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Inclusion of Non-native English Literatures in English Textbooks toward Critical and Multicultural Literacy

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

The study is to aid in the ongoing writing of new K-12-aligned English textbooks by proving that the inclusion of non-native English literary texts in high school English textbooks can suitably address K-12's goals. Contrary to how language and literature were integrated in English textbooks before the K-12 implementation, with a qualitative approach, this paper recommends a balanced representation of native and non-native English literary texts for students to (1) be aware of the “Englishes” used across cultures, (2) discover the purpose of the stylistic innovation and appropriation used in some texts, (3) find and accept their “third place” between their native culture and the new culture (Kramsch, 1993, p. 257), and (4) appreciate and respect cultural diversity. Ultimately, it is hoped that through these new textbooks, “the colonized man [would gradually vanish]” (Fanon, 1963) within the teachers and students who were once confined within the colonialist English pedagogy they had all been accustomed to.

Keywords: English language teaching, Non-native English literatures, Critical literacy, Multicultural literacy, Postcolonial pedagogy

Introduction

Jonathan and his family were now completely paralyses by terror. Maria and the children sobbed inaudibly like lost souls. Jonathan groaned continuously.

The silence that followed the thieves' alarm vibrated horribly. Jonathan all but begged their leader to speak again and be done with it.

'My frien,' said he at long last, 'we don try our best for call dem but I tink say dem all done sleep-o... So wetin we go do now? Sometaim you wan call soja? Or you wan make we call dem for you? Soja better pass police. No be so?'

'Na so!' replied his men. Jonathan thought he heard even more voices now than before and groaned heavily. His legs were sagging under him and his throat felt like sand-paper.

'My frien, why you no de talk again. I de ask you say you wan make we call soja?'

'No'.

'Awrighto. Now make we talk business. We nobe bad tief. We no like for make trouble. Trouble done finish. War done finish and all thekatakatawey de for inside. No Civil War again. This time na Civil Peace. No be so?'

(Achebe, 1971, p.3)

The excerpt above was taken from the 1971 short story “Civil Peace” by the Nigerian writer Chinua Achebe, considered as the “Father of Modern African Writing.” This story basically tells of how a simple Nigerian family man, Jonathan Igwegbu, and his family were gravely affected by the aftermath of the Nigerian Civil War in 1970 and how they faced their daily hardships and fears optimistically, believing that “Nothing puzzles God” (Achebe, 1970). The linear plot and uncomplicated characterization are quite easy for students to follow and understand, not yet to mention its short length and simple vocabulary. Also, the story is laden with numerous positive values that young students can learn from the example of the Igwegbu family members like perseverance, resourcefulness, diligence, love for family, and most important, faith in God. If a teacher would provide students with enough historical background about Nigerian Civil War before reading the text, or to make it more student-centered, the teacher can ask them to research on the said historical event independently before the discussion, it would not be too difficult also for them also to understand the context of the Igwegbu family’s experiences as it is quite similar with the centuries long conflict between the Philippine government and Mindanao and many socio-political problems it caused, for example, corruption, poverty, and the underdevelopment of some Mindanao provinces.

But how come this story, and even other stories written by non-Western/non-native writers in English, does not usually land at least in high school English textbooks in the Philippines and in other Asian countries? For sure, practical publication concerns like paying exorbitant copyright fees for both local and foreign texts not written by the textbook writers themselves are deterrents to this (E. E. Suarez, personal communication, July, 2013), but another possible answer could be that it was not completely written in “standard” English. A small part of the story, just like what was cited above, was written in Nigerian English. And no matter how creatively written or how appropriate for the students’ reading level these stories are, they are often disqualified as “real” literature, as what Kachru (1989) would hear teachers say(p. 149),undeserving to be used as an effective springboard for teaching the *standard* English grammar and vocabulary. This was the reality during the RBEC (Revised Basic Education Curriculum) and SEC (Secondary Education Curriculum) days. But in the current trends in EFL/ESL teaching and the new K-12 system implemented in the Philippines in 2012, can it finally have its rightful place?

The new K-12 system implemented by the Department Education in 2012 basically aims to decongest the previous curriculum to allow for more mastery of essential competencies and 21st century skills for Filipino students to be more locally and globally competitive to meet present higher education and employment demands. Significantly, the addition of two more years, Grades 11-12, would subject students to a career pathways program for them to be holistically developed and fully prepared to face the “real outside world,” thus the emphasis on **lifelong learning**, and the world of work(“K to 12 Toolkit,” 2012, pp. 3-5). The following are its new learning goals:

1. Learning and Innovation skills
 - 1.1 Creativity and curiosity
 - 1.2 Critical thinking, problem solving, and risk-taking
 - 1.3 Adaptability, managing complexity and self-direction
 - 1.4 Higher-order thinking and sound reasoning
2. Information, media, and technology skills
 - 2.1 Visual and information literacies
 - 2.2 Media literacy
 - 2.3 Basic, scientific, economic, and technological literacies
 - 2.4 Multicultural literacy and global awareness
3. Effective Communication Skills
 - 3.1 Teaming, collaboration and interpersonal skills
 - 3.2 Personal, social, and civic responsibility

- 3.3 Interactive communication
4. Life and Career Skills
4.1 Flexibility and adaptability
4.2 Initiative and self-direction
4.3 Social and cross-cultural skills
4.4 Productivity and accountability
4.5 Leadership and responsibility

("K to 12 Toolkit," 2012, pp. 9-10)

One of the learning areas that will aid in the fulfillment of these new goals is Language Arts (Mother Tongue, Filipino, and English). As mentioned in the K to 12 Toolkit designed for teacher educators, school administrators, and teachers, this curriculum will have "a greater emphasis on reading comprehension of various texts, writing and composition, study and thinking strategies which are all in support of critical and creative thinking development." ("K to 12 Toolkit," 2012, p. 36). Figure 1 below shows the Integrated Language Arts Curriculum Framework (ILACF) that will be the basis of the language arts instruction for the next years to come:

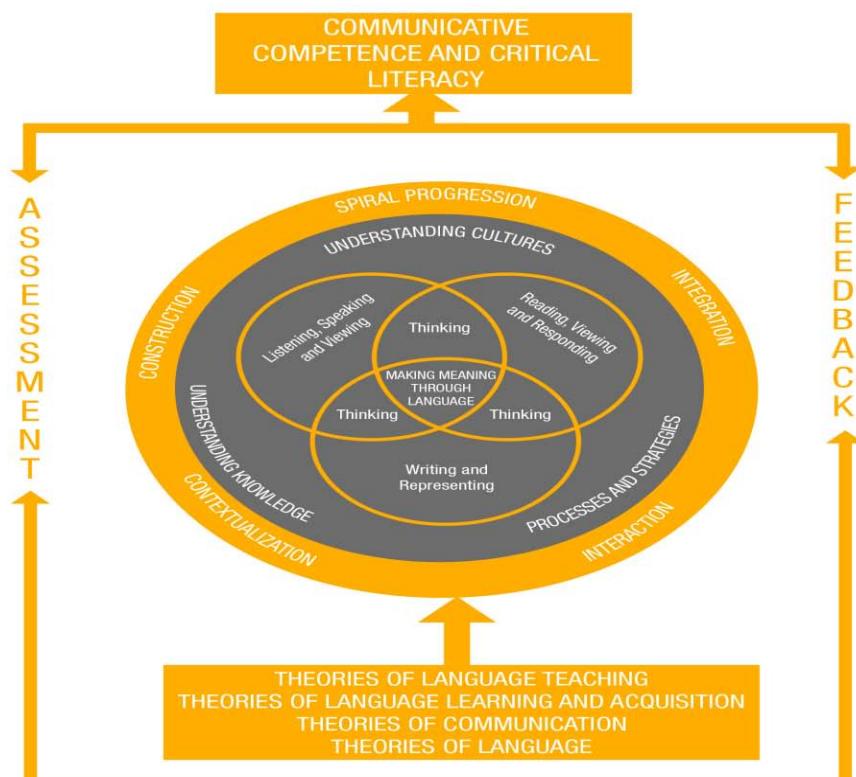


Figure 1. The Integrated Language Arts Curriculum Framework

The former Secondary Education Curriculum (SEC) 2010 Conceptual Framework for English focused on the improvement of the communicative competence and literary appreciation and competence while ILACF (2012) primarily focuses on the critical literacy skills of the students, still placed alongside with communicative competence. Moreover, two things were not explicitly stipulated in SEC 2010 English Curriculum that are now highlighted in the ILACF of K-12. The first one is the equal attention given to understanding cultures along with the understanding knowledge, processes, and strategies. Second, aside from the macro-skills, reading, listening and speaking, viewing, and writing, that aid students in the meaning-making process, thinking skill—or what was mentioned as the “taken-for-granted fifth skill” in English classes (McRae, 1996, p. 23)—is now deemed an essential component in all the macro-skills (and not taken as a separate macro-skill). In other words, in the new K-12 language pedagogy, critical and multicultural literacy are equally important, rather than “functional literacy for all” as highlighted in the SEC 2010 English curriculum.

Thus, this paper would like to prove that contrary to how language and literature were integrated in high school English textbooks used before the K-12 implementation, the inclusion of non-native English literary texts in high school English textbooks can suitably meet the new K-12 learning goals (which are the 21st century skills needed to be learned by the students) and also fit the ILACF design, specifically in promoting critical literacy and multicultural literacy.

This study employed a qualitative approach, specifically the interview and literature review method. Three college English professors, who are also textbook writers in public and/or private publishing companies, were interviewed in order to gather information about the previous and current trends in English textbook writing in the country since there was no documentation or study conducted yet about this topic. They were also asked about their professional opinions **red** about this paper’s argument on the inclusion of non-native English literatures in English high school textbooks. Also, several local and foreign studies and scholarly articles were reviewed to present what had been previously studied about this topic. The next section discusses how these studies are in support of this study’s arguments.

Literature Review

English Textbooks in EFL/ESL Classrooms: Trends and Setbacks

To date, no empirical or extensive research has been done yet about the high school English textbooks in the Philippines (and even in other Asian countries) and how effective the literature and language integration is shown in these texts. Most current researches concentrate on the effectiveness of literature and language integration in EFL/ESL classrooms in different Asian countries (e.g., Divsar & Tahriri, 2009, Imperiani, n.d.; Ismail, Aziz & Abdullah, 2008; Khatib, 2011; Kim, 2010; Kim, 2013, just to name a few) but very few discussed about the actual textbooks used in these classrooms.

Rubdy, who studied on the possibility of using new literatures to promote cross-cultural awareness, regrets that the global textbooks now available in the market and used in EFL/ESL classrooms worldwide show a “unidirectional flow of culture and expertise... [that] breed a culture of dependence rather than autonomy” because of the dominance of the target culture (i.e. Western) norms obviously presented in these textbooks(Rubdy, 2007, pp. 3-4). According to various critiques mentioned in this article, these textbooks are characterized as following: (1) “predominantly anglocentric” and not parallel with the students’ local cultures (Alam, 2002, as cited in Rubdy,2007,p. 4); (2) lacking“ contextual specificity” (Gray, 2002, as cited in Rubdy, 2007, p.4); (3) "bland, sanitized, and vacuous" in order to be politically correct (Rubdy, 2007, p. 4); (4) dominated by the interests of the middle-class, youthful, urban population (Risager, 1991, as cited in Rubdy, 2007, p. 4), featuring popular Western pop culture; (5) “over-emphasizi[zing] functional English texts, mainly transactional in nature” (Wallace, 2002, as cited in Rubdy, 2007, p.4); (6) “neither stimulating nor thought-provoking, lacking... imagination and humour (Alam, 2002, as cited in Rubdy, 2007, p. 4); and (6) “has little scope for generating interaction with the learners’ history or culture, or for engaging their minds with social, moral or philosophical problems” (Alam, 2002, as cited in Rubdy, 2007, p.4).

There have been attempts to address this problem through an increased production of representational materials (where language rules are questioned, played around with, and put to different uses)(McRae, 1996)for more effective literature and language integrationsince 1984, but as always, text selection and level have always been thecentral

problem(McRae, 1996).One specific setback regarding this was related by Vethamani (1996):

Teachers are often quite happy using the safe and tried texts that they have used over the years with their students. It is also not uncommon that these were the very same texts that they had studied as students. Consequently, selections of texts limited to English and American literary works have become their traditional source for teaching, and other invaluable resources which are readily available in new literary traditions in English are neglected. (p. 204)

In a more specific Asian context, Al-Quaderi and Mahmud (2010), in their study on the use of English literature in Bangladeshi medium schools, also regret that English literature written by Western writers dominated their texts and the students are not very exposed with literatures in English written by non-Western writers, especially by Bengali writers. But aside from text selection, the teacher's treatment of the text is also another major problem. For example they found out that some teachers do not discuss the political, social, cultural contexts and underpinningsin these texts. Moreso, some do not connect these texts with the postcolonial and neocolonial world the students live in, thus, they see these texts as only pages of English words, with nothing beyond or beneath it.

According to an English professor (who wants to remain anonymous) in an exclusive Catholic college in the Philippines and also a textbook writer for both public and private publishers, even before the K to 12 implementation (and still being intensified until now), there had already beenconscious efforts by textbook writers to include non-canonical English texts and to ensure balanced representation of texts across cultures in English textbooks and they are not really restricted by publishing companies as to the kind of text they would include in the textbook, so long as they are used purposively and parallel to the competencies that the students have to master. What she sees as the hindrance for some writers to be less open to such texts is their lack of awareness of new concepts such as the emergence of World Englishes, postcolonialism, and critical pedagogy(personal communication, June 28, 2013).

High school English textbooks in the Philippines also had more or less the same content and pattern before the K-12 implementation as those texts/textbooks mentioned in the studies above. Upon the researcher's examination of selected highschool English textbooks

used in Philippine schools, it was discovered that most, if not all, of the texts used in textbooks were written by native writers in English, and if there were those written by Filipinos or other non-native writers, they were written and/or translated in standard English for them to serve as “proper” models of how standard English sentences should be structured. One will not see code-switching or language appropriation employed in these texts. In some textbooks, literature is followed by comprehension questions about the text, then the discussion of the dominant grammar point in the text just read. After which, the mastery of the skills through a series of drills ensues. Usually the section ends with authentic writing and/or speech activities/tasks related to the theme of the literary texts, again applying the grammar lesson learned. By looking at this pattern, it can be seen that literary texts were just used for “practical” or “functional purpose.” A question can then be raised here: what kinds of literary texts can really be considered as “pragmatic” and “functional” in order for students to learn English effectively?

At least, in these types of textbooks, the link between language and literature is evident. But some textbooks used in public schools like the SEDP Series of the Department of Education, Culture, and Sports published in the early 1990s, literature was placed in the last section of each lesson and though connected to the theme of each unit, there was no explicit integration of language and literature shown; literature was only used for developing the reading comprehension skills of students, treated in isolation from the rest of the English skills in each lesson.

Looking at the previous context and the recent emergence of K-12 with its new ILACF, English teachers and textbook writers now face the challenge of tailor-fitting the new English high school textbooks with the K-12 learning goals, particularly in including the essential 21st century English skills (some of which were previously excluded or deemed irrelevant in the past textbooks) that students must acquire before they can be fully prepared for their higher education and career pursuits in the future.

Non-Native Texts and Critical Literacy

This study adopted Paulo Freire’s (1993) definition of critical thinking in his book “Pedagogy of the Oppressed” as separate from how the term is used in solving problems, developing arguments, or evaluating facts. He defines it as a kind of

thinking which discerns an indivisible solidarity between the world and the people and admits of no dichotomy between them—thinking which perceives reality as process, as transformation, rather than as a static entity—thinking which does not separate itself from action, but constantly immerses itself in temporality without fear of the risks involved. (p. 92)

In other words, it is a kind of thinking that believes in the interdependence of humans and their world, questions the stability of reality, and accepts truth as vulnerable to change.

Moreover, in his book, “Education for Critical Consciousness,” he emphasized that a liberating education focuses on developing the students’ critical *conscientização* (Portuguese for *awareness*) on the true role of humans beyond mere existing, and that is,

to engage in relations with the world—that through acts of creation and re-creation, man makes cultural reality and thereby adds to the natural world...[that] results in knowledge, which man could express through language. (Freire, 1993, p. 39)

This, then, emphasizes on the students’ active role in education and even in cultural formation, with language as their primary means. Once they are aware of their power to construct and reconstruct words and meanings, they would not fear learning, expressing their voice, and sharing it with others (e.g., their teachers and classmates), which leads to Freire’s concept of dialogue (1974). This is in contrast with what he calls as a “banking concept” in education where students only consider themselves as mere “subjects” in the learning process. For him critical literacy is beyond “memorizing sentences, words, or syllables, lifeless objects unconnected to an existential universe—but rather an attitude of creation and re-creation, a self-transformation producing a stance of intervention in one’s context”(p. 43)—leading students eventually to learn independently and act critically upon their individual situation. Freire, along with Macedo, believes that teaching and learning critical literacy involves “asking questions, seeking answers and challenging the status quo in an effort to discover alternative perspectives for self and social development” (as cited in Kim, 2011, p. 133)

Because pedagogical applications of critical literacy were mostly based on Western models and there are only few studies on this topic produced in Asian countries (Kim, 2011), one of the few who studied on critical literacy applied in an Asian context,

attempted to do a non-empirical study on the importance of critical literacy in East Asian classrooms, also borrowing and citing Freire and Macedo's idea on critical literacy. She discovered that teaching and learning critical literacy continues to be a challenge in East Asian classrooms because of the(1) influences of Confucian teachings in these countries which highly regard the teacher and the textbooks as the primary, if not sole sources of learning while the student is merely a passive receiver of knowledge, and (2) the shifting political ideologies through the years, such as the rise of communism in Vietnam and the separation of North and South Korea. By looking at how the content of textbooks changed with respect to the changing political and social situations in these countries, she concluded that textbooks will always be ideological and all the more that the critical literacy of these students in these countries should be honed because they have to learn to construct and reconstruct their identities and the world surrounding them by being exposed to these textbooks. They can deconstruct the texts in these textbooks and be open to different viewpoints and interpretations, rather than just simply reading and believing everything the textbooks contain and what their teacher dictates. Finally, she said that no matter how challenging it would be to achieve a balance of local pedagogical practices and innovative and more democratic ones such as critical literacy, she believes that it is still a worthwhile endeavor as this will broaden students' self-concept and world view(Kim, 2011).

Ko (2013) also conducted a case study on the use of critical literacy in a reading class of English majors in Taiwan, and primarily, he found out that though some teachers found it difficult and awkward to teach it through extended dialogue (not lecture) with the students because they have both been used to a Confucian-influenced teaching, eventually both teachers and students appreciated activities that develop critical literacy because students are given the chance to voice out their opinions more openly, thus, creating a more democratic and less authoritarian classroom. He offered practical pedagogical suggestions at the end of his article for this pedagogy to be more successful for teachers:

1. balance instruction in basic language skills and critical literacy
2. use locally-relevant or student-lived experience-related texts as supplementary materials
3. create a supporting environment where learners can consider a variety of perspectives

4. model a critical way of questioning texts that the students could emulate (p. 106)

Inspired by the results and suggestions in Kim's and Ko's study and realizing how the textbooks in East Asian countries are quite similar with how English high school textbooks used before the K-12 implementation were characterized above, this study envisions high school English textbooks that, to borrow McRae (1996):

involves going beyond the mechanics of grammar practice, beyond the repetitions of reinforcement, into areas of individual reaction and response which are firmly grounded in the language of the lesson and the level at which teacher and learner are working (p. 23).

Furthermore, this study subscribes to McRae's idea in giving students more opportunities to be actively involved in meaning-making by making them aware of the culture, politics, or ideologies influencing the production of the text. Tomlinson(2005)also suggested that activities that allow students to ask about the social status, register, and point of view used in the text can developstudents' critical language awareness.

However, according to Talib (1992), many teachers hesitate, even "fear" to use literary texts written in non-native varieties because they:

may encourage the students' use of indigenous colloquialisms and that not only is 'non-native English literature . . . 'substandard', but the use of a non-native variety of the language in a literary work may actually teach the students a 'substandard' version of the language (p.51).

But this paper would beg to differ and prove that the benefits of using these texts in ESL/EFL classroom, even in native English classrooms, would outweigh these teachers' presuppositions about the harms they could cause the students' communicative competence in English.

Firstly, the inclusion of non-native texts and a more critical and postcolonial treatment of these texts in these textbooks would make the students aware of the varieties of English being used by many English users across the globe. Their age-old assumption that American/British English is the only "English" to be emulated would already be obliterated in their mindset, but instead, they will now start to accept that the Englishes of the

Filipinos, Singaporeans, Africans, Mexicans, and even African-Americans, just to name a few (even more numerous than the native users) are also acceptable and definitely not just poor imitations of the “original.” According to Dr. Elineth Elizabeth Suarez, the students must be made aware that what might be erroneous English for us Filipinos might be an idiosyncratic feature of other Englishes (Suarez, personal communication, July, 2013).

But of course, the students have to be given opportunities as well to question why such non-native writers would use English differently from the way they were normally exposed to and how effective they were in achieving this purpose. Take for example, the text excerpted above in Achebe’s “Civil Peace.” If this will be perhaps included in a textbook, there could be a separate section after the comprehension questions that would concentrate on testing the students’ critical literacy. Perhaps, there is a part that will ask the students to transform this particular part in native Philippine English and then make them compare the two versions. Afterwards, they can ask why they think Achebe chose to make the Nigerian thieves speak that way in the text. Different interpretations would arise, but the most important thing here is that the students are given the chance to ask critically and independently.

Cruz’ study (2011) also supports the importance of studying literary texts from World Englishes (e.g., Philippine Literature in English) in improving students’ critical language awareness. Her analysis on the Filipino writer, Gregorio Brillantes’ “Janis Joplin, the Revolution, and the Melancholy Widow of Gabriela Silang Street” reveals the chiasmic and Janus-faced nature of the code-switching (English, Filipino, Taglish) used in this text—one that asserts local *identity*, the other a form of *resistance* against the imposition of English and English literature as the “standard” and the “canon,” respectively. The learning materials and discussion questions she suggested can be models for activities in these new English high school textbooks for K-12. Also, these would arouse student’s curiosity that would stimulate them to question the purpose of the code-switching in this text. This pedagogy is what Tomlinson (2005) calls as a form-focused instruction that deals with the striking and idiosyncratic linguistic feature of the text than just learning from “predetermined and decontextualised sequence”(p. 8) of language forms that usually characterize the global textbooks mentioned by Rubdy and the textbooks used in the Philippines before the K-12 implementation.

Secondly, the students are given time to reflect about what Kramsch calls as the students' 'third place' (inspired by Homi Bhabha's concept of "Third Space") or their position that "grows in the interstices between the cultures the learner grew up with and the new cultures he or she is being introduced to" (1993, p. 257). They can reflect about their attitude and personal connection with these languages as well as realize the underlying power and message behind every language use. This third place concept has already been applied in different African countries like Swaziland, Cameroon, and Nigeria wherein "foreign language is appropriated by the learners to meet their local needs and express their personal cultural identity without the Afrikaner hegemony's power over them" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 256). Perhaps, this new K-12 setup is already the best time to start doing the same in the Philippines. After all, Kramsch also mentioned that it is the learner's responsibility to locate where their third place is (*Ibid.*), but they would not know that a third place exists unless informed and critical teachers, armed with textbooks containing non-native texts, would show them that there is indeed one that they can own and explore.

Thirdly, the students do not only improve their critical literacy through these non-native texts, but they are also "invited to stretch beyond the limitations of level, to expand lexical and structural competence, to experiment with the target language in affective and practical ways" (McRae, 1996, p. 23). In other words, their linguistic creativity can also be developed. Knowing that they acquire power from being powerless and subordinates of these two cultures (Kramsch, 1993) and that there are various linguistic means to assume authority, they can use their "own" English that would best express their own culture and identity, not only in creative or academic writing, but also in everyday, practical situations, like in persuading, teaching, or interacting with different people, both offline or online. This can increase students' confidence in the use of any language and lessens, if not, eliminates the fear or the alienation that some non-native users feel in a traditional English classroom setup in the Philippines simply because "they cannot perceive [the English taught in classroom's] connection with the variety or varieties of English which they speak in their everyday lives" (Talib, 1992, pp. 51-52). This would be most relevant to Filipino students who were not raised in a family whose first language is English and have only acquired English skills when they started formal schooling. If students would be introduced to non-native texts, second-language learners of English would learn to be more accepting of the

way they speak and write and need not be ashamed of their own “English,” while on the other hand, those who grew up with it, would be aware of their own biases and learn to be more open to other people’s English.

Interestingly, Talib (1992), who advocated the use of non-native texts in ELT, mentioned that it would be actually easier for teachers to teach Standard English to students through these texts. For example, in discussing Singaporean writer, Catherine Lim’s “The Taximan’s Story” (written in Singaporean colloquial English [SCE]) included in a literature textbook in Singapore, the students may be asked to use the standard language when they try to translate certain SCE expressions in the story to fellow students or to their teacher. Another option would be for the teacher to encourage the use of Standard English more formally, by requiring the students to translate in writing certain extracts in the story into Standard English. Through this, the students would know the difference of both varieties in terms of structure, but not necessarily looking at the “standard” as the “superior” English. They have to be taught also how to critically use certain varieties depending on the occasion/context and the purposes.

Non-Native Texts and Multicultural Literacy

Hall, in his book “Literature in Language Education” (2005), mentions that literature in education is increasingly conceived and practised today as some variety of cultural studies, where culture is now thought of as hybrid, contested, and in constant (re) construction, and significantly linguistic in its workings (p. 67).

Thus, it is not only crucial to discuss how to form and structure language but also to understand the culture that envelopes the text production, moreso, the unstable and even paradoxical nature of both language and culture—that they can be the same and yet different from how they were normally perceived. We see this as an effect of imperialism, diaspora’s continuous increase in rate and importance, and the technological developments, especially in the 21st century, like the emergence of popular social networking sites that contribute to the narrowing of the gap among nations and cultures. Information about world events, interaction among people of different cultures, and even local and international business transactions are done in just one click. Literature perfectly captures these

phenomena as we see more syncretic and hybridized contemporary literary texts by experimental writers (some postcolonial ones); for example, stories that juxtapose two or more genres, two or more languages, the traditional and contemporary literary style, Eastern and Western forms, past and the present, fact and fiction. It is now difficult to draw a line in between because of how these writers have subtly erased such demarcations in these texts, in the same way that one's cultural identity and language are now multifaceted, but are, at the same time, unique individual entities. And this is precisely the reason why, aside from critical literacy, their multicultural literacy should also be developed.

The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory and the Metiri Group define multicultural literacy in the book, “enGauge 21st Century Skills: Literacy in the Digital Age” (2003), as “the ability to understand and appreciate the similarities and differences in the customs, values, and beliefs of one's own culture and the cultures of others” (p. 28). A multicultural literate learner appreciates cultural diversity; has an “informed sensitivity” technology's influence on culture, mainstream and non-mainstream culture, and issues on racial prejudice and stereotyping; and interacts with/in other cultures with/out the use of technology (*Ibid.*). Therefore, developing multicultural literacy does not only sharpen students' interactive communicative competence and technology skills, but most important, it instills the value of social responsibility, respect, compassion, and empathy, especially for those who were marginalized by virtue of their class, gender, or race.

The inclusion of non-native texts could very well provide venues for students to hone the said skill. Returning to Talib's study (1992), he exemplified how a more critical study on the language style used in Lim's “The Taximan's Story” could not only develop critical language awareness but also students understanding of how a person's speech is affected by one's culture and even social status:

The teacher may then ask the students about certain constructions from Lim's story which are not found in standard English, but which are probably also not found in SCE. Examples of these are: ‘one child’s’, ‘if wants to success’, ‘they are very trouble’, and ‘they usual is wait’. After this, the teacher may ask the students about the more common substitutes for these expressions in SCE, and why they feel these expressions, instead of the more common ones, are used by Lim. The students' ability to respond to the above questions is not only dependent on their linguistic knowledge per se, but also on their

sociocultural knowledge of the variety or varieties of language as actually used in their everyday lives. (p. 53)

Later on, he suggests that students also critique the consistency of the taxi driver's language and the reason why the taximan shifts from one language to another in certain parts of the story. Talib then mentions that a different kind of communicative competence is refined in the students by being exposed to different Englishes within/outside their own country. This kind of competence is not only about one's ability to communicate fluently with a native speaker in English but also one's ability to shift from using standard English to a non-native variety of English when the need arises. Here, the student's flexibility and adaptability to different environment is tested and enhanced which would come handy to them when they choose to work for BPO centers or international companies in the country, study or work abroad, or even in just interacting with foreigners who work, or for many, study in the country because of the "budget" education, specifically English education, that the country offers.

In applying Talib's suggestions to Philippine context, a number of students in the most prestigious schools in the country coming from upper middle class to upper class have English as their first language, and not Filipino. If English high school textbooks used in these schools would include non-native texts written in Philippine English (and other sub-varieties of it like English spoken in Manila, Cebu, in Davao, etc.) or with appropriation or code-switching such as Brillantes' "Janis Joplin..." in Cruz' study discussed above, then students would, first, learn to acknowledge that this English variety is not inferior, then they will learn to be wise and sensitive enough when using English in speaking to others as they consider regional, class, gender, and ethnic differences.

This is further supported by Kachru (1986) who enumerates why not only non-native users, but even native English users should also be exposed to non-native texts:

1. They demonstrate how English has been modified in Asian and African contexts.
2. Stylistic innovations are determined by the cultural contexts and the localized style range.
3. They show the effect of such innovations on intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability.

4. They will know what is meant by acculturation of English in ‘non-English’ social and cultural contexts (p. 148)

Tomlinson (2005), who created ELT materials for some Asian countries like China, Indonesia, Malaysia, and many others (excluding Philippines), questions how governments, publishers, and other institutions’ demand that citizens use standard English when, in fact, according to him, 65% of their daily interactions are spent communicating with non-native speakers like them. Thus, for the future of ELT materials in Asia, he insists on including effective texts written by writers and speakers of International English, along with those written by native ones, similar with the balanced representation of these texts proposed in this study. He also favored exams that reward effective communication instead of those that penalize students for wrong pronunciation and grammar. For him, so long as the utterance does not impede communication, it is already considered effective. He emphasized that Asian textbooks should not focus on explicit teaching of grammar just for students to excellently score in their exams, but instead, “prepare them for real life interaction outside the classroom which are most of the time unplanned”(p. 7).

The Challenge Ahead

Kachru (1986), though he strongly persuades English teachers to use non-native texts, he warns them that choosing these texts also require considering the appropriateness of the text for the learner in terms of variety, register, author, and text, as well as the nativization technique used by the writer such as lexical innovations, translation equivalence, contextual redefinition of some English lexical terms, and rhetorical and functional styles employed.

Dr. Elineth Elizabeth Suarez and Ms. Cecilia Suarez, both English teachers, textbook writers, and consultants, also support the inclusion of non-native texts in English textbooks; however, the teachers must be trained well on how to teach these non-native texts properly (most especially for teachers who have not yet pursued their postgraduate degree). They must also be critically and multiculturally literate themselves first, or else these non-native texts they will fall in the wrong hands and will not be given the proper pedagogical treatment that they deserve (personal communication, July, 2013).

Also, Vethamani (1996) reminds teachers to be aware that

[in] expand[ing] our concept of canons to encompass literatures in any of the new Englishes, we must be careful not to ignore the possibilities of cross-references which work across time as well as across physical distances. (p. 215)

Conclusion

In sum, literary texts and activities in high school textbooks that could be considered practical and suitable to meet the K-12 goals are those that would open the eyes of the students to the real politics of the use of English in the country and across the globe and would encourage the students to use this to their advantage in effectively(not just fluently and accurately) communicating with different English users considering their specific contexts and purposes. Finding a placefor non-native texts in English, such as Achebe's "Civil Peace," in Philipine high school textbooks under the new K-12 system would lead students towards a more scrupulous, yet fulfilling and more pragmatic pursuit for borderlessknowledge. As students become more exposed to the inevitable intertextuality laid bare by these non-native texts—no matter what variety of English it uses—the more they would learn more about themselves and their world. Through this, somehow the colonized man within the students would gradually vanish (Fanon, 1963).

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Helping Japanese Teachers of English Overcome Obstacles to Communicative Language Teaching in Overseas Teacher Development Programs

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Abstract

When teacher educators in contexts where English is a first or second language are helping to upgrade the teaching skills of English teachers from abroad or doing initial training with future EFL teachers at home, it is important that they exercise cultural sensitivity and understand the kinds of constraints faced by some teachers as they implement Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). By doing so, teacher educators can make appropriate recommendations to help teachers overcome these obstacles. Based on research from outsourced pedagogical programs, the authors of this paper highlight the most common constraints facing Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) such as entrance examination pressures, time constraints, fixed curricula, and mandatory government-approved textbooks, then offer recommendations to teacher educators to consider when teaching teachers who come from abroad, such as familiarizing themselves with entrance examinations, choosing approaches to language teaching that meet teachers' needs,

becoming familiar with materials available to teachers, such as mandated textbooks, and teaching teachers how to adapt materials, to name a few. such as JTEs who are sponsored by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Sciences, and Technology (MEXT) to learn language teaching pedagogy overseas. This may be critical at a time when government agencies, such as MEXT are emphasizing English communication in new curricula to local teachers in addition to preparing to hire a larger number of Assistant Language Teachers from overseas (“Gov’t plans to increase number of foreign English teachers to 10,000”).

Keywords: Teacher education, communicative language teaching, Japan, textbooks

Background

Every year, Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) are sent abroad to not only improve their skill in English, but also to learn pedagogy from teacher educators. An important consideration for teacher education, especially when foreign teachers are being trained in a different culture, is that, like innovation, new theories and practices work through existing cultural, social, and administrative systems. To this end, current practices and social factors influencing the behavior of foreign teachers should be examined at length (Hayes, 1995, 2000; Kennedy, 1997, 1988; Waters & Ma. Vilches, 2001). What is taught as being appropriate in one context (i.e., CLT in Inner Circle countries), may be less applicable in another. In other words, program planners and teacher educators should endeavor to attain cultural continuity, which according to Holliday (2001), is “achieved when meaningful bridges are built between the culture of the innovation and the traditional expectations of the people with whom we work” and demanding a sensitivity to “cultural expectations of the ‘recipients’ of innovation” (p. 169).

Two paradigms highlighting how educational culture is construed and how teachers behave within their educational culture may be useful here. The first is the transmission-based versus interpretation-based paradigm proposed by Weddell (2003), and the second, the collectionist versus integrationist paradigm which illuminates professional academic cultures (Holliday, 1994). The former paradigm highlights differences between educational cultures. In transmission-based cultures, such as Japan, language proficiency is measured by tests, learners are required to have the same knowledge about English, and they generally receive instruction passively in a lecture-style format. Teachers in this context are expected to be highly knowledgeable about English and are expected to transmit knowledge to enable students to pass examinations. On the other hand, in interpretation-

based cultures, such as Canada or the United States, where teacher training takes place, English has an instrumental orientation; it is a tool to be used. Teachers may be viewed as facilitators who encourage student self-expression (Cook, 2009).

The latter paradigm illuminates differences between academic cultures. In a collectionist academic culture, such as Japan, English is taught as a separate subject and there is little contact or communication with colleagues from other subject areas (Sato, 2002). In an environment where relations are vertical, teachers, following strict timetables, generally use lecture styles. Their professionalism is indicated by their subject knowledge which they are expected to impart to students. However, in integrationist cultures, such as Canada or the United States, there may be a more interdisciplinary view about subjects. Teachers tend to teach at their own pace, focusing on skills, discovery, and collaboration. In an environment relations are egalitarian, teachers' identity is related to their teaching ability (Cook, 2009).

What these paradigms reveal is that teachers from Inner Circle countries where outsourced training programs are likely to take place, are possibly informed by very different ideas about the purposes of language learning, as well as how teachers and students are expected to behave in school. Thus, teachers from these countries need to know the kinds of constraints faced by those they are training, especially if part of their mandate is to teach communicative language teaching approaches.

Research has indicated that some countries have had limited success in implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) due to a number of constraints (Li, 1998). Such constraints have been organized using Lamie's (2001) "impact area" framework, summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Constraints grouped by impact area

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| Personal attributes | Deficiencies in oral English; deficiency in sociolinguistic and strategic competence; traditional attitudes |
| Practical constraints | Wider context of curriculum; traditional teaching methods; class sizes and schedule; resources and equipment; lack of CLT texts; students' not accustomed to CLT; difficulty in evaluation; too much preparation |

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| | time; grammar-based examinations; lack of exposure to authentic language; grammar-based syllabus; insufficient funding |
| External influences | Low status of CLT teachers; students don't perceive a need for it; student resistance, due to CLT practices being different from traditional teacher/student interactions; lack of support for government agencies, colleagues, etc. |
| Awareness | Misconceptions about CLT |
| Training | Lack of training; few opportunities for retraining |

(Cook, 2009)

Of these, practical constraints related to curricular and instructional issues (Lamie, 2001) have been listed the most often by JTEs, particularly entrance examination preparation pressures; resistance from students, parents, and colleagues; the requirement to use Ministry-mandated textbooks; and institutional culture, beliefs, and practices (Cook, 2010). Although studies have spanned a 17-year period (Kurihara, 2013, Kurihara & Samimy, 2007; Lamie, 2002; Pacek, 1996), it is remarkable that the same constraints have been listed repeatedly.

As mentioned in the table above, among the obstacles faced by many EFL teachers is that they have not been adequately trained to teach. In Japan, most teachers at the junior and senior high school levels receive certification as part of their bachelor studies. They tend not to study in faculties of education and participate in practicums which only last between two to four weeks (Hawley & Hawley, 1997; Sato & Asanuma, 2000). Those who wish to become language teachers generally major in English literature or linguistics; most of their courses are taught in Japanese and are knowledge-based rather than skill-based. Although in-service teachers may receive additional training domestically, such programs may not require JTEs to use English, or may be taught by lecturers advocating theories or practices which do not take local problems into consideration (Nagasaki, 2004).

Thus, on their own initiative, some teachers elect to study abroad in order to upgrade their skills. Other teachers are sent by government agencies, such as those sponsored

MEXT in Japan. For many of these Japanese teachers of English, this is the first time they have learned about Communicative Language Teaching in detail. In a study with a group of junior and senior high school JTEs from Japan, Cook (2012) found in interviews at the beginning of the Canada-based program, that these teachers had positive feelings about Communicative Language Teaching, but did not actually do communicative activities in their classes upon returning to Japan for a number of reasons. These included a lack of experience and familiarity with CLT, a lack of resources for teaching CLT, time constraints, problems with relationships among students, perceptions of student ability, entrance examination preparation pressures, and institutional pressures.

Although this paper primarily addresses Japan, this situation is not unique to Japan. Arguments have been advanced against the ‘importation’ of CLT to various EFL teaching contexts, citing the cultural (in)appropriateness, paradigmatic incommensurability, and fundamental differences (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1996; Hu, 2002; Yu, 2001). Korean EFL teacher respondents to a questionnaire (Beaumont & Chang, 2011), although recognizing “a need for a more communicative approach in their classrooms … cited, first, the national examinations, and second, large classes” (p. 297) as reasons they could not apply CLT. Arguments made against the importation of CLT to China include claims that: CLT is difficult to adopt in EFL countries (Li, 1998; Ellis, 1996); teaching methods intended to improve communicative competence are, by definition, ‘Western’ (Burnaby & Sun, 1989); the principles of CLT are incongruent with the Chinese culture of learning (Hu, 2002); the role of the teacher in a CLT classroom is incongruent with Confucian ideals (Hu, 2002; Yu, 2001); CLT methods are incompatible with collectivist orientations in Chinese classrooms (Hu, 2002); and an emphasis on process as opposed to content makes some CLT methods unfit for Asian learners (Ellis, 1996).

Arguments against methodological diffusion tend to downplay, ignore, or forget that there was tension over the ‘emergence’ of communicative approaches in countries the values of which they are now seen to represent, that communicative approaches are not so new but have historical precedents (Pennycook, 1989), that there are calls for communicative approaches from within China (Wu, 2001), and that ‘traditional’ approaches in China are already informed by a number of ‘Western’ teaching practices (Hu, 2002; Pennycook, 1989). Furthermore, while much of the discussion on communicative

methodology has opposed it to traditional language teaching methods, Beaumont and Chang (2011) “question the fruitfulness of continuing to discuss methodology in these dichotomous terms” (p. 293) arguing, instead, for examination of possibilities and opportunities that are sensitive to the particular contextual constraints.

CLT and Ministry guidelines

The EFL language teaching tradition in Japan is steeped in audiolingual and grammar translation methods, (Hino, 1988) but has, since the late 1970s, gradually shifted to place more emphasis on communicative approaches (Tahira, 2012). EFL instruction is now intended to foster widespread basic communicative competence in English throughout Japan (Stewart, 2009). The new (2008) MEXT guidelines allow more time in the classroom for developing communicative competence, and position grammar instruction as a support for communication rather than the goal of language teaching. Increasingly, EFL classes are to include “integration of listening, reading, speaking and writing skills” (Stewart, 2009, p. 10) and pay more attention to speaking and listening. Furthermore, the government expects that English classes in Japan be taught through English (Stewart, 2009, citing MEXT, 2008a).

There is, however, a significant “gap between the stated policies and what is actually done in the classroom” (Tahira, 2012, p. 3) with implementation happening at a “sluggish pace” (p. 5). Even when teachers held positive beliefs about CLT they tended to use grammar-based, teacher-led activities much of the time (Cook, 2012) (Tahira, 2012, citing Sakui, 2004) with “avoidance [being] the overwhelming reaction” to the increased emphasis on oral communication (Stewart, 2009, p. 10).

Teachers explain the difficulty of integrating CLT into their classes by citing the lack of time available for oral communication activities and the significance of entrance exams that test translation, reading comprehension, and grammar (Cook, 2012). Stewart (2009) notes that: “The existence of institutional entrance exams, many of which place little or no emphasis on oral communication, significantly impacts the junior and senior high school curricula and how they are taught” (p. 11) and questions the extent to which teachers in Japan are able to teach English through English.

Although government ministries such as MEXT may believe that sending teachers

abroad for training may fill gaps left by domestic teacher education programs, this may not be true. For example, even after having learned about CLT, many of the JTEs in the Canadian program abandoned it for a number of reasons, including entrance examination pressures, autonomy issues, student and teacher factors, and teacher beliefs about their own proficiency in English (Cook, 2010). In order to overcome some of these obstacles, she recommended the following:

- That host teacher educators be familiar with a variety of entrance examinations, so that they will understand what students are studying English for and thus prepare teachers to teach to them more communicatively;
- Because mandated textbooks change often, that teacher educators teach how to prepare activities based on any textbook; in other words, that they teach general strategies for activity creation;
- That meaning-focused CLT activities take less than 10 minutes to prepare and execute;
- That activities not depend on audio-visual and/or other media;
- That activities not necessitate colleagues' consensus;
- That activities not be threatening to classroom harmony;
- That activities be culturally sensitive and not demand that students openly display knowledge
- That teachers be taught how to create an atmosphere conducive to student inclusion and participation (p. 74).

Thus, if teacher educators are made aware of the persistence of these constraints, they can help JTEs or other EFL teachers from similar contexts to whom they are teaching pedagogy, overcome them.

Purpose of this paper

The problems identified by the Japanese teachers mentioned above may be familiar to EFL teachers in other countries which are group oriented and entrance examination driven, such as Korea and China (“Supplementary Education in Asia,” 2011). Thus, the purpose of this paper is to offer concrete and practical suggestions for Inner Circle teacher educators helping foreign EFL teachers overcome some obstacles to successfully teaching CLT, in particular, we suggest ways communicative activites activities could be integrated into existing lessons and ways in which existing activities could be made more communicative. Admittedly, our suggestions and sample activities on the surface pertain largely to the Japanese context, yet it is believed that they can be transferred, with appropriate modification, to other contexts as well.

To make suggestions that are contextually appropriate, we have selected textbooks used in Japanese high schools and identified activities that could be implemented or adapted from common activity types. For the purpose of this paper, three of the most commonly-used high school communication textbooks in Japan were selected: *Birdland Oral Communication II*, *Open Door to Oral Communication Book 1*, and *Voice Oral Communication I*. Please see the Appendix for the sample pages used for each textbook.

Our particular attention is teaching Japanese teachers to adapt government-approved textbook activities in order to increase their communicativeness while still acknowledging contextual constraints. Increasing the communicativeness of activities is not simply a matter of adding an oral dimension to them or having them done in pairs. Communicative activities have certain features that better prepare learners for real-life communication. We define a learning activity as communicative if it meets several, if not all, of the following conditions:

- meaning may have to be negotiated (e.g., students may need to ask each other “What do you mean?” or “Could you repeat that?”) (Brown, 2001);
- a range of microskills often employed (Willis, 1996);
- meaning is emphasized over form (Brown, 2001; Skehan, 1998);
- the activity feels ‘authentic,’ having both text authenticity (the language seems real) (Harmer, 2007) and task authenticity the activity seems like something people might do in real life (task authenticity) (Brown, 2001);
- the motivation to complete the activity is intrinsic (the activity itself is engaging) (Harmer, 2007);
- the activity has a goal (learners will know when they have completed the activity) (Skehan, 1998).

Furthermore, the following classroom conditions allow learners to treat activities as communicative:

- mistakes are expected, not feared (Harmer, 2007; Lightbown & Spada, 2013);
- students might receive input from the teacher, other students, from a text, or from a recording (Willis, 1996);
- the input contains expressions that might help the students to do the activity ;
- goals are clearly explained (Brown, 2001);
- the level of language and task are ‘roughly-tuned’ (Harmer, 2007); and
- there is flexibility for mixed-ability classes (Willis and Willis, 2007).

Recommendations for teacher education for overseas teachers

1. Be familiar with entrance examinations

Because one of the primary reasons students learn English in Japan is to pass entrance examinations (Cook, 2009, 2010, 2012), it would be helpful for teacher educators to have an idea of what these exams look like and the kinds of questions they contain. To this end, they can look at the National Center for University Entrance Exams website, (which is in Japanese only), or they can purchase the most recent Red Book; a book containing all English examinations, including listening tests for the past several years (see Figure 1). This test however, is only the first gateway; thus, teacher educators should also consider purchasing Red Books for Japanese universities as well, as in-house tests vary widely among institutions. If teacher educators can find out beforehand which universities high school JTEs' students are aiming for, they can purchase those specific books. Figure 2 shows a Red Book for Tokyo University.

Figure 1: 2014 Center Test Red book



Figure 2: Tokyo University Red book



2. Argue for an approach to language teaching that involves meaningful tasks and a focus-on-form approach to language features

Teacher development programs intending to promote the adoption of CLT by Japanese ESL teachers should take into account the obligatory use of textbooks and the pressure to engage in grammar awareness-raising and practice activities. Ignoring such contextual constraints increases the likelihood that teachers will abandon their attempts at implementation of CLT in the face of institutional constraints, parental complaints, and student resistance (Cook, 2010). To fully acknowledge these constraints, however, involves integrating into teacher education textbook adaptation activities and exploration of the possibilities of grammar teaching in communicative approaches. In this section, we propose techniques teachers can use in adapting textbooks that could be fostered in overseas teacher development programs for in-service teachers.

3. Be familiar with ministry-approved textbooks used in Japan

Griffiths (2011) notes that textbooks that claim to be CLT place an emphasis on aural/oral skills, language functions, fluency over accuracy, and more student talking time (p. 301). These textbooks realize these goals by: “using top-down/inductive approaches to grammar where rules are inferred rather than explicitly taught; presenting vocabulary in context; using pair or group work as a means of promoting fluency; using role play as a means of practising/reinforcing the target language; using tasks to make new language more relevant to real-life situations” (p. 301).

These textbooks are colorful with cartoons, photographs, and tables and charts on each page. Icons in the margins inform students whether the activities will involve listening, speaking, or note-taking. Most chapters begin with dialogue, possibly preceded by a warm-up exercise that pre-teaches or activates topical vocabulary. In *Open Door to Oral Communication Book 1* and *Voice Oral Communication I*, all activities are introduced in Japanese. In both of these texts, Japanese translations of dialogues and vocabulary are also provided. *Birdland Oral Communication II* uses Japanese much more sparingly. Each chapter moves from listening, dialogue practice, and controlled speaking activities towards more autonomous speaking at the end of the chapter. Language is pre-selected and other-regulated at the beginning of chapters with increasing levels of autonomy and self-

regulation towards the end of each chapter. Language foci in these oral communication textbooks examine topical vocabulary, functional expressions, and aspects of natural pronunciation, such as reduced forms.

4. Understand adaptation principles generally

Thornbury (2005) divides the learning process into three stages, awareness, appropriation, and autonomy. Awareness involves the learner being “made aware of features of the target knowledge-base” (p. 40), which requires the learner being attentive, i.e, “interested, involved, and curious” (p. 41) so that they can notice specific language features and understand the patterns or rules that shape their appearance. Appropriation involves the integration of “these features into their existing knowledge-base” (p. 40) and a gradual shift from usage of this feature being “other-regulated” to being “self-regulated” (p. 63). Autonomy involves the development of “the capacity to mobilize these features under real-time conditions and unassisted” (p. 40), which requires the learner develop a degree of automaticity, speed, accuracy, and reliability in their linguistic performances. All three of the textbooks contained activities that encouraged awareness, appropriation, and autonomy.

Teacher development programs for in-service teachers could introduce them to Thornbury’s classification of activities into these three categories and helped to recognize the stage of language acquisition being facilitated by these activities and discuss the ideal conditions, goals, and benefits of each. Teachers could be encouraged to attempt to supplement awareness-raising activities in textbooks with activities that facilitate greater appropriation and autonomy, with consideration given to the benefits and challenges of placing meaning-focused appropriation and autonomy-building activities before awareness-raising activities as might be by some proponents of a task-based approach (Willis, 1996).

Greater attention to the distinction between these differing goals of communication activities will help teachers to develop greater methodological coherency, create appropriate conditions for each, better judge students’ progress in developing these goals and recognize the extent to which a textbook emphasizes one over the others. Teachers in their classrooms should then ensure students are aware when the primary goal of an activity is to communicate meaning, during which errors are to be expected and corrective feedback should not be allowed to distract attention from meaning.

5. Teach EFL teachers how to give instructions in English

Surveys reveal that the students in EFL classes in Japan communicate in Japanese the majority of the time (Tahira, 2012, p. 5). This is unsurprising as their Japanese EFL teachers who serve as models of bilingualism also communicate in Japanese most of the time (Cook, 2012).

Ministry guidelines, however, require teachers in Japan to conduct English classes in English. If teachers take this to mean that explanations of grammar points and discussion of culture should be conducted in English, but that Japanese could be used for giving instructions and classroom management, then they miss the opportunity to expose students to target language usage that is repeated, meaningful, and contextualized. Despite the Ministry guidelines, all three ministry-approved textbooks contain some Japanese with two of them giving instructions for most activities in Japanese. While the language learning opportunities presented by giving classroom instructions are lost, it is worth noting that many questions on university entrance exams are written in Japanese (Stewart, 2009, citing Kikuchi, 2006) and, consequently, such instructions may have some value to students.

Giving classroom instructions through English on a daily basis will not only set the tone and expectations for the students' language use, but also provide students with language they will act upon. Weaker students can understand classroom instructions by observing other classmates acting upon the instructions.

To help develop in-service teachers' ability to manage classrooms and give instructions in English, teacher development programs could ask in-service teachers to keep a journal of classroom English heard throughout their in-service training sessions and have them participate in role plays and act out scenarios that focus on daily classroom management issues. Given the regular engagement with the EFL textbooks and the embedding of Japanese language within many of the books, teacher education programs preparing teachers to teach English through English should pay close attention to how the textbooks are used and the language needed to give instructions based on the textbook.

As a further teacher development exercise, in-service teachers could be asked to attempt to convey instructions in their first language to a non-speaker of that language, possibly the teacher educator. In attempting to give instructions, in-service teachers may need to resort to the use of gestures, images, repetition, or modeling with other in-service teachers

(Lightbown & Spada, 2013). This exercise could raise awareness of the multiple ways in which EFL teachers can support students' comprehension of instructions given in English.

Many teachers may feel that it is inefficient to use only English throughout their entire classes, but still be willing make a commitment to speaking only English for the first five minutes and to ask their students to do the same. A minimal commitment like this would increase the likelihood of English being used as a language of instruction and may set the tone for the rest of the class.

6. Teach EFL teachers how to adapt dialogues

All three of the textbooks contained short dialogues of 6 to 10 turns in length, usually at or close to the beginning of each chapter. In many dialogues, one of the speakers has a Japanese name while the other has an English name and is often depicted as Caucasian. Students are encouraged to listen to the dialogues and often asked to answer comprehension questions. Subsequent listening and speaking exercises repeat much of the functional language in the dialogue and connect with the dialogue topic.

These textbook dialogues and their uses are non-communicative in a number of ways. Generally they lack the features of natural communication: with neat turns, little or no overlapping speech, and a lack of various features of natural speech including pause fillers, these dialogues do not resemble the conversations typically engaged in in non-classroom settings. Furthermore, eavesdropping on two relative strangers having a conversation so as to answer pre-set questions about what they said is also not common (and may not be considered polite either!). Although these dialogues may be far from ideal, one of their major disadvantages is that they are underutilized.

Teacher development programs could ask in-service teachers to design supplemental activities to be used either before or after dialogue reading such as

- cloze exercises from dialogues, raising awareness of less salient morphemes;
- exercises in which students transform dialogues by personalizing them, changing the speakers and relationships, or continuing the conversations;
- activities that encourage students to notice lexical chunks;
- and activities that have students reconstruct dialogues from memory, images or partially erased dialogues so as to help them notice the gap between their recreation and the original dialogue.

One possible classroom procedure that would allow teachers to extend any textbook dialogue follows:

1. Prior to reading the dialogue discuss the topic briefly in Japanese taking notes;
2. Teachers ask about lexical chunks and functional language to raise awareness of them in the dialogue, eg. “How do you do/say this in English?” (awareness-raising);
3. Students practice the dialogue taking turns in each role (appropriation);
4. Students transform the dialogue transformation by changing the conditions, context, or characters (autonomy);
5. Students return to the notes made in step 1 and use them to produce a personalized written dialogue in English (autonomy);
6. Students compare their dialogue with the one in the textbook and receive peer and teacher feedback to make it more accurate (awareness);
7. Students perform and record their dialogue (appropriation).

These activities supplement dialogue practice—largely an appropriation activity—with awareness-raising and autonomy-building activities. Most importantly, by asking students to return repeatedly to the same text and engage with it for different purposes, EFL teachers can increase the likelihood that new language is acquired and new knowledge proceduralized. While the sequence of activities takes longer than 10 minutes, the focus-on-form is balanced with a focus on meaning.

7. Teach EFL teachers how to adapt listening activities

Each chapter in each of the textbooks contains one or more listening exercises to which students respond by answering comprehension questions or doing a comprehension task. Supplemental listening exercises in some textbook chapters draw students' attention to word stress, intonation, or reductions. The majority of the listening exercises could be described as displaying a comprehension approach to listening (Field, 2008).

The strengths of a comprehension approach in this context are that it provides listeners to exposure to language, is easy to mark, and questions may resemble those found on language tests (Field, 2008). The weaknesses of this approach, which Field notes may be carried over from reading, are that it is teacher-centred, that it could be requiring memorization and reading as much as listening, and, most significantly, that a correct answer may not demonstrate comprehension as much as a lucky guess. In addition, an incorrect answer may not reveal what, specifically, was confusing to the learner.

Most of the listening exercises, as presented in the textbooks, under-utilized the texts. A more deliberate approach to the teaching of language and development of listening skills would require the learner to engage with the text a number of times, each time for different purposes, moving slowly from general to specific understandings and from a focus on meaning to a focus on form to ensure form-meaning links are being developed. A reluctance on the part of teachers to devote significant portions of class time to CLT could be allayed by pointing to the prominence of a focus-on-form in this sequence.

Field (2008) encourages instructors to vary their listening pedagogy by considering whether listeners are being asked to gather local information or gain a global sense of the text and the depth of attentional focus (shallow, medium, deep, or very deep). Shallow attentional focus for local information—unfocused scanning—is, he proposes, the least demanding type of listening. Field, furthermore, suggests paying close attention to the appropriateness of the task for the type of listening text.

EFL teachers could be taught to supplement textbook listening exercises by designing listening routines that involved multiple listenings at different levels of attentional focus. For example, early listening or pre-listening exercises could ask learners to deduce the relationships between the speakers, the attitudes of the speakers, the context, and the topic. If audiovisual material is used, a pre-listening exercise could involve watching the video with the audio off to make predictions about all of the above. Making predictions and personalizing the topic may encourage interest and attention for the later listenings. Second listenings could deepen the attentional focus requiring closer listening for specific information and message meaning. With task accomplishment as the purpose of this listening, the focus should be on what was being communicated rather than how it was being communicated. EFL teachers may ask learners to compare their expectations and predictions to what they have discovered at this stage.

Final listenings could ask learners to pay attention to language form. Focusing at this stage on how the meaning was being communicated, learners could be asked to pay attention to chunks, word order in questions, specific functions used or examine the linguistic choices made in the context of the relationship between the speakers.

Post-listening exercises could involve learners in analyses of a transcript or exercises with adapted transcripts. Cloze exercises, input-enhancement, and text reconstruction

exercises draw learners' attention to less auditorially salient features of linguistic form less salient, such as reduced forms of articles and auxiliary verbs.

These multiple listenings involve the learners in the co-construction of awareness of meaning-form links moving from general meanings to specific meanings and from salient linguistic forms to less salient linguistic forms.

8. Teaching EFL teachers how to adapt drills

Oral grammar drills lack many features of communicative activities: mistakes are strongly discouraged, form is negotiated rather than meaning, they usually involve only one skill and a narrow range of microskills, the activities are often inauthentic, and the motivation, if any, is usually extrinsic. Saito (2008) argues, however, that oral grammar drills are underappreciated. Oral grammar drills being repetitive contribute to automaticity, “a process where declarative knowledge (the knowledge of explicit rules) transforms into procedural knowledge (the knowledge of implicit skill) through repetitive practice” (p. 57). As the language used in these drills is tightly controlled “learners are less burdened with accuracy demands” (p. 57) and can devote themselves to the development of fluency. Memorization and non-creative language use are not entirely inauthentic, Saito argues: language users both memorize scripts and have stores of unanalyzed chunks that they use to reduce the cognitive processing load.

While it is possible to make oral grammar drills more playful by adding rules, randomness, and rewards, this seldom makes them more communicative. In-service teachers could be encouraged to examining ways of adapting oral grammar drills by encouraging the use of follow-up questions, considering the benefits of having students do these drills in different groupings, or creating tasks that target similar language forms but are more meaning oriented that could be attempted prior to the oral grammar drill. Thornbury (2005) advocates a shift from tasks that involve controlled practice—“repetitive practice of language items in conditions where the possibility of making mistakes is minimized” (p. 63)—to tasks that require practiced control—“demonstrating progressive control of a skill where the possibility of making mistakes is ever-present, but where support is always at hand” (p. 63). In-service teachers in overseas teacher education programs can attempt adaptations of oral grammar drills as information gap exercises with

encouragement of follow-up questions contextualized in realistic speaking opportunities.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have offered concrete suggestions for teacher trainers involved in the methodological preparation of foreign EFL teachers, particularly those facing similar challenges to Japanese high school teachers. We included strategies for supplementing and adapting commonly-used high school communication textbooks with activities in which meanings could be negotiated in meaningful and language use was purposeful and motivating.

Teacher educators involved in the development of Japanese EFL teachers should familiarize themselves with entrance examinations, examine commonly-used EFL textbooks, and know a range of methodological strategies and pedagogical implementations of them. Japanese EFL teachers should be shown how to adapt various types of activities, particularly drills and dialogues, so as to increase the communicativeness of the activities. These adaptations should occur with reference to a methodological commitment to focus-on-form and to teaching-English-through-English.

Japanese teachers who wish to develop their students' communicative competence, as required by MEXT, face specific challenges including time constraints, institutional pressures, and a context in which students must be prepared for a high stakes university entrance exam. The recommendations we make allow for a communicative element to be introduced in contextually appropriate ways.

Although EFL teachers report a number of constraints preventing them from implementing CLT in their classrooms, by providing them with more information about CLT and more importantly, communicative activities that are appropriate and easily available, it is hoped that they can overcome some of these obstacles. This list of recommendations is not exhaustive, but it is hoped that this will be a good first step for teacher educators in familiarizing the teachers they train, both foreign and domestic with helpful tools that will help them meet their goals.

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Appendix: Textbook Samples

Step 1 Preparation



Listen and answer the questions.

As a homework assignment, Takeshi is interviewing Lisa, a professional photographer, on how she chose her career.

Takeshi: So, how did you become a professional photographer?

Lisa: Well, first of all, I was a history major in college.

Takeshi: Really?

Lisa: For my research, I used to visit many historical sites. I would take pictures of the sites. Then I started to realize that photography was more exciting than history.

Takeshi: So, you changed your major from history to photography?

Lisa: Well, I thought of it, but I continued to study history and attended an art school in the evening.

Takeshi: Are you happy with your job?

Lisa: Absolutely. Attending two schools was hard, but now I can earn a living by doing what I enjoy doing: taking pictures of historical sites.



Check

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

4 _____

Compare answers with your classmates.

LESSON
10 **What Would You Like to Do in the Future?** (将来何をしたいですか)

LET'S START.....

[通学のバスのなかで]

JUDY: What would you like to do in the future, Satoshi?

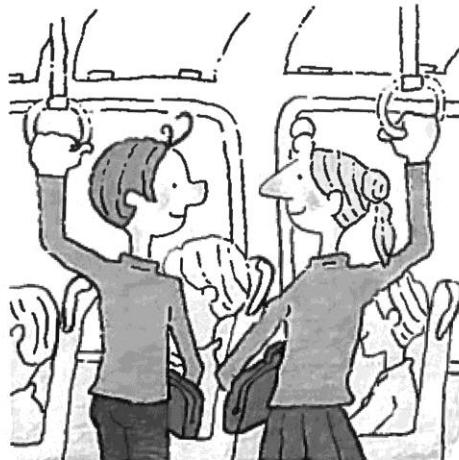
SATOSHI: Well, I'm interested in the environment, and I'd like to help protect wildlife.

5 JUDY: That sounds interesting.

SATOSHI: How about you, Judy?

JUDY: I want to work with elderly people, for example, at a nursing home.

10 SATOSHI: Really! I volunteered at a nursing home last year. It was a good experience.



ジュディー：サトシ、将来何をしたいの？

15 サトシ：ええと、ぼくは環境に関心があるので、野生生物を守る手伝いをしたいな。

ジュディー：おもしろそうだわ。

サトシ：ジュディー、君はどうなの？

20 ジュディー：わたしはお年寄りのために働きたいわ、たとえば老人ホームで。

サトシ：そうなんだ。ぼくは去年老人ホームでボランティア活動をしたことがあるよ。いい経験だったよ。



英文を聞いて、会話の内容と合うものに○、違うものに×を書きましょう。

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | | |

STAGE 1

真希は帰国後、ケイトと将来について話しています。

[M: Maki / K: Kate]

M: By the way, Kate, what are you going to do after you go home?

K: I () to study more about Japanese language and culture.

M: I see. Why do you want to do that?

K: () I'd like to work as a tour guide in the future. What are your plans, Maki?

M: I'm thinking about () a job at a hotel.

K: Why do you want to work at a hotel?

M: I'd like to meet many people and use () there.

K: Good luck, Maki!

M: Thank you, Kate. Good luck to you, too!

M: ところでケイト、国へ戻ったらどうするつもりなの?

K: 日本語や日本文化をもっと勉強したいと思っているの。

M: そうなの。どうしてそうしたいの。

K: 将来は旅行ガイドの仕事をしたいから。あなたはどうなの、真希?

M: ホテルで働きたいと思っているの。

K: どうしてホテルで働きたいの?

M: たくさんの人と会って英語を使ってみたいからよ。

K: うまくいくといいね、真希。

M: ありがとう、ケイト。あなたもね。

Comprehension

英語の問い合わせ聞いて、正しいものを選びましょう。

① a.



b.



c.



② a. At a restaurant. b. At a school. c. At a hotel.

③ a. Because she wants to study about Japanese culture.

b. Because she wants to meet many people and use English.

c. Because she wants to run a hotel in the future.





Online EFL Education for the Learners with Print Disabilities

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Gaining proficiency in English can create opportunities for non-native English speakers throughout the world in areas of education, employment, and even their personal lives. However due to an increased reliance of visually based multimedia receiving an education has become more challenging for those with print disabilities. Where technologies once created opportunities for those with a print disability, it is now creating barriers. The goal of this paper is to demonstrate that there is a need and desire for the print disabled to learn English through a digital platform, and that those platforms are creating barriers that are preventing the learners from receiving the same quality of education that their sighted counterparts. It will also identify possible solutions that can be implemented to curb this problem.

Keywords: Blind, Visually Impaired, ESL, Online Education, Distance Learning, Accessibility, Print Disability

Introduction

Equality in education has been, and continues to be, an important driving force in terms of providing financial aid, and accessibility to students throughout the world. The development of online learning is expanding opportunities and benefits by allowing learners to have a flexible schedule, the convenience of not attending physical locations, and in many instances delivering the promise of lower tuition fees. In other words, online education provides access to education for those who may otherwise not have the opportunity. As Moore & Kearsley (2005) this includes rural populations, disabled individuals, parents with children at home, and the elderly. (p.185).

According to the World Health Organization (2013) 285 million people are visually impaired worldwide, with 39 million being blind, and 246 million people with low vision. Those numbers grow to include people with print disabilities (Key Facts section, para. 1). According to the Reading Rights Coalition (2014) George Kershner “coined the term print disability circa 1988-1989, when he defined someone with a print disability as, a person who cannot effectively read print because of a visual, physical, perceptual, developmental, cognitive, or learning disability.” (the definition of print disabled section, para. 1). This paper will identify the fact that a market exists for digital English language learning, that there is a problem with barriers preventing the print disabled from learning through a digital platform, and that solution to this problem exit.

Market Research

Ambient Insight (2014a) cites that the worldwide market for digital English Language learning products and services reached \$1.8 billion in 2013. The five-year compound annual growth rate (CAGR) is 11.1% and revenues will more than double to \$3.1 billion by 2018, (2013-2018 Worldwide Digital English section, para. 1). In a report regarding only China Ambient Insight (2014b) cites that China’s five year annual growth rate (CAGR) for digital English language learning products is 23.6% with revenue of \$931.8 million in 2018, an increase from \$323 million only 5 years prior (2013-2018 China Digital English Language Market section, abstract, para. 1). Ambient Insight (2014c) also indicated that the Middle East will see a digital English language growth rate of 13.2% from \$116.1 million

in 2013 to \$215.7 million by 2018 (abstract para. 1). Although these figures do not indicate specifically the number of print disabled learners projected to enroll, it does demonstrate that there is a growing market for digital English Language learning.

There simply is not enough quantitative data, however there is some qualitative data that gives perceptions of print disabled learners in terms of learning through a digital or online platform. When presenting research about blind learners who took courses online, Cooper and Keefe (2001) stated that their students who took courses over the Internet appreciated being able to do the long hours of Braille practice at home, not having to sit through class meetings, having instructors who used the medium well, and not having to travel to take a course (para. 9).

Cooper and Keefe's research not only demonstrates the lack of professional training that exists, which can be a problem itself, it also demonstrates that there is a desire for online instruction for those with a print disability. In addition to the desire to learn online, other research demonstrates the importance of language learning for those with a print disability. Language learning is even more important for visually impaired people, in order to reduce the gap caused by lack of sight or from severe visual impairment. Quatraro & Paiano (2010) explain that

mastering a foreign language, in particular English thus becomes a sort of "bridge" through which the visually impaired person can have access to different cultures and to different opportunities in the domain of social contacts (para 4).

English Language learning has also been associated with economic improvement. (Esch, 2009) explained that the Human Capital Approach, if applied to English Language education orientates to empowerment essentially as a mean of access to economic development and opportunities for income-generating employment (p. 3).

When considering that there is evidence to suggest that for the print disabled, there is a desire for digital English Language learning, that there is an anticipated market share increase, and that digital English Language learning benefits the print disabled, an argument could be made that designing content that caters to the needs of the print disabled would benefit any institution in the market. The one major problem with this argument is that there simply is not enough information available about the specifics related to the print

disabled learning English through digital platforms. Information including specific economical outlooks and cost benefit analysis would be paramount in developing a fiscal opportunity for institutions, however this research simply does not exist. However, qualitative data that explains some of the barriers that the learners who are enrolled are experiencing. One report highlighted the problem in the Chronicle of Higher Education when Parry (2010) explained that

a blind journalism student at Arizona State University, was unable to access a private a Facebook page, which was designed to allow students to enter a virtual student union (para. 4).

Parry (2010) continued to explain that Colleges that wouldn't dare put up a new building without wheelchair access now routinely roll out digital services that, for blind people, are the Internet equivalent of impassable stairs (para. 5). This case describes the overall problem that visually impaired learners are dealing with due to the increase implementation of multimedia and the reliance on web based information.

Obstacles

Dandona & Dandona (2006) from the International Classification of Diseases identify 4 different levels of vision; normal vision, moderate visual impairment, severe visual impairment, and blindness (Discussion section, para. 1). Although the levels of impairments are often not differentiated properly, the needs are quite different, ranging from small adaptations such as larger font or screen sizes for the moderately impaired, to alternate types of multimedia such as auditory narration for the more severely impaired. And unless the educational institution has put into place tools that cater to all 3 levels of impairment simultaneously, each different level of impairment will have a different set of barriers. Arrigo (2005) explains that there not only technological issues to consider but also methodological issues as well;

For example, an LMS which has some fully accessible tools for learning may be unsatisfactory for visually disabled users if the learning methodology was designed for sighted users. Similarly, a well designed learning contents methodology, if not supported by a set of accessible tools, is not enough to allow the disabled student to learn on the net. (p.2)

For a moderately visually impaired learner these barriers may be less significant, in contrast a severely impaired learner may find it impossible to navigate an LMS lacking the proper tools. Technical and Methodological are however not the only obstacle to consider, in addition to these learning styles must be considered.

Fundamental Differences in Learning

All learners have strengths and weakness, and different learners excel when using different learning styles whether auditory, visual, or kinesthetic. The difference in learning styles from a sighted learning to a learner with a print disability is an aspect that must be considered when developing a course design as well. Carbo, Dunn, & Dunn (1986) explain that;

“Approximately 20 to 30 percent of the school-aged population remembers what is heard; 40 percent recalls well visually the things that are seen or read . . . other people cannot internalize information or skills unless they use them in real-life activities such as actually writing a letter to learn the correct format.” (p.13.)

The fact that everyone learns differently is not a profound revelation. However, print disabled learners, more specifically visually impaired and blind learners, learn in a fundamentally different way from sighted learners. Steyvers & Kooijman (2006) report that since visually impaired persons receive much, if not all, information in other ways than by vision they have to rely more on senses that are much more sequential and egocentric in nature (p. 5).

Consider the differences between reading a tactile map versus reading a map with visual graphics. When a sighted learner identifies a river on a visual map they can identify that it has length, it has width, and in most cases it has color. However, when a tactile graph is used by a blind or visually impaired learner they might identify that the same river has length, has width, and has depth. Not only are the different learners using different senses to explore the map, they are also constructing mental perceptions differently. Sighted learners learn in what is known as whole-to-part learning, and print disabled learners learn in what is known as part-to-whole learning. According to Family Connect (2013) sighted children learn by looking at the whole picture before exploring the parts. Many visually

impaired children experience the world the other way around. A blind learner will explore the map by touch, touching small parts of the map and moving throughout the map until all of the parts have been identified. At this point an overall mental picture of the map is being constructed. Liner (1987) concluded that “using the sense of touch, a person needs much more time to explore a map than using eyes, because it is necessary to study each part of an object separately and then piece the parts together to comprehend it in its entirety” (as cited in the Institute of Cartography and Geoinformation, para. 4). In contrast, a sighted learner would explore the details of the map after a general or overall understanding of the map has been acquired. This fundamental difference in learning styles is important to recognize when the instructional design is in place for both the visual learner and the visually impaired learner simultaneously, which could cause some difficulties for designers.

More explicit examples specifically used in language learning are the use of fill-in-the-blank and flash card activities. These common activities are rendered ineffective to a learner with a print disability. The fill-in-the-blank is ineffective because it is impossible for a learner to use a word bank unless a Braille word bank is provided in physical form that can accompany the learner during the online or web based activity. The flash cards are ineffective because they require a visual cue to complete. The use of flashcards however is one area that an auditory adaptation could be used to provide the learner with a similar activity. Auditory cues could be used in place of visual cues, which would allow a learner with a print disability to study vocabulary in a similar way as a visual flashcard without having to completely change online interfaces.

Ineffective Regulations and Laws

The United States of America has some of the most strictest laws of compliance mostly due to the American's with Disabilities Act of 1990, which is often used as a set of standards as to which other countries base their compliance. Even though in particular the United States has strict guidelines and laws one major problem still exists. Even though distance learning courses offered are in legal compliance, being in compliance does not guarantee a course design will be adequate for those with a print disability. Simonson, Smaldino, Albright, and Zvacek (2012) explain precisely that:

Course management system vendors claim that their products are compliant with Section 508 of the American's With Disabilities Act (ADA). However, organizations that provide distance education courses must be aware of possible limitations of some CMS products as well as of other technologies that may be employed. (p.331)

Simonson, Smaldino, Albright & Zvacek (2012) also add that "school counselors can assist disabled students in obtaining required software, but the school is not required to purchase the software and install it on a student's personal computer" (p. 331). In other words, compliance does not equal accessibility or a successful learning experience for the print disabled.

New Multimedia

Flash-based multimedia, interactive graphics and videos are common place in online learning. Not only can these technologies be new and exciting for students and educators but it can, according to Fenrich (2005) "increase learning and retention, and decreased learning time" (p. 19). Similarly, Taylor (2008) notes that, "people who learned from words and graphics produced 55 percent to 121 percent more correct solutions to problems than people who learned from words alone" (para. 10). Taking this evidence into consideration it comes to no surprise that they are being utilized on a large scope.

Vocabulary learning is one area that specifically benefits from the pairing of audio and visual information when learning. A study conducted by Hernandez (2004) demonstrated that "groups receiving (audio with video, or audio with video and captions) comprehended the narration better than those who did not." (as cited in Plass & Jones, 2005, para. 21), In contrast, the GMarie Group (2001) explains that "while these components help engage most audiences, they create significant challenges in terms of accessibility for blind and visual impaired learners. (p. 1). Schmetzke (2001) continues to explain that technology that is not universally designed, without consideration for the full spectrum of human (dis)abilities, is likely to contain access barriers for people with print disabilities. (para. 5)

Supplemental Materials

A learner with a print disability cannot, in the traditional sense, view a graph, watch a video, or use a tablet PC. This problem is compounded in online learning programs due to

the reliance of visually based multimedia. Even though supplemental materials are used in conjunction with online platforms, and that more language learning materials are being created specifically for those who have visual impairments, Deharde (2012) cites that these materials are “very rare” and the print materials that “do exist” are “basically translations of materials that were originally conceived for sighted people and are therefore very much focused on visual input.” This speaks directly to the evidence that was presented earlier about the differences in learning methods. Even though materials have been translated differences in learning styles and cognitive processes are not being considered.

Quatraro & Paiano (2010) point out that learners, blind and visually impaired children, as well as their trainers, face the situation of having to adapt existing materials (produced for sighted people) or make use of technical aids such as Braille readers, screen readers or purely audio-based materials.

The fact that materials are not being developed specifically in mind for the visually impaired speaks to the systematic problem of adaptation in lieu of front end designs. Adjusting designs that were originally created for sighted learners creates an atmosphere of adaptation instead of an atmosphere of inclusion.

Digital Interface Barriers

Digital Interfaces can contain large problems for the print disabled. Without the proper navigation system that is equipped with auditory cues such as sounds that identify cursor movements, those with visual impairment find it hard if not impossible to utilize daily learning activities. Deharde (2012) points out that most of the software currently available is not accessible for visually impaired students due to the lack of navigation options and the extensive use of the mouse. (par. 1) This specific example highlights the overall problem. Online education could be, and should be, beneficial to the print disabled, however barriers such as the design of the interface itself are so difficult or complicated it is not conducive to a proper learning experience.

Engagement

Legal compliance, institutional support, systemic support, as well as technological and methodological are not the only problems that exist for the print disabled, they also find problems with engagement or attention grabbing. Instructors use multimedia not only to

deliver materials but also to engage and entertain their learners. Gilakjani (2012) explains that “teachers who saw themselves as hip, cool, and hi-tech quickly incorporated the new tools, correctly perceiving that slick multimedia presentations have a certain amount of entertainment value for learners”(p. 58). Plass & Jones (2005) argue that “in second language acquisition, multimedia can be used to enhance input and increase the likelihood of noticing … and that noticing includes things like highlighting or otherwise marking words, sentences, and linguistic features” (p. 467). The problem with this example is of course that those with print disabilities cannot have the same experience as a visual learner, because there is nothing to grab their attention, which creates another learning barrier, so if a design is to be implemented that includes attention grabbers or engagement techniques additional cues must be used such as audio alerts.

Solutions

Although multiple barriers currently exist, there are solutions that can improve the experience for the print disabled. One way for the visually impaired to receive information that relies heavily on images, is to present an audio narration. Implementing narration is also a way for visually impaired learners to become more engaged with the instruction.

A proper interface design may be the most important aspect to any online platform, and even though ALLAVIP (n.d.) points out that “what is missing is an interactive and accessible user interface designed for visually impaired people” (as cited in Deharde, 2012, para. 2), the solutions are not out of reach. One solution for instructors would be to only select reading materials that are available in Braille, that are eBooks that utilize audio technology, or that are available in electronic format on screen reader compatible sites. In fact some screen readers are cheap or free and can be used in conjunction with most websites; however it is the job of the institution to assure that their interface is readable through a screen reader, as some sites do not work properly with that technology. The major barrier with screen readers, Braille books, or even EBooks is that they do not change the infrastructure; instead they adapt to the existing system placing the burden on the learner to locate, purchase, and install, which would create a logistical burden for the visually impaired learner.

In contrast to the technologies that are external, institutions dedicated to inclusion should be designing interfaces that take into account as many of the available technologies and solutions. An interface that utilizes electronic documents, audibility functions in native and target languages, speak to text functions, larger font size options, auditory flashcards, video narration, and sites that are compatible with screen readers would not only allow the print disabled to be included, but it would also minimize the unfair logistical burden that visually impaired materials such as Braille and print-to-speech technologies involve. Developing a proper interface would give the visually impaired learners the ability to attend the same online courses that sighted users do, and a properly designed LMS would include functions that easily toggle (switch) on and off, which would allow any user to choose the versions of the LMS they wish to proceed with. In order to truly create an educational experience that is available to all students an online LMS must incorporate the needs of all of the students.

Although problems exist and are unlikely to ever completely disappear, there is positive news for the print disabled whom want to learn English online. Kolowich (2010) reported that “Blackboard, the leading LMS company, received a pat on the back from National Federation for the Blind for setting a new standard for accessibility” (para 6). Industry leaders are developing products that allow for institutional customization to their portals to allow access for their blind learners. This point is a very important one; the issue of inclusion will not end with any single implementation of software, hardware or course design, it will however need a continued effort on the parties involved to ensure that new software is always compliant with the goals of the institution related to providing quality education to all learners.

An additional encouragement for any institution that decides to implement the technologies is that these technologies would not only benefit the print disabled, but they would also benefit those who prefer to learn in a mode other than a visual one. As mentioned earlier not all learners excel or prefer to learn visually, and some prefer and excel in auditory learning. In turn, by using adaptations such as auditory cues, those cues would also allow other learners to benefit from the various delivery methods, which would make the curriculum more encompassing for all learning styles and needs; sighted and the print disabled.

Evaluation, Revision, and Improvement

Like any instructional design evaluations and adjustments must be made to deliver the highest possible quality education to the learners. A successful and appropriately constructed design should be evaluated using qualitative and quantitative data focusing on the frequency of student involvement and learner outcomes, as well as other pertinent date. The data that is collected should be compared to the goals that were in place in the beginning of the project, and proper adjustments should be made. Smith & Ragan (2005) point out that “after evaluating the performance of a group of students, the designer knows whether they have achieved the objectives of instruction” (p. 327).

However, collecting data to indicate successes or failures of a design for the print disabled may be more challenging, mainly because those with print disabilities are a very small minority, therefore data collected to evaluate will be limited or at least difficult to collect. Rothwell & Kazanas (2008) point out that in most cases, instructional materials should be tried out with sample of learners chosen at random from the target group. However with the disproportionate amount of print disabled learners, a random group may not be possible. In which case, most or all of the target learners will need to provide feedback in order to develop a consistent evaluation model used for adjustments. This data in conjunction with random samples including all learners should be compared in order to reach a proper conclusion related to the quality of the design, as well as the other components of the course such as the interface.

Conclusion

In conclusion, gaining a proficiency in English can create opportunities for non-native learners in areas of education, employment, and even their personal lives. In addition, these benefits can be even more important for a non-native English learner who has a print disability by closing a gap created by their condition by creating opportunities in economic and social constructs. The major problem with the current situation is that even though the print disabled would benefit largely from digital English language education, they are finding it difficult to succeed due to the reliance on visual multimedia that lacks tools, which would allow those users to receive instruction that is of equal quality to that of their sighted counterparts.

These learners can be accommodated with the proper adjustments to the instructional design through tools that are based on inclusion. These adjustments include simple solutions such as adding options for larger font sizes, to more complicated solutions like auditory narrations of videos and interfaces in target and native languages, or the implementation of LMSs that are designed with all learners in mind.

With the forecasted future growth of digital language learning, the responsibility of developing curriculums that are based on inclusion will be essential in reaching the goal of equality of education, and that inclusion will benefit any institutions that implement those changes. Finally, sighted learners could also benefit from the added multimedia that is implemented for the non-sighted learners by giving them more options to learn from. It is also important to design instruction that includes an entertainment or engagement value that is appropriate to the sighted as well as the non-sighted learner for the sake of motivation and engagement. If these adjustments are made, the technology that is currently causing problems for the visually impaired will no longer be a barrier, but instead it will be a solution, which in theory could attract more learners to the digital English language learning platforms.

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The moderating effects of meta-cognition to the relationship between goal orientation and student motivation in the digital generation

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Bioprofiles

Anne Cruz Camit believes in lifelong learning. After finishing her Masters in Educational Psychology at the University of the Philippines, she held positions involving training and teaching locally and internationally. Currently, she shares her worldview with students at the Human Resource Management Program of De La Salle-College of St. Benilde.

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It always seems impossible until it's done.

-Nelson Mandela-
2018-2013
(Staff, 2013)

Abstract

There are considerable studies on goal orientation and motivation in different settings. However, scant research has been made on the relationship between goal orientation and motivation to students in the digital generation. To contribute to the growing interest in understanding digital natives, we investigated the moderating effects of meta-cognition to the relationship of goal orientation and student motivation. Anchoring the study's intent to achievement goal theory, we surveyed 483 students in a private college. Data revealed that goal orientation was said to be positively related to students' motivation. Moreover, it was found that meta-cognition is positively related to student's motivation. However, meta-cognition did not moderate the posited relationship between goal orientation and motivation. This study has implications in creating teaching-learning environments highlighting the needs and goals of its digital natives in the classroom to impact motivation. This may involve the use of varying pedagogical techniques conducive to healthier student dispositions related to learning taking into consideration their profiles and skill sets.

Keywords: Meta-cognition, digital generation, goal orientation, motivation

Introduction

The above quotation summarizes the general idea of the study. Dispositions to achieve goals no matter how difficult it may seem can be attributed to different reasons. Formally termed as goal orientation, various researchers in different fields appreciated its contribution to shaping people's behavior and motivation. VandeWalle (1997) defined goal orientation as "individual disposition toward developing or validating one's ability in achievement settings." (p.995), and this definition is used in this study. Prior research has established relationships between goals and its related concepts, such as goal setting, goal formation and goal orientations to other concepts like motivation, self-efficacy, job performance, motivation to share knowledge, motivation and achievement among others (Baek & Ready, 2012; Crippen, Beisinger, Muis, & Orgill, 2009; Swift, Balkin, & Matusik, 2009). Although research has considerably established the relationship among such variables independently, the interest to study how goal orientation and motivation affect a specific type of generation known as the digital generation has yet to be made. The need to

understand learning behaviors of a specific generation can be explained using the Generational Theory which analogizes that each generation can best be understood by its biography, a term used to refer to how a generation's personality is shaped which in turn can shape subsequent generations (Strauss & Howe, 1991 cited in Coomes & DeBard, 2004). Studies which emphasized the importance of knowing generational differences contributed to the educational setting as far as improving various approaches to teaching and learning. This study investigated whether meta-cognition can moderate the relationship between goal orientation and student motivation specifically among the digital generation.

Literature Review

Motivation and goal orientation

Motivation is defined as an internal drive, stimulating power, wish or desire (Deniz, 2010). It also directs action to achieve a specific goal by means of manifesting a particular behavior. Furthermore, Sung and Choi (2009) further mention that motivation also includes energy, direction, and persistence.

McClelland's study on achievement motivation in 1961 inspired several studies by Dweck and colleagues (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) to note that goal orientation reflect goals pursued by individuals which in turn becomes strong predictors of behavior and performance. In the context of learning, goal orientation affects students' performance along with self-efficacy and self regulated learning strategies (Bandura, 1997; Harackiewicz, Baron, & Elliot, 2002). Furthermore, goal-orientation dictates the intent for choosing to use examples as well as how to process them in the E-learning scenario (Crippen, Beisinger, Muis, & Orgill, 2009). Another antecedent of goal-orientation is that it serves as a predictor of student's use of instructional materials because it is said to be part of the learner's characteristics (Crippen, Beisinger, Muis, & Orgill, 2009). Goal orientation strategies also appear as an operating agent in extracurricular activities, including sports and music (Ryska, Zenong, & Boyd, 1999). Lastly, goal orientation in the context of knowledge sharing behavior directly affect what knowledge [people] are willing to share with whom (Swift, Balkin, & Matusik, 2009).

Types of goal orientation

Goals are formed consciously with a specific idea unlike motives or desires which are on a more subconscious level Center on Education Policy (2012). Two types of goal orientations have been cited by various authors in relation to choice of goals: learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation. The former is characterized when a person is inclined to pursue goals associated with learning and skill acquisition while the latter deals with inclination to choose goals to demonstrate competence and achieve positive evaluations (Chughtai & Buckley, 2009; DeShon and Gillespie, 2005 cited in Swift, Balkin, & Matusik, 2009; Dweck , 1986).

Function of goal orientation and factors affecting goal orientation

When an individual is placed in an achievement situation, goal orientation serves as a motivational variable which affects the allocation of effort during learning (Fisher & Ford, 1998). Other variables in turn can affect goal-related behaviors such as internal locus of control and stress. Specifically, stress can alter the effect of goal orientation which may at times make the goal orientation types in opposition (Dweck, 1999). In this study of Dweck (1999), when students are under stress either the learning goal orientation or the performance goal orientation dominates. However, in the absence of stress the distinction does not affect the behavior or the outcomes. Day (1999) as cited in Garger, Thomas, and Jacques (2010) mentioned that students with an internal locus of control orientation assists in exhibiting sustained goal-related behaviors requisite for success during transitions to college and subsequent professional placements. Age also affects goal orientation because older students imbibed learning goals more than those who are younger (Hoyert & O'Dell, 2009). However, after a failure, the same authors mentioned that goal orientation did not interact with age.

Age and the digital generation: A profile

Age can be used as one category to profile generations. Cheliah and Clarke (2011) mentioned upon investigation that the generation born from 1980s onwards were called using various terminologies which denoted the prominence, use and mastery of digital

technology among the said group enhancing connectivity though they are mobile or physically distant.

Furthermore, unlike the older generation, this generation shows reliance on these technologies to weave relationships among individuals through its worldwide communication networks (Autry & Berge, 2011). Various authors note that students under the digital generation exhibit certain traits which can affect the way information is understood and learning is manifested. These traits include: multi-tasking, being tech-savvy, sheltered, special, confident, achieving, team-oriented, pressured and conventional (Alvi, 2011; Autry Jr & Berge, 2011; Wilson & Gerber, 2008). For the purposes of this study, the term digital generation referring to the above descriptions will be used throughout the discussion.

The Center on Education Policy (2012) highlighted the importance of the actual goals having an effect on student achievement levels because not all students are simply motivated by love of learning or by academics but by the having a goal regardless if it is short term or long term. The same study suggested that it is manifested by certain actions like passing a test or meeting the target grade. This is consistent to the research done by Schultheiss (2001 cited by Pintrich 2003) which revealed that people show improved performance and higher levels of motivation when their goals and motives align.

Thus, hypothesis 1 is formulated:

H1: Goal orientation is positively related to motivation.

The achievement goal theory which states that student's academic motivation can be understood as attempts to achieve goals is used to further justify the previous discussion and the H1 of the study (Seifert, 2004).

Meta-Cognition

Though numerous studies involve varying definitions on meta-cognition, these researches highlight meta-cognition as a concept dealing with thinking, learning and understanding. Brown and Flavell, define meta-cognition (as cited in Al-Hilwani et al., 2008. p. 139) as strategic employment of one's cognitive processes and resources to construct knowledge

and employ thinking and problem solving skills and reach understanding and insight into one's environment.

According to Bruning, Schraw and Ronning (1995) metacognition has two components: "knowledge of cognition" and "regulation of cognition" (p. 460). According to the said researchers, the former refers to awareness of one's cognition and the latter indicates one's control of cognition. They further identified subcomponents of these two parts. The first part includes declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge. By description, declarative knowledge refers awareness of one's performance (e.g. limitations). Procedural knowledge focuses on one's awareness of strategies while conditional knowledge pertains to when to apply strategy. The second part covers planning, regulation and evaluation. Specifically, planning refers to setting goals and strategies while regulation focuses on monitoring and predicting. Evaluation, the last subcomponent includes appraising, evaluating and adjusting of goals and learning results.

Antecedents of Meta-Cognition

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on factors that influence and affect metacognition. Age, problem-based learning, concrete feedback, incentives, classroom routines and service learning will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Al-Hilwani (2003) noted in his research that age affects the level of metacognition due to it being a developmental process. This is manifested in his study by older students getting notably higher scores in reflecting about their own thinking and knowledge acquisition when doing tasks related with reasoning and problem solving. Another study conducted by Downing and Ning (2011) demonstrated dramatic improvements in metacognition under problem-based learning (PBL) that led to significantly higher scores in overall course satisfaction and generic skills development.

Other important factors such as feedback, learning and thinking enriched classroom routines as well as service learning can affect metacognition as evidenced by the researches in the discussion which follows. Miller and Geraci (2011) found that concrete feedback along with incentives improved metacognition for students who are low performers though

not in all tests. It enabled the said students gain metacognitive monitoring but not control. Also, one study conducted by Ritchhart, Palmer, Church and Tishman (2006), reported that instilling opportunities for learning and thinking in classroom routines can affect how students and teachers view metacognition. Lastly, Wilson (2011) reported in her research that service learning has an impact on the metacognitive processes involving reflection writing than students without such experience.

Consequences of Metacognition

Much research has been done in academic settings on outcomes that were influenced by metacognition. Leadership, engagement and student achievement were all cited to be consequences of motivation. These statements will be explained in the succeeding paragraph.

Posner (2009) stipulated that students who are more actively engaged in any of the various learning tactics (feelings, thinking, accessing others, and action) subsequently report greater engagement across the range of leadership practices as well as transformational leadership. The study explicitly mentions, that the thinking tactic which includes cognitive rehearsals and reflection can affect students' engagement in their leadership practices. Moreover, Schleifer and Dull (2009) mentioned that metacognitive attributes are associated with accounting course achievement. They further reiterated that much evidence exists that metacognition can help students be academically successful. Lastly, the study of Tan and Laswad (2008) showed that certain aspects like gender and language may affect the acquisition of metacognitive knowledge by the students thus highlighting the need to have prior knowledge on these aspects to assist in increasing metacognitive awareness.

From this discussion, hypothesis 2 is formulated:

H2: Meta-cognition moderates the relationship of goal-orientation and student motivation.

The conceptual framework of the study is presented below:

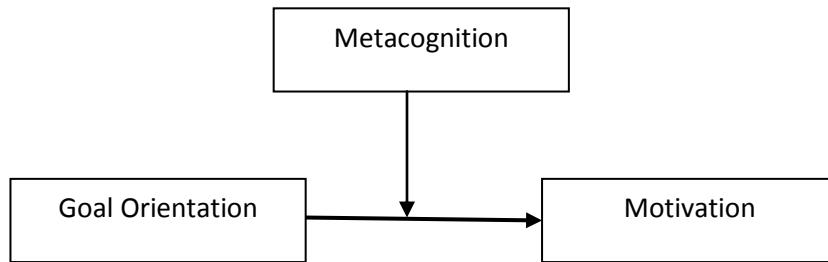


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study

Figure 1 shows the relationship of the variables: goal orientation is considered as the independent variable, motivation as its dependent variable and metacognition as the moderating variable. The researchers tested whether the presence or absence of metacognition affects the relationship of goal orientation to motivation. The Achievement goal theory which states that students' academic motivation can be understood as attempts to achieve goals (Seifert, 2004) explains the relationship of the variables presented above.

Materials

Standardized questionnaires measuring, metacognition, goal orientation and motivation respectively were used for the study. The researchers found the said questionnaires useful because it has a cronbach alpha of 0.7 and higher for an acceptable reliability. The said instruments were available whose authors had the same operational definition of each variable in our study hence, there was no need to create a different instrument to measure each variable per se rather the need to put the three together in one survey questionnaire readily served the purpose of the study.

Metacognition was measured using an 8 item scale of metacognitive ability developed by Dalton (1999) where $\alpha = 0.76$. Sample items for metacognition include: "When faced with an unfamiliar task or experience I ask myself how this is similar to other things I know." This measure used a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 having the entry "I have almost never used this approach" to 5 "I have almost always used this approach." Table 1 shows the validity and reliability of the metacognition portion of the survey instrument.

Table 1. Validity and Reliability of Metacognition

| Case Processing Summary | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----|-------|
| | | N | % |
| Cases | Valid | 480 | 99.4 |
| | Excluded ^a | 3 | 0.6 |
| | Total | 483 | 100.0 |

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

| Reliability Statistics | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| 0.767 | 8 |

Motivation was measured using thirty-three item scale developed by Lepper, Corpus, and Iyengar (2005) with a cronbach alpha of 0.81. Sample item for this measure include “I like hard work because it’s a challenge.” The measure used a 4-Point Likert Scale ranging from 1 Not at all like me to 4 Very much like me in describing general preference in studying. Table 2 displays the validity and reliability of the questionnaire on motivation.

Table 2. Validity and Reliability of Motivation Items

| Case Processing Summary | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----|-------|
| | | N | % |
| Cases | Valid | 475 | 98.3 |
| | Excluded ^a | 8 | 1.7 |
| | Total | 483 | 100.0 |

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

| Reliability Statistics | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| 0.814 | 33 |

Goal orientation developed by Button, Mathieu and Zajac (1996) was used to measure each orientation using a sixteen item scale with a cronbach alpha of 0.86. Table 3 presents the validity and reliability statistics for goal orientation questionnaire. Sample item for this measure include “I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.” The measure used a 5-Point Likert Scale ranging from 1 not at all to 5 very much so when asked to describe goal setting in class.

Table 3. Validity and Reliability of Goal Orientation

| Case Processing Summary | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----|-------|
| | | N | % |
| Cases | Valid | 465 | 96.3 |
| | Excluded ^a | 18 | 3.7 |
| | Total | 483 | 100.0 |

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

| Reliability Statistics | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| 0.865 | 16 |

(The questions are presented in the appendix)

Procedure

The survey instrument was administered to students in a private institution under the course of Bachelor of Science in Business Administration. The researchers studied and analyzed the independent and dependent variables as identified in this research, as well as the interpretation of the moderating effects of metacognition to the relationship between goal orientation and motivation on students in the digital generation.

The researchers provided questionnaires to faculties who administered the survey. The students were given the instruction to answer the survey forms as honestly as possible to make the data valid. From 500 questionnaires that were released, only 483 results were considered valid yielding a final response rate of 96.6%.

Analysis

Results and Discussion

The descriptive statistic of the study as shown in Table 4 reveals that majority of the student respondents are male with 54% followed by the female respondents comprising of 46% of the respondents. From among the group, 2% of the population did not answer the entry for gender.

Table 4. Gender

| Gender | | | | | |
|---------|-----------------------|-----|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Cases | Valid | 472 | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| | Missing | 11 | | | |
| Cases | Valid | 255 | 52.8 | 54.0 | 54.0 |
| | Excluded ^a | 217 | 44.9 | 46.0 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 472 | 97.7 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | System | 11 | 2.3 | | |
| | Total | 483 | 100.0 | | |

On the other hand, Table 5 shows that the average age is 18.5 years old ($SD=2.199$ years old) with range 15 to 35 years old.

Table 5. Age

| Descriptive Statistics | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|---------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Age | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Age | 482 | 15 | 35 | 18.50 | 2.199 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 482 | | | | |

Hypothesis 1 predicted that goal orientation is positively correlated to motivation. Using Pearson r, Table 6 shows that there is a significant correlation in the relationship with $r =$

0.311 at 0.01 level (2-tailed) where *Pref_in_studying* displays motivation, *Thinking_in_School* is metacognition followed by goal orientation. Students who have high goal-orientation led to increased motivation in the classroom setting. This is consistent to the findings Ames and Archer (as cited in Dahl & Smimou, 2011) which states that motivation patterns of high-achieving students is from perceived goal orientation of the classroom and these perceptions were connected to the classroom climate were related with motivational variables such as self-regulation, long-term involvement and interest in learning.

Table 6. Correlations Between Variables in the Study

| Correlations | | Pref_in_Studying | Thinking_in_School | Goal_orientation |
|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Pref_in_Studying | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0.323** | 0.311** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | N | 483 | 483 | 481 |
| Thinking_in_School | Pearson Correlation | 0.323** | 1 | 0.521** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.00 | | 0.00 |
| | N | 483 | 483 | 481 |
| | Pearson Correlation | 0.311** | 0.521** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.00 | 0.00 | |
| | N | 481 | 481 | 481 |

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

Hypothesis 2 intends to examine the moderating role of metacognition to the relationship of goal orientation and motivation. Path modeling was used as a complementary method of illustrating the result of the relationship among variables (Wetzel & Oppen, 2009). It is also more suitable to more complex models including models with hierarchical construct, mediating effects and moderating effects (Chin & Newsted, 2003).

Figure 2 illustrates the relationship of the variables. Goal orientation has significant correlation to motivation with $p<.01$. Metacognition did not moderate in the relationship

between goal orientation and motivation with $p=0.18$ which is higher than 0.05. The model did indicate that metacognition has a direct effect on motivation with $p<.01$.

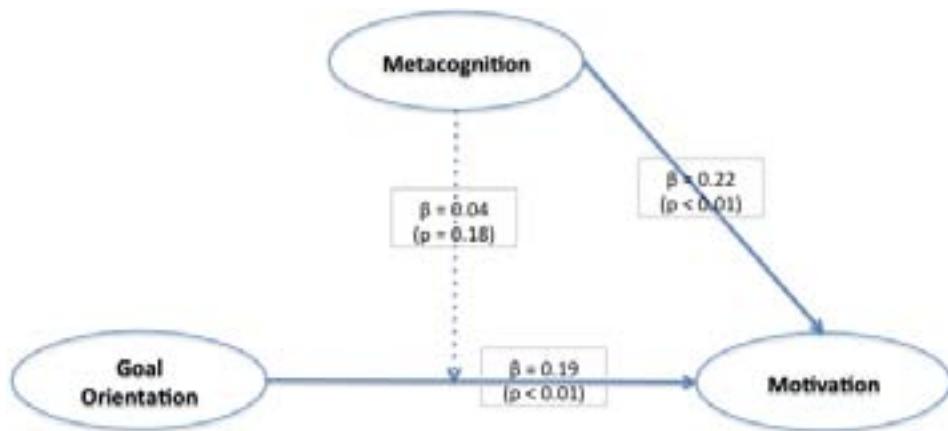


Figure 2. Path Modeling

On the other hand, the strength of the relationship between goal orientation and motivation is comparable to the strength of relationship of metacognition and motivation with higher β value of 0.22. This shows that goals can be tailored to recognize that different students may need different types of goals based on their mindsets and motivational styles (Locke & Latham, 1990). The same authors cautioned however that these goals can affect motivation negatively if the level of difficulty is too high or if the goal has been imposed on the student.

Based on the results, metacognition did not moderate the relationship between goal orientation and motivation therefore hypothesis 2 was rejected. This is consistent with the study done by the Center on Education Policy (2012) that sometimes having a goal regardless of whether it is a simple concrete goal, such as passing a test, or a long-term abstract goal like a career, is motivation enough. This reiterates the research of Schultheiss (2001) as cited in Pintrich (2003) that an alignment of goals and motives lead to increased motivation and performance.

The final model therefore in Figure 3 illustrates that goal orientation and metacognition has positive correlation to motivation.

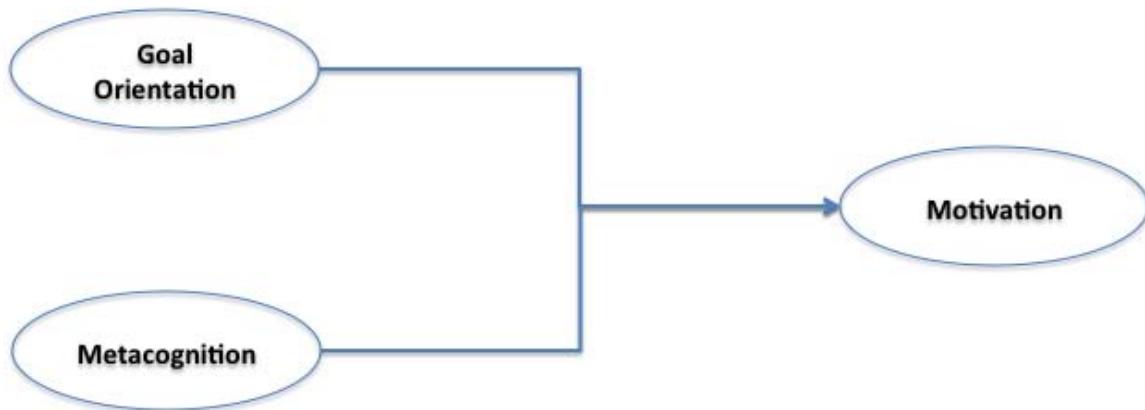


Figure 3. Final Model

The relationship was established by the analyses using different statistical tools and confirmed by the constructivist theory which highlights the development of students developing their own frames of thought covers both goal-orientation and metacognition considering the basic principles specifically:

Constructivist theory assumes three basic principles that include: learners forming their own representations of knowledge; learning through active experience and exploration that uncovers inconsistencies between current knowledge representation and their own experiences; and learning within a social context, with interaction between learners, peers and other members of the learning community.

(Keengwe, Onchwari, & Onchwari, 2009, p. 15,)

Areas for future research

The study revealed that meta-cognition is a better predictor of motivation than goal-orientation. With this, the researchers suggest that further studies be made on meta-cognition treated as a faceted concept to further allow a better understanding of the variable in relation to the digital generation. Looking at declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge acquisition in metacognition would add to the literature under the digital natives as far as these components are concerned. This is consistent to the recommendation of Minocha (2009) emphasizing the importance for students to engage in the process of learning how to learn in order to develop skills of problem solving, research and collaborative work. Similarly, Chelliah and Clarke (2011) highlight the necessity on allowing for opportunities for students to socially construct not only in relation to

themselves but also to that of others so that they can have manifestations of the knowledge constructed in a learning environment.

Implication, conclusion and limitations of the study

Our research revealed several implications for teaching the digital generation considering meta-cognition and goal orientation. It highlighted the need for supervised navigation of technology to assist the digital generation not only in information processing but also in the aspect of facilitating their learning through constant feedback. Thus, this emphasized the difference between acquiring information which the said generation can independently do versus processing information which they may need help on.

Specifically, Autry Jr and Berge (2011) highlights the importance of providing technology tools to use as a means to form their understanding and knowledge. The following effects are cited by the said authors:

Students are highly motivated to discuss content, solve problems together, and apply new concepts which relate to their own practice. Even more importantly it permits students the opportunity to self assess their understanding of the content through collaboration with their fellow students. Students improve their problem solving and critical thinking skills. Students are empowered to customize their learning and to take on new learning challenges.

(Autry Jr & Berge, 2011, p. 465)

However, though the students belonging to the digital generation receive information fast through these means, it is not a guarantee that they process the said information at the same speed. Author Alvi, (2011) shares this opinion and highlights the need for faculty to be mindful of the said characterization. According to the author “it is more important to teach students how to navigate intelligently and thoughtfully through a sea of information (without drowning in it) than it is to provide mere content with the expectation that students have “learned” something” (Alvi, 2011, p. 140).

For the facilitators of learning, they may provide assistance to this said generation by defining goals in a step-by-step manner most especially when faced with many tasks (Thielfoldt & Scheef, 2005). The same authors also emphasize on the importance of feedback even on a daily basis because the said generation has grown accustomed to it unlike older generations. Giving constant feedback in a similar study would not be viewed as a negative thing for this generation (Heathfield, n.d.) In this regard there is a need for

teachers and mentors to furnish the digital gen students activities to assist in getting relevant information thus, selection of relevant information are important. Lorenzo and Dzibiuban (2006) further states that distinguishing information to see the big picture termed in their study as information literacy is a necessity but moreso applying this information to critical thinking or information fluency matters most.

Compared with traditional teaching, adaptive learning or student-centered pedagogy would be most beneficial to the digital generation (Sonwalkar, 2008). This is along with utilizing increasing unique forms of communication and community building which includes but not limited to social media, publishing space among others (Minocha, 2009).

Overall, this difference in learning preference needs to highlight the development of meta-cognitive skills when teaching in the hopes of honing higher ordered thinking skills. Being mindful of this when planning and preparing both lessons and curricula can best ensure that opportunities for metacognition is integrated as part of the teaching process. This is consistent to the studies which centers on teaching the digital generation. Fiertag and Berge (2008) notes that shifting toward andragogy and perceiving students as adults in the learning context addresses faculty and business concerns that graduates are not prepared for critical thinking in a productive society. Furthermore, the same authors note that adult learning theory calls for a practical approach to education; students must see the end goal and understand how the steps toward it fit the big picture. Another study specifically notes:

Curricula must shift from “helping students gain knowledge for knowledge’s sake to engaging students in the construction of knowledge for the sake of addressing the challenges faced by a complex, global society.”

(Clayton-Pedersen & O'Neill, 2005) p.129).

Though our study showed promising results, it has several limitations. First, our study focused on the digital generation therefore, the study in relation to the generational theory can only address global traits and not those indicated by marginal groups or cultures. Also, self-report questionnaires which our group utilized can be affected by the social desirability bias in which respondents may tend to answer a survey positively to present oneself in the best possible light (Fisher , 1993).

Appendix

Control Number: _____

Dear Respondent:

This project concentrates how assessment, thinking and procedures might be improved in our digital generation. The aim of the research is to identify how we might best strengthen goal orientation based on what the students find the most useful. It will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. When you have completed the survey, please place in the envelope provided. Rest assured the responses are completely confidential and anonymous, so please be as honest and open as possible.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The following information is only needed to help analyze the data and draw more meaningful conclusions from the survey results. Your responses will remain completely confidential. Your survey will be handled by the researcher for processing and no one at your current organization will have access to this information. We appreciate your help in providing this very important information.

01. Gender (please encircle): 1 Male 2 Female
02. Age (as of last birthday): _____
03. What is your school year level? _____
04. What is your Course / Major? _____

SECTION B: ABOUT GENERAL PREFERENCES IN STUDYING

Please use the following rating scale.

| | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| Not at all like me | Not much like me | Somewhat like me | Very much like me |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| 05. I like hard work because it's a challenge..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 06. I like to learn as much as I can in school..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 07. I like to go on to new work that's at a more difficult level..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 08. I like those school subjects that make me think pretty hard and figure things out..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 09. I like difficult problems because I enjoy trying to figure them out..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 10. I like difficult schoolwork because I find it more interesting..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 11. I ask questions in class because I want to learn new things..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 12. I do extra projects because I can learn about things that interest me..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 13. I read things because I am interested in the subject..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 14. I do my schoolwork to find out about a lot of things I've been waiting to know..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 15. I work really hard because I really like to learn new things..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 16. I work on problems to learn how to solve them..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 17. I like to try to figure out how to do school assignments on my own..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 18. When I don't understand something right away I like to try to figure it out by myself... | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 | 4 | | |
| 19. When I make a mistake I like to figure out the right answer by myself..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 20. If I get stuck on a problem I keep trying to figure out the problem on my own..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 21. I like to do my schoolwork without help..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 22. I don't like to figure out difficult problems..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 23. I like to learn just what I have to in school..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 24. I don't like difficult schoolwork because I have to work too hard..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 25. I like easy work that I am sure I can do..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 26. I like to stick to the assignments which are pretty easy to do..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 27. I like school subjects where it's pretty easy to just learn the answers..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 28. I read things because the teacher wants me to..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 29. I do my schoolwork because teacher tells me to..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 30. I work on problems because I'm supposed to..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 31. I ask questions because I want the teacher to notice me..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 32. When I don't understand something right away I want the teacher to tell me the answer... 1 2 3 4 | | | |
| 33. I like to have the teacher help me with my schoolwork..... | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 4 | | | |
| 34. When I make a mistake I like to ask the teacher how to get the right answer..... | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 4 | | | |
| 35. If I get stuck on a problem I ask the teacher for help..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 36. I like the teacher to help me plan what to do next..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |
| 37. I like to ask the teacher how school assignments should be done..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | | |

SECTION C: ABOUT THINKING IN SCHOOL

Think about times you have been faced with the challenge of an unfamiliar task or experience. Using the scale of 1 to 5 as defined below, circle the number that best indicates the extent that each of the approaches listed has been characteristic of your behavior

| I have almost never used this approach 1 | I have rarely used this approach 2 | I have sometimes used this approach 3 | I have often used this approach 4 | I have almost always used this approach 5 |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|--|
|---|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|--|

When faced with an unfamiliar task or experience, I:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 38. Read articles or books or go online to gain knowledge and background..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 39. Ask myself how this is similar to other things I know..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 40. Imagine how different approaches might play out in the future..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 41. Construct a plan of action..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 42. Reflect on a variety of possible approaches..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 43. Conceptualize what the ideal student would do..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 44. Picture myself doing well..... | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |
| 45. Mentally rehearse my actions before going into the situation | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 5 | | | |

SECTION D: Goal Orientation Items

For each of the following statements, please indicate how true it is for you, using the following scale

| | | | | |
|-----------------|--|--------------|---|-------------------|
| Not at All 1 | I have rarely used this approach 2 | Neutral 3 | I have often used this approach 4 | Very Much So 5 |
|-----------------|--|--------------|---|-------------------|

The following describes your goal setting in this class...

| | |
|--|-----|
| 46. I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 47. I'm happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I won't make any errors..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 48. The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 49. The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 50. I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |

| | |
|---|-------|
| 51. I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 79. I like to work on task that I have done well on in the past..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 80. I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 81. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me..... | 1 2 3 |
| 4 5 | |
| 82. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 83. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 84. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 85. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task..... | 1 2 3 |
| 4 5 | |
| 86. I try hard to improve on my past performance..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 87. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me..... | 1 2 |
| 3 4 5 | |
| 88. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work..... | 1 |
| 2 3 4 5 | |

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