerse themselves in the genre. Related to this, Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that genres are too tricky and diverse to be extracted from their contexts and taught in educational settings. Furthermore, in the name of promoting student creativity, teachers should be aware that the provision of samples in the writing process could lend itself to limiting expression. Hyland (2004b) contends that the presence of samples within the GBA may impose constraints that limit the creative potential of individual writers. Finally, teachers

also need to be mindful of the importance of emphasising the purpose of the written text and refrain from approaching instruction from a formulaic standpoint that needs to be taught as part of the curriculum. Related to this, Derewianka (2015) argues that, in the classroom setting, genres are usually taught merely as items to be included in the curriculum, focusing on following a set formula rather than beginning with the underlying purpose of a task. In light of the above possible limitations, teachers need to be mindful of these when applying lesson plans.

CONCLUSION

Based on an understanding of a GBA, this paper was undertaken to design three lesson plans to improve the writing performance of Chinese students in EFL classes. These three lesson plans followed the five steps of the teaching-learning cycle to develop the learning material. Drawing from this process, it is suggested that a GBA effectively addresses writing difficulties in EFL classrooms. One of the primary reasons for its effectiveness is that students can learn the text's language features and social functions and how to apply this approach to subsequent writing tasks. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers incorporate this approach into their writing classes. Teachers can make necessary adjustments based on their circumstances to ensure successful implementation in diverse classrooms.

AUTHORS

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The job search website
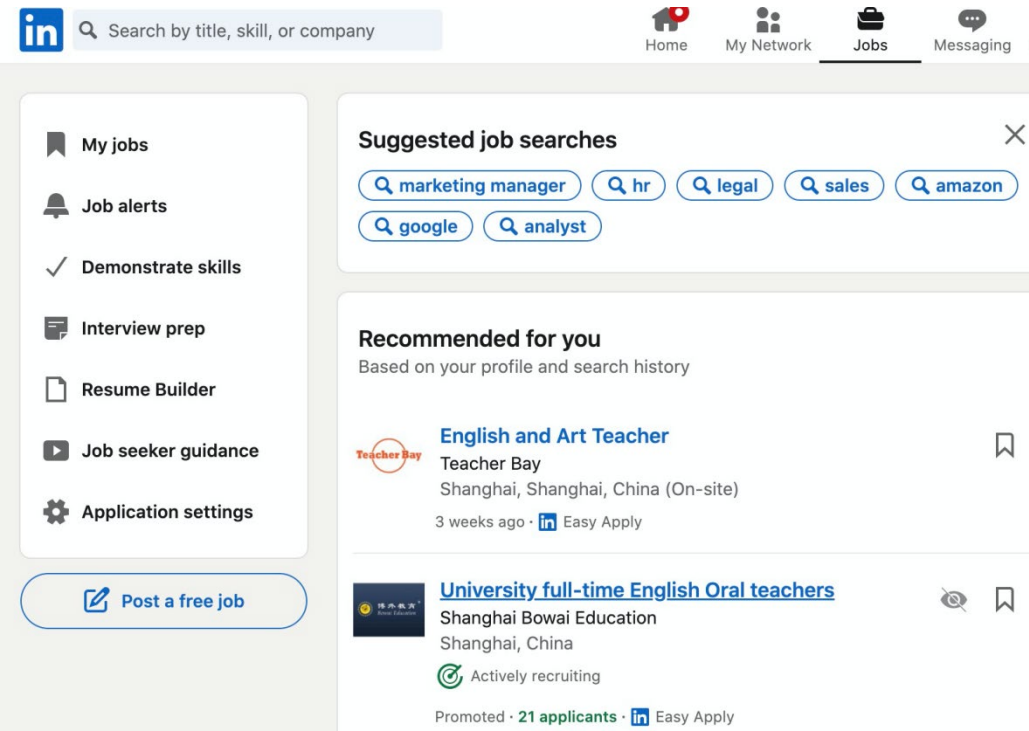
Appendix 2: Handout 1

Your partner will use a job website to find a job that interests him/her. Interview your partner to complete the table below.

Name of Interviewee	
Job	
Salary	
Location	
Required skills	
Working hours	

Appendix 3: Model email (1)

To: erik1221@cup.org
From: ingrid_soljberg@cup.org
Subject: IT'S MUM – LOOK AT THIS JOB!

Erik,

I've found a great job for you. It's in Oslo and I know you want to live there. Here's the link: www.itcompany42.org/jobs I know this **company**.

The job is for a software[3] **engineer**. They pay £4,150 per month!

You must have studied Computer Science at university, and you have to have two years' experience. It also says that you must know some Norwegian. You don't have to speak Norwegian a lot, so it's OK for you.

Let me know what you think!

Love,

Mum

Appendix 4: The main features of an email
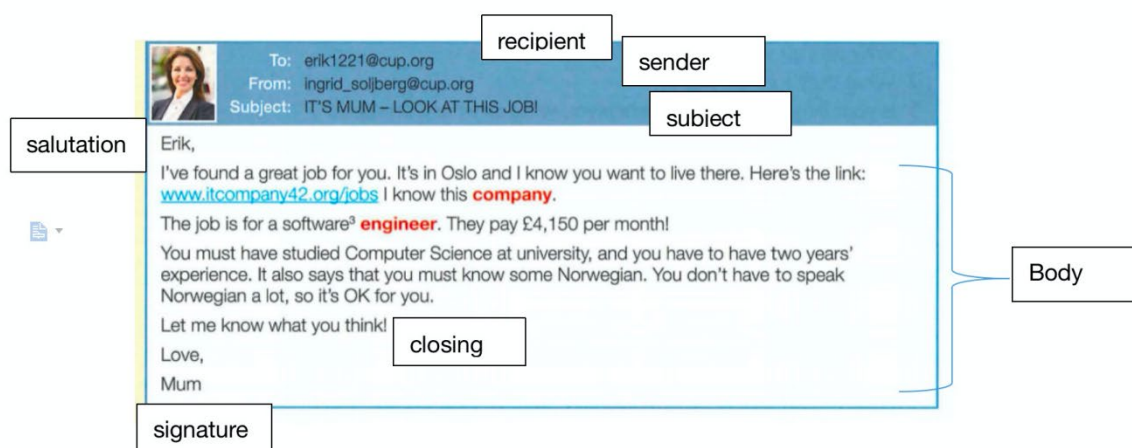
Appendix 5: Handout 2

The email to Erik is a job named _____

The pay for Erik's job is_____

Where is the job location? _____

What kinds of requirements are for this job? _____

Why does his mum recommend this job to him? _____

Appendix 6: Matching Activity

Subject	Salutation	Body	Closing
Signature	Sender	Recipient	

To: erik1221@cup.org

From: ingrid_soljberg@cup.org

Subject: IT'S MUM-LOOK AT THIS JOB!

Erik,

I've found a great job for you. It's in Oslo and I know you want to live there. Here's the link: www.itcomany 42.org/jobs I know this company.
The job is for a software engineer. They pay $ 4150 per month!

You must have studied computer science at university, and you have to have two years' experience. It also says that you must know some Norwegian. You do not have to speak Norwegian a lot, so it's OK for you.
Let me know what you think!

Love,

Mum

Appendix 7: Handout 3

Job requirements for software engineer

You must_____

You have to _____

You must know_____

You do not have to _____

Appendix 8: Handout 4

To:

From:

Subject:

____,

I have found a job for you. It's in _____. The job is for_____. They pay_____. You must_____, and you have to _____. You must know_____. You don't have to _____.

Best wishes

Appendix 9: Model email (2)

Photography Studio Grand Opening!

To (Olenna Mason ✕) (Julia Fillory ✕) (Henri Rousseau ✕)

Cc Bcc

Photography Studio Grand Opening!

Hi Everyone,

I have exciting news for you! This Saturday will the the grand opening of my new studio, EC Photography! It will be from 10:00 to 4:00. There will be entertainment and lots of food, so come out and enjoy the festivities!

Hope to see you there!
Elena

Appendix 10: Handout 5

Ingredients for salad:

Appendix 11: Sample text

Chicken & pesto salad

Serves 4 **Prep** 10 mins

1 avocado, stoned, peeled,
  finely chopped
1 small red onion, finely chopped
250g cherry tomatoes, halved
1 continental cucumber,
  coarsely chopped
2 tbs Coles Basil Pesto
1 tbs lemon juice
350g Moira Mac's Classic Roasted
  Chicken Breast, chopped
60g pkt Coles Australian Baby Spinach

1. Combine avocado, onion, tomato and cucumber in a large bowl.
2. Combine the pesto and lemon juice in a large bowl. Add half the chicken and toss to combine.
3. Arrange the spinach on a serving platter. Top with chicken mixture and avocado mixture. Top with remaining chicken. Season with pepper. →

Appendix 12: Matching activity

Procedure   time   ingredient   salad name
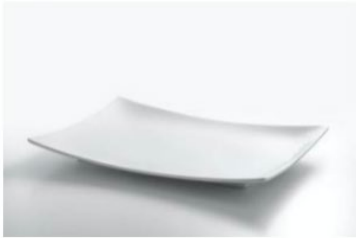
Chicken&pesto salad

prep 10 minutes

1 Avocado, stoned, peeled, finely chopped;

1 small red onion, finely chopped ;

250g cherry tomatoes, halved

1 continental cucumber, coarsely chopped;

2tbs coles basil pesto;

1 tbs lemon juice;

350g Moira Mac's classic Roasted chicken Breast, chopped;

60 g pkt Coles Australian Baby Spinach

1. Combine avocado, onion, tomato and cucumber in a large bowl.

2. Combine the pesto and lemon juice in a large bowl. Add half the chicken and toss to combine.

3. Arrange the spinach on a serving platter. Top with chicken mixture and avocado mixture. Top with remaining chicken. Season with pepper.
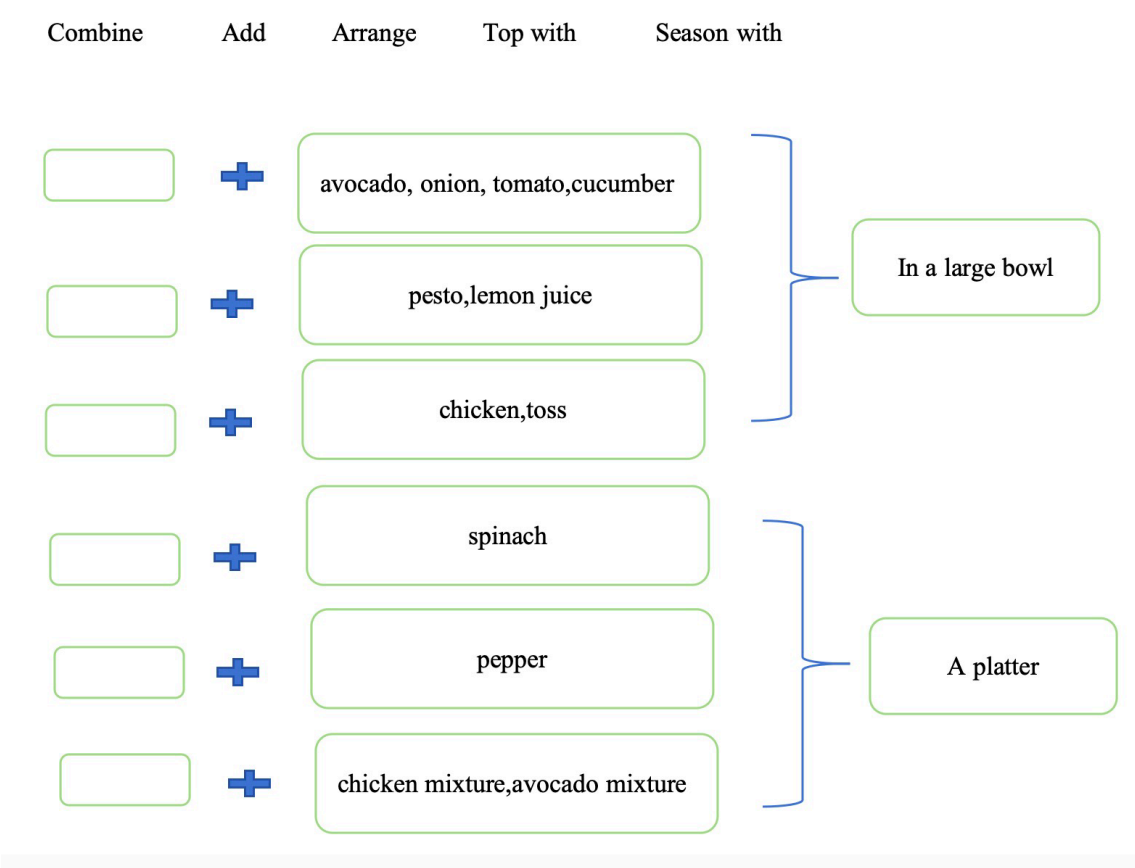
Appendix 13: Handout 6

Ingredients in a bowl : _____

Ingredients on a platter: _____

Appendix 14: Handout 7

Combine   Add   Arrange   Top with   Season with

☐	➕	avocado, onion, tomato,cucumber
☐	➕	pesto,lemon juice
☐	➕	chicken,toss

In a large bowl

☐	➕	spinach
☐	➕	pepper
☐	➕	chicken mixture,avocado mixture

A platter

Appendix 15

FRIDAY

Chicken skewers with easy fried rice

Serves 4   **Prep & cooking** 20 mins

500g Coles RSPCA Approved Chicken
   Kebabs with Thai Rub[†]
250g pkt microwavable jasmine rice
400g pkt Coles Kitchen Ready to
   Stir Fry Family Mix
1 bunch coriander, leaves picked,
   stems finely chopped
2 tbs Roll'd Nuoc Mam Sauce

1. Heat a greased chargrill on high. Cook the skewers, turning occasionally, for 8-10 mins or until lightly charred and cooked through. Transfer to a plate. Loosely cover with foil and set aside for 5 mins to rest.
2. Meanwhile, heat a large non-stick frying pan over high heat. Add the rice and stir-fry mix and cook, tossing, for 5 mins or until the vegetables are just tender. Add the coriander stem and nuoc mam sauce and toss to combine.
3. Divide rice mixture among plates. Top with skewers and coriander leaves. ●

Conversation with Professor Ken Cruickshank

Aek Phakiti[1]

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ABSTRACT

Conversation with Professor Ken Cruickshank is a key component of the multimodal approach adopted by *The University of Sydney Journal of TESOL.* In this engaging dialogue, we delve into Professor Cruickshank's passions for TESOL and TESOL research, his ongoing research endeavours, his impactful Sydney Institute for Community Language Education, and his valuable advice for PhD students on sustaining motivation throughout their academic journeys. Moreover, Professor Cruickshank shares his insights and guidance for TESOL coursework students and teachers. We trust that you will find this conversation enlightening and enriching.

Keywords: Ken Cruickshank, TESOL research, community language education, advice for PhD students, advice for TESOL postgraduate students and teachers

THE CONVERSATION

Click the image to watch.

URL

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kZm6Og8HdFc&t=26s

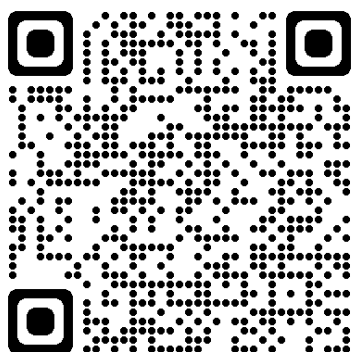**Scan Me**

Book review: L. Woodrow (2022). Introducing researching English for specific purposes. Routledge.

Louise Kaktins[1]

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Woodrow's *Introducing Researching English for Specific Purposes* is a comprehensive tome that explores key aspects of research into this increasingly significant branch of English language teaching. In the contemporary era, English is no longer a matter of acquiring another language; rather, it occupies a unique category among languages as an essential generic skill for career advancement (Kawsar, 2023). Under these circumstances, acquiring specialised English language knowledge streamlined for career advancement has far-reaching professional and economic consequences. Therefore, as an acknowledged expert in her discipline, Woodrow's contribution is a valuable and timely addition to the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) field by providing a seminal handbook for those wishing to undertake research in this area.

At the outset, a key area of focus in Woodrow's book is designing a research project (Chapter 2), including potential theoretical frameworks (Chapter 3) and researchable topics (Chapter 4). She initially focuses on the area of developing a research project (Chapter 2), explaining the typical stages leading to the writing of a research proposal. As she acknowledges, identifying and streamlining a suitable topic is often challenging for novice researchers; therefore, she includes extensive recommendations for suitable ESP research topics. The chapter highlights the criticality of reviewing the literature. She suggests four core stages to accomplish the latter: acquiring a basic knowledge of the area; reading widely to become familiar with key theories, notable scholars, current debates and seminal research papers; identifying a gap in the literature; and then writing the literature review. Importantly she also includes practical advice on ways to approach the task of

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reading the literature, which for academic purposes is notoriously voluminous and time-consuming. This chapter sets the pace for the rest of the book with the consistent inclusion of figures featuring authentic examples from dissertations and journal articles, to illustrate her explanations. This strategy becomes a defining feature of her book. Another is the inclusion of summary tables providing easy accessibility to key points in the chapter. Such figures and tables are interspersed throughout each chapter. For those wishing to immediately access or review specific examples, at the start of the book discrete tables of contents are provided for figures as well as tables.

Theoretical conceptualisations in ESP research (Chapter 3), discussed by Woodrow, include genre and intercultural perspectives, of which English as a lingua franca (ELF), as well as its offshoot, business English as a lingua franca (BELF), academic literacies theory, and critical perspectives. Of these, the first – genre theory – has enjoyed widespread popularity among ESP researchers, given that specific genres are core to teaching ESP. Here, Woodrow acknowledges the contribution of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) in setting the benchmark for much ESP research. Woodrow, next, groups intercultural perspectives with English as a lingua franca, business English as a lingua franca, and critical perspectives. Finally, she considers the academic literacies approach, aligned with English for Academic Purposes (EAP), specifically highlighting its application to tertiary study and the core skill of academic writing.

Considering Woodrow's focus on academic literacies in the previous chapter, it is unsurprising that she starts Chapter 4 (on potential research topics) with a close examination of English for Academic Purposes. In this chapter, she draws on authentic examples from two particularly highly regarded academic journals in the ESP/EAP area, namely *English for Specific Purposes* and the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. This way, she directs novices to high-quality research sources and encourages them to familiarise themselves with journals to which they may potentially submit articles in the future.

A sizable portion of the book—Chapters 5 through 8—is devoted to methodological approaches in ESP research, including extended chapters on quantitative (Chapter 6) and qualitative (Chapter 7) research.

To help novice researchers in their choice of appropriate methodology, Woodrow again complements her wider discussion with explicit tables to support such decision-making. For example, the suite of tables in Chapter 7 differentiates

between quantitative and qualitative research design (Table 7.1, p. 121) and highlights the advantages/disadvantages of qualitative research (Table 7.2, p.121). Earlier in Chapter 6, the advantages/disadvantages of quantitative research (Table 6.3, pp. 88-89) are presented. To complement, there are also examples of quantitative research questions (Table 6.1, p. 88) and qualitative research questions (Table 6.2, p. 88). If anything, this particular arrangement might have been streamlined for more cohesive progression such that Table 7.1 would have been better located in Chapter 5 which presents a general overview of ESP research design and Table 6.2 restricted to the chapter on qualitative research. This is a minor criticism in an otherwise finely-tuned compositional layout aligning with the target audience.

The section on methodology continues in Chapter 8, focusing on validity, reliability and ethics. Woodrow differentiates between what is accepted as reliability in quantitative research and validity in qualitative research. In Table 8.2 (p. 162), she classifies quantitative research as subject to internal and external reliability and internal, external and construct validity. In contrast, qualitative research is subject to dependability, credibility, transferability and confirmability. She then identifies and addresses the challenges to these standards (Table 8.3, pp. 164-165). This chapter also considers the ethical aspects permeating the entire research process. Woodrow deconstructs some general guidelines for ethical research (Table 8.4, p. 167) and some foci related to institutional ethics applications (Table 8.5, p.168). Her final recommendation is that researchers engage in self-reflexive practice, especially by keeping an ongoing research diary.

Chapter 9 entitled "Using research findings" provides a solid framework for structuring the final product – specifically a dissertation for a master's degree. The examples included in this chapter are taken from the British Council TESOL dissertation awards site, and hyperlinks are included should readers wish to access the full dissertations. Woodrow starts with a comparison of a dissertation and a journal article and how the purpose and content of sections are differentiated (pp. 174-175). She continues with detailed explanations of the key dissertation sections – introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion, and conclusion – supported by the ever-present authentic exemplars and summary tables.

The final chapter (Chapter 10) directs readers to wide-ranging resources for developing and conducting ESP research including reliable academic journals, handbooks, data analysis software packages, and useful corpora. There is a suite of

Appendices featuring examples of associated official documentation that students will encounter during their research journey, such as a Participant Consent Form (p. 222), followed by a Glossary (pp. 227-233).

Other more current publications concerned with methodologies and research have done so partially with a broader focus on ESP, such as Belcher, Johns and Paltridge (2011) and Paltridge and Starfield (2013). Coxhead (2017), while devoting her entire book to quantitative and qualitative ESP perspectives, has done so with an exclusive focus on specialised vocabulary. Woodrow's book complements these earlier publications and adds a further dimension by providing an extremely comprehensive, in-depth, research-dedicated stand-alone ESP tome that will not only please experts in the field but is predicted to prove an invaluable resource for novice researchers, such as new postgraduates, who can continue revisiting this work at different stages as their research trajectory warrants. Those students who are fledging researchers at the start of their research journey will most benefit from Woodrow's work as she deconstructs and demystifies the multifaceted world of research in general and ESP research in particular.

Her meticulous sequential arrangement of the book and her explicit efforts to break down the more esoteric aspects will facilitate students' transition from research interns to confident independent researchers. This is a timely publication in an era when research is becoming a benchmark for professional development and academic promotion. While ESP practitioners would be the primary beneficiaries, it is evident that much of the book can similarly be utilised more universally as a seminal framework for undertaking research in various other disciplines.

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and *The Palgrave handbook of youth mobility and educational migration* (2021, Palgrave Macmillan).

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