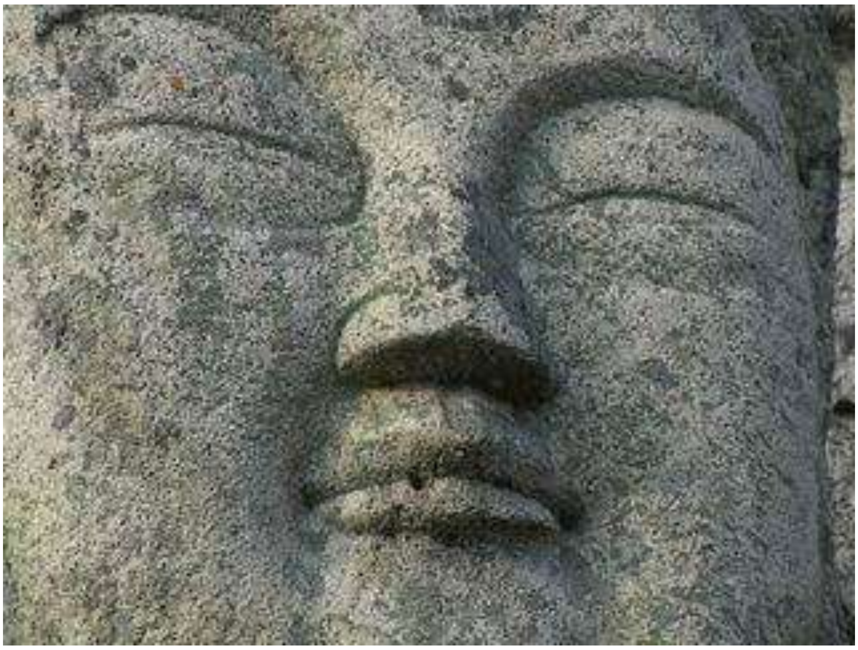
ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

The Asian EFL Journal
Professional Teaching Articles – CEBU Conference Issue (4)
November 2011
Volume 56



Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson and Roger Nunn

Published by the Asian EFL Journal Press

Asian EFL Journal Press
A Division of Time Taylor International Ltd

http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Publisher: Dr. Paul Robertson
Chief Editor: Dr. Roger Nunn
Guest and Production Editor: John Adamson

ISSN 1738-1460

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Evidence-Based Teaching: Implications for Task-Based Language Teaching

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has become a most fashionable pedagogical approach among foreign language teachers in the past few years. But how effective is it? How do we know it works? Can we compare and benchmark it against other classroom techniques and activities? This article will explore how we can evaluate TBLT as opposed to other classroom techniques and activities. In particular it will examine evidence and will draw attention to the fact that TBLT's effectiveness as a teaching methodology is not supported by hard data. It will introduce and examine an approach to teaching that was pioneered in primary, secondary and medical schools in the UK and US called 'Evidence-Based Teaching' (EBT) and will make a case for adopting an evidence-based outlook in second language teaching. EBT is the systematic use of those classroom methods, activities and techniques that shows draws upon evidence of its effectiveness as a classroom method. It compares the effectiveness of certain techniques relative to other ones by the use of effect-size. Effect-size is a particularly reliable and accurate tool for measuring the quality of a given initiative or instruction. Could EBT be successfully applied to second language teaching? It is hoped that just as we now have sound empirical knowledge of the effectiveness of school-teaching techniques such as reciprocal teaching (0.86), feedback (0.81), and whole-class interactive teaching (0.81), we can also acquire sound empirical knowledge of the effectiveness of foreign language teaching techniques such as TBLT, referential questions/answers, cued narratives, and information gap activities.

Keywords: Task-Based Language Teaching, Evidence-Based Teaching

Introduction

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has become ‘the most fashionable style’ among foreign language teachers in the past few years (Cook, 2008, p. 257). This new approach to language teaching has gained considerable support from within applied linguistics due, in large part, to its links to the communicative approach to teaching. Although different task-based approaches exist today (Johnson, 2008, p. 184), TBLT, in its broadest sense, is based on ‘the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223). But how effective is it? How do we know it works? Can we compare and benchmark it against other classroom techniques and activities?

This article will very briefly peruse some of the assumptions, principles and claims of TBLT. Specifically, it will explore how we can evaluate TBLT as opposed to rival, competing classroom techniques and activities. In particular it will examine the evidence and it will draw attention to the fact that TBLT’s effectiveness as a teaching methodology is not supported by hard data. It will introduce and examine an approach to teaching that was pioneered in primary, secondary and medical schools in the UK and US called ‘Evidence-Based Teaching’ (EBT) and will make a case for adopting an evidence-based outlook in second language teaching.

The search for the single, ideal, ‘best method’ has occupied the language teaching profession for most of the twentieth century (Brown, 2002, p. 9). Nonetheless applied linguists have come to the conclusion that this obsession was counterproductive; methods were ‘too prescriptive’, ‘quite distinctive at the early beginning stages…and rather indistinguishable from each other a later stages’, and laden with ‘interested knowledge- the quasi-political or mercenary agendas of their proponents’ (Ibid., p. 10). For our purposes however, the most important reason for not focusing on methods is that it is very difficult to test and evaluate them.

> It was once thought that methods could be empirically tested by scientific quantification to determine which one is “best”. We have now discovered that something as artful and intuitive as language pedagogy cannot ever be so clearly verified by empirical validation (Ibid.).

Brown has called for a reconsideration of the obsession with finding the single, ‘best method’, so prevalent in the language teaching profession in the 1970 and 1980s. What was needed back then was not a new method. Instead, what was needed is to ‘get on with the business of unifying our approach to language teaching and of designing effective tasks and techniques informed by that approach’ (Ibid., p. 11). Hence, this article will not be a comparison of the effectiveness TBLT with other ‘methods’ in language teaching, such as the ‘direct method’, ‘suggestopedia’, etc. Rather than focusing on ‘method’ in the strict sense of the word, this article will focus on a need for a comparison of discrete techniques, activities, and tasks (in the general sense) that are used in foreign language pedagogy. We must now turn our attention to the need for a framework for deciding ‘what works’ and ‘how X compares to Y’ in foreign language teaching.

Task-Based Language Teaching

What exactly is a task? No consensus exists within the research nor within the language pedagogy community regarding what constitutes one, nor how it is different from an ‘activity’ or ‘exercise’ (Ellis, 2003, p. 2). Tasks as used by the practitioners of the task-based approach come in different forms. Willis (1996) identifies at least six task types; listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences, and creative tasks. Although the authors cannot agree on a single definition of a ‘task’, Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001) have attempted a ‘basic, all-purpose’ definition:

> A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with the emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective, and which is chosen so that it is most likely to provide information for learners and teachers which will help them in their own meaning. (2001, p. 11).

What theory underlies TBLT? Harmer (2007, p. 71) believes it is ‘informed by a belief that if students are focused on the completion of a task, they are just as likely to learn language as they are if they are focusing on language forms’. The approach is motivated primarily by a theory of learning rather than of language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 226). This theory argues that optimal learning takes place when learners focus on the communication of meaning and not on form. Indeed its proponents argue (Richards, 2002, p. 20):

> ...second language acquisition research shows that successful language learning involves learners in negotiation of meaning. In the process of negotiating with a speaker of the target language, the learner receives the kind of input needed to facilitate learning. It is proposed that classroom tasks which involve negotiation of meaning should form the basis for the language teaching curriculum, and that tasks can be used to facilitate practice of both of language forms and communicative functions.

What claims do TBLT's proponents make? Advocates make a number of claims. A central claim is that 'opportunities for production may force students to pay close attention to form and to the relationship between form and meaning' (Beglar & Hunt, 2002, p. 97). Tasks are thought to 'provide full opportunities for both input and output requirements, which are believed to be key processes in language learning' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 228). Tasks 'are also said to improve learner motivation and therefore promote learning' (Ibid. p. 229). Finally, it is also claimed that 'specific tasks can be designed to facilitate the use and learning of particular aspects of language' (Ibid.).

But can we substantiate those claims? What research has been conducted and how do they evaluate TBLT's supposed benefits? Casey, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-Ventura and Wa-Mbaleka (2003) have undertaken a meta-analysis, that is, a synthesis of the findings of fourteen disparate investigations, on the possible link between interaction in task-based activities and the acquisition of specific grammatical and lexical features. Their meta-analysis concluded that 'task-based interaction is more effective in promoting acquisition that tasks with little or no interaction' (Ibid., p. 120). Thus TBLT appears to be effective in aiding the acquisition of specific parts of the target language.

But what about the effectiveness of TBLT compared to rival classroom activities? 'There is as yet no process-product research formally comparing TBL with other mixed-mode methodologies (for example, with presentation, practice, production)' (Mitchell, 2000, p. 296). Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 241) state:

> Many aspects of TBLT have yet to be justified, such as proposed schemes for task types, task sequencing, and evaluation of task performance. And the basic assumption of Task-Based Language Teaching- that it provides for a more effective basis for teaching that other language teaching approaches- remain in the domain of ideology rather than fact.

Not only is there no comparative research for TBLT vis-à-vis other techniques, but also, there have been surprisingly few evaluations of task-based teaching, 'and a surprising lack of empirical information about complete task-based courses' (Ellis, 2003, p. 323). In addition, 'There have been few large-scale practical applications of it and little documentation concerning its implications or effectiveness as a basis for syllabus design, materials development, and classroom teaching' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 224). Finally, the claims made for it seem more like hypotheses than fact (Harmer, 2007, p. 74).

It is widely assumed that research 'informs' policy, or that research provides an 'evidential basis' for policy (Bridges, Smeyers & Smith, 2009, p. 4). But does this hold true for foreign language teaching? Educational practice in foreign and English language teaching (in the UK at least), developed firstly, as a result of a process of theorizing objectives such as 'communicative competence' and functional/notional syllabuses', and secondly, through the creation of theories of second language learning, and lastly through the elaboration of teaching interventions, techniques and activities. But as a matter of fact the teaching interventions 'have most typically been justified through a priori appeals to various types of language learning theory, rather than any systematic empirical demonstration of links with improved learning outcomes' (Mitchell, 2000, pp. 289-90). TBLT is a direct offshoot of the communicative approach to language teaching. Yet 'there is surprisingly little connection between communicative style and SLA research' (Cook, 2008, p. 250).

Hence, despite claims made by some researchers in applied linguistics, there is no easy link between research in second language acquisition and foreign language teaching methods. It has been largely teaching methodologists, and not research, who have originated the various language teaching approaches of the past 50 years. 'SLA research does not provide a magic solution that can be applied instantly to the contemporary classroom so much as a set of ideas that teachers can try out for themselves' (Cook, 2008, p. 11-12). Could certain teaching methodologies and approaches originating in other disciplines offer an alternative to foreign language teaching? Could educational research done in schools and universities on non-language subjects offer a viable alternative to applied linguistics and second language acquisition research?

Evidence-Based Teaching

Educational developers working in both higher and secondary education are now realizing that effective teaching- meaning, teaching for effective learning- 'has to be based on sound empirical evidence about the sort of teaching methods and approaches that produce particular learning outcomes' (Knapper, 2010, pp. 230-31). Moreover, 'teaching should be informed and evidence-based' (Ibid., p. 236) and an important aspect of evidence-informed practice 'needs to be accumulation and synthesis of relevant research evidence'. In particular, what is needed is evidence provided in overview articles that have the advantage of combining different kinds of evidence, giving an indication of how dependable it is (Pachler, 2003, p. 10).

EBT is the systematic use of those classroom methods, activities and techniques that show strong evidence of effectiveness. In short, EBT uses classroom methods that really work. It starts with a well-formulated inquiry regarding a certain teaching intervention or technique with a clear specification of the interventions, factors, and population in question, such as 'what is the effect of peer group tutoring on students' participation in learning' (Davies, 2004, p. 22). Moreover, EBT compares the effectiveness of certain techniques relative to other ones. 'In order to evaluate an educational initiative or strategy, you must compare it with any alternatives that might achieve the same goals. However good a strategy, there may be another that is even better' (Petty, 2009, p. 4).

Effect size is a particularly reliable and accurate tool for measuring the quality of a given initiative or instruction. It is a tried and tested experimental research method carried out by real teachers in real educational institutions wherein hundreds, even thousands of students are randomly divided into 'control' and 'experimental' groups. It is not possible to ensure that the 'control' and 'experimental' groups are identical in terms of students' ability, social background, etc. Nevertheless, it is still possible to compare two groups where the most important factors are controlled for, ensuring that they are similar in many significant ways.

The control group is taught using a conventional teaching method while the experimental one is taught using a different teaching intervention and the effect size consists of the expected higher achievement experienced by the latter group. This difference in achievement can be determined through the administration in both groups of a 'pre-test', before the teaching intervention is applied, and a 'post-test' afterwards. Ideally, both groups will get a similar score in the pre-test, and the experimental group should show a relative improvement over the control group in the post-test. The difference between the average marks between the two groups is the 'effect-size' (Ibid., pp. 53-55).

Indeed, effect sizes often take the form of well-designed and implemented randomized controlled trials. These trials are considered the 'gold standard' for evaluating an intervention's effectiveness, in fields such as medicine, welfare and employment policy, and psychology. Effect size is calculated as follows: Effect Size = [Mean of experimental group] – [Mean of control group] / Standard Deviation. Coe (2002, p. 1) states:

> Effect size' is simply a way of quantifying the size of the difference between two groups. It is easy to calculate, readily understood and can be applied to any measured outcome in Education or Social Science. It is particularly valuable for quantifying the effectiveness of a particular intervention, relative to some comparison. It allows us to move beyond the simplistic, 'Does it work

> or not?' to the far more sophisticated, 'How well does it work in a range of contexts?

Furthermore, Hattie (1999) adds:

> An effect-size provides a common expression of the magnitude of study outcomes for all types of outcome variables, such as school achievement. An effect-size of 1.0 indicates an increase of one standard deviation, typically associated with advancing children's achievement by one year, improving the rate of learning by 50%, or a correlation between some variable (e.g., amount of homework) and achievement of approximately .50. When implementing a new program, an effect-size of 1.0 would mean that approximately 95% of outcomes positively enhance achievement, or average students receiving that treatment would exceed 84% of student not receiving that treatment.

Let us consider an example of EBT applied to class size and achievement. It is widely believed that students learn more effectively in small classes. But is that really the case? Does class size affect student learning? In particular, do students learn more in classes with fewer students? What sort of evidence can indicate superior or more effective learning? Smeyers (2009, pp. 68-69) describes The Tennessee Studies of Class Size Project Star (Student/Teacher Achievement Ratio), which attempted to investigate the effects of class size on student achievement. It was a four year study that divided children into two groups: experimental and control. Smeyers (Ibid., p. 69) relates that:

> In the experimental classes, the class size was reduced from around 23 to 15, by approximately one-third, in kindergarten, first, second and third grades (ages 5-8); the children moved into regular-size classes in the fourth grade. There were three kinds of groups: classes one-third smaller that regular-size classes, regular-size classes without a teacher aide and regular-size classes with a teacher aide. The experiment was carried out in 79 schools in the first year; both children and teachers were randomly assigned to the classes. In the second year it included 76 schools with 331 classes including 6572 children in inner-city urban, suburban and rural schools.

The children's performance was assessed through the standardized Stanford Achievement Test and the curriculum-based Tennessee's Basic Skills First Test. The study found out that smaller classes did improve students' achievement in reading and arithmetic, subjects that were assessed in the two aforementioned tests. The improvement in achievement persisted several years after the pupils had moved to regular-size classes (Ibid.). The effect size of small classes as calculated in The Tennessee Studies of Class Size Project Star (Student/Teacher Achievement Ratio) is around .25 compared to regular sized classes (with a teacher aide) and around .10 compared to those without one (Mosteller, Light & Sachs, 1996, p. 819).

Hattie and Marzano (as cited in Petty, 2009) have separately analyzed literally hundreds of thousands of experiments involving tens of millions of students over a vast range of strategies and innovations. They have produced meta-analyses on the effect sizes of numerous teaching interventions. Based on these meta-analyses, Hattie elaborated a list of teaching interventions ranked in descending order of effectiveness in raising student achievement. To begin with, the activities that he characterizes as 'major influences' on achievement include reciprocal teaching (0.86), feedback (0.81), whole-class interactive teaching (0.81), strategy teaching (0.80), etc. Next, 'worth having' activities comprise creativity programs (0.52), peer influence (0.50), motivation (0.47), etc. After, 'in the middle' interventions contain advance organizers (0.46), concept mapping (0.45), homework (0.35), etc. Then, 'almost there' activities consist of 'remedial programs (0.35), computer skills training (0.32), problem-solving (0.30), etc. Finally, 'disaster' activities involve ability grouping (0.14), team teaching (0.06), and teacher expectations of learners (0.14).

What does all this mean for educators? Simply put, effect sizes enable us to compare the effectiveness of any given intervention vis-à-vis competing ones. They provide us with easily measurable, objective and impartial data with which we are able to make informed decisions regarding which techniques are 'best'. We can now choose to use only those activities or tasks (in the general sense) that have the highest average effect sizes and ignore those with low or middling scores.

Crookes and Chaudron (1991, pp. 52-54) categorized thirty-eight language teaching techniques ranging from controlled drills (drills, dialogues, reading aloud, display questions/answers, etc.) to semi-controlled (referential questions/answers, cued narratives, information gap activities, etc.) to free (role-plays, problem-solving, interviews, discussions, etc.). What effect sizes does each one have? Is second-language teaching amenable to effect size analysis? Could foreign-language teaching be evidence-based?

Conclusion

This paper has argued that some aspects of EBT can and should be applied to the teaching of foreign languages. It also calls for research on evidence-based teaching to be conducted in the domain of foreign and English language teaching. It is hoped that just as we now have sound empirical knowledge of the effectiveness of school-teaching techniques such as reciprocal teaching (0.86), feedback (0.81), whole-class interactive teaching (0.81), we can also acquire sound empirical knowledge of the effectiveness of foreign language teaching techniques such as TBLT, referential questions/answers, cued narratives, and information gap activities.

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Views and Experiences of English Language Education for Young Learners in South Korea: Has Korea government achieved its goal in introducing English language to public primary school?

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

This paper explored parents' views on English language education in South Korea, and how parents and children experience public and private English language sectors. The aim of my research was to find out how government achieved its aims for introducing English language in primary school in South Korea. The participants in the research included 40 parents and three child-parent dyads. The data for the study was generated using questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaire and interview data was explored through content analysis leading to the identification of common views and themes. The findings of my study reveal that parents and children all viewed the English language as an important global phenomenon, and they acknowledged that English language education at the primary level is inevitable in a globalised world. In terms of sectors, the private sector seems to be better at satisfying parents' aspirations for their children. This paper concludes with comparing the first intension of government's aims and how it has been changed according to parents' and children's views and experiences of English language education in primary school. This is an attempt to suggest the government to think before they act. That is, government needs to be on children's and parents' shoes before changing English education policies in South Korea because it is important to understand the actual learners' experiences.

Keywords: Globalisation, English language, public sector (state school), private sector.

Introduction

As the world has become more and more closely integrated, English has become a global language (Graddol, 1997; Harumi, 2002; Kim, 2002; Crystal, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Nunan, 2003; Baladi, 2007). That is, English is now a common language for communication nearly all over the world (Sifakis & Sougari, 2003). Learning a global language helps to improve a nation's competitive power against other countries socially and economically (Graddol, 2000). In some countries, like China, Japan and South Korea, people also see English as a medium that can elevate their individual status in their society, an attitude that may be influenced by the culture of Confucianism (Shinn, 1986; Sorensen, 1994). Moreover, many researchers claim that learning a foreign language when young is better for gaining native-like accent (Johnstone, 1994; Kathleen, 1997; Birdsong, 1999; Marinova-Todd et.al, 2000; Nikolov, 2000; Hyltenstam & Abrahamsson, 2001; Singleton, 2001; Cameron, 2003). Hence, learning English at an earlier stage of life may benefit young learners in the future. Since the current young generation is likely to be living in a more competitive world, it can be argued that it is important for countries, such as South Korea, to pursue such an educational agenda.

Globalisation has lead to the integration of English as a foreign language[1] in the primary curriculum in many EFL countries (Nikolov & Curtain, 2000). South Korea, as one such EFL country, has also reformed English language education policy by introducing English language as a compulsory subject in the primary school curriculum from 1997 (Korean Ministry of Education, 1997: Cho, 2004; Jeong, 2004; Butler 2005). Due to this rapid change in English language education policy in South Korea, there are concerns about class size, textbooks, and primary English language teacher qualifications in the public sector. Over-sized classes in public schools seem to be inefficient for students and teachers to interact with each other in a communicative manner. The content of English language textbooks does not seem to cover students' learning needs. Finally, the teachers are not confident actually using

[1] English is unique as a foreign language because it is linked to globalism, and associated political, economic and cultural issues. This will be dealt with in more detail in section 2.1.

English language (Jeong, 2004), making it difficult to implement communicate language teaching (CLT), and there are not many native English speaking teachers in public schools. For these reasons, public schools seem to be lacking "authenticity" (Shin, 2007) in teaching English language to young learners in the Korean EFL setting.

In response to the demand for authenticity, a private English language education sector has emerged rapidly. The role of Korean parents' passion for their children's English language education (Sorensen, 1994; Lee & Brinton, 1996; Ellinger & Beckham, 1997; Dalby, est. 2008; Park & Abelmann, 2004; Kim, 2006) cannot be denied in the rapid emergence of the private English language education sector. A majority of Korean parents send their children to the private English language education sector (Shin, 2005), seemingly to compensate for the gaps of public school English language education. Private English language institutes is the most popular private English language education sector in South Korea (Kim, 2006), and these private English language institutes tend to have smaller sized classes, use a greater variety of English language textbooks, and employ teachers with a good command of spoken English, including also many native English speaking teachers.

In exploring this situation, I wanted to find out the aims of Korean government for introducing English language into primary school level as well as the outcome focusing in particular on children's and parents' experiences.

Literature Review

In 1987, the official English language curriculum was reformed and introduced English language into the middle school for students aged 14, and in 1995 the government planned to change the policy to a situation where students in primary public schools could begin to learn English from grade four. The most recent change was in 1997 when English language became a compulsory subject for students starting in grade three of primary school. This curriculum reform is discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

During the mid-nineties, the Korean government started a "globalisation campaign" (Kim, 2006a) in order to catch up with advanced nations such as the USA and Japan. One of the main goals of this campaign was to improve the English language proficiency of Koreans in an attempt to improve South Korea's economical and political competitiveness. The traditional way of teaching English language was not considered effective in training future generations in using English language. In fact, the English language education system had been and continues to be a target of criticism by scholars and intellectuals.

In order to enhance the nation's competitiveness the government implemented the 7th National Curriculum in 1997. The 7th National Curriculum (1997) is focused on enhancing the fluency of students rather than their accuracy, and shifts the focus from traditional grammar focused lessons to communicative lessons in which listening and speaking are emphasised. The 7th National Curriculum also emphasises culture education to help students understand different cultures around the world. The 7th National Curriculum is also the first curriculum to introduce English language education in primary schools so as to increase the students' English language proficiency through early exposure to English language (Kim, 2006a). All of these policies of the 7th National Curriculum were geared to train students who can contribute to their nation's competitiveness and globalisation by their fluent use of English language.

In addition to globalisation, parental pressure also pushed the government towards a policy of early exposure to English language in South Korea. Koreans place a very high value on education. Children are expected to achieve success in education, and parents make sacrifices in terms of time and money to ensure that they do (Kim, 2005b). This includes large expenditures on private education by families able to afford it. Private education (in general) began to grow in the 1980s, after the government canceled the law banning private education in 1980 (Ryu, 2003). Many kinds of private education grew in South Korea, including private institutes (Hak-won), private home based forms of education (Hak-sup-ji), private tutoring (Kwa-ae), and more recently internet based online education. Currently, English language is taught to young learners in all these private sector. As not all Koreans can afford private education, the MOE's introduction of English language as a compulsory subject from grade three of primary school may be seen as an attempt to provide increased equality in education. The next sub-sections discuss the public and private English language education sectors for young learners in more detail.

At present, primary school children learn English language for four years from grade three to six. The main aim of the English language lessons is to encourage children's interest in English language and culture as well as for children to acquire basic competence in the four skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Teacher's Guide, 2004). Generally, children have one to two 40 minutes classes per week. One 40 minute class per week is set aside for English language in the third and fourth grades and two 40 minute classes for fifth and sixth graders.

Shin (2005, p. 12) reported that 83.1 % of primary school children enroll in the private education sector. This statistic makes no difference between subjects studied in the private sector. Private English language education sectors in Korea include: a) 'hak-sup-ji' (home based forms of language education), b) 'hak-won' (institutes approved by the government), c) 'kwa-ae' (private tutors), and d) internet based online English language education. According to a research by Kim (2006), of the children that attend private forms of English language education, 60.5 % attend 'hak-won'. It is clear, then, that 'hak-won' is the most popular form of private English language education in South Korea.

Private English language institutes' success in South Korea may be due to other factors. Investigating the Greek private sector, Scholfield and Gitasaki (1996) mention that it is perhaps the stricter environment with more class tests and greater discipline, parents paying fees, and the fact that English language teachers demand more of their students, that makes private English language institutes look better than public school English language lessons. A similar explanation may apply in South Korea as well with the smaller number of students per classroom and the greater number of teaching sessions. These qualities seem to make private English language institutes look superior to public school English language lessons.

In addition, Abdan (1991) comments, on the private sector in Saudi Arabia, that the perceived superiority of the private English language education sector may spring from the fact that English language is taught at an earlier age in this sector. This is also the case in South Korea, with parents sending their children to the private English language education sector before they start public school English language lessons, thereby giving their children earlier exposure to English language.

Methodology

This paper aims to arrive at how Korea government should react to the growing importance of the English language in this globalised world by children's and parents' experiences of public and private English language education sectors in South Korea.

Globalisation and the emergence of English as a global phenomenon has affected the South Korean education system, and as a result, English language is taught at the primary level. This sudden introduction of English language education in primary school seems to have resulted in a number of challenges, including the qualifications of teachers, appropriate class sizes and teaching materials. At the same time, a private English language education sector appears to have emerged to fill the gaps in the public school provision. In order to understand these developments better, the following two research questions were formulated.

1. What are the views of parents and children on the introduction of English language as a compulsory subject in public primary schools?

This question intends to generate a description of participants' views on English language education in South Korea, and the study's response to it will be based on content analysis of evidence gathered from questionnaires and interviews.

2. Have the government's aims for the introduction of English language education in the public primary school been achieved?

The second research question aims to explore the achievement of government's aims on introducing English language in the primary public school based on the experiences of children and parents. The response to this question will be based on data generated from interviews with parents and children attending both public and private sector English language education.

The following two sections introduce the instruments that were used to generate data for this paper.

Questionnaires

I designed my questionnaire by using open-ended questions. I used this design in order to give them a chance to describe their thoughts rather than restricting their thoughts by giving them options to choose.

One of the disadvantages of open-ended questionnaire items is that it can take up a lot of the respondents' available time (Dornyei, 2003). To overcome this disadvantage, I used 'short-answer questions' (Dornyei, 2003, p. 49) to shorten the time for the respondents. Moreover, in order to receive honest and careful responses from the participants, at the start of the questionnaire I wrote a short description of my study, the reason why I was asking them to do the questionnaire and emphasised confidentiality. The reasoning was that if respondents were clear about what I was trying to find out and why, they were more likely to "respond appropriately and helpfully" (Gillham, 2000, p. 38) or, indeed, respond at all.

The questionnaires were distributed to 40 parents. I did not include children as questionnaire respondents because of the concern about their skills to process and respond to "structured questions about perceptions, opinions and beliefs" (Christensen & James, 2000, p. 88). I first handed the questionnaires to the parents that I selected to work with in-depth to answer research question one. Then, I asked those parents whether they could gather other parents around them who fit the criteria, i.e. had children who attended both public and private English language classes. This generated two parent groups of 15 and 12. The group questionnaires were done in one of the parents' house. The rest of the 13 questionnaires were distributed personally by meeting individual parents around me who also fit the criteria. I met some of them in their house and some of them in a place where we could do the questionnaire without interference. The questionnaire took about 25~30 minutes for parents to finish.

Interviews

Yin (2003) states that the interview is one of the most important source of an "open-ended nature" (2003, p. 90), in which you ask the participants about the facts of an issue as well as their experiences about situations. Hence, interviews were used as an essential source in my study as participants' responses could provide important insight into the situation.

In this study, hierarchical focusing interviews were used with parents and children. The main aim for using hierarchical focusing interviews in my study was to get parents and children to talk about their experiences of different English language education sectors in South Korea and to compare and contrast those different English language education sectors. In my hierarchical focusing interviews with children, I tried to express positive feelings and treat the children with respect to build such a friend role in order to help the children talk freely and without tension.

I conducted twelve hierarchical focusing interviews with these three parents and twelve hierarchical focusing interviews with the three children. These three parents also participated in the questionnaires on the education level. The length of the interviews was approximately 25~30 minutes.

Discussion

My study indicates that, with very few exceptions, the participants in my research, view the global phenomenon of English language as something positive and an opportunity for South Korea. For this reason, the government made a quick transformation of introducing English language to primary public school in a reaction to globalization.

Generally, parents are not satisfied with the public primary English sector. They are not satisfied with lesson time, teachers, textbooks, and the fact that there are many students per class. They see public schools as ineffective in their English language education provision. Overall, parents do not want their children to suffer from an ineffective learning environment and are dissatisfied about not seeing their children progress in English. Korean parents' passion for education includes wanting their children to be ahead of other children and English education is no exception. The public English sector is not satisfying this desire of the parents.

Parents' ambition about their children's education seems to be satisfied by sending their children to private English institutes. That said, parents feel that the government has not designed the English curriculum with sufficient care. The parents feel that after the government acknowledged the importance of English, in the 1990s, they 'inserted' English as a compulsory subject in the public schools without thinking very carefully about how it might affect children's education overall.

In contrast to the parents, children seem to be happy with the public primary English provision. They see these English lessons as fun and interesting. However, at the same time the children feel the lessons, as well as English textbooks, are too easy and therefore not interesting. Especially those children who have experienced English before entering public school feel this way. As the content of English lessons in public school is easy, these children do not feel any sense of progression. Overall children prefer the content of lessons in the private English institutes since the level is appropriate for each individual.

For some children public school English language lessons is a time for them to express what they have learnt from the private English sector. These children seem to see public school English language lessons as one of the places where they can practice English.

Conclusion

It seems that the predominant understanding of globalisation, and the role of English in this understanding of globalisation, has made parents' view English language as an important language to learn in this 21st century. Hence, it is important to teach young learners from an early age in order to achieve proficiency in the English language. Linked to this, parents seem to agree with introducing English language in the primary school in South Korea. This broad agreement about an overall aim, or set of aims, may well be a benefit for policy makers when trying to move forwards with both shorter and longer term plans. The general agreement that English language education in South Korea is crucial provides fertile ground for the government and/or curriculum designers to further develop English language education for children in South Korea.

Government's reaction to introducing English language in public primary school seem to be aimed at strengthening English language education in South Korea and may be hoping that this will weaken the private English language education sector so that parents spend less of their money on English language education. However, this seems to ignore how parents will react. That is, when the parents look at this changes they may think it is even more important to support their children's English language education and spend even more money on private English language education.

South Korean government should be cautious when making changes to the English language policies in the school system. Understanding how parents and children experience English language is essential before reforming the policies. This is to enhance the quality of English language education for young learners in South Korea and gaining the trust of parents and children.

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

A case study of unique input to produce spoken English output

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Abstract

Learning English as an L2 in Japan is usually reserved for the able-bodied with an above average motivation level. One deaf Japanese freshman student and her lecturers challenged this norm to allow the student to become part of the inclusive society (Kellet Bidoli, Ochse, & Bern, 2008) by using unique input techniques including weekly lip-reading sessions, that improved not only the student's English communicative competence, but also allowed her to sit TOEIC and TOEFL tests and participate in a foreign exchange program.

Key Words: deaf ESL students, inclusive society, lip-reading, needs analysis

Introduction

All Japanese at some point in their education are required to learn English. One deaf Japanese university student, previously stereotyped as unable to learn spoken English, has worked to become part of the inclusive society (Kellet Bidoli, Ochse, & Bern, 2008). This student learnt through the input of lip-reading to communicative effectively in spoken English. Through lip-reading, and a desire to learn this student was able to become a "normal" member of university English classes, improve her TOEIC score, and participate in an American university foreign exchange program for several months. This article will focus on how the student was able to improve her spoken English, through the input of lip-reading and improve her TOEIC score.

Current Literature

With the number of foreign residents in Japan ever increasing (Ministry of Justice, 2000) and the Japanese government forging a policy to move from the expanding circle of English influence into the outer ring (McKay, 1996) through the introduction of English at the critical age (Fromkin, 1991), it is easy to imagine Japan having one of the most proactive English as a foreign language (EFL) systems in the world. However, even as English is considered the “foreign language” (Oishi, 1990) of Japan, the education system pays greater attention to the grammar translation method (Richards, 2001) of language learning, as the goal of students at the primary and secondary level is to pass tests rather than improve communicative competence.

The focus of literature with regards to deaf students in education (Marschark & Spencer, 2003) has been how deaf students can learn an L2 through the input of sign language, or how they can improve their writing output in L2. Essays written by deaf learners have been said to be “indistinguishable”(Gerald & Clymer, 2007). Yet Doughty and Long (2003) suggest the neurobiological, cognitive, developmental, sociolinguistic, and motivational factors in relation to hearing are understandably different and thus the spoken discourse of hearing and deaf students will inevitably differ.

The delivery of assessment material for deaf ESL students (Foster & Walter, 1992)(Goldberg & Broadman, 1974) has focused on the visual rather than acoustic channel (Tweney, Hoemann, & Andrews, 1974). These restrictions, coupled with the importance of learning English in Asian countries for the sake of future employment, has left those students with hearing impairments participating alongside their hearing counterparts with little or no assistance. The Nippon Foundation of Japan (The Nippon Foundation) has helped fund the Post Education Network in the United States of America (The Post Secondary Education Network, 2009) which is working to develop and provide state-of-the-art instruction to deaf students wishing to be in the inclusive society, yet these methods are still in their infancy and are ironically yet to reach Japan.

Background and Method

The subject of this study was a Japanese university freshman in 2007 who is 95% deaf. She began her formal English L2 education on entering Junior High School and continued to study English as an L2 for a further three years before entering university. The subject was not born deaf, but lost her hearing before an age where her linguistic ability in L1 had developed, and is the only member of her five-person family to have any hearing related difficulties.

Teachers of this student were informed in advance of her attendance in English classes for the first semester in 2007 and initially had concerns at this student's ability to participate. The student visited the English faculty for a needs analysis (Ferris, 1998) where teachers expressed ideas on how best to teach English as an L2 to the subject, including lip-reading session. As no members of the faculty had any experience in this area, it was agreed that a reevaluation of teaching methods was to be administered at a later, unspecified date. The lip-reading sessions consisted of one, one-hour session per week where the teacher would practice reading passages from the students textbook with the student at first watching the teachers lips, reading the text, and finally speaking the text. During speaking the teacher could focus on the pronunciation of words, correcting any errors as they occurred.

Before TOEIC tests these weekly sessions focused solely on TOEIC questions. To make the practice sessions as real as possible the speaker attempted to read the questions at the same speed as they are in the test. For institutional TOEIC tests, the student again took them via lip-reading. The student was moved to a separate class for the listening section of the test and then asked to join other students once the listening time had been completed. For mid-semester and end-of-semester tests, the listening section was administered via lip-reading. Again, the test was conducted at the same speed as the listening test for the other students. No extra lip-reading sessions were held for this as it may have been seen as being bias towards the student.

Results

The subject was originally placed in the second lowest level English class, as there were concerns from members of the English Faculty about the student's ability to fit into higher-level classes. However, after mid-semester and end of semester testing, the subject's scores in all four fields were in the top three of her class and she was promoted to pre-intermediate and intermediate accordingly. Intermediate was the top class at the time.

During her freshman year this student took an institutional TOEIC test on two occasions. Her first score in June of 2007 was 190 points, and the second 270 points in October of 2007, an improvement of 70 points in four months. The student did not make the exact breakdown between reading and listening available, yet it can be assumed the lip-reading session played a role in the improvement. Whilst on a foreign exchange program in Felician College, New Jersey the subject was required to take an institutional TOEFL test. On her arrival in August 2008 she scored 350 points, and at the end of her nine months of study she gained a score of 480 points. It should be noted that on both occasions she was not permitted to take the listening section of the TOEFL test.

Discussion

The subject began her formal English L2 learning in the first grade of public junior high school with no special arrangements to take her condition into consideration. She sat through English grammar lessons completing them and passing them as required as they were taught in her L1. She was required to sit through listening lessons but was not expected to take part. Rather she got the answers for the listening questions through copying down answers as they were given to the class on the blackboard. She did participate in class speaking drills, although because she was in a public junior high school class of 40 with only one teacher and no assistant, she was not and could not be awarded any special attention. During tests she was required to take the reading and writing sections of English tests but not the listening. Her high school life followed much the same pattern, except she transferred from a public to a private school during her first year for undisclosed reasons. The focus of the Japanese education at junior high school and high school level is to pass tests. Thus, as long as the subject was able to pass her English grammar tests and sit quickly through the listening ones, she would not be considered a disturbance to other students and could continue without causing ripple within the school community.

In 2007 when the subject entered university she was fortunate. She entered a university that opened in the same year, thus at the time there were on 204 freshman students at the university. This meant teachers had extra time to spend with the student, as the responsibilities that come with an established university were not yet entrenched. If the student had entered a more established university then she may have not been given the chance to learn English. Due to this extra time teachers, whilst having no previous experience or knowledge of teaching students with hearing impairments, were able to discuss how to teach English to the subject, perform a need analysis, and design specific activities to improve her L2.

Whilst conducting individual needs analysis with all students would be ideal, in reality it is not practical. However, due to the needs analysis conducted on this occasion teachers discovered that the subject could lip-read and speak English at a beginners level. Teachers were also somewhat surprised to see the subject only used lip-reading to communicate in Japanese. The subject has knowledge of sign language but has no desire to use it as to be seen using sign language is an outward sign of her not being part of in the ‘inclusive society’.

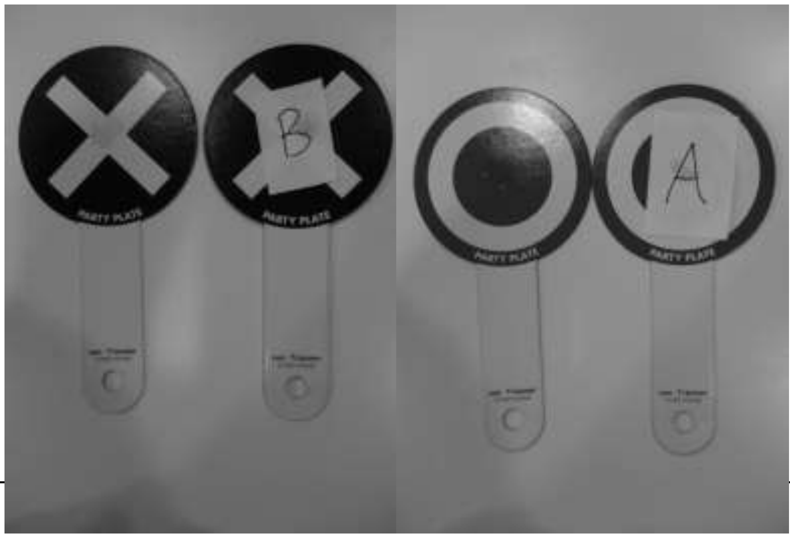
Although teachers had no objections to teach a student with hearing impairments, some expressed concern that other students might complain too much time was being used to give special attention to her in class, thus effecting their learning experience, whilst further faculty members believed the subject would lag behind other students in her ability, or she would be bullied by other students. The teachers decided to, on top of her four weekly English classes, to meet with her for one hour a week to practice lip-reading and pronunciation in English, the youngest teacher on the faculty was volunteered to undertake this responsibility. The original fears of faculty members were quickly relieved. The subject sat at the front of class, watched, and participated actively during lessons. The subject quickly showed herself as the most diligent student in class, volunteering answers and opinions before her classmates, although proportionally the subject made more mistakes in her answers than those without hearing impairments, she demonstrated what dedication was needed to improve L2 communication competence. As the results previously discussed, this student quickly moved up through the class levels based on her desire to learn and test scores.

As with many universities, institutional based TOEIC tests were administered on regular occasions. When the subject indicated she wished to participate this brought about the problem of how to administer the listening section of the test to her. It was decided that reading the TOEIC script to the subject at test, or as close to test speed as possible was the best solution. Thus for three weeks prior to the TOEIC test the weekly lip-reading practice sessions were used solely to practice TOEIC questions. This was beneficial to both the subject and instructor, as the student needed practice with TOEIC questions, and the instructor discovered via trial and error, which was the best way to administer the various parts of the TOEIC listening test.

Part one of the TOEIC test was the easiest to administer, as there is a picture followed by three short statements of which one is correct. This visual aid was beneficial for the subject as even if she was unable to receive information via lip-reading the picture enable her to make an educated guess. Part two (Appendix 1) of the TOEIC test was also relatively easy for both the instructor and subject as a short question or statement is followed by three short answers or replies. Each question in parts one and two could be administered in less than 20 seconds.

Part three (Appendix 2) and four (Appendix 3) of the TOEIC test were more difficult to administer. Part three involves a series of conversations between two people and then three questions about each conversation. The subject found it difficult to comprehend the end of one person’s utterance and the start of the other. This was due to there being a single instructor administering the test and an over exaggerated pause between parts was unnatural. Teachers originally believed they could solve this issue by introducing a second instructor to read one of the parts, however it was decided this would not be fair to other test takers as being able to watch the conversation might allow the subject to see visual cues that are not available on the listening CD. A simple solution to this problem was to use (0) (X) cards (Diagram 1) that are usually used to indicate yes (0) and no (X) in quizzes. By converting the (0) to (A) and (X) to (B) the instructor could proceed with the conversation at natural speed and flip the cards when necessary.

Diagram 1. Flip-cards used to indicate conversation turn taking.



Part four of the TOEIC test had a separate set of challenges from part three. In this section a short monologue is read out followed by three separate questions. For the instructor the main issue was keeping pace with the normal TOEIC speed, about 45 seconds to one minute per monologue. For the subject the difficulties were exacerbated. Students with no hearing impairments are able to read the questions whilst listening to the monologue. In contrast, the subject had to lip-read for 45 seconds to a minute, take in all the information, and then answer three questions in the allocated time.

In August 2008 the subject took part in a foreign exchange program at Felician College, New Jersey, an opportunity that only came fruition because of the work of the instructors in Japan to improve the subject’s communicative competence. The subject’s instructors in Japan shared information with their counterparts in the US on the best ways to teach the subject, and although no needs analysis or weekly lip-reading session were conducted the student continued to excel with a 130 point improvement on her TOEFL score. The subject was not allowed to undertake the listening portion of the TOEFL test.

Issues

The company that provides the institutional TOEIC tests does not provide a listening script of the test for commercial reasons. This meant the instructor administering the test had to transcribe the entire listening section of the test. This is an issue as it is not practical for instructors to do this frequently, and may see instructors unwilling to help students with disabilities. The instructor when reading the questions and answers will obviously know what the answer is. It is very important that the instructor keeps the same facial expressions for all answers and does not give the answer to the subject.

Both the official TOEFL and TOEIC test do not currently have provisions for those with hearing impairments, meaning the subject will never have the chance to get an official score that will reflect her true L2 ability, thus limiting her opportunities for future employment in Japan where a high score in TOEIC is sought by many employers. Although the subject has expressed a desire to use English in future employment, her lack of an official score and decision not to use sign language will count against her when it comes to any English speaking position.

Conclusion

Whilst many would believe that having a disability such as being deaf would make it impossible to learn how to speak English as an L2, this article has demonstrated how one Japanese freshman was, with some fortunate circumstances and dedicated instructors, able to increase her communicative competence. Although able to take institutional tests, and participate in a 9 month foreign exchange program in New Jersey, this student, under the current policy of test makers will be unable to gain an official TOEIC or TOEFL score that takes into account her full ability to communicate in English. This article has demonstrated that with some dedication on the part of the instructors and creativity with regards to delivering tests, this student was capable of competing with her peers with no hearing impairments. Unfortunately, as this market it small, the companies who make these tests may feel it is not economically worthwhile for them to invest in developing such tests and thus students such as the subject of this article may find themselves excluded from the 'inclusive society'.

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Appendix 1

Part 2 TOEIC Test example questions

(Adapted from Shin TOEIC TEST Speed Master, Vicki Glass)

11) Has the manager arrived yet?

a) I have no idea

b) I managed to go yesterday

c) No, it hasn't

12) Where should I put these files?

a) There are on the filing cabinet

b) I put them away

c) On the desk

Appendix 2

Part 3 TOEIC Test

(Taken from Shin TOEIC TEST Speed Master, Vicki Glass)

Dialogue

M: How are your plans for the trip coming along? Are you all packed and ready to go?

W: Not quite yet. I just found out that my passport will expire the day after tomorrow, so I will have to run to the passport office this afternoon to get it renewed. Not to mention I have a thousand other things to do today and tomorrow.

M: Is there anything I can help you with? I can’t go to the passport office, but I can certainly help you around here.

W: That would be great, thanks. I have to input a load of data. Maybe you could do that for me.

41) What are the speakers discussing?

a) The woman’s test preparations

b) Their passports

c) Their vacations

d) The woman’s data

42) What will the man most likely do for the woman?

a) Go to the passport office for her

b) Help her pack

c) Give her some input

d) Do one of her duties at work

43) What can be inferred about the woman?

a) She has packed for her trip

b) She is in a rush

c) She doesn’t like to travel

d) She is busy inputting data

Appendix 3

Part 4 TOEIC Test

(Taken from Shin TOEIC TEST Speed Master, Vicki Glass)

Questions 71 through 73 refer to the following advertisement.

Come on down to Menotti's Restaurant and please your palate with some of the in-house specials we are offering this week only! On Monday, our chicken and rib plates are 30 percent off the regular price. On Tuesday our sirloin steak is only $12.99 and includes all the trimmings. On Wednesday, you can save $2.00 on any dish in the restaurant during lunch or dinner. And if seafood is what you're craving this week, come down on Thursday and take advantage of our special prices on lobster bisque and our popular perch with lemon butter sauce. Friday, Saturday and Sunday all our Italian dishes will be half-price, including our best selling prosciutto pasta.

71) What is the main purpose of this advertisement?

a) To introduce in-house specials at a new restaurant.

b) To attract customers to a one-week sale

c) To get customers for a pasta special

d) To announce new dishes that are discounted.

72) When will the Italian dishes be half-price?

a) On Monday

b) On Tuesday

c) On Wednesday

d) On Friday, Saturday and Sunday

73) What dish is the most popular at Menotti's?

a) Sirloin steak

b) Lobster bisque

c) Prosciutto pasta

d) Perch with lemon butter sauce

On Perspectives of Linguistic Intuition for Foreign Language Teaching

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

This paper contends that second-language pedagogy needs to conceive of its own set of descriptors for linguistic intuition in a way that makes practical and universal sense for language teachers. It suggests that second-language pedagogy is yet to grasp the role of linguistic intuition in language teaching because no means have been put forward to identify and capture the nature of it. In order to conceive of reference points for an idealization of linguistic intuition, three alternative perspectives are reviewed. These draw from within Corpus Linguistics, Universal (Transformational-Generative) Grammar and Semantics. An open and casual sense of linguistic intuition is initially urged for; one that is accountable to the recognizable surface forms of language and the fallibility and frailty of intuitions that reflect them.

Key words: linguistic intuition, innateness, tacit knowledge, procedural and declarative knowledge, universal grammar (UG) language awareness, acceptability judgments, corpus, semantics, relativism

1. Introduction

Intuitions, hunches or ‘gut feelings’, inspire human responses and judgments in countless ways and although some people associate intuition with metaphysics or magic, it can also be associated with language, and with the spontaneous expression of ‘tacit’ knowledge. Textor (2009, p.386) calls the latter, “the mental state that is responsible for the competent speakers linguistic intuitions, his speech production and comprehension.”

Our language choices are not always what we were hoping them to be, but they must stand for something in relation to our linguistic knowledge. I propose to call these first choices and our reflections or perceptions about them, our linguistic intuitions, and investigate them in respect to language teaching.

As a language teacher you may well ask as to why I should bother, because almost always our linguistic intuitions are taken for granted and seem inconsequential and natural. You may even suggest I avoid it because intuition can be a slippery word, or because our linguistic intuitions can be brittle and unreliable, and being wrong often enough it makes us look bad.

Nevertheless, for better or worse, explicitly and implicitly, inside and outside the classroom, spanning all aspects of our use of language, as well as our value judgments and generalizations about usage generally, from syntax to semantics to phonology, in material design, proof reading, grading, casual class chat or detailed deliberate explanations at the chalk-face, linguistic intuition and language teaching are inexorably bound. Our learners make allowances and so do their teachers. This is currently not reflected in research, where the scope is wide, both empirically and interpretively.

2. Starting points

Linguistic intuition has been discussed in at least three distinct traditions that cross paths with the broad interests of second language pedagogy.

Corpus Linguistics – where it begins as fallible, lay guesswork in lexis

Universal Grammar – where it begins as infallible, primary evidence for syntax

Semantics - where it begins as a point of reference for meaning or ‘cases’

2.1 Linguistic Intuition in Corpus Linguistics

Readers in Corpus Linguistics will know “intuition”, as Hunston explains,

> … the main argument in favor of using corpus is that it is a more reliable guide to language use than native speaker intuition is. (…..) Intuition is a poor guide to at least four aspects of language: collocation, frequency, prosody and phraseology (2002, p.20)

Let us look at three things about the use of the word intuition here, *reliability*, *native speakers* and *aspects of language*.

2.1.1 Reflective Intuitions; Unreliable or Relative Intuitions

Firstly, intuition is unreliable because the outcome is at the end of a chain of events that require subjective human judgements contingent on matters that are not controlled or accounted for. The chain could look like this.

1) a choice of a specific linguistic feature or item
2) an introspection about the item or feature
3) a projection and generalization about the item or feature

   and possibly…

4) a hypothesis to justify this generalization

It therefore assumes unreliability on several levels. James (1996) posits the final results of these events within a framework of language awareness by calling them "metacognitions", adding that they "..can be wrong, inappropriate, inauthentic or bogus" (p. 139). Language teachers are warned,

> teachers and materials writers may unwittingly present their personal informal observations about **language** as the true and full picture of language and language structure and use, or present their own preferred usage as the only 'correct' or 'acceptable one. (Gabrielatos, 2005 p. 5)

We should, however, note that some teachers develop their own risk-management strategies in respect to this danger of reliability of their intuitions, but with no research done in this area, much of their wisdom is kept a secret.

2.1.2 Native Speakers, non-native speakers and linguistic intuition

Some non-native speakers may claim they don't have intuitions about L2. What they might be saying is they don't feel confident about them. In reality, they must have these kinds of intuition and its development must be essential to the progress in L2.

Furthermore, we have to recognize that there must be input from a deeper level -

and some of these must relate to L1, so it would be impossible to say that non-native speakers lack access to a subconscious level of intuitions - something we could call, *reflexive intuition*. James (1996), posits the idea that,

> Since one never knows a second-language in isolation from one's first (…) knowledge can be held at the procedural level of performance (being manifest in MT (mother tongue) interference on FL (foreign language use), or at the cognitive level of *intuition* in which case we talk of *Cross-linguistic Intuition* (XLI). (p.139)

2.1.3 The Contents of our Linguistic Intuitions

This includes things like simple usage frequency of single words, but extends to combinations of words, phrases, idioms, their marked an unmarked meanings, degrees of atypicality and speculating about what they refer to pragmatically (Hunston, 2002).

When the corpus characterization of linguistic intuition suggests native speakers have no intuitive knowledge about grammatical categories, they mean we cannot declare that knowledge intuitively. In other areas of linguistics just because we might not be aware that 'have eaten' 'did eat' are different structurally and semantically, it doesn't mean we have no intuitive knowledge about this, because it is precisely our linguistic intuition that allows us to use these forms expertly and effortlessly – or shall we say, intuitively.

Secondly, and perhaps more importantly valuably, Hunston makes us aware that we get used to associating certain words in certain syntactic structures to the point where if another word is used in an identical structure, we may jump up and say, 'that's wrong' or 'that's not good'. How our intuitions mingle and mess with one another is a crucial question and yet it might be one of the most difficult to answer. Experiments need to be developed to assess this.

2.1.4 Some Perspective on Linguistic Intuition from Corpus Linguistics

Although few teachers bother with corpus itself, the corpus conception of linguistic intuition is valuable and points to the messiness of intuition, the interplay between different types of intuitions and the need to question their validity. It is skewed in the direction of conscious or *reflective intuition* and says nothing about the subconscious or deeper level intuitions that must be inevitably involved. (How else do the items become salient for review in the first place?) Hence, it can be said to ignore our *reflexive intuitions.*

Another point to note, is that by juxtaposing intuition with corpus, we are easily distracted from something that should otherwise be more obvious, that corpus is really just a repository of linguistic intuition in the first place, and that its authority is assumed to be based on the intuitions of those who designed it and the teacher or learner who decides where, when and how to use it.

So while it is easy to suggest that corpus has run-over linguistic intuition with a steam roller, deeming it faulty from the onset and rendered forever so therein, but we should note,

> …intuitions about language continue to be essential. As Knowles (1990:45) says: "If intuitions are insufficient without a corpus, a corpus is also insufficient without intuitions. A corpus provides masses of data, and intuition is needed to analyse it. (Garcia 1995, p. 193)

The question remains however, if intuition is so essential in respect to corpus and teaching, why is so much energy devoted to building the corpus and almost nothing to exploring linguistic intuition needed to effectively use it? If the answer is that the usage of intuition in class is intuitive itself, then it doesn't hold much value, because the way it is being used might not always be appropriate.

2.2 Linguistic Intuition and Universal Grammar/Generative Linguistics

In quite another sense, linguistic intuition is conceived of in Chomsky's Generative Linguistics or Universal Grammar (herein UG) and its role is central. In UG we are said to have intuitions about **structure** and about what is **well-formed**, in phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. (Radford, 1998). These are hard wired to a network of syntactic rules and constraints, inherent in any human language and by extension, they are a reflection linguistic competence itself. Fitzgerald (2009) says, According to this orthodox conception linguistic intuitions are the upshot of a system of grammatical competence as it interacts with performance systems for perceiving and articulating language. (p. 123)

Until the arrival of Chomsky and UG in the late 1950s, linguists distrusted intuition, relying instead on collecting samples of language and building up a mass of empirical data similar to present day corpus. Chomsky said it was sufficient, indeed more useful, to ask a native speaker whether or not forms were acceptable and use this as the basis for building up a description of the rules or restraints inherent in all languages (Trask, 1999, p. 134).

2.2.1 Contrasts to the corpus sense of linguistic intuition.

Taken at face value, the UG version of linguistic intuition is invisible, internalized and objective. In corpus it is external, evident and subjective. In corpus we *use* intuition to hypothesize about language, and our explanations are messy and unscientific. In UG we simply *have* intuition and our only glimpse of it comes through structural descriptions of language we build out of our own binary responses to prepared statements like, ‘x’ *is* a word, ‘y’ *isn’t* a word, ‘a’ *makes* sense, ‘b’ *doesn’t make* sense, ‘c’ *is* the object of d.

In UG, intuition is attributed to our genetic makeup and so its accuracy is granted. By extension, its evidential power must be of more value. Corpus deems our intuitions to be wrong if they contradict the empirical data at hand, whereas in UG,

If a proposed linguistic theory cannot explain a linguistic intuition, this failure counts against the theory.

> If a teacher changes mid-sentence, or recasts a hypothesis about item ‘a’ or ‘b’, it has nothing directly to do with any ‘missteps’ of the teacher’s intuition in a UG sense, it is simply a change of in the teacher’s perception of the situation. (Textor; 2008, p1)

2.2.2 Internal Language Vs External Language

The most fundamental difference, and one that is easy to overlook, is that corpus and

UG relate to different languages. By this I mean, that corpus deals in the words and forms we are familiar with – the surface forms, something Chomsky calls 'E language', whereas UG is concerned with language at an abstract level. A kind of 'raw code' Chomsky calls 'I' language. The latter is 'universal' (supposedly the common nodules of all languages) and the former is the stuff of L1 and L2 and, and our language classes.

Consider that in this world of 'E' language, we are all biased observers. We are like children who think money is simply the physical currency, in the familiar colours and weights of the notes and coins around to us, and not as units of value in a larger system of values. And so with language, our lenses are collectively skewed to focus on these shared idealizations, which are borne of arbitrarily formed stylizations.

But language teaching is not restricted to 'E language'. According to this conception, the teacher correcting essays or tests must be operating at multiple levels. Consider the UG characterization of writing,

> …though writing is an artificial contraption connecting vision and language, it must tap into the language system at well-demarcated points, and that gives it a modicum of logic. (Pinker, 1994, p189)

Telling students they must reveal a 'modicum of logic' is of course inadequate, and we know we must attend to the surface details (in 'E language') and these will be inevitably tangled up the kinds of acceptability judgments we *will* be making that are from the core of UG-like intuition (in 'I language').

2.2.3 Applicability of the UG conception to second-language pedagogy

UG must make all languages accountable to a common set of syntactic relations – their "universality" depends on it. UG must also avoid linguistic relativity to protect the biologically determined bond between intuition and competence. Finally, UG must minimize the effects of exposure and experience because this kind of thing yields to behaviorism, the apparent shortcomings upon which UG it was launched.

Meanwhile, for teachers and learners, all languages are not the same. L1/L2 language differences must be negotiated and the scope of relativity is broad. Practice and exposure are valued. Teachers and learners survive on their linguistic wits as it were, and it is precisely our agenda to bring their messy estimations into account, should we be interested in a pedagogical model of linguistic intuition.

The UG notion of intuition is important, because it draws on the power of subconscious intuition and highlights the subjectivity of surface values about language. However, ‘E’ or ‘I’ language and L2 reductionism aside, is hard to see where its restricted kind of determinism fits into the pedagogical picture. UG will insist that intuition is locked in the brain and off-limits to us, even though we most surely *do* access it as a reliable means of assessing syntax in our daily work.

The key is to unlocking this dilemma is to recognize that UG’s has other names for things we need to call linguistic intuition. We have already seen how the disconnect between competence and performance-perception accounts for some of the relativity we need to recognize. Another way is to invent an entirely new word, as Fitzgerald does here:

> When I report that a string seems acceptable to me or feels right, we should take these reports at face value: they report linguistic seemings. An explanation of the epistemic authority of seemings should not appeal to central processor reflections on them. Seemings are distinct from judgements about them. (2008, p. 405)

A pedagogical view should also consider the fallout from UG’s battles and controversies – and there seem to be plenty. Moreover, impartial approaches offer something too. A good example of an impartial approach to UG and intuition come from Wasow and Arnold (2004) who characterize intuitions into three categories:

1) **Primary Intuitions**, which are, ‘introspective judgments of a given linguistic expression’s well-formedness (p. 1482)

2) **Secondary Intuitions,** which are intuitions about, “what constitutes a plausible explanation.” (p. 1488)

3) Marginal Intuitions, intuitions that are tainted by contextual or agenda concerns, such as researches hope to prove something. (p. 1483)

2.3 Linguistic Intuition in Semantics and the Philosophy of Language

Semantics necessarily refers to intuition because it needs to discuss the idea that description or interpretation requires a reference point. While it appears that the nature of linguistic intuition itself, as opposed to its utility in a methodological sense, has been less discussed, a new interest has recently emerged in the former. (Pafel, 2005, p. 2) One can find attempts to characterize it.

> Metalinguistic intuitions are judgements about the semantic properties of mentioned words (…), linguistic intuitions are judgements about the individuals (substances, classes, etc.) described in the actual and possible cases used by philosophers of language. (Machery, Olivola, & De Blanc, 2010, p. 689)

As with UG and Corpus Linguistics, the reliability and universality of intuitions comes into focus, as do our conclusions and reflections about them. Interestingly for foreign language pedagogy, cross-cultural data could be valuable.

While few doubt that our intuitions about grammaticality are generally reliable, it doesn't follow from this that one has much of a chance of coming up with a good model of UG without looking at a good deal of cross-linguistic data. (…) In much the same way, our intuitions about cases may be reliable, but mistakes may come if we overgeneralize the import of these intuitions, and cross-cultural data can be a corrective to such overgeneralizations (Jackman, 2008, p. 175).

Pafel suggests that semantics needs to take a harder look at the relationship between intuitions and linguistic competence. He adds the interesting proposition that we need separate levels of representation, for syntactic structure, semantic structure and the interface between syntactic and semantic levels (2005, p. 2).

3. Conclusion: Towards a Language Teachers Conception of Linguistic Intuition

This discussion here limited itself to generalizations about two contrasting approaches and a glimpse a third. One needs to look deeper and elsewhere too, such as in Cognitive Linguistics or Cognitive Semiotics. Furthermore, we must accept that the more we borrow from ideologically or philosophically different approaches, the more we violate the rules and assumptions that are valued by them. Pedagogy must strike a balance here - one that is mediated via the reality of language and language teaching as we deal with it.

There is currently no multidimensional model of linguistic intuition designed to characterize linguistic intuition from a teaching perspective and at this point. At this point, it would be easy to be over ambitious. Stern's warning from decades ago that, " we must not be blind to the risk that the educational linguist runs in operating at too many levels at once." (1983, p. 179) rings loudly.

However, to stay ignorant of linguistic intuition does pedagogy a greater disservice and at the very least, a modest idealization might be possible. To begin it would be a worthy achievement to simply recognize linguistic intuition and start to classify certain kinds of intuitions in their own right. From humble beginnings something useful could be yielded for the future.

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The Correlation between the Mastery of Sentence Stress, Grammar, and the Oral Presentation of Medical Records in English by Ngudi Waluyo Nursing Academy Students, Ungaran-Central Java, Indonesia

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Biodata

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Abstract

Nurses should speak English well while they care for patients and when they communicate with other people. The objective of this research is to examine the correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and grammar and the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students. The total number of student subjects was 46. The students were given a grammar and reading aloud test for gathering data. The oral presentation data was gathered from their presentation test in the National Comprehensive Examination. Nursing and English lecturers were the evaluators. By focusing on the mastery of sentence stress and grammar during the oral presentation of medical records, students are not only provided with the skills of language but are encouraged to speak or communicate effectively, thus making it easy for them to communicate with other medical teams and patients. This research explores the understanding of how important it is to give emphasis to certain words in sentences and the importance of using correct grammar when speaking English. The writer will show these elements of language influence the oral presentation of medical records.

Keywords: Sentence Stress, Grammar, Oral Presentation, and Medical Records

Introduction

Professions around the world demand that people be able to use a foreign language effectively as an essential tool for establishing meaningful communication in today's global context. A medical team, especially nurses, has challenges to face in this global context. In the United States, England, Australia, and Canada there is increased job opportunity for Indonesian nurses. However, many nurses from developing countries such as Indonesia cannot communicate well in English. As a result, the information nurses convey to other people is confusing. For example, if they report information about patients' medical records with grammatical and pronunciation mistakes, the receivers of the information cannot understand. They then cannot make informed decisions.

In considering the effects of the globalization era, English is very important for nurses in Indonesia because they need to be able to compete with nurses from other countries in the nursing field for employment. The question explored in this research is as follows. Is there any significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress, and grammar and the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students?

In giving accurate information about topics and cases, students must express themselves accurately in regards to pronunciation and grammar. Pronunciation accuracy includes pronunciation which is still obviously influenced by first language though clearly understandable. Grammatical/lexical accuracy is generally high, though some errors which do not destroy communication are acceptable (Hughes, 1989) Furthermore, Richards (1985:108) states that accuracy refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Accuracy relates to the quality of the results of the information or message conveyed. Accurate information will also confirm that the receiver can understand the message.

Word stress

A particular syllable of a word can be pronounced in a way that makes it more prominent than the rest. In English, the three ways to make a syllable more prominent are to make it louder, longer, or higher pitched. In the pronunciation of English words, there are many degrees of stress, but the most convenient for language learners is a three-degree system: primary, secondary, and tertiary stress (Syafei at.al,1994). The primary stress is marked “ ˊ ” and secondary stress “ ˋ “; while tertiary is left unmarked. Word stress is accent on one syllable within a word. Sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence.

Sentence Stress

In normal English sentences, certain words are stressed and other words are unstressed. Rachels (2008) divides words into two categories – content words and function words. Content words include main verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, negative auxiliaries and interrogatives. Function words include personal pronouns, prepositions, relative pronouns, connective, frequency words, intensifiers, and auxiliary verbs.

Generally, content words in a sentence are stressed while function words are left unstressed. In addition, according to Segalowitz and Lane (2002) function words are indeed faster to access than for content words as predicted by neurolinguistic theory and electrophysiological evidence, but that this difference can be attributed to word predictability (Cloze value) and word familiarity (log frequency).

One of the most important functions performed by nurses is documentation. Documentation is included in the process of communication. The process is both written and spoken. The written is accessed prior to, during, and following the delivery of care. When nurses speak, there are some words that should be stressed in order to emphasize what they did and to whom they did it. For example, “I gave the patient 75 micrograms of synthroid this morning.” Stressed words here are “gave,” “patient,” “synthroid” and “this morning.” “Gave” is an action that is a verb. “Patient” and “synthroid” are nouns, and “this morning” is an adverb of time. When nurses stress these words, doctors and the members of the health care team understand fully what the nurses have done, to whom the action occurred and the time the action was applied.

Grammar

Using appropriate and accurate grammar is viewed as a prerequisite to being able to complete sentences in reporting information. According to Swan (2005) grammar is the rules that show how words are combined, arranged or changed to show certain kinds of meaning. Grammar is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences. It is argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to use the language, to express meaning. Sullivan in Craven (2000) points out “health workers must identify correct spelling of words and use medical terminology in speaking. The correct spelling or words and grammar are used to reduce errors”. Moreover, grammar is a theory of language, of how language is put together and how it works. More particularly, it is the study of wording. Wordings are characterized such that they are able to explain meaning (Gerot & Wignel: 1994).Therefore, theories of language are not inherently good or bad, right or wrong, true or false.

If the students cannot produce grammatically-correct language, major problems can be created, especially in reporting the patients’ treatment. Inaccurate reporting can influence the results for patients under their care. For example, “the nurse assesses the position of the patient’s catheter 3 hours ago.” The utterance is ambiguous because the receivers of the message do not know exactly when the nurse has done the procedure. The correct way to report the information is "the nurse assessed the position of the patient's catheter 3 hours ago."

Medical Record

****

A **medical record** is a patient record. All part must contain relevant, integrated data regarding to the total state of health of the patient (Brown, 1982). The term 'Medical record' is used both for the physical folder for each individual patient and for the body of information which comprises the total of each patient's health history. Medical records are intensely personal documents and there are many ethical and legal issues surrounding them such as the degree of third-party access and appropriate storage and disposal (Washington Institute of Medicine). Entries in the medical record are made by physicians, nurses and other members of the health care team (Mckinley Health Center).

Information in the medical record includes but is not limited to the following:

1. Patient identification information (e.g., I.D. number, local and permanent address, etc.)
2. Patient health history
3. Patient medical examination findings
4. Patient treatment plan
5. Insurance information

Nursing care is increasingly framed in best practice, which is the application of evidence-based concepts to patient problems in a particular setting (Doenges, 1993). Thus, the information in the medical record is necessary to provide continuity of care. This means that all the appropriate health care providers who treat the patient have access to that patient's health history and medical record. The document is the primary source for providing proof of services which is also a necessary piece of maintaining revenue (Doenges, 1993). The medical record also serves as a basis for planning patient care, as a method of documenting communication between health care providers, and as the primary document in protecting the legal interest of patients.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and grammar and the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students.

Method

Participants

The population selected consisted of the third year students of a Nursing Academy in a large city in Indonesia. The total number of the student subjects was 46.

Instruments

A test and oral presentation checklist were used as the instruments for collecting data. The data was gathered by using a grammar and reading aloud test. Then, the data was gathered from the results of oral presentations in which students reported information from medical records in English.

Data Analysis

The results of the test and checklist were scored and encoded in a spreadsheet for analysis. The Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was used to assess the correlation among the mastery of sentence stress and grammar and the oral presentation of medical records in English. The multiple regression technique was used as the major analysis. A statistical program of SPSS was suitable for analyzing research data that met its objectivity and accountability.

Results

Descriptive percentage

The analysis of the nursing students' oral presentation level:

Table 1

Oral presentation level result			
Score	Category	∑ (sum)	Percentage (%)
>31	Excellent	6	13.04
21 - 30	Good	33	71.74
11 - 20	Fair	7	15.22
<10	Poor	0	0
∑ (sum)		46	100

Six students tested were found to be on the first level or excellent category is by 13.04%. Thirty-three students were found to be on the second level or good is by 71.74 %. In addition, seven students were found to be on the third level or fair is by 15.22%. This means that mostly students have good oral presentation skills when they speak grammatically correct sentences and emphasize certain words in their speech.

The correlation between the mastery of sentence stress, grammar and the oral presentation of medical records

Table 2

Correlation between the mastery of sentence stress, grammar and the oral presentation of medical records	
variable	Oral presentation
Sentence stress	.871
Grammar	.854
Sig. (1-tailed)	
Sentence stress	.000
Grammar	.000
N	46

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The effects of the mastery of sentence stress on the oral presentation of medical records by using the correlation coefficient is 0.871 or r = 0.871. 1-tailed output with the probability 0.05 is 0.00 or 0. The effect of the mastery of grammar on the oral presentation of medical record by using coefficient correlation is 0. 854 or r = 0. 854. 1-tailed output with the probability 0.05 is 0.00 or 0. The result of the statistical test of correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and grammar and oral presentation shows there is a high significant correlation or positive correlation.

Model Summary

Multiple correlation analysis X_1 and X_2 to Y result

The F value is 94.853 and the significant value is 0.000. R Square is 0.815 (coefficient correlation square is 0. 903 or 0. 903^2). R Square can be said as coefficient of determination that is 81.5 % the contribution of the mastery of sentence stress and grammar on oral presentation of medical record and the rest is 18.5% the distribution of other indicators. In other words, the F value is 94.853 and significant value is 0.000. F value is more than F table 3.20. The probability is

0.05 and significant value is less than the probability, the regression can be used to predict the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students. This means that the mastery of sentence stress and grammar has a positive effect on the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students.

Table 3

Multiple correlation analysis X_1 and X_2 to Y result	
Model	1
R	.903(a)
R Square	.815
Adjusted R Square	.807
Std. Error of the Estimate	6.30198
Change Statistics	
R Square Change	.815
F Change	94.853
df1	2
df2	43
Sig. F Change	.000

Multiple regressions analysis X1, and X2 to Y

Coefficients

Table 4

Multiple regressions analysis X1, and X2 to Y Coefficients			
Model	(Constant)	S Stress	Grammar
Unstandardized Coefficients			
B	-10.016	2.010	.855
Std. Error	11.083	452	.234
Standardized Coefficients			
Beta		.519	.426
T	-.904	4.450	3.651
Sig.	.371	.000	.001
Correlations			
Zero-order		.871	.854
Partial		.562	.486
Part		.292	.239

t- value for sentence stress is 4.450 with the t- table that corresponds 1- sided test is 1.684. The significant value in table 4 is 0.000 is less than 0.05. Then, t- value for grammar is 3.651 with the t- table that corresponds 1- sided test is 1.684. The significant value in table 4 is 0.001 is less than 0.05. This means that the mastery of sentence stress and grammar have a positive effect on the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine the significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and grammar, and the oral presentation of medical records in English by nursing students. The study found that both independent variables, sentence stress and grammar, are significantly related to the dependent variable, oral presentation. The effects of the mastery of sentence stress on the oral presentation of medical records by using the correlation coefficient is 0.871 or r = 0.871. This result shows that there is a significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress on the oral presentation of medical records. It is clear that the significant coefficient correlation 1-tailed output with the probability 0.05 is 0.00 or 0. Then, the effect of the mastery of grammar on the oral presentation of medical records by using coefficient correlation is 0. 854 or r = 0. 854. This means that there is a significant correlation between the mastery of grammar and the oral presentation of medical records by nursing students. The significant coefficient correlation 1-tailed output with the probability 0.05 is 0.00 or 0.

The F value is 94.853 and the significant value is 0.000. The significant value is less than the probability (0.05), the regression can be used to predict the comprehensibility of the nursing students' oral presentation.

Table 3 shows that the model of regression forms is as the following:

$\acute{Y} = a + b_1X_1 \quad = -10.016 + 0. \quad 519$

Where X_1 = the mastery of sentence stress

Y = the oral presentation of medical records

t- test was used to test constant significance and dependent variable. The criterion of regression coefficients for the mastery of sentence stress on the oral presentation of medical records given is as follows:

Ha = There is significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and the oral presentation of medical records.

Ho = There is no any significant correlation between the mastery of sentence stress and the oral presentation of medical records.

The result of significant test in table 3 or F test, the F value is 94.853 and the significant value is 0.000. The significant value is less than the probability; the regression can be used to predict the effect of nursing students' oral presentation.

Table 3 shows that the model of regression forms is as the following:

$\acute{Y} = a + b_1X_2 \quad = -10.016 + 0.426$

Where X_2 = the mastery of grammar

Y = the Oral presentation of medical records

t- test was used to test constant significance and dependent variable. The criterion of regression coefficients for grammar on the oral presentation of medical records is as follows:

Ha = There is a significant correlation between the mastery of grammar and the oral presentation of medical records.

Ho = There is no any significant correlation between the mastery of grammar and the oral presentation of medical records

In table 3, R Square is 0.815 (coefficient correlation square is 0. 903 or 0.903^2). R Square is as coefficient of determination that is 81.5 % the contribution of the mastery of sentence stress and grammar on oral presentation of medical records and the rest is 18.5% the distribution of other indicators. The result of significant test in table 3 or F test, the F value is 94.853 and significant value is 0.000. F value is more than F table 2. 20. The probability is 0.05 and significant value is less than the probability, the regression can be used to predict oral presentation of medical record. It means the mastery of sentence stress and grammar has positive effect on oral presentation of medical record. Then, in table 4, t- value for sentence stress is 4.450 with the t-table that corresponds 1- sided test is 1.684. The significant value in table 4 is 0.000 is less than 0.05, so the null hypothesis is rejected. It means that the mastery of sentence stress has positive effect on the oral presentation of medical records. Then, t- value for grammar is 3.651 with the t-table that corresponds 1- sided test is 1.684. The significant value in table 4.12 is 0.001 which is less than 0.05, so the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus the mastery of grammar has positive effect on oral presentation of medical records.

The mastery of sentence stress and grammar has a significant correlation with the oral presentation of medical records. It is assumed that both the mastery of sentence stress and grammar give a positive effect on the oral presentation of medical records. The finding of this research shows that the emphasis on content words in sentences while speaking and making sentences grammatically correct will give a positive effect to the nursing students' oral presentations. The finding of this research is can provide knowledge to English teachers, especially related to the effort of improving the comprehensibility of nursing students in oral presentation of medical records in English. Colleagues, patients and patients' families will understand more fully and know exactly what the nurses mean or what the nurses say about their actions. Nursing students are also expected to develop an awareness of the relationship of grammar through meaningful contextualized language. English lecturers must teach students how to form sentences in a grammatically-correct manner. They also teach the students to appropriately use medical terminology when speaking.

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