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   *A Qualitative Study Exploring the Content Learned in English as a Foreign Language Classes Taught by Native Speakers*
The Motivation For and Attitude Towards Learning English

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Abstract

The English Language is neither a national nor an official language in the Philippines yet it is widely used and taught in the educational system of this country both as one of the official mediums of instruction and as a subject. It is also an undeniable fact that the Filipino’s success or opportunity of securing an exemplary career depends on his/her ability of speaking the language and, of course, on an excellent academic background. Enthused by different studies and driven by curiosity as to what might shape the attitude and motivation of the language students of the Mindanao State University, the researcher intended to discover what may be related to these essential language learning factors. This study is a combination of qualitative and quantitative analysis and descriptive-correlation design. The respondents’ socio-economic background and the teaching techniques of the respondents’ teachers are the independent variable and the motivation for and attitude of the respondents in learning English serve as the dependent variable. The study found that the respondents were highly motivated and possessed a positive attitude towards learning English. They were both instrumentally and integratively motivated. They wanted to learn English for career purposes and to be able to speak with English speaking people. However, the findings reveal that the respondents were intrinsically motivated and thus, external factors like the independent variables did not alter nor affect their attitude and motivation.

Key words: Motivation, Attitude, Teaching Techniques, Second Language Learning

Introduction

It is a historical fact that the use of English as an official second language in the Philippines is mandated by the Constitution of the country. Filipinos have been exposed to English instruction for such a long time at different levels to attain the desired level of proficiency in comprehensive and productive skills.
With the wide currency enjoyed by the English Language as an international language, the ante is decidedly upped. For Filipinos, as well as for other Asians, attaining an acceptable proficiency level takes on greater urgency. Filipinos are among the well over one half of the one billion English speakers of the world who learn English as a second language. They count among those who use English as a tool for international communication on commerce, technology, diplomacy, research, and education. All over the world, there is recognition of English proficiency as a condition for survival, and adaptation, or advancement on a globalized world. To borrow the words of Kipling (with some alteration), the sun never sets on English dominion that is, where the English Language is spoken.

Learning English does not come easily. It is a complex skill, involving many social as well as psychological factors, as illustrated by Schumman’s Acculturation Model and Krashen’s input on Monitor Model. There is also the interrelation between the learner’s first and second language. Voluminous researches on ESL or ELT have yielded important findings about factors or variables that have facilitative or inhibitory effects on language learning. Certain factors need to be investigated or examined, as McDough (1986) claimed “Individual characteristics of learners may be directly or indirectly related to achievement in foreign language learning”.

The role of attitude and motivation in the learning process should be taken into consideration, as these are closely associated with the success or failure in language learning. Attitude and motivation are complex psychological factors that influence how a learner approaches second language learning. Gardner (1985) defines second language motivation as the “extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced”. Attitude, according to Brown (1994), is a socio-psychological or socio-cultural factor. Attitudes of students may slow down or step up language learning.

Many studies among which are those of Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gilksman (1976); Genesee and Hamayan (1980); Cooper and Fishman (1977); Bourgain (1978); Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977) emphasize the importance of attitude in foreign and second language learning. Researchers point out that there are certain factors, which influence attitudes toward learning a second or foreign language. Chambers (1999) asserts, “Students do not come to the foreign language classroom as tabulae rasae. They bring with them some attitudes born of conversations shared with family, friends, the media and personal experience of the target language community.” Learners’ positive attitude acts as a motivational impetus to reinforce a greater effort to achieve the goal of learning the language. This, of course, is known by the
language teachers who realize that their students’ learning potential increases when positive attitude and motivation run high.

Enthused by all these studies and researches and driven by curiosity as to what might shape the attitude and motivation of the language students of the Mindanao State University, Philippines, the researcher intended to discover what affect or what may be related to these essential language learning factors of selected English 1 students.

Theoretical Framework

The formulations of Gardner and Lambert provide the theoretical framework (Figure 1) of this study. Gardner and Lambert (1959) averred that a person’s motivation to acquire a second language is controlled by his/her attitude towards the other group in particular and by his orientation to the learning task itself”. Gardner also remarked that motivation involves four aspects: a goal, effortful behaviorism, a desire to attain the goal and favorable attitudes towards the activity in question.

Two distinct clusters divided two basic types of what Gardner and Lambert (1972) at that particular time classified as ‘instrumental, acquiring a language for achieving purposeful goals such as pursuing a career, reading materials, etc. and ‘integrative’, a desire to identify with the culture presented by a foreign language. Years later, it was referred to as a case of orientation (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991), that is, depending on whether a learner’s context/orientation was (a) academic or career related (instrumental); or (b) socially or culturally oriented (integrative).

Although there is a contrasting evidence as to whether instrumental or integrative orientation is better, both types have been shown to lead to successful language learning (Brown 2000, Ellis, 1994). What is clear, according to Brown (2000) is “that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes but negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation. Because of decreased input and interaction, there is unsuccessful attainment of proficiency”.

Behaviorist theories on motivation encompass drive, learned motives, incentive motivation, and observational/social learning. Hull (1943) states that the motivating psychological condition of an organism is the urgent, basic or instinctual need. Under learned motives is the instrumental/operant learning (Skinner), which states that the principle in motivation lie in the consequences: reinforcements are incentives to increase behavior and punishers are disincentives which eventually lead to a decrease in behavior. Learned motives also include observational/social learning (Bandura), which suggests that imitating others and
watching them have consequences applied to their behavior which are important motivators of behavior, and incentive motivation which refers to goal-directed behavior like that of seeking rewards and avoiding punishments. Behaviorists explain motivation in terms of stimuli and reinforcement. The physical environment and actions of the teacher are important.

Under cognitive theories on motivation are attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1986) achievement motivation theories (Atkinson and Raynor, 1974) and goal-theory (Locke and Latham, 1990). Attribution theory proposes that an individual tries to explain success or failure of self and others by offering “attribution”. These are either internal or external and are either under control or not subject to control. Based on this theory, it is important to assist the learner in developing a self-attribution explanation of effort. Achievement motivation theories states that a learner is motivated because of the need for achievement meaning individuals are interested for their own sake. A learner is also motivated because of fear of failure and avoiding a negative outcome. On the other hand, goal theory (Locke and Latham, 1994) has one aspect that states that individuals are motivated to either avoid failure or achieve success. It also states that learners are motivated due to social goals.

Expectancy value theories (Vroom, 1964) state that a learner’s motivation to acquire a second language is determined by the learner’s effort, value which means perceptions of degree of attractiveness of goals or of its value, expectancy which is the probability of attaining the goals, appraisal of the learner’s ability to achieve the goals and instrumentality.

For Gardner and Lambert, motivation comes from attitude. Attitude itself is to be measured by asking a subject to evaluate an object ‘…from an operational point of view, an individual’s attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent’ (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). In practical terms, then, an attitude is a construct derived from the informants’ answers to a number of questions about an object. Another prominent perspective on second language learning is that of Vygotsky’s interactionist theory. It states that the learner acquires the language on two levels of development: the actual and potential development level. Learners achieve their cognitive abilities through interaction with others. Cooperative meaningful interaction is the key to language development and acquisition.
Gardner and Lambert (1972)

**Instrumental orientation** - acquiring a language for purposeful goals

**Integrative orientation** - desire to identify with the culture presented by a foreign language

**Motivation’s three components:**
- Attitude toward learning the second language
- Desire to learn the language
- Effort made to learn the language

Behaviorists Theories:

**Drive (Hull, 1943)** - the motivating psychological condition of an organism is the urgent, basic, or instinctual need.

**Skinner’s instrumental/operant learning** - the principle in motivation are consequences: reinforcements are incentives to increase behavior and punishers are disincentives which eventually lead to decrease in behavior. **Bandura’s observational/social learning** - imitating others and watching them have consequences applied to their behavior which are important motivators of behavior.

Cognitive Theories:

**Attribution Theory** (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1974) - try to explain success and failure and others by offering “attribution”

**Achievement motivation Theories** (Atkinson and Raynor, 1974) - a learner is motivated because of a need for achievement

**Goal theory** (Locke and Latham, 1994) - individuals are motivated to either avoid failure or achieve success

**Expectancy Value Theories** (Vroom, 1964)

- **Value** - perception of a degree of attractiveness of goals or of its value
- **Expectancy** - the probability of attaining the goals, appraisals of the learner’s ability to achieve the goals and instrumentality

**Vygotsky’s Interactionist Perspective** - meaningful interaction as key to language acquisition

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**Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of the Theoretical Framework**
**Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework of this study shows students’ socio-economic background and teachers’ techniques as the independent variables and the motivation for and attitude towards learning English as the dependent variable.

The socio-economic background includes family income, parents’ educational attainment, appliances, printed materials, and language spoken at home. This independent variable is believed to have a relationship with the motivation for and attitude of the students toward learning English since the condition of the students’ families shape their instrumental and integrative motivational orientation. The students’ desire of getting a career, especially those which require proficiency in learning English and also those jobs in foreign countries, triggers the positive attitude of learning English and intensifies their motivation.

The teachers’ techniques used in teaching English in the class are another independent variable which is also assumed to have a significant relationship with the motivation for and attitude of the students toward learning English. This variable includes techniques such as lectures, reading materials like passages, dialogues, games, visual activities like that of drawings, sketches and pictures, board works, short exercises, group work, and pair work. These techniques allow the students to have fun while learning English in the class and thus their motivation and positive attitude are shaped since they anticipate having fun and learning when studying English. The schematic diagram of the conceptual framework is shown in Figure 2.
Statement of the Problem

This study sought to find out the relationship between the two selected variables: the socio-economic background of English 1 students, the techniques used by their teachers in teaching English, and the students’ motivation for and attitude towards learning English.

Specifically, it sought to answer the following inquiries:

1. What constitutes the student’s socio-economic background in terms of the following?
   1.1 family income
   1.2 parents educational attainment
   1.3 appliances in the home
   1.4 printed materials at home
   1.5 languages spoken at home
2. Are the learners motivated to learn the second language? If the learners are motivated, are they instrumentally or integratively motivated?

3. What are the techniques used by the teachers in teaching English as a second language?

4. Is there any significant relationship between the students’ socio-economic background and their motivation for and attitude towards learning English?

5. Is there any significant relationship between the English 1 teachers’ techniques and the students’ motivation for and attitude towards learning English?

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RELATED STUDIES

Attitude and Language Learning

Brown (2000) points out that these attitudes are cognitive and affective. They are related to thoughts as well as feelings and emotions. Attitudes govern how one approaches learning, which in the case of language, requires exposure to a different culture and to the difficulty of mastering a second language. The development of attitude begins early and is affected by many things like that of parents, peers, and interactive activities with others who have social and cultural differences. Thus, attitudes “form a part of one’s perception of self, of others, and of the culture we are living in” (Brown 2000). It is popularly known that negative attitude towards the foreign language and group, which often comes from stereotypes and superficial contact with the target culture, can impede the learning of that language. On the other hand, positive attitudes towards the foreign language and group of natives who speak the target language will increase the success in learning it. Brown (2000) describes several studies about the effects of attitude in language learning and concludes that “positive attitude towards the self, the native language group, and target language group enhance proficiency”. Attitude may also be modified by experience and affective language teaching strategies that can encourage students to be more positive towards the language they are learning.

Attitude and motivation are complex social, cultural, and psychological factors that influence how a student approaches many situations in life, and this includes second language learning. As experienced teachers know, students with positive attitudes usually progress rapidly in second language learning. When students have a positive attitude, it acts as motivational impetuses to enable a student to exert a greater effort in achieving the goal of learning the language.
Constructivist View

Motivation places emphasis on social contexts as well as the individual’s personal choices (Williams and Burden, 1997). Every being is motivated distinctly, and will thus act on the individual’s environment in ways that are unique. But these acts are always carried out within a cultural and social milieu. Abraham Maslow (1970) viewed motivation as a construct in which ultimate attainment of goals is possible only by passing through a hierarchy of needs.

Social Perspective

The need for affiliation is the motive to be securely connected with other people. Students’ need for affiliation or relatedness is seen in their motivation to spend time with peers, their parents, and their desire to have a positive relationship with their teachers.

Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985)

Deci and Ryan (1985), proponents of this theory, expound that this theory is based on the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and the basic human need for autonomy. It proposes that a person must be able to initiate and regulate, through personal choice, the effort expended to complete a task for its own sake to be intrinsically rewarding.

Cognitive Dissonance

Festinger (1957), the originator of the theory of cognitive dissonance, states the following basic hypothesis:

1. The existence of dissonance will motivate the individual to try to reduce the dissonance and to achieve consonance;

2. When dissonance is present, the individual will actively avoid situations and information that would likely increase the dissonance; and

3. The presence of dissonance gives rise to pressures to eliminate dissonance. The strength of the pressures to eliminate the dissonance is a function of the magnitude of the dissonance.

The theory of cognitive dissonance offers another approach to attitude change. Dissonance operates as a continuum, from relative absence to moderate large amounts. If the dissonance becomes greater than the resistance to change, the cognitive areas will be altered, thus decreasing the dissonance. Based on such hypothesis, an English teacher can ask a
student who possesses negative attitudes towards English to write an essay about increasing the hours of English classes at school. The student is then doing something against his/her cognition, hence, dissonance occurs. The student will then try to reduce such an uncomfortable state by changing his/her attitude. There are many practical ways to apply the theory; it depends on the situations and factors. The factors such as family background, age, intelligence, education, class, occupation, and geography need to carefully considered.

Motivational Orientation in English Language Learning

Marjan Moiinvaziri (2002) wrote an undergraduate thesis at the Islamic Azad University in Iran about the motivational orientation in English of the students at the university. The study focused on the instrumental and integrative orientations of students in learning English as a foreign language. The research showed that contrary to other researchers’ beliefs, in foreign language situations, instrumental orientation is the dominant orientation. The study found that the students were highly motivated in both instrumental and integrative orientations.

Chinese Students’ Motivation to Learn English at the Tertiary Level

Liu (2007) of China conducted a study on the motivation of Chinese students learning English at tertiary level. The study revealed that the students had a positive attitude towards learning English and that they were more instrumentally motivated than integratively motivated to learn English.

Motivational Orientation for Learning English among Marathi Speaking Students

Lukmani (1972) demonstrated that among Marathi speaking Indian students learning English in India, those with instrumental orientations scored higher in tests of English proficiency. Kachru (1992) also noted that Indian English is one of the varieties of English which can be acquired very successfully for instrumental purposes alone.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study is a combination of qualitative and quantitative analysis. Quantitative analysis was used in the interpretation of the results of the data which required statistical formula. Descriptive-correlation design was used in describing the relationship between the respondents’ socio-economic background and the teaching techniques of the respondents’ teachers and the motivation for and attitude of the respondents in learning English.
Research Locale

This study was conducted at Mindanao State University, Marawi City, Philippines. The researcher carried out the study at the College of Social Sciences and Humanities.

Research Instruments Used

The researcher used different research instruments to obtain the necessary data. Observation was first used by the researcher to find out the teaching techniques of the English teachers. After the observation of the classes, the researcher designed a questionnaire distributed to the respondents to find out if there is a relationship between the motivation and attitude of the respondents in learning English and the observed techniques. Then, another questionnaire was designed to elicit personal data like the socio-economic background and some information concerning motivation for and attitude towards learning English. The questionnaire for attitude and motivation is adapted from Gardner’s Attitude and Motivation Battery Test (1985) with a five-point Lickert Scale. The questionnaire was then reinforced by an informal group interview with the respondents.

Data Gathering Procedures

During the first semester of the Academic Year 2008-2009, the researcher gathered the needed data by following these steps: first, a permit was secured from the Chairperson of the Department of English for the observation of English 1 classes, the administration of the questionnaires and the conducting of the informal interviews. Second, the five (5) English 1 classes were determined and permission from the English 1 teachers handling the classes was secured to observe their classes, and to interview their students. For more than a month, the classes were observed and the techniques used were recorded. Third, a questionnaire to find out the techniques of the teachers was designed. Fourth, the questionnaires were distributed to elicit information about the respondents’ profiles which included the students’ socioeconomic background, the students’ motivation and attitude using the Attitude and Motivation Battery Test, 1985. Finally, an informal group interview with the respondents was conducted days after they answered the questionnaires and their answers recorded.

Statistical Treatment

This study used the following statistical tools for the analysis and interpretation of the data which were gathered:

1. Frequency and Percentage
P=F/N x 100

Where: 
F - Frequency of the respondents
N - Number of respondents
100 - Constant

2. Contingency Coefficient Correlation. This was used to find the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables. The formula is

\[ C = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{x^2 + N}} \]

Where:
C is the Contingency Coefficient
\( x^2 \) is the Chi-square Value

Research Results
Socio-economic Background of the Respondents

Students studying English do not come inside their classes as tabulae rasa, they bring with them affective factors. These affective factors could come from their socio-economic background which is the first part of the questionnaire of this study. Using frequency and percentage distribution, the following were found out: a. 29% of the respondents’ fathers earn P4999-below monthly b. 55% of the respondents’ mothers earn P4999-below monthly, c. 58% of the parents of the respondents were college graduates, d. 62% of the parents’ respondents had blue-collar jobs (drivers, vendors, security guards, farmers, and fishermen) e. 35.20% of the respondents have television at home f. 41.90% of the respondents have books at home. These results imply that the majority of the 100 respondents come from poor families. This certain condition could affect the mentality or view of the respondents on the importance of education, which highly involves English, as a tool for better future careers which could alter or improve their present condition. It is a fact in the Philippines that most job opportunities in the country require proficiency in English and thus, the respondents may possess a positive attitude toward learning English since they know they highly need it. As the Achievement Theory states, learners are motivated because of their need for achievement which means individuals are interested to learn for their own sake.
**Attitude and Motivation**

Table 1 shows that out of the nine questions (five positive questions and four negative questions) adapted from Gardner and Lambert’s Attitude and Motivation Battery Test, fifty five percent (55%) of the respondents answered “strongly agree” and only (0.4%) answered “strongly disagree.

This means that the majority of the respondents agreed with the positive questions and disagreed with the negative questions of the attitude questionnaire and thus the respondents possessed a positive attitude towards learning English. This implies that the majority of the respondents were also motivated since, according to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation comes from attitude.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes toward Learning English</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1. Percentage Distribution of the Respondents’ Attitudes toward Learning English**

Attitude itself is to be measured by asking a subject to evaluate an object’…from an operational point of view, an individual’s attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent’(Gardner and Lambert, 1959). In practical terms, then, an attitude is a construct derived from the informants’ answers to a number of questions about an object.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational Orientation</th>
<th>Integrative Orientation</th>
<th>Instrumental Orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Percentage Distribution of the Respondents’ Motivational Orientation towards Learning English**
Table 2 shows that the respondents were both integratively and instrumentally motivated to learn English. All the respondents answered “Strongly Agree” in the integrative orientation and 50% answered “Strongly Agree” in the instrumental orientation and another 50% answered “Agree” in the instrumental orientation. This implies that the students wanted to learn English to be able to speak with other Filipinos who can speak the language; they wanted to socialize with them. The respondents also wanted to read and understand printed materials written in English like that of art and literature. The respondents also desired to learn English because they felt they needed it for their future careers especially since most of the jobs today require knowledge and proficiency in speaking English. Not only do the students need proficiency in English in the future but they also need it for their other subjects at the university since almost all of the subjects are taught and written in English.

*Teaching Techniques Used by Teachers*

This study included the teaching techniques of the instructors as an independent variable since the students could either like or dislike the strategies of their teachers, thereby affecting their learning of English. The following presents the techniques used by the teachers of the respondents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading printed materials (passages)</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogue</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Games</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual activities (pictures, drawings, sketches)</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board work</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short exercises</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group work</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair work</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Frequency of Teaching Techniques Used by English 1 Teachers

Table 3 presents the techniques used by the instructors in teaching English. All the teachers of the respondents used these techniques in their classes. This only implies that the teachers used the communicative way of language teaching (CLT). At the beginning of the
class, the teacher presented activities like games and other group work to ‘hook’ the students. This served as a warm-up activity. After warming up, the teacher presented the lesson which was actually related to the activity they previously had. Usually, board work or short exercises followed the lecture. Before the end of the class, the teacher announced the assignment to be submitted during their next meeting. The games and group work the respondents participated in were always reality based or those that the students could relate to. They did assignments which allowed them to present their life or personality like that of drawing a particular figure which would represent the student as a person. There were also class activities that would enable the students to get to know their classmates. One example is, the students were given a list of traits or favorites, and the teacher asked questions like ‘who likes ice cream?’ and ‘who lives in Davao?’; and the students roamed around the class and found a classmate who fulfilled the answer to the question. The teacher also saw to it that the same students were always grouped or paired; it is a good way of knowing their classmates. During the informal interview, the students related that they looked forward to their coming activities. They enjoyed participating because the activities excited them; they did not get bored since they moved around from time to time instead of simply being wedged in their seats. The students like these ways of presenting and teaching English since they learned and at the same time they had fun and got to work with their classmates.

The Relationship between Socio-economic Background and Teaching Techniques to Attitude and Motivation towards Learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
<th>Degree of Freedom</th>
<th>Critical value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude and Motivation</td>
<td>Teachers’ Techniques</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.296</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude and Motivation</td>
<td>Socio-economic Background</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.296</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Chi-Square Test for Independence as to the Socio-Economic Background and Teaching Techniques in Relation to the Attitudes and Motivation of Students in Learning English as a Second Language

The computation shows the acceptance of the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the motivation and attitude of the selected English 1 students and their socio-economic background and the teaching techniques of the instructors. This result implies that whatever condition or family status the respondents belong to, they are still motivated to
learn English. It also implies that the techniques of the teachers do not affect the positive attitude and motivation of the respondents. This means that they were not only instrumentally and integratively motivated but they were also intrinsically motivated which means that even before the start of their English classes, they were already motivated.

Conclusions

The study found that the respondents were driven by their individual goals and purposes of learning English which were reflected in their orientation of motivation. They were both instrumentally and integratively motivated which means that they wanted to learn English for their future careers, to understand and speak English, and to be able to socialize with those who can also speak the language. They had been intrinsically motivated even before the start of their English 1 classes since their socio-economic situation and the techniques of their teachers did not affect their motivation for and attitude in learning English. Their goals in learning English were what had driven them in learning the language.

Although the teaching techniques of the English teachers did not have a significant relationship with the motivation and attitude of the respondents, the way the teachers taught English intensified the drive of the students in such a manner that they liked the way their teachers taught and they enjoyed their class activities.

REFERENCES


Changes in Personality and Oral Competence after Studying English Abroad

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Omar Karlin is a non-tenured Assistant Professor at Meiji University in Tokyo. He obtained his M.Ed in TESOL from Temple University, and is currently a Ph.D candidate at Temple's Doctor of Education program. His research interests include how personality affects second language acquisition for study abroad students.

Abstract
A total of 29 university students of varying proficiency from a university near Tokyo went abroad to Australia for one month to study English. Students were enrolled at a university-administered English program in which they attended three hours of class per day, and were hosted by a family during their stay in Australia. All students completed a personality survey before and after their study-abroad experience, and a 10-15 minute phone interview when they returned. Personality survey results were analyzed using Winsteps to obtain a person measure of personality for each student. Results indicated that after just a month abroad, there was an increase in the personality measures extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability. Interviews were transcribed and entered into the software LIWC2007, which analyzed word categories. Paired sample t-tests were conducted using the pre-departure personality measures of students and post-return word count (interview) results. The results of the t-tests indicated that only those high in extraversion had a significant advantage in oral competence.

Keywords: Personality, extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability, study abroad

Background and Review of Literature
In the 1970s, a study by researchers at the University of Toronto attempted to link several areas of personality with second language (Naiman 1978). This study represented the first examination of personality within a second language context, yet despite an abundance of linkage attempts within the study, few connections between personality and second language could be identified. As pointed out by DeWaele and Furnham (Dewaele and Furnham 1999), personality research basically disappeared from the TESOL field. From the late 1970s to the late 1990s, only a handful of research studies examined personality within a TESOL context, most of which were of questionable design and value. During that time, TESOL researchers flocked to other psychological dimensions that explain individual differences, building a tremendous body of research in areas such as motivation (Dornyei 2005), willingness-to-communicate (McCroskey 1992), learning strategies (Bidjerano and
Dai 2007), anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986), aptitude (Carroll and Sapon 1975), cognition (Gardner and MacIntyre 1992), and self-regulation (Chularut and DeBacker, 2004). Due to this neglect, personality remains one of the only unexplored areas of psychology inquiry within a TESOL context, making it an important area to revisit. While the TESOL research community has gained valuable insights into those aforementioned research areas, personality represents the undiscovered country. Within the TESOL field, so little is known about personality that it offers a tremendous research opportunity for the TESOL community. Essentially, much of the low-hanging personality fruit still hangs from the tree, while the low-hanging fruit in those other areas of individual difference has long since been picked. Adding to this justification to revisit personality is the DeWaele and Furnham study, which claimed that the original University of Toronto personality study that scuttled subsequent personality research was flawed. The failure of that study to find connections between personality and second language was because of deficiencies in that study’s design, not because of a lack of interaction between personality and second language learning.

One of the pioneers of personality research, Hans Eysenck, developed the personality model known as the Big 2 which suggested that people’s personality was composed of extraversion and neuroticism (Eysenck 1978). Extraversion is a measure of how outgoing a person may be while neuroticism is the measure of how emotionally unstable a person may be. Eventually, this Big 2 model gave way to a Big 3 model which added a psychoticism dimension. Psychoticism is a measure of antisocial behaviour and high levels can be found in criminals and social nare-do-wells. Following this, a Big 5 model assumed the mantle of dominant model (McCrae and Costa 1987), adding conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness dimensions (with psychoticism being dropped). Conscientiousness is a measure of how hard a person works at things, agreeableness is the measure of how well somebody gets along with others, and openness, which is sometimes referred to as intellect or intelligence, is the measure of how open a person may be to new ideas and concepts. The Big 5 is often regarded as the dominant model in personality research (Dewaele and Furnham 1999) but judging by history, it may eventually be usurped by a more comprehensive model. Some researchers have suggested that Asian cultures possess an additional humble/humility dimension that western cultures do not possess, and hence follow a Big 6 (Ashton, Lee, and Goldberg, 2006), while others have suggested a Big 7 (Simms 2007; Bowler, Bowler, and Phillips, 2009), and others still have suggested that sub-factors are more useful than super-factors.

There are two instruments that frequently appear in the research literature, the MBTI
(Myers and Briggs 1976) and the NEO-Pi-R (Costa and McCrae 1985). The MBTI, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, actually does not follow the Big 5 model of personality but rather a 4-dimension model. The MBTI uses four dimensions to group respondents into one of 16 different personality types. The NEO-Pi-R follows a Big 5 model of personality and assigns a score for each personality dimension. However, despite the prevalence of both of these surveys in personality research, there are significant flaws with each that make their use problematic. With regard to the MBTI, it does not follow the dominant personality model and instead follows a model that is really only associated with itself, severely limiting the generalizability of results. Additionally, the MBTI does not use continuous data, which severely limits the validity of its results (Pittenger 1993). For example, if a respondent scores a 51% on the introversion-extraversion scale, they are labelled an extravert, the same as a respondent who scores 100% on the introversion-extraversion scale. So while there may be significant differences between these two individuals, one only slightly extraverted while the other is extremely extraverted, the MBTI renders them as equals. Further, when one considers the margin of error of about 3%, a person could score 51% on the extraversion scale but could actually be at 48% when you consider the margin of error, so the MBTI would classify this introvert as the same as somebody who is extremely extraverted.

As for flaws with the NEO Pi-R, it is a copyrighted test so it is not easy to procure for use without incurring significant costs. As an alternative, there is an open source instrument modelled after the NEO Pi-R which researchers can use (Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, and Gough, 2006). Unfortunately, there is a major flaw with both of these tests in that they were intended for a first-language application. Anecdotally speaking, there seems to be many instances of people who claim to have a different personality in their native language than when they speak in a second language. For the Japanese, it is not uncommon to hear bilingual (Japanese and English) speakers claim that they adopt a restrained personality when speaking in Japanese, adhering to the rigid rules of Japanese social conduct. However, when they speak English, these people claim to feel freer, leaving behind the restraint associated with their native language and culture, and adopting the cultural values associated with English, such as directness, progressiveness, and freedom.

A growing body of research has begun to challenge the notion that personality is genetically predetermined and static. This growing research has suggested that personality is actually partially situational (Wood and Roberts, 2006), as people’s personality changes depending on whether we are on a date, at a job interview, chatting with friends, or meeting new people. As a consequence, personality instruments need to reflect this shift and design
items that reflect the pressures associated with second language learning. To remedy this, a new personality instrument called the QuEEP; the Questionnaire of English Environment Personality was created for this study, modelled after the 50-item International Personality Item Pool Big Five Markers (Goldberg, Johnson et al. 2006). Items for the QuEEP were altered from their IPIP influences to cover themes such as travelling, English class, meeting native speakers, and cultural items such as movies, music, books, and television. Originally 154 items were drafted and evaluated through the examination of Wright Item Maps, taken from the responses of 254 students who piloted the instrument. The number of items was narrowed to the 50 items that offered the best person coverage, 10 items for each of the five personality dimensions. The determining factors on whether an item was deemed suitable or not was an examination of each item’s fit statistics and person coverage after being processed through Winsteps, Rasch Analysis modelling software (Linacre 2006). Some examples of modified items include the following IPIP items “worry about things”, “get stressed out easily”, “talk to a lot of different people at parties”, “don’t like to draw attention to myself”, “am always prepared”, and “am interested in others” , which were modified to the following: “am worried people will remember my mistakes”, “have little stress from this class”, “easily talk to foreigners”, “enjoy presentations”, “do my English homework every week”, and “always leave English class quickly when it is finished”. In addition to completing the QuEEP before and after their time abroad, students also completed a phone interview when they returned. Each interview was conducted through Skype and recorded with Skype Recorder. Students, in most cases, were called at their home-stay family’s home a couple of days before their flight back to Japan. When this was not possible, they were called as soon as possible after their return. The theme of the interview was not important because the main goal was to assess oral competence, not thematic understanding. However, to keep the conversations naturalistic, the conversation was centered on relatable themes, namely their travel experiences, English classes, and their study abroad trip. The interviews began with several simple past questions that asked students about their travel experiences, such as “What did you do in Hawaii?” and “What did you eat in Hawaii?”. This was followed by two superlative questions about their home-stay, such as “What are you looking forward to the most?” and “What are you the most worried about?”. This was followed by two comparative questions, asking students “What’s the difference between Australia and Japan?” and “Can you compare Karlin and Kikuchi’s English classes?”. This was followed by several questions involving numbers and specifically asking students, “How much money did you bring to Australia?” and “How much did things cost in Australia?”. After this,
students were asked to construct a narrative about a memory or story that occurred on their trip. Finally, students were asked to describe a process, forcing them to use imperatives and time sequencing, in this case, how to cook.

Results

The conscientiousness dimension correlated with four linguistic variables (positively with dictionary coverage, negative emotion words, impersonal pronouns, and negatively with sexual words), openness correlated with five linguistic variables (positively with insight words, certainty words, tentative words, feel words, and negatively with negation), emotional stability correlated with four linguistic variables (positively with past tense verbs, exclusive words, negatively with future tense verbs, and non-fluencies), and agreeableness correlated with one linguistic variable (negatively with assent words). Considering there are 72 linguistic measured by LIWC2007 (there are more, but for the purposes of this study only 72 were relevant), and the threshold for significance in the social sciences is 0.05, meaning that 3.6 out of 72 correlations could simply be a result of randomness in the data. So essentially, anything less than 4 significant correlations could be random noise, and is thus not something to get excited about. With that in mind, the correlations with the C, O, ES, and A dimensions all fall around this threshold and are not noteworthy. Having said that, extraversion had 26 significant correlations (positively with words per second, total words, words per sentence, function words, pronouns, we pronouns, they pronouns, impersonal pronouns, verb, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, quantity words, social words, friendship words, cognitive mechanical words, insight words, discrepancy words, tentative words, inclusive words, exclusive words, hear words, negatively with assent words, non-fluencies, periods, and all punctuation).

Person measures for each personality dimension were determined through a pre- and post-test. As can be seen in Table 1, paired sample t-tests indicated that extraversion, conscientiousness, and emotional stability all increased significantly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Stan. Deviation</th>
<th>Stan. Error</th>
<th>95% CI Lower</th>
<th>95% CI Upper</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extraversion</strong></td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conscientiousness</strong></td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.40</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.31</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A strong connection between oral competence and the personality dimension of extraversion emerges from the data. Further, extraversion, at least a second-language version of extraversion as measured by the QuEEP, has proven to be malleable, even after only a month abroad. These results suggest that teachers may be able to increase student levels of extraversion before they go abroad, allowing them to begin their study abroad with enhanced levels of extraversion, essentially hitting the ground running as soon as they arrive in the host country. To achieve this, items in the E scale need to be scrutinized for clues on how to enhance student levels of extraversion. The first step is likely to reorganize the ten items into a narrower conceptual framework in order to develop a thematic focus for lessons, activities, and other classroom activities. Constantly keeping 10 unique items in mind can be unwieldy when underpinning a class with commensurate principles, but three or four central principles is much easier for teachers to conceptualize when lesson planning. With that in mind, it seems that several items (can easily find a partner, like pair work more than individual work, leave class slowly after it is finished, leave English class quickly when it is finished) could be
categorized as “social aspects”, several (like English speaking practice, prefer free talking, often speak in English during class) could fall under “language comfort”, and others (talk to the teacher before/after class, enjoy presentations, am shy) under “anxiety reduction”.

With this in mind, if lessons can be developed around these three thematic areas, they might be able to enhance student levels of extraversion and thereby maximize chances of success while abroad. Future research could incorporate this possibility into its design and measure whether certain teaching methodologies can actually affect personality and subsequent success while studying abroad.

Limitations

One limitation with this study is the assumption that because of the greater malleability of personality in this study, the directionality of the extraversion and oral competence relationship begins with extraversion and causes oral competence to improve. However, it is possible that the reverse is also true, that increased oral competence leads to greater extraversion. In future research, it may be advantageous to investigate the directionality of this relationship.

It should also be noted that it is extremely difficult to isolate personality in the QuEEP items from other psychological influences. A number of other psychological dimensions overlap with extraversion, making it problematic to assume that the correlation between oral competence and extraversion may not also be reflective of motivation, anxiety, aptitude, or other factors. Greater scrutiny of the wording of E-items may help to minimize other potential influences that could be skewing the result.

Conclusion

It is apparent, from the data in this study, that there is some sort of relationship between extraversion and oral competence after one month of studying abroad. If future research can determine that this is a causal relationship that stems from extraversion, and if extraversion can be enhanced through teaching techniques, teachers may have a chance to maximize the potential of students who go abroad to study by enhancing extraversion in the run-up to their departure.
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Teaching Interactive Strategies with Video Clips

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Bio Data
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Abstract
Young EFL learners are often hesitant to speak up and participate in Oral Communication courses. This paper presents an effective use of Near Peer Role Modeling (NPRMing) combined with video clips as a way to model interactive strategies. This paper looks at the theoretical background behind interactive strategies, interaction and learning, and NPRMing. It also explains and gives examples of how to use the clips in activities or as strategy reviews in conversation classes.

Key Words: Near Peer Role Modeling, Interactive Strategies, Learning and Interaction.

Introduction and background
Interactive strategies, also referred to as conversation strategies, are a common component of language learning textbooks and curricula for Oral Communications courses. There are many approaches to presenting, teaching, and reviewing these strategies. An effective approach I have developed and used in my Oral Communication courses is by combining Near Peer Role Modeling (NPRMing) and video clips. In this paper, I would like to give the background behind this idea and then offer some examples of activities that I have used in my classes to demonstrate the video project.

Theory
Strategies
Although the importance of strategies on learner acquisition is well documented, a clear categorization of these strategies is hard to find. According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics (2010), a strategy is a “procedure used in learning, thinking etc., which serves as a way of reaching a goal.” Similarly, in the business or sports world, a strategy is an action undertaken to improve chances at success. In language learning, strategies have a wide range of meanings from a general approach to teaching such as the Communicative approach all the way to specific actions or techniques such as the phrases used to ask your partner how to spell something. Cohen (1996) attempted to classify
and further define strategies with his Hierarchy of Strategies. Cohen divided strategies into two groups, Second Language Learning (SLL) and Second Language Use Strategies (SLUS). The distinction between the two groups is that in SLL, learners are improving their knowledge in a target language and in SLUS, learners are employing the language that they have in their current interlanguage. An example of the former might be students who realize they are having a hard time conjugating verbs and make lists of verbs in their notebook. Then they divide the list into regular and irregular verbs. Later they transfer the harder to remember conjugations onto flash cards. In this example, the students have chosen a strategy to help them improve their knowledge in and of a language. An example of a SLUS strategy would include a retrieval strategy. A retrieval strategy helps a learner to recall a word or item from his or her memory. Japanese language learners often employ retrieval strategies in order to remember the written stroke order of Kanji. In his book, Remembering the Kanji, Nanzan professor, James Heisig, encourages students to create shocking stories based on the various radicals in order to internalize and better remember them.

The word strategy as previously defined by Longman insinuates that strategies are a conscious action that learners are aware they are doing in order to improve their ability. In this paper, I would like to include the distinction that if learners are aware they are using a certain expression or technique, it is a strategy. If they are able to use the strategy unconsciously, then it becomes a skill. For example, beginner students start showing some improvement in their conversational ability but realize they are responding to a lot of their partners’ responses in Japanese. The students make an effort to study some common English interjections, write them down in a notebook, and attempt to use them when speaking with their teacher or fellow students in class. Later they go to a foreign country as an exchange students and while slightly overwhelmed in the surroundings of their host family begin to interject in English without realizing the change. At this point, they have internalized the expressions and made them part of their lexicon; thus they are no longer a strategy but have become a skill.

Interactive strategies are the gambits, phrases, and expressions used by learners when they face communication difficulties during classroom guided conversations. The ability to be able to use these strategies can help support student conversations. In Swain’s definition of part of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30) she explains the role and importance of this use of strategies. “Strategic competence is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient grammatical competence.”
Interactive strategies could be classified as both SLL and SLUs in Cohen’s Hierarchy of Strategies as they not only inform and assist learners in improving their knowledge in English but also have the students use the language they have learned in order to communicate for meaning.

**Learning and Interaction**

The second theoretical idea behind the video project is learning through interaction. Especially relevant to this project is that most university students in Japan have studied English for academic purposes and test taking and not with a goal of improving their communicative ability. As a former high school teacher in Japan, I was witness to the endless hours students spent working through complex uncontextualized sentences the teachers had adapted from text books. The grammar translation method and teacher-fronted classes often leave students either, afraid, unable, or even occasionally hungry for authentic interactions in English. Giving students the chance for output and the realization that they can improve in new areas by interacting with each other brings into focus the importance of learning and interaction.

In Lightbrown & Spada (2006, p.150), having students learn from interacting with each other is explained by negotiation of meaning. The students “are compelled to ‘negotiate for meaning’, that is, to express and clarify their intentions, thoughts, opinions, etc., in a way that permits them to arrive at mutual understanding.” They further explain that students learn words and grammatical structures by negotiating meaning. Sato & Lyster (2007) looked at learning opportunities that occur during learner-native speaker interactions and learner-learner interactions. Surprisingly they found that “interactional moves hypothesized to facilitate L2 development” might be found more in learner-learner interaction.

**Near Peer Role Modeling**

The final part of the theory behind this project is near-peer role modeling. According to Murphey & Arao (2001) Near Peer Role Models (NPRMs) are “peers who are close to one’s social, professional, and/or age level, and whom one may respect and admire.” By using these peers or role models to interact with relatively novice language learners they can have a positive and motivating effect. According to Lantolf & Thorne (2006, p. 256), learners who interact (in this case writing) with NPRMs provide more “proximal and obtainable proficiency goal(s)” than native speakers.

In the activity proposed in this paper, older students’ examples are used to model
strategies for younger, less proficient students. Some of the key points are 1) younger students observe older students, 2) the older students’ examples provide evidence to the younger students that they can and will improve in the future, 3) the younger students will be motivated to improve to become more like their advanced peers.

**Video Project (Procedure)**

The video project explained in this paper draws on the three ideas previously explained, namely strategies, interaction and learning, and NPRMing. As coordinator of first and second year Oral Communication courses in my department at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies (NUFS), my curriculum instructs teachers to have students speak in “guided conversations” for 30 minutes or more per class. This emphasis on output is supported not only by a text book which provides topics and vocabulary, but also by interactive strategies that help students to be able to negotiate and learn from each other. The video project has been an effective way to present and teach these strategies to students. Students in first year classes watch clips taken from their peers in second year classes. The clips can be used to supplement interactive strategies being taught in the text book or they can be used to review strategies in the middle or end of the semester. The collection and classification of clips is an ongoing process that also requires the permission of students.

The process began with making a comprehensive list of strategies. Next, I arranged the strategies in order of difficulty and then started filming student conversations. While viewing the conversations, I selected clips of exemplary use of strategies. Later, I used these exemplary clips to teach specific strategies or for reviews.

**Examples of Activities Using Video Clips**

*Example 1: Asking your partner the same question*

This strategy is important for beginning students in order to keep the conversation going and also forces them to listen to the answer of the partner and then formulate a question based on the answer. Although this strategy is simple to understand, it also serves as a good example to young learners of the importance of interaction.

The first step to using this strategy is to introduce the strategy and explain it to the students. The students can read through the examples from their handouts and repeat the necessary question (i.e., “How about you?”). Next I choose a student and read through the short example conversations in order to show him or her an example of the strategy. The
examples are of a typical conversation that lacks interaction and also of a conversation that is more interactional because of the use of the strategy.

Next I have the students read through the conversation from the video, also on their handouts. This is a cloze exercise where I have them try to fill in the answers before I play the video clip. I do this because it isn’t a listening exercise and I want them to think about the language that is being used. Finally, I play the clip and have students check their answers.

The final part of this activity is something that I do with all of my strategy activities; I have them try to use the language we have just studied in a speaking activity. I have found that students can better understand the strategies, not only by watching the clips, but by trying to use the strategy while producing language.

In this case, I want them to have an opportunity to use the strategy so I give them a simple task like talking about what they had for dinner last night. I encourage students to give answers and then ask their partner the same question.

Example worksheet 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Video Clip 1: Asking Your Partner the Same Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A basic strategy to increase interaction and make a conversation more natural is to ask your partner the same question that he or she just asked you. You can do this by saying, “How about you?”, “And you?”, or by repeating the question (e.g., “What’s your favorite color?”).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Common example of beginner’s conversation:
A: Which baseball team do you like?
B: I like the Dragons.
A: Who is your favorite player?
B: I like Ibata.
A: …I like the Tigers.

A better example:
X: Were you in a club in high school?
Y: Yes, I was on the softball team.
X: What position did you play?
Y: Shortstop. How about you?
X: Me?
Y: Were you in a club?
X: Yeah, I was on the volleyball team.

Look at the conversation below. Try to guess what the speakers are saying. Watch the video and check your answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>that’s great</th>
<th>what kind of riceball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>how about you</td>
<td>what did you eat for breakfast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A: __________________________________________?
B: Breakfast?
A: Yes.
Example 2: Offering clarification

I chose this video clip because it is often a necessary and useful strategy for EFL learners and it is also a more difficult example than the previous one. For this strategy, I first explain what clarification means and why it is important to offer clarification when you aren’t sure if your partner understands you. Then I have the students read through the questions about the clip before showing it. Because it is important for students to watch the clip, I insist they put down their pencils and watch the clip. I let them write the answers to the questions the second time I play the clip. Finally, I have them check their answers with a partner and then I elicit the correct answers as a class.

As a follow-up to this activity, I try and elicit some more ways to offer clarification and help students come up with several more examples. The last part of this activity is to try and have the students use the strategy to further understand and internalize the language. In this case, I have them try to brainstorm some unusual foods they have eaten, then explain the foods to their partner, using this strategy if necessary, and using gestures, too.
Example worksheet 2:

**Video Clip 2: Offering clarification**

If you think your partner doesn’t understand what you are saying, it is important to offer clarification. Activity: Watch the video and answer the questions.

1. The male student wants to know if the girl eats more buns, rice, or noodles. What question does he ask?

2. The male student does two things to clarify what he is trying to say.
   
   A. What does he say? ______________________________________________________
   
   B. What does he do? ______________________________________________________

**What are some other ways to offer clarification:**

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

**Speaking Activity:** Talk about an unusual food you have eaten. Use language or gestures to clarify.

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**Discussion**

After compiling video clips, creating activities, and using in several classes the past year, I have found the idea of showing exemplary interactive strategies to other student peers to be an effective way of teaching the strategies. Although many text books try to match topics with strategies that would likely be used in conversations about those topics, this video approach goes a step farther by using NPRMs who are “in the moment” and using authentic language that is near their peers’ own ability. Although the project takes time to start and requires permission from students and possibly the administration, the long-term benefits have proven to make doing this project worthwhile. Students have shown immense interest in the videos. Although I haven’t yet tried pre-test and post-test research on student retention of strategies, there has been an obvious increase in student interest and attention to strategies. In addition to the video project, the course has two group speaking tests to review topics studied in the semester. The speaking tests are graded on several competencies, one of which is using strategies. The students receive feedback from the beginning, middle, and end of the year on their competencies. By combining feedback with an interesting source of strategies I am confident this course will be more effective and dynamic than before I used these video clips.
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A Qualitative Study Exploring the Content Learned in English as a Foreign Language Classes Taught by Native Speakers

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Michelle Kawamura is a lecturer at Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan. She has been teaching English for over 15 years and promoting cross-cultural awareness among her students. She believes that integration of cross-cultural understanding and communication via technology using English as a medium of communication is critical in preparing our students in today’s globalizing world.

Pin-hsiang Natalie Wu, Ph.D., is an assistant professor at Chien-kuo Technology University, Taiwan. She has been teaching English for over 16 years, having much experience with cross-cultural English learning via asynchronous computer-mediated communications among Asian L2 learners. Her work in EFL instruction stems from her interest in incorporating electronic media to stimulate talks among English learners of different countries, including Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong, West Africa and South Korean. She also has academic interests in applying new technologies to the teaching of L2 literature.

Abstract

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) study is now a compulsory and necessary curriculum in most of the non-native English-speaking countries. The number of English users outside of the mainstream English speakers is growing globally due to continued economic development globally, international social interactions, and global humanitarian involvement. Teachers of English as a foreign language need to recognize this phenomenon and deliver their instructions accordingly. This research paper examines two case studies of the students’ perceptions of English learned in their English classes conducted in Japan and Taiwan. This research will answer the question as to what extent the university students learned beyond the traditional grammar and reading-focused English classes. Using a qualitative phenomenological approach, data from students’ focus group interviews will be coded into themes to identify the content of instructions in their English as a foreign language classes. This paper will explore and compare the contents conducted in the English as foreign language classes by examining students’ interview data.

Key Words: case study, culture, content learned in EFL class, English education

Introduction

The growths of the global economic environment, the availability and accessibility of transportation, and the advancement of information and communication technologies have
created a new focus on English education. Traditional English language learning focused on the usage of correct English; this has shifted to a more “multicultural perspective” for English learning. Hence, cultural issues arise as the new trend with English users coming from different parts of the world, bringing with them certain cultures and all kinds of “englishe”s” have been shaped by the local cultures. From the educators’ perspectives, English education nowadays should reflect these trends accordingly. Instead of training our students to speak “standard English” in a traditional sense, educators should promote the integration of an international perspective for students, to fit their roles as “global citizens.” An international perspective combines three elements: English proficiency, multicultural learning, and tolerance of another culture (Chen, 2011).

Thus, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes should promote the realization that proficient English includes multicultural perspectives and intercultural communicative competence. These elements of multicultural values are taught directly or transmitted through the teachers’ instructional materials, activities, and lectures. Students’ thoughts and perceptions are affected through class interaction and instruction with an international perspective, which is also known as the hidden curriculum in education of various subjects (Shephard, 2008).

This pilot study examines two groups of EFL learners in order to explore the content learned in EFL classes taught by native-English speaking teachers, and how the content learned affects these learners’ perceptions of their English usage in the future. In particular, this study explored the specific elements learned by comparing data gathered between the Japanese and Taiwanese college, non-English major students. Data were gathered through focus group interviews with students from EFL classes. Data obtained from participants in Japan and Taiwan were examined to detect the differences and similarities between the two groups of EFL learners.

The purpose of this study is to probe deeper into the issue of EFL content learned to see if the importance of cultural issues is being successfully recognized by the teachers and integrated as an essential component of instruction in light of increased globalization. Does the infusion of cultural issues into EFL instruction affect students’ perceptions of how English is used in today’s globalized society? The study also aims to explore whether students’ multicultural awareness increases through contents learned in EFL classes, aside from their learning of the mechanics of English.

The research questions for the study are:
1. What are the lived educational experiences of the (EFL) students, specifically in terms of whether they learned English within a multi-cultural, global context?
2. What are the differences and similarities of the content learned and perceptions of university EFL students in Taiwan and Japan? Are the EFL students affected in terms of their perception of how English is used in the future after attending their EFL classes?

**Literature Review**

English, a defacto international language widely studied by countries in the world, has gone through the process of natural diffusion in the geographic area and by the people who use it (Honna, 2008). English as a foreign language is part of the core course requirements of compulsory curriculum in many countries from as young as elementary schools to universities. The language plays a major role in many educational systems (Coleman, 2006). English is gaining ground in non-native English and non-Western countries, where people of different religious beliefs, cultural patterns, and political structures are studying and using this language (Kachru, Kachru & Nelson 2006). Compulsory English courses are implemented on non-English major students with various purposes, depending on the departmental and chief coordinator’s goals. In most cases, EFL courses are not operating under a supervised program, giving the native-English teachers discretions on the textbooks used and content taught in class.

The question is, what are the contents taught in the non-English major classes? Is cross-cultural awareness, empathy to the world, and moral judgment being transmitted from the teachers in the EFL classes today? Previous research has noted that students are not encouraged to learn about the world at large within a traditional system that places heavier emphasis on memorizing linguistic aspects of English (Kim, 2008). The sociolinguistic aspects of English in the cross-cultural context are still not understood by many educators (Bolton & Kachru, 2006). It is essential that the notion of learning and awareness of English as a global language tool for communication improves sensitivity and tolerance of differences (Honna, 2008).

These values should be part of the English as Foreign Language curriculum in today’s multi-cultural context in which English is used and adapted by many non-English speaking countries. These can be integrated by literature or readings of intercultural literacy (Honna, 2008). In addition, native-English teachers need to deliver a pragmatic curriculum with world views and intercultural understanding. Pedagogical methods, such as using you-tube,
newspapers, news, and sources that regard foreign cultures and affairs, include content that introduces differences and similarities between countries.

Content learned through classes are learned via textbooks and material used. More importantly, teachers’ instructions and the attempt to bring forth cultural issues will raise intercultural awareness. According to Meurant (2010), crucial elements to be included in the ESL/EFL textbooks through blended learning, such as the notion that English is used in communication with other non-native speakers, competency of using English in computer-mediated communication, and preparing students for a globalized world, are emphasized. One problem is that the actual content of instruction and the resultant change in perceptions of the students remains unknown, necessitating exploration. With technologies and transportation bringing the world closer, and with increased cultural frictions as well as multinational economic growth, cultural issues must be brought to the classroom to raise students’ awareness of the emergence of multicultural learning, to strengthen students’ sensitivity toward cultural issues, and to develop their intercultural competence. Besides textbooks and materials used in class, it is vital for EFL classes to include more cultural lectures and discussions to prepare students for this increasingly globalized society (Davis, 2005). In other words, hidden education has become inevitable in today’s curriculum of all EFL classes.

Hidden curriculum is a term originally used as a by-product, such as values, norms, and beliefs, transmitted via classroom instructions. These are knowledge learned through the experiences of classroom interactions, which serve to build or change students’ behavior and their beliefs regarding their society. Hidden curriculum is unintended in the classroom setting or major curriculum planning; however, the transmissions of norms and beliefs through instructions by their teachers have been well-documented in numerous studies. One example is the teaching of community service to students, which made a significant impact on the students’ social justice aims and community collaborative intentions (Swaminathan, 2007). Hidden curriculum affects a wide range of academic subjects from mathematics to language arts.

The definition of hidden curriculum has been developed differently and is based on a broad range of perspectives depending on academic field. The hidden curriculum in this study refers to courses that foster students’ awareness toward how the native-English teachers implicitly brought upon the ideas and knowledge of the English Language in the globalized, multicultural society. To be more specific, aside from the traditional teaching of the mechanics of English and the accuracy of oral, written English, a new realm of purposes that
bring empathy, tolerance, and understanding of the world via English as a foreign language is the emphasis of this study.

**Research Method**

This is a qualitative case study. The researchers used an identical instrument to measure data gathered from two sources, focus group interviews with university students of Japan and Taiwan. Qualitative research is rooted in a rich history. The research methodology developed from anthropology and field research, in which anthropologists wrote ethnographies of primitive cultures in faraway places (Hatch, 2002). Today, the qualitative research method is commonly used in psychology, political science, sociology, and education as well (Yin, 2009). The application of qualitative research to educational settings is not a new phenomenon.

Qualitative research is believed to offer information about a specific phenomenon in a rich and deeper way (Yin, 2009). Qualitative methods are appropriate for academic research in which the researcher seeks to understand the data gathered from the participants in depth, with open-ended questions and flexibility of ongoing dialogue leading to the core of the lived experience of the interviewee. The two researchers of this study sought to have students provide their answers in abundant words to provide an in-depth exploration of the core phenomenon of the study.

Miles and Huberman (1994) defined case study as exploring “a case as a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context.” A case study is also defined as “An intensive study of a specific context” (Tochim & Donnelly, 2008). The purpose of this research is to examine EFL students in a bounded context of theoretical backgrounds and limited conditions. Both groups of participants, Taiwanese and Japanese students, have had similar educational backgrounds in prior English learning from junior high school to current attendance in university English classes. To be precise, all participants of this study have had at least 6 years of compulsory English education before entering tertiary education. These EFL learners have had similar experiences in English education, having been taught by native-English speaking teachers in a bounded context, suggesting that case study is the most appropriate design for this research.

This research process used the focus group interview method to obtain data for analysis. Focus group research is commonly used in qualitative research to gather wide varieties of answers from participants with homogeneous or similar demographic backgrounds. The participants in this research, from Taiwan and Japan, were non-English
major university students with similar years of English education prior to attending universities. This research was conducted in small group interviews with questionnaires to assist students with question comprehension. Each focus group consisted of four to five students. Numerical values of the data analysis were assisted by using NVIVO9® qualitative software. Numerical results were analyzed and interpreted by the researchers.

An identical method and instrument of inquiries were applied to two different groups of participants, which included university students of Japan and Taiwan. Interview questions were designed for non-English major students in EFL classes for evaluation of content learned from the native speaking teachers’ lectures and materials used. The researchers, who also served as the interviewers, conducted the focus interview in the countries they reside in, Japan and Taiwan. The interview questions were referenced. Participants were encouraged to expand their answers freely and to have the discretion to not answer or stop at any point during the interview.

The interview protocol consisted of 13 open-ended questions that were used to obtain data to answer the research questions. Questions 1-4 focused on demographic information, including the student’s nationality, their grades at university, whether the interviewee enjoys his English classes taught by native speakers, and the nationality of the native teacher. Questions 5-13 explored the lived experiences of the EFL non-English major students in Japan and Taiwan, and included questions with regard to how the EFL classes were taught. Specific questions, such as whether elements of the culture of the teacher, the student’s home country, as well as the cultures of multiple foreign countries had been included in textbooks or supplementary materials. The researchers sought to understand (a) if these cultures had been lectured on and discussed in class, (b) the interviewee’s experience of learning in EFL classes, and (c) the affect on how they think they can use English to communicate in the future or after graduation.

Participants and Classes Chosen

The participants of this study included non-English major university students in their first or second year at a university from Taiwan and Japan. Twenty-five students from Taiwan and another 25 from Japan, both groups representing non-English majors, were included in the Spring of 2011. The interview questions inquired about the content learned, the participants’ personal experience, and their perception of how English would be used in the future in their native English speaking teachers’ classes.

There were several reasons in which non-English major students were selected over
English major or English related major students for this study. First, it is assumed that students of English or English related majors possess more interest in English and foreign cultures when they decided to enter their concentration of study. Second, the materials used in English and English related majors are more likely to contain higher international issues and focuses. Contents on the cultures of English speaking countries and those foreign countries with which they have economical and social involvement are possibly included in the course contents. Third, English majors or English related majors receive more language and cultural input compared to non-English major students. For these reasons, non-English major students are selected as more appropriate participants for this study.

EFL classes taught by native English speakers were selected for this research. Native English teachers are considered as EFL learners’ first exposure to a different culture from their own; thus, it is assumed that cultural aspects of the instructions are greater than those of local English teachers. For this reason, classes taught by native-English speaking teachers from western countries are included in this study. Local teachers’ classes will have less or limited focus on different cultures brought to their classes (Chu, 1994). In addition, local language teachers generally focus on teaching traditional English of the four essential skills, grammar, reading, writing and translation (Luk & Lin, 2007).

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

There are several stages for data collection, processing, and analysis in this qualitative study. Data collected from the student focus group interviews were transcribed and reviewed at the initial stage. Each researcher performed the same task. Transcribed data from both Japanese and Taiwanese students were reviewed by reading the transcripts several times without giving any codes. Codes were then developed after several reviews.

Reviewing the data is necessary due to the multiplicity and the large amount of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). During the initial screening, thoughts of possible codes and themes were generated. Repeated codes with similar words or similar meanings using different words were examined and grouped under the same code category. During this stage, patterns of words in the data from the interview, and similar themes were detected and written down. During the second stage, results of the codes and themes were discussed and compared between the two researchers of this study to reach the reliability of coding. The reliability is based on percentage agreement and Kappa coefficient, and the coding agreement formula created by the qualitative software NVIVO is as follows:
(Reliability or percentage agreement) = coding number agreed / coding number agreed + coding number disagreed

The coding comparison of this study between the two researchers was 80% at the beginning but reached 93% in the later period of the study, which means the reliability of the coding is high. The codes were discussed and defined for their purposes for aligning to the research questions. The codes were semantically close to the words they represented.

In the third stage, the two researchers began categorizing codes and themes. Ideas that appeared in the interview with related meaning were clustered under one theme. During this stage, the two researchers came to a consensus, drawing 20 subtopics and categorizing them into six main themes. The six themes and 20 subtopics are as listed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Subtopics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English mechanics</td>
<td>Grammar, Reading, Translation, Drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture learned</td>
<td>Students’ home culture learned, Teacher’s home culture learned, Foreign cultures learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural issues discussed</td>
<td>History discussed, Economy discussed, Social sciences discussed, Customs / traditions discussed, Politics discussed, Current issues discussed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural input</td>
<td>Cultural issues contained in the text books and used in class, Cultural issues contained in the supplementary materials and used in class, Other means of bringing up cultural issues in class such as using technology or having cultural exchanges as class activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of English usage (Job / Travel)</td>
<td>Stated intention to use English for employment and/or travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of English usage other than jobs or travel</td>
<td>Stated intention of the desire to know more about other cultures, Stated interests of using English other than employment and/or travel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1. Themes and Subtopics**

Theme five shows results of a more traditional way of English learning. When a student expresses that his goal of English learning is to apply for a future job, he is describing his desire to learn to speak and write in correct English, imitating as much as he can from the
standard English and the mainstream culture. It refers to the student’s desire to use English as a career tool. On the other hand, when a student mentions that his goal of using the language is for the purpose of travel, it implies that the learning goal is simply functional. In both work and travel, English is treated as a tool for personal purpose rather than a tool for empathy and tolerance toward the world culture.

Theme six, *perception of English usage other than jobs or travel*, is considered the theme that reveals the hidden curriculum. This theme refers to ways native speakers foster students’ awareness toward perceptions and beliefs of how the English language is used in this globalized, multicultural society through class discussions, materials used, and lectures. It is believed that if students see cross-cultural or interpersonal communication as the final aim of English learning, and express more interest in understanding cultural and global issues other than work or travel, it is likely that those EFL classes have successfully raised students’ awareness toward empathy, tolerance, and understanding of the world via English as a foreign language.

In the next step of analysis, the same topics and themes drawn from the interviews were applied to both Japanese and Taiwanese student data. Frequencies in which the number of times each topic or codes appeared were calculated. The frequencies of each topic were then used to examine the contents students studied, their attitude towards English, and the significant differences between the two nationalities. Results for Japanese students are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Frequency Hits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme One English Mechanics</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Two Culture Learned (Reading &amp; Exercises)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Three Cultural Issues Discussed</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Four Cultural Input (Textbook/print outs)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Five Perception of English Usage (Jobs/Travelling)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Six Perception of English Usage other than Jobs or Travel</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2. Findings--Results of the Japanese group*
From Table 2, the main theme of *English mechanics* had been mentioned 60 times in Japanese students’ interview data, which is the highest hit among all the related data. This means that the Japanese EFL content learned, tends to focus on the mechanics of English, which includes training on grammar, reading, writing and other skills, taking up a large percentage of instructional time. In other words, the traditional focus of English is still the common ongoing instructional practice in EFL classes in Japan. Cultural issues discussed had the second highest frequency and this reflects the recommendations proposed by the Japanese Ministry of Education to increase the emphasis on communication through EFL classes and activities of hypothetical intercultural situations (Yashima, 2002). Knowledge of cultures from reading and classroom exercises means materials used in class contain cultural issues inclusive of the teachers’ home culture, the students’ culture, and cultures other than those of the teacher and students. This reveals if the native English teachers select textbooks and foster cultural understanding in class by way of reading, doing exercises, and other strategies.

From the frequency hit data in Table 2, it seems that both cultural inputs in the textbooks and other materials used in class are relatively low compared with that of English mechanics. This result supports the results counted for theme one in reflecting on the focus of content learned in university EFL classes in Japan. When larger portions of time have been devoted to the correcting of English productions (i.e., oral, writing, listening and speaking) and the strengthening of students’ competence, cultural issues would likewise be ignored or be placed as secondary in the teaching process.

The theme *cultural input* includes the knowledge of cultures from the reading materials, activities performed, and class discussions. This theme’s lower frequencies indicate that the input of cultural understanding may not be a significant part of the EFL classrooms. Although English has been endowed the status of a “very important” subject, Japanese students merely use English in their jobs or when traveling abroad. Consequently, the last theme, *perception of English usage other than jobs or travel*, has a higher frequency than the theme *perception of English usage in jobs and travel*, pointing out students’ preference for using English in other ways to promote their own cultural awareness, rather than simply applying English to a more practical usage such as getting a job or traveling.

One possible explanation is that students were influenced by the foreign topics discussed and introduced in class, without realizing the change in their perceptions of English. This could also explain that the frequencies in theme two, *culture learned*, had a frequency outcome of 10, not an apparent significant number due to the possible lack of self-awareness. Therefore, the actual change among Japanese students’ perception of English may be
transmitted by the so-called hidden curriculum. Although not apparent, changes have occurred.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Frequency Hits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme One: English Mechanics</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Two: Culture Learned</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Three: Cultural Issues Discussed</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Four: Cultural Input</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Five: Perception of English Usage (Jobs and travelling)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Six: Perception of English Usage other than Jobs or travel.</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Results--Taiwanese group**

Similar to that of the Japanese, the data from the Taiwanese students with regard to the instructional priority of *English mechanics* also derived the highest frequencies among all other themes. This pinpoints some interesting phenomena for English education in Taiwan. Some students are used to a passive learning style in which the teachers’ primary instructional practice is lecture alone as class activity, before tertiary education. In general, high school teachers are primarily local English teachers and this has made students unaccustomed to the teaching of native speaking teachers. Native speakers are very likely to propose a topic for student-centered discussions, but many Taiwanese students cannot utter more than five sentences due to lack of vocabulary, poor expression ability, and shyness. Many of these students produce incomplete sentences for the native-speaking teachers to correct, or simply refuse to reply by saying, “I don’t know.” There are also some students who expressed a love for discussions of cultural or global issues, but many of these students had received foreign education prior to this interview.

The high frequencies suggest that for EFL courses, the teaching goal typically places high value on either the standard American English or the standard British English. This also
describes the objectives and contents emphasized in the Taiwanese EFL classes in technology universities. Unlike the Japanese Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Taiwan has not expressed support for the promotion of cultural aspects of the study via English education. Expectations of students’ general English proficiency gained from any domestic or international linguistic proficiency tests is still stressed upon by the Ministry of Taiwan. This is evidenced by the technology university evaluations on their students’ achievement according to the numbers of certificates gained from the linguistic proficiency tests. As a result, traditional language learning activities, drills, and practices for those linguistic tests were conducted in the Taiwanese EFL classroom, making the English mechanics become the main EFL class activity.

In theme three, cultural issues discussed, the frequency in Table 3 is considered high. As explained before, some Taiwanese students in technology universities are either shy or equipped with a limited vocabulary bank to understand the cultural issues proposed by the native English teacher as a topic for discussion, or to give opinions regarding cultural connotations. Even though certain high achievement students prefer oral discussions of global issues, shy and low achieving students might utter one or two sentences in reply to their teacher, and most of them express little interest in talking. Some even try not to go to classes that require a lot of talking. This is one reason for the low number for cultural discussion. On the other hand, cultural input from textbooks and materials used for cultural purposes are also low compared with that of English mechanics. This indicates that more class time had been devoted to drills, grammar practice, grammar correction and so forth.

Students’ passive attitude with regard to cultural discussions in English classes is supported by themes five and six, where the hidden curriculum of an English class with multicultural perspective can affect the attitudes students have toward how the language is used. Most interviewees expressed that they wanted to learn standard American English for their future jobs or as a tool for traveling. Job is the first priority for a future career related to English. From the data, it was apparent that not many students were actually interested in cultural and global issues other than for work.
Comparison of the Two Cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme One: English Mechanics</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Two: Cultural Learned (reading and exercises)</td>
<td>25</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Six: Perception of English Usage Other Than Job or Travel</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Evaluation of Findings

Table 4 indicates a significant difference in theme three regarding the cultural issues discussed of the two groups. Although the number of frequencies drawn from Japanese students is not very high, the frequencies of the Taiwanese group are even lower. This indicates that in both groups cultural issues had not been discussed sufficiently in order to increase the intercultural awareness and to perceive how the multicultural phenomenon exists in English learning in the globalized world. It is obvious that the current EFL classes still focus on grammar and language training that would make students’ English expressions precise and correct. Considering theme four, cultural input, whether from textbooks or handouts provided by the teachers of the Taiwanese group is evidently scant. A call for more cultural issues covered in textbooks is evident from these results.

The results in themes five and six among the Taiwanese students were higher than that of the Japanese students in both the perception of using English for future career and travelling and other usages, despite the low frequency results in themes three and four, regarding cultural input and cultural issues discussed. Two suggestions to these contradictory results are the possibility of students’ prior interests in other cultures and the lack of
correlation between the culture input and discussions in EFL classes. These results also suggest that other elements may contribute to students’ cultural learning interests, which should be considered in future research. The question of whether increasing cultural input and discussions in class will further arouse students’ expectations of the English usage in the future should also be explored in future research.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Some scholars have pointed out that although values such as intercultural awareness and cross-cultural competence should be part of the EFL curriculum in today’s multi-cultural context, within instructional practices, students are not encouraged to learn about the world at large, with the tradition system having heavier emphasis on memorizing linguistic aspects of English (Kim, 2008). These perspectives have been shown to be valid by the results given in this study. Studies on the contents students’ learned and their personal changes in their values and interests in cross-cultural understanding and competence by the EFL instructions were scarce in both Japan and Taiwan. In both countries, the hidden curriculum does not generate enough of an affect toward outcome. Issues addressed in the global usage of English have not yet entered the core of English education at least in these two countries in Asia, as revealed in the results of this study. This suggests that policies and goals set by English education at universities or the Ministries of Taiwan and Japan must be adjusted to reflect the global trend of learning. Conversely, teacher training with regard to ideas of English used as an international language, rather than as a second or foreign language, becomes inevitable because only when an English teacher is sensitive to the global trend can he or she design their syllabus, gather materials that increase cultural awareness, and incorporate and require discussions about cultural issues via English.

The results of this study indicate that students in both Japan and Taiwan report that traditional English skills are still highly emphasized in their EFL classes. These might show the attitudes of native speakers in designing a syllabus and planning teaching materials in the two countries; and it might also mean that these teachers are teaching courses aimed at training of the four skills. The results also suggest that if students are shy or refuse to speak, the native speakers will have to do most of the talking in class. Students are not likely to have real empathy and tolerance simply by listening to their teacher’s lecture. Cultures learned through reading and exercises were implemented more frequently in Taiwan, whereas cultural issues were discussed more in the Japanese EFL classes.

Although the cultural input in Japan was reported three times more frequently than that
of Taiwan, the outcome of positive perception of using English for personal and professional reasons were more frequent among the Taiwanese students. This might mean that cultural habits within a mono-cultural group are manipulating the ideas of students regarding the use of English in the future. Japanese students might feel that there is a low possibility for them to have interest on either issues of other cultures or global issues due to the fact that Japan is a close society. On the other hand, students in Taiwan generally express interests in other cultures and, therefore, frequently regard cross-cultural understanding as another goal, aside from language learning. However, these results might merely reflect desire, not actual behavior, so this interesting phenomenon indicates the need to expand this research in the future to include a greater number of participants and countries with EFL curriculum involved. Furthermore, the criteria that contribute to the perception change of the students should be added for future research.

REFERENCES


