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Hypothesis Testing as Courtroom Trial: Using Metaphor to Teach Research Paper Writing

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Research papers are a core genre in many academic contexts. Yet many English for Academic Purposes (EAP) foundation programs do not teach students how to write them. Hypothesis testing is an integral component of quantitative research paper writing. However, it is often misunderstood. An understanding of a few key statistical assumptions, concepts and tools is essential to empirical enquiry as it constitutes a significant hurdle for many novice investigators. This paper will argue that a metaphor-based approach to teaching research paper writing is particularly effective and it shall propose a 'hypothesis testing as courtroom trial' metaphor for helping students grasp the underlying concepts behind hypothesis-testing. It will feature some sections of a specimen research paper to show how this model may work in the classroom.

Keywords: Discipline-Specific Writing, Metaphor, Research Paper Writing

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Introduction

Research papers are a core genre in many academic contexts. Yet many English for Academic Purposes (EAP) foundation programs do not teach students how to write them. This paper will focus on the research paper and will argue that metaphor is an effective way of teaching hypothesis testing, an essential part of empirical reasoning. It will propose a metaphor-based model to teaching empirical research paper writing for the social sciences to EAP students. It will describe a case study of a writing course focused on the research paper and it will highlight relevant extracts from a sample research paper.

Nesi & Gardner (2012) have identified thirteen genre families: the case study, critique, design specification, empathy writing, essay, exercise, explanation, literature survey, methodology recount, narrative recount, problem question, proposal, and research report. Yet many EAP foundation programs do not explicitly teach most of them. They prefer instead to teach students how to write 'generic' academic texts such as 'argumentative essays', 'comparison and contrast essays', 'cause and effect essays', and '5-paragraph essays'.

Although these authors have identified the essay as the most popular genre family that students are required to write in their disciplines, accounting for 43.3% of the total (Ibid.), they will also be required to write other academic genres. Another issue is that even when some of their major courses require them to write essays, they will not be of the generic 'cause and effect', or 'comparison and contrast' type. Rather, they will be essays that involve knowing specific genres, rhetorical styles, content and discourse community knowledge that are particular to each discipline.

The practice of teaching generic essays is a reflection of the current nature and orientation of some EAP foundation programs. They assume "generic academic practices that can be applied anywhere on campus" (Hartigan, 2013, p. 27). However, little empirical evidence suggests that much of the generalized academic skills students learn in foundation EAP programs are directly transferable to their post-EAP coursework. Academic writing post-EAP involves the production of discipline-specific texts in specific genres. Santos (2014, p. 32) argues that generalized academic writing should be 'considerably reduced or even eliminated altogether'. He proposes

that EAP foundation programs introduce novice disciplinary writing in the freshman year.

The Quantitative Research Paper

Research papers are a "core genre in many academic contexts, and they can be subdivided into more specific genres such as research reports and law reports" (de Chazal, 2014, p. 193). While the detail varies, "reports are characterized by their conventional structure, which broadly follows an objective →subjective pattern: methodology and an account of the research (more objective) is followed by interpretation, evaluation and recommendations (more subjective)" (Ibid, p. 194).

What do quantitative social science research papers do? These reports describe social research on topics relating to questions relevant to the social scientific fields like sociology, human geography, social policy, politics and criminology. Some social research merely describes the state of social affairs, meaning it asks *what* but not *why*. But often they have "an *explanatory* purpose-providing reasons for phenomena, in terms of causal relationships. Why do some cities have higher unemployment rates than others? Why are some people more prejudiced than others" (Babbie, 2005, p. 22)?

Quantitative research has its goal to the development and testing of theories. It often follows a set sequence. Kellstedt & Whitten (2013, p. 4) present a "stylized schematic view of the path from theories to hypotheses to scientific knowledge" (Figure 1):

Figure 1: Steps in Quantitative Research

The figure seems to suggest that this consists of a linear sequence, but "research is rarely as linear and as straightforward" (Bryman, 2008, p. 140) as it might appear. A research project involves a meticulous process of research design, of

which the research paper is the end product. A researcher first starts with a theory about the causes of some phenomenon of interest. Kellstedt & Whitten (2013, p. 4) assert:

> The first step in testing a particular theory is to restate it as one or more testable hypotheses. A hypothesis is a theory-based statement about a relationship we expect to observe. For every hypothesis there is a corresponding null hypothesis. A null hypothesis is also a theory-based statement but it is about what we would observe if there were no relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable. Hypothesis testing is a process in which scientists evaluate systematically collected evidence to make a judgment of whether the evidence favors their hypothesis or favors the corresponding null hypothesis.

Quantitative research involves collecting data that can be measured or counted and then interpreting and analyzing them so that we can arrive at a decision. There are different ways of doing quantitative research and this paper will focus on the process of hypothesis testing that can help students do the following:

- ask a question (in the form of a hypothesis)

- collect data

- analyze and interpret it

- reach a decision regarding the question

A fundamental aspect of the quantitative research process involves the appropriate use of statistical tools and concepts. Thus it goes without saying that an understanding of a few key statistical assumptions, concepts and tools is essential to empirical enquiry. Unfortunately this part of the research process constitutes a significant hurdle for many novice investigators. Hawkins (1991) asserts that statistics, and hypothesis testing in particular, is a difficult subject to teach and learn. The nature of the subject itself presents problems because "the important concepts of statistics are quintessentially abstract" (Watts, 1991, p. 290), open to interpretation, and "are unlike anything the student has thought of before" (Garfield & Ahlgren, 1988, p. 271). Batanero (2000) states that the three most difficult aspects of testing statistical hypotheses are, understanding the concept of a hypothesis test, interpreting a p-value, and interpreting the significance level σ. For del Mas et al. (2007), students do not "demonstrate an understanding of confidence intervals" (p. 49).

Any attempt to teach empirical investigation must invariably integrate a component of statistics that addresses the abstract nature of the subject, thereby eliminating many of the difficulties, errors and misconceptions that many novice researchers encounter. Arcane statistical reasoning has to be made more comprehensible in such a way that novices can see its underlying logic. Statistical reasoning needs to be translated into the realm of students' lived experience. The next section will propose a metaphor-based model to teaching hypothesis testing that addresses these areas of difficulty.

The Role of Metaphor

Metaphors can be an effective form of making unfamiliar topics and concepts intelligible. The study of metaphor is really about mental representations. These metaphors are conceptual mappings that reveal much about our processes of thinking and reasoning. Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. xi) argue:

> Far from being merely a matter of words, metaphor is a matter of thought – all kinds of thought: thought about emotion, about society, about human character, about language, and about the nature of life and death. It is indispensable not only to our imagination but also to our reason.

To be effective, metaphorical concepts have to relate two dissimilar notions, concepts, or things. The first is the target domain, and the second one is the source domain. Pitcher (2011, p. 974) states:

> If a person uses the metaphor of a journey to describe his or her research then the concept might be "research is a journey." In this example "research" is the target domain and "journey" is the source domain since "research" is the subject of investigation and "journey" is the domain to which it is linked by the metaphor.

Metaphors shape the way we conceptualize lived experiences. This is because abstract concepts need to be reconceived in concrete, tangible ways if they are to be meaningful to us. Metaphors provide an effective means to help visualize abstract ideas (Miller, 1979). Hoang (2014, p. 1) argues that metaphors stipulate "that our basic daily-life experiences with our body, physical environment and culture shape the way we perceive the world, which gives rise to conceptual metaphors".

Metaphor occupies an important place in foreign language education. Its role is increasing and "many strong claims have been made about the power of metaphor in almost every aspect of language education" (Hoang, 2014, p. 2). Some researchers (Li, 2009; Yasuda, 2010) have called for the explicit instruction of conceptual metaphors in the classroom. It is integral to many dimensions of language use (Low, 1988). It helps improve competence in reading (Carter &McCarthy, 1988; Holme, 2004), vocabulary learning (Lewis, 1993), and in English for Specific Purposes (Caballero Rodriguez, 2003).

Metaphor exists in science; many scientists use them as a way to assist them in their investigation. The process of scientific inquiry; connecting data, knowing how and when to use resources and tools, the ability to remain open-minded, and so on, can be understood as a series of metaphors that scientists themselves use in order to describe what it is they do. Harwood et al. (2005) studied several scientists and identified several metaphors that that they utilized to articulate how they conceptualized scientific inquiry. For example the metaphor of 'scientist as artist' helps a physicist appreciate the fact that "authentic scientific investigations do not progress in a linear way where one step invariably leads to the next" (p. 26). Just like artists, scientists will not always be certain where the investigation will lead them to, thus, scientific inquiry is more akin to the process of creating a work of art. According to the physicist, a scientist is (Ibid.):

> It's like an artist. An artist does not know the answer. An artist in the process of creating something lets the process lead them to whatever they are doing. They experiment and that's kind of what you do in science.

Another metaphor used by a medical scientist, 'science as cooking', reveals that scientific progress in the form of new discoveries does not happen in the same way cooks create new dishes by just following a recipe. "To do so will not lead to a new dish or concoction. Adding a spice here and there, however, or substituting items can create a recipe unlike the original" (p.27). Just as a cook invents new culinary dishes by making an idea that was originally somebody else's his own, "scientific progress can result from trying out different variations of an idea" (Ibid.).

Scientific inquiry can also be akin to construction with the metaphor 'science as a brick building' as it enables the geologist to represent "the significance of each piece of data (a brick) in the analysis of the larger set of data corresponding to the overall picture" (p. 28). Several scientists in the study also mentioned the metaphorical role of 'tool bag' as a way to represent science. "Each tool bag contains methods, instruments, questions, techniques, and it is up to the scientists to decide which tool to use, and when, in an investigation" (p. 28). A biologist gave the 'science as a chess game' metaphor as "one needs to be able to "recognize the important questions but be able to look ahead 5-6 moves"" (p. 29). A chemist used the metaphor of 'scientific inquiry as learning a foreign language'. For him (Ibid.):

> This ability to think abstractly about a problem is absolutely crucial. It's also crucial to have a lot of facts at your disposal. It's very vaguely like learning a foreign language. You have to learn syntax and grammar and that's the thinking abstractly part, how things were generally put together. But, also to learn a foreign language, you have to learn vocabulary. In science you must know a set of reasonably large number of facts.

Metaphor also plays a role in doctoral research; some research students employ it as a way of conceptualizing the research process. Pitcher (2011, p. 978-979) surveyed 59 doctoral students' ideas regarding research at a research-intensive Australian university from a broad variety of disciplines; philosophy, demography, law, mathematics, ecology and anthropology. His findings produced four dominant metaphorical concepts: 'research is explorative', 'research is constructive', 'research is spatial' and 'research is organic'. These metaphorical categories 'can be taken as representative of the doctoral students' conceptions of research'.

The first metaphor 'research is explorative' likens the scientific process to a journey of discovery and exploration of the unknown. Respondents described research as being "on track" or "going too far down the wrong track". There's "no end to it" and "it's easy to drown". They sometimes described research as "going off in another direction" or the need to "pursue one's interests".

The next metaphor, 'research is spatial', conceptualizes research as covering a geographical area of interest. Some respondents referred to as "areas" of knowledge

or "field" of interest. Another response talked about "regions of thought", which were "still virgin".

Yet another metaphor, 'research is constructive', visualizes research as adding to the edifice of knowledge. Students mention the notion of "adding another brick to the wall", "building knowledge", and "filling gaps". They also talked about "constructing a research question" and "constructing a research methodology".

The last metaphor, 'research is organic', conceptualizes investigation as related to life and living things. Responses in this category refer to the "body" of knowledge, the need to "go with the flow", ideas that "might feed off each other" to "produce knowledge".

Metaphor has been proposed as a solution to the statistical errors and misconceptions committed by novices. In one study, Grant & Nathan (2008) have proposed using conceptual metaphors in an effort to address the common misconceptions students have about confidence intervals. They proposed two metaphors for confidence intervals: the first is (a) 'Confidence Intervals are Changing Rings around a Fixed Point' (Table 1):

Table 1: Changing Ring Metaphor
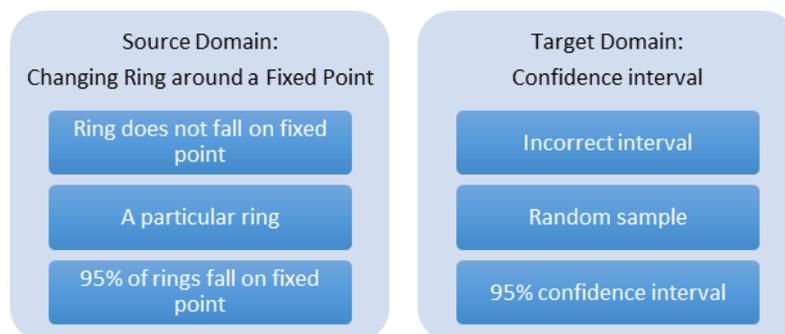
This metaphorical device is that of "pitching horseshoes of varying widths to encircle a stake fixed in the ground. Key to this correct conceptual metaphor is representing the many ways in which the critical values of the confidence interval change, since the confidence interval is a property of a sample but not necessarily of the larger population from which the sample was taken" (p. 6).

The second metaphor is (b) 'Confidence Intervals are Changing Points on a Fixed Disk (Table 2.):

Table 2: Fixed Disk Metaphor
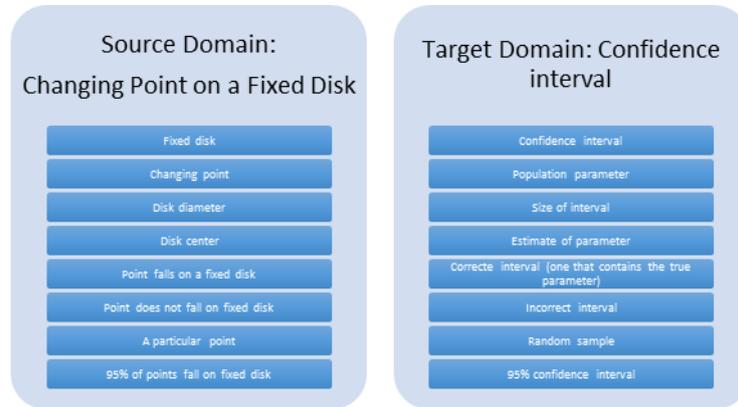
This metaphor is similar to "throwing darts at a dartboard where the board is a fixed ring and the darts represent the various points". In this metaphor, the belief is that the "population parameter can change from sample to sample, which contradicts an essential assumption of inferential statistics. The interval in this metaphor is taken to be of fixed length, and each experiment results in placing a new parameter onto the fixed-diameter disk" (p. 7).

However, the 'changing ring' and 'fixed disk' metaphors may not be ideal for helping students gain a thorough understanding of the concepts that underlie hypothesis testing. To be effective in conveying the desired concept or idea (known as the 'target domain'), the second concept it is being compared to (known as 'source domain') should ideally be some object, activity, or concept that students are quite familiar with. The greater the familiarity with the 'source domain', the easier they will grasp the underlying concept behind the 'target domain'. Unfortunately, it is doubtful that many will have had much experience of pitching horseshoes of varying widths to encircle a stake fixed to the ground, or of throwing darts at a dartboard.

Hypothesis Testing as Courtroom Trial

It is with the intention of finding a more appropriate 'source domain' metaphor in which to anchor the concept and theory of hypothesis testing that this paper will propose an alternative metaphor- 'Hypothesis Testing as Courtroom Trial'. It proposes to teach the process of research through the medium of the legal trial.

Although the vast majority of students will have little or no direct experience of the legal system, almost all will have at some point 'consumed' legal dramas in print, television, and film. Courtroom/legal dramas represent, to give just one particular medium- that of television, a very popular TV genre. Many of the most popular TV shows in recent memory have been legal dramas. Some examples are: Suits, The Good Wife, Boston Legal, The Practice, Damages, Silk, CSI: Miami, CSI: NY, NCIS, Courting Alex, Cold Case, Close to Home, Medium, L.A. Law, The Defenders, Shark, The Firm, Law & Order, Criminal Intent, Crossing Jordan, Conviction, and The West Wing, to name a few.

Many of the elements of a court case are particularly useful metaphors for the research process; a prosecution, a defense, a judge/jury, arguing and defending a case, the presumption of innocence, giving evidence, examining the evidence, cross-examining witnesses, reaching a verdict based on the evidence, guilt being established beyond reasonable doubt, etc. Also, students will be familiar with many of these elements of a legal trial due to their ubiquitous presence in popular culture. Lakin (2011, p. 198) makes the following point about hypothesis testing:

A good parallel to this is the British legal principle of 'innocent until proved guilty'. The onus is on the prosecution to prove, beyond all reasonable doubt, that the person is guilty- otherwise they remain innocent. Here the null hypothesis is 'innocent' and the alternative hypothesis is 'guilty' A type I error would be finding the person guilty when they are actually innocent, and a Type II error would be finding them innocent when actually they are guilty. Under the principle, a Type I error (you are prosecuting an innocent person) is probably considered as more serious than a Type II error (a criminal goes free), and so we should ensure that we never convict unless there is no reasonable doubt as to the guilt.

As with most metaphors, the concepts being related to one another are different in nature and purpose. To start with, the legal trial is used to determine whether one is guilty or innocent, whereas quantitative research is used for testing theories and establishing causal relationships. Notwithstanding these differences, there are significant similarities between legal procedure and quantitative research.

Let us start with legal procedure. In common law systems, an adversarial or accusatory approach is used to adjudicate guilt or innocence. There are two parties; the prosecution and defense. The prosecution presents an accusation or charge against the defendant. There is an open contest between two in presenting the evidence and opposing legal arguments. The case usually follows a set sequence (Figure 2):

Figure 2: The Legal Procedure

1. **The case starts** with both sides issuing statements or declarations:

    a. Prosecution- 'the defendant is guilty of xxx crime'
    b. Defense- 'I (the defendant) am innocent of xxx crime'

Presumption of Innocence- the defendant is innocent until proven guilty. That is the *burden of proof* lies with the prosecution- it is up to the prosecution to prove that the defendant is guilty

2. **Probability of Guilt**- The prosecution must prove that the defendant is guilty *beyond any reasonable doubt*

3. **Trial**- both parties will present facts and evidence and will attempt to interpret the law in ways favorable to them

4. **Deliberation**- The judge or jury will consider all the facts and must decide whether the prosecution has established the defendant's guilt *beyond any reasonable doubt*

5. **Verdict**- The defendant is either found innocent or guilty

Let us now look at the research procedure. Quantitative research often follows this procedure (Figure 3):

Figure 3: Research Procedure

1 The researcher starts by **positing two kinds of hypotheses**; the *Null* and *Research Hypothesis*

Examples of Null hypothesis

- There is *no difference* in the average score of 9th graders and the average score of 12th graders in the ABC Memory Test

- There is *no relationship* between reaction time and problem-solving ability

Examples of Alternative or Research hypothesis

- There is *a difference* in the average score of 9th graders and the average score of 12th graders in the ABC Memory Test

- There is *a relationship* between reaction time and problem-solving ability

2 He then **sets the level of risk** or significance (usually at .05 or 5%)

3 He next **selects the appropriate test**

4 Afterwards, he **collects data, computes for a relevant test value or score** (called obtained value), **and compares it against another value** (called critical value) needed to reject the null hypothesis

5 He then **makes a decision**;

If obtained value > critical value, then reject null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis

If obtained value < critical value, then retain the null hypothesis

The resulting 'hypothesis testing as courtroom trial' metaphor will look like this (Table 3):

Table 3: The Courtroom Trial Metaphor

Source Domain: Courtroom Trial	Target Domain: Hypothesis Testing
Both prosecution and defense make declarations	formulate null and alternative hypotheses
Defendant is presumed innocent	significance is set at 5%
relevant evidence is presented by both sides	appropriate data and statistical test are chosen
If guilt > reasonable doubt then defendant is guilty	If obtained value > critical value, then reject null hypothesis
If guilt < reasonable doubt then defendant is innocent	If obtained value < critical value, then retain the null hypothesis
Convicting an innocent person	Type one error
Letting a guilty person go free	Type two error

The level of significance (also known as p-level) is "the degree of risk you are willing to take that you will reject a null hypothesis when it is actually true" (Salkind, 2010, p. 166). Stated in legal terms, it would be the degree of risk you are willing to take that you will convict an innocent person. In behavioral science the level of significance is typically set at 5%, meaning there is a 5% probability, or one in twenty chance of committing a Type I error. Again, in legal parlance, this would mean that there is a 5% probability, or one in twenty chance of convicting an innocent person. A 5% level of significance (or p-level) would then be analogous to the requirement of proving guilt beyond reasonable doubt before a defendant can be convicted of a crime. Typically, for a null hypothesis to be rejected, a p-level of 0.5 or less is expected.

The significance of the Null Hypothesis must not be underestimated. It must always be presumed. That means, there is no difference between groups or there is no relationship between variables unless the data can demonstrate that there is a difference at a level of significance of 5% (or *p*-level). Until this happens you have to assume that there is no difference. In legal jargon, the defendant is innocent unless the prosecution can prove guilt beyond reasonable doubt. A defendant's innocence still has to be maintained, even when some guilt has been established, but not beyond the level of reasonable doubt.

In order for a null hypothesis to be rejected, the obtained value, which always appears as a number, must be higher than the critical value, also expressed as a number. It is only when the former is greater than the latter can the null hypothesis be rejected and a relationship or correlation be 'established'. If we use the legal metaphor to describe this concept, the 'evidence' is the obtained value, the 'level of guilt beyond reasonable doubt' represents the critical value. In order to prove guilt the prosecution must show evidence of guilt *beyond* the level of reasonable doubt.

Thus, in order to reject a null hypothesis, two conditions must be met:

1. The obtained value must be greater than the critical value.
2. The *p*-level must be equal to or less than 0.5.

Case Study

This section will examine a research project fora Research Methods course undertaken by a pair of foreign undergraduate students on a one-year study abroad program at a Japanese university. The students were first familiarized with the 'Hypothesis Testing as Courtroom Trial' metaphor. The first-day warm-up class activity consisted of asking the students whether they had watched any legal TV dramas and eliciting from them the steps in the legal process and what the rationale was. Then the teacher got them to read the sections on legal procedure (Figure 2) and research method procedure (Figure 3) using the Socratic method of question and answer (Figure 4) to get them to compare and contrast these two processes and to see the logic of research through legal analogy:

Figure 4: Questions for Dialogic Reasoning

1. What are the five steps of a legal trial?
2. Why is it necessary to have the presumption of innocence for defendants?
3. What would happen if we used criteria of establishing guilt that was substantially below the current 'guilt beyond reasonable doubt' rule?
4. What are the five steps of a research procedure?
5. Which steps of the legal trial is each step in research equivalent to?
6. Why is it necessary to assume the null hypothesis?
7. What would happen if we abolished the 0.5 requirement for the p-value?

The biggest obstacles that students faced in understanding quantitative inquiry was their misconceptions regarding the null and alternative hypothesis on the one hand, and the concept of 0.5 p-value signifying a 95% confidence level. This profound misconception has to be addressed if they are to proceed. It is with this in mind that the teacher was prepared to spend as long as necessary getting them to fully grasp the research procedure by way of the legal analogy. He was willing to dedicate several weeks, making sure they were perfectly clear on these two issues before moving on to the other steps.

Once the teacher was satisfied that they had an adequate comprehension of the null/alternative hypotheses and p-value, he then proceeded to the next steps of the research process. They were asked to pick a topic, do a literature survey, formulate hypotheses, collect survey data, test the hypotheses, and write the paper.

This section will focus only on the two phases of their project; hypothesis formulation, and testing. It will include extracts of relevant sections of the 2,000-word research paper they submitted as part of the requirements of the course.

The purpose of their study was to find whether there was a relationship between gender and Japanese language proficiency, on the one hand, and between interest in Japanese culture and Japanese language proficiency on the other hand.

They wanted to know whether foreign females spoke better Japanese than foreign males. They also wanted to determine whether those international students who showed more interest in Japanese culture had higher Japanese language proficiency than those who did not. The students conducted a survey among international students studying at the Japanese University. They formulated two pairs of hypotheses (Extract 1), of which the affirmative and negative phrases are in bold:

Extract 1: Null and Alternative Hypotheses

- Null Hypothesis 1: **There is no relationship** between gender and the level of proficiency in Japanese language among international students.
- Alternative Hypothesis 1: **There is a relationship** between gender and the level of proficiency in Japanese language among international students.

- Null Hypothesis 2: **There is no relationship** between the degree of interest in Japanese culture and level of Japanese proficiency among international students.
- Alternative Hypothesis 2: **There is a relationship** between the degree of interest in Japanese culture and level of Japanese proficiency among international students.

They wanted to test the first hypothesis so they decided to ascertain whether foreign females' proficiency in Japanese language was significantly different from that of foreign males. So they chose a statistical test; the *t*-Test for Independent Samples and set the significance level at 5%. A *t*-Test determines whether the scores or measured values of two different groups are significantly different at the 5% level. In the extract (Extract 2) below the concepts of obtained value, critical value, *p*-level and statistical difference appear in bold:

Extract 2: *t*-Test for Gender

2. What is your gender?

male/female

13. Please state your level of spoken Japanese

very good/good/fair/basic/poor

According to the data obtained in our two-tailed *t*-Test for gender and the level of proficiency in Japanese language – it showed **no significant difference** between those two. This is because the **obtained value given was 1.17082** and is lower than the **critical value which is 2.01174**. Its *p*-**level,** on the other hand, **is 0.24757** which **is lower than given 0.5 significance level**.

They also wanted to determine whether a person's reading ability in Japanese was related to the amount of *kanji* (Japanese characters) that they could recognize. Although this was not related to either hypothesis, they thought that it was interesting in itself so they decided to include it in the questionnaire. In order to find a purported link between reading ability and amount of *kanji* respondents could recognize, they employed a statistical test; ANOVA at 5% significance level. Many times when we study a group, we are really comparing two populations. Depending upon the parameter of this group we are interested in and the conditions we are dealing with, there are several techniques available. Statistical inference procedures that concern the comparison of two populations cannot usually be applied to three or more populations. To study more than two populations at once, we need different types of statistical tools. ANOVA, is a technique from statistical interference that allows us to deal with several populations. ANOVA tests whether groups of three of more are significantly different according to a certain measure.

Specifically, they split the respondents into three groups (low, medium, high) according to the number of *kanji* they could recognize, and tested the means of the three groups' reading ability in Japanese. The presumption here is that if the groups' reading abilities are statistically different, then it must be a consequence of the number of characters they could recognize. Below is an extract (Extract 3) of their paper. Note that the obtained value, critical value, *p*-level, null hypothesis, and difference appear in bold:

Extract 3: ANOVA for Reading Ability

15. Please state your reading ability in Japanese
very good/good/fair/basic/poor

23. How many *kanji* can you recognize?
less than 100/100-200/200 and above

We used ANOVA for question 15 (the degree of reading ability) and question 23 (the amount of *kanji* the student can recognize). We separated the students' answers into three groups which consist of group 1 – people who can recognize less than 100 kanji, group 2 – people who can recognize 100-200 kanji and group 3 – people who can recognize more than 200 kanji. The mean for each group is shown below:

Group	*Kanji* Characters	Mean Score
1	Less than 100	1.70
2	100-200	2.83
3	More than 200	3.4

The ***F value* obtained is 25.667** with an ***F* critical value of 3.199** and a ***p*-level of 0.00**. We **reject the null hypothesis**. There **is a difference** between the means of the three groups and thus it can be stated that the more kanji the student can recognize the better their reading ability in Japanese.

They then wanted to test their second hypothesis, which was whether interest in Japanese culture was related to Japanese language proficiency. They decided that having Japanese friends and using Japanese (not English) when speaking with them was a good indicator of interest in the local culture. So they proceeded to determine whether a relationship existed between the language foreigners spoke to their Japanese friends in, and their subsequent level of Japanese. The assumption is that

foreigners who speak with their Japanese friends in Japanese will have a higher level of Japanese proficiency that those who spoke to them in English.

They decided to use Spearman Rank Correlation at the 5% level of significance. Spearman is a commonly used measure of correlation with rankings. It is used whenever the answers to the questions can be ranked from highest to lowest, but the difference between the answers cannot be considered uniform. For example the difference or gap between the possible answers to questions 13 (Extract 4) cannot be said to be uniform. In other words it cannot be established that the difference between 'very good' and 'good' is the same degree as the difference between 'good' and 'fair'. Similarly, for the answers to question 27 (Extract 4), the gap between the answer 'entirely in Japanese' and 'mostly Japanese' is not exactly the same degree of difference between 'mostly Japanese' and 'half and half'. Again the terms obtained value, critical value, *p*-level, null hypothesis, and relationship appear in bold:

Extract 4: Spearman Correlation for Japanese Proficiency and Language Used with Japanese Friends

13. Please state your level of spoken Japanese

very good/good/fair/basic/poor

27. When you're with your Japanese friends, how much English and Japanese do you speak to them in?

entirely in Japanese/mostly Japanese/half and half/mostly English/entirely in English

We tried to correlate question 13, that is, the level of spoken Japanese with question 27, that is, the types of languages used when speaking with Japanese friends by using Spearman Rank Correlation. The data showed that by using a one-tailed test under the degree of freedom of 47 with a 0.05 % of error the **critical value is 0.288**. **The obtained t-stat is 2.63561**, which is higher than the critical value; and its **p-level is 0.01134,** which is lower than alpha 0.05. Hence, **the null hypothesis is rejected** and we **established a relationship** between the types of languages used when speaking with Japanese friends and Japanese proficiency.

Discussion

Quantitative research invariably involves a significant component of statistics, hypothesis testing in particular. However, the latter is a difficult subject to teach and learn (Hawkins, 1991). The three most difficult aspects of testing statistical hypotheses are, understanding the concept of a hypothesis test, interpreting a *p*-value, and interpreting the significance level σ (Batanero, 2000). Moreover, students do not "demonstrate an understanding of confidence intervals" (del Mas et al., 2007, p. 49). Part of the reason why novices encounter difficulties in assimilating statistical concepts because these are "quintessentially abstract" (Watts, 1991, p. 290). However, in my experience, the biggest pitfall lies in the fact that they are "unlike anything the student has thought of before" (Garfield & Ahlgren, 1988, p. 271).

Null and alternative hypotheses, type one and two errors, as well as statistical significance are extremely alien concepts for most people and thus give rise to misconceptions and errors when doing quantitative investigation. These concepts are fundamental and they underlie the reasoning behind quantitative research. The course used metaphorical reasoning to render arcane statistical reasoning more comprehensible in such a way that novices could see its underlying logic. Metaphors can be an effective form of making unfamiliar topics and concepts intelligible. It used the metaphor of the courtroom trial to make statistical reasoning relevant to students' lived experience.

Past studies have proposed the use of metaphor as a solution to the statistical errors and misconceptions committed by novices. Grant & Nathan (2008) proposed using two conceptual metaphors in an effort to address the common misconceptions students have about confidence intervals. The first is 'Confidence Intervals are Changing Rings around a Fixed Point' employing the metaphorical device of pitching horseshoes of varying widths to encircle a stake fixed in the ground. The second is 'Confidence Intervals are Changing Points on a Fixed Disk' where the analogy of confidence intervals are like throwing darts at a dartboard where the board is a fixed ring and the darts represent the various points is made.

However, the 'changing ring' and 'fixed disk' metaphors may not be ideal for helping students gain a thorough understanding of the concepts that underlie hypothesis testing. It is doubtful students have ever tried pitching horseshoes of

varying widths to encircle a stake fixed to the ground, or of throwing darts at a dartboard. The source domain is not an activity that students are quite familiar with. Thus, they cannot make the necessary link with the desired concept or idea (target domain).

Another weakness of the 'Changing Rings' and 'Fixed Point' metaphors is that these do not adequately account for the role of the null hypothesis in quantitative research. The null hypothesis is a fundamental component of quantitative reasoning. Its significance must not be underestimated. It must always be presumed.

In the case study, the students' null hypotheses were that there was **'no relationship** between gender and the level of proficiency in Japanese language among international students', as well as there was '**no relationship** between the degree of interest in Japanese culture and level of Japanese proficiency among international students'. This was likened to the legal concept of 'innocent until proven guilty'. That is, they cannot assume a relationship beforehand. It must be proved. This is evident in the students' attitudes when they administered the three statistical tests for their project. They were hoping for evidence of a relationship but they could not let their personal feelings and opinions override the test results. They had to see positive test results in order to establish a relationship, not before. That means the obtained value must be greater than the critical value. Moreover the relationship had to be established at a significance level of 0.5 or less. The legal analogy was 'guilt beyond reasonable doubt.'

This was evident when they used the t-Test to test the first hypothesis wherein foreign females' proficiency in Japanese language was significantly different from that of foreign males. The obtained value was 1.17082 and is lower than the critical value, which was 2.01174. Its p-level, on the other hand, is 0.24757, which is lower than the 0.5 significance level. Using the legal analogy, they concluded that the obtained value did not constitute proof of 'guilt beyond reasonable doubt.' The obtained value may show 'some proof of guilt', but not beyond reasonable doubt. The p-value, on the other hand, did indicate an acceptable probability of guilt, but it alone is insufficient. Thus the defendant is declared 'innocent' on the first charge.

A different outcome occurred with the ANOVA to test the whether a persons' reading ability in Japanese was related to the amount of *kanji* (Japanese characters)

that they could recognize. Although this was an unrelated hypothesis, they decided to explore it out of curiosity. Their gut feeling told them that reading ability was correlated to the amount of *kanji*. However, they had to abide by the 'guilt beyond reasonable doubt' analogy in order to establish any empirical relationship. The obtained *F value* was 25.667 with an *F* critical value of 3.199 and a *p*-level of 0.00. In this case they were able to show guilt *way* beyond reasonable doubt. They rejected the null hypothesis. The 'defendant' is 'guilty' by a wide margin of an unrelated charge.

Their Spearman Rank Correlation test for their second hypothesis, which was whether interest in Japanese culture was related to Japanese language proficiency, was successful. They suspected that Japanese proficiency had to be related to the language they spoke to their Japanese friends in. But again, they had to maintain the 'presumption of innocence' until reasonable doubt could be established. Data showed the critical value was 0.288 while the obtained t-stat was 2.63561, and its *p*-level was 0.01134. Hence, the reasonable doubt requirement has been met. The null hypothesis was rejected. The defendant is 'guilty' of the second charge.

Likening the research process to a legal trial enabled the students in the case study to grasp the fundamental concepts and reasoning behind quantitative research. Its impact on learning was positive. They easily understood the legal process. This is partly due their exposure to legal dramas and fiction on TV and in films. The legal analogy made quantitative research cognitively accessible. Students in the case study appreciated that there is an established five-step procedure as well as a criteria for proving a relationship or connection in empirical research. And this criteria is in the form of a critical value which the test results need to surpass. The five phases of a legal trial maps very neatly onto the five-step procedure in research. Also, the 'reasonable doubt' rule serves as a very convenient tool for representing the critical and *p*-values.

The method is applicable to many courses involving quantitative inquiry. Perhaps teachers may need to approach the lesson somewhat like a drama teacher teaching an acting lesson. It will be akin to a reenactment of a crime and the subsequent legal trial. The teacher will set the scene, create suspense and expectation, make clear the stakes involved and the burden of proof needed on the part of the prosecution. In the case study the teacher made allusion to the relevant aspects of the

legal trial during the whole duration of the project many, many times, if only to hammer home the metaphor so that its application became second nature to them. The lessons often resembled a drama lesson where the teacher played the role of mentor and the students were prosecuting lawyers in a fictitious trial. During each test the teacher would ask things like 'so for the t-Test/ANOVA/Spearman Rank, what is the level of proof necessary to prove guilt?' When the test results came back, he asked, 'is the guilt established beyond reasonable doubt? While they were busy analyzing the figures he would ask rhetorically, 'so esteemed jury, is the defendant guilty of the first/second charge? They would chant back the replies, 'guilty', 'innocent', etc.

Conclusion

This paper has argued that quantitative research is often misunderstood as a result of several misconceptions and inaccuracies that people have towards statistics. It has argued that a metaphor-based approach to teaching research paper writing is particularly effective and it has proposed a 'Hypothesis Testing as Courtroom Trial' metaphor for helping students grasp the underlying concepts behind hypothesis testing. It has also featured a case study highlighting two sections of a research paper written by a pair of undergraduate international students; hypothesis formulation, and testing and discussed the implication of the case study for the teaching of quantitative research.

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The Implication of ASEAN Integration on College of Arts and Sciences Faculty Members: Issues and Challenges

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Abstract

English teachers who teach general English subjects in higher education institutions will most likely lose their jobs once ASEAN integration commences by 2015. As early as 2013, higher education institutions (HEIs) have been coming up with plans on how to reposition English faculty members as demand for their services will likely be affected by the change. It is projected that the department which will be most affected by this development is the College of Arts and Sciences (CAS) since it has the highest number of teachers handling general English subjects. With the coming integration, the load of general English subjects will be given to secondary education teachers. What then will become of the CAS faculty members who teach general English subjects? School administrators are trying to find solutions to address this problem. The paper discusses the issues and challenges faced by both university administrators and English faculty members of a Philippine university as they address the changing educational landscape brought about by the impending ASEAN integration. The results of the study are useful both for the HEI administrators in crafting new policies covering faculty members teaching general English subjects and to faculty members who need to increase their academic qualifications in order to become more competitive in light of the ASEAN integration.

Keywords: effects of ASEAN integration, English teachers, general English subjects

Introduction

ASEAN integration in 2015 is expected to open a lot of opportunities as well as challenges to its member states. With barely a year to prepare for the socio-economic, political and cultural repercussions of this monumental change, ASEAN nations are cramming to meet standards and harmonize processes to eliminate hurdles that might get into the way of integration. One such area is in the field of higher education which, in previous years, had not been given much attention during the

course of discussions. Studies conducted in recent years dwelt on the possible impacts integration may have on economies while the effects of integration in higher education have been under researched. In fact, higher education is not in the list of the 12 priority integration sectors of strategic importance for the ASEAN (Wattanapruttipaisan, 2007). Kuroda (2009) also averred that the role of higher education as a significant contributory factor to economic integration has been overlooked. This has been the case despite the significant role of higher education institutions (HEIs) in producing globally competitive graduates who will meet the demands of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC).

Since internationalization of higher education is the key to surviving ASEAN 2015 for HEIs, more and more ASEAN states are joining this internationalization bandwagon. However, this is not something new especially for western countries. As early as the late 1980s, developed industrial countries such as Australia, United States and the United Kingdom (Bennell, Pearce, 1998) had already begun internationalization efforts of higher education. Following this lead, HEIs in East Asia have been trying to attract foreign students to enroll in their institutions over the past decade. Moreover, HEIs in many East Asian countries have started revising their curricula and undertaken various reform strategies to strengthen their higher education competitiveness in the regional and global context (Aphijanyatham, 2010), especially in light of ASEAN integration.

However, this scenario faced by ASEAN members is a daunting task. In the case of the Philippines, one way to prepare for integration is the K-12 program of the Department of Education. The country passed the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013, or the K-to-12 Act, which makes kindergarten mandatory and introduces

Grades 11 and 12 to high school education. According to the K-12 Basic Education Program, the Philippines was the only country in Asia and one of only three countries worldwide, together with Angola and Djibouti, with a 10-year pre-university cycle (Philippine Official Gazette, http://www.gov.ph/k-12/). This move will make the country's education at par with other countries and will make it easier for Filipino students who want to study abroad to be accepted in other schools or universities once ASEAN integration sets in. It is also a step towards harmonizing the number of years of basic education of students with that of ASEAN counterparts.

With English as the medium of instruction in many Asian countries from primary to tertiary levels (Kirkpatrick, 2011), it is worthy to look at the situation of English teachers in higher education especially the issues and challenges they face with the coming integration. Under the new curriculum in effect, general English subjects that are offered to first and second year college students will now be given to students in the 11th and 12th grades. This scenario will affect college English teachers who will eventually have fewer teaching loads. Since there will be less demand for their services in college, they will likely lose their jobs or they will shift to secondary level where demand for teachers handling general English subjects will be greater. However, if they teach in the secondary level, they still need to meet certain qualifications which includes passing the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET). This is the situation of over 1,800 HEIs across the country.

Baliuag University, the locale of the study, is a private HEI in the Philippines. By looking at the issues and challenges faced by this university, other HEIs in the country facing the same dilemma will learn from its experiences and create policies that will address their own issues and challenges.

The purpose of this descriptive study is to find out the issues and challenges faced by English faculty members of a Philippine university relative to ASEAN 2015, in the context of globalization and internationalization. This study focuses on faculty members of the College of Arts and Sciences who are projected to be directly affected by the K-12 and the internationalization of curriculum. According to Helms and Asfaw (2013):

> …faculty are, in many ways, the heart of the whole academic enterprise. They are the drivers of teaching and research in any institution, shaping and delivering the curriculum and carrying out the institution's research mission. These areas are critical to any institutional internationalization effort.

Considering this scenario, the proponents of this study attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What is the English teachers' perceived level of importance of globalization?

2. Up to what extent do English teachers want internationalization to be incorporated in the English curriculum?

3. Up to what extent are instructional strategies promoting internationalization utilized in the English classrooms?

4. What is the desired administrative support of English faculty members as compared to the actual support they are getting in preparation for ASEAN integration?

5. What are the issues and challenges faced by English faculty members in ASEAN integration?

Method

This is a cross-sectional survey of English teachers of a Philippine university – Baliuag University – that deals on globalization, internationalization, instruction, administrative support, and ASEAN integration challenges to English teachers. The purpose of the survey, which was based on the work of Clark (2013), is to know the teachers' perceived level of importance of globalization in the improvement of English curriculum, to measure the extent English teachers want internationalization to be incorporated in the English curriculum and the extent internationalization is utilized in the English classrooms, to determine the perception of English faculty members on the extent of administrative support in the face of ASEAN integration, and to find out the issues and challenges faced by English faculty members in ASEAN integration and how the University administration can help address said issues.

The study utilized descriptive statistics such as the mean, median, mode, interquartile range, and frequency in analyzing the quantitative data.

Participants. A total of 27 English faculty members were surveyed with the following characteristics:

- 21 female, 6 male;

- 21 tenured, 6 non-tenured;

- 16 full time, 11 part time;

- 22 with Masters degrees; 3 with PhDs, and 2 with only bachelor's degrees; and

- 9 faculty members rendered 6-10 years in service.

Ages of participants were within the 25 to 65 range. Only English faculty members were surveyed, 27 in all, as they have the most number of general English subjects which might be affected by the K-12 implementation in preparation for ASEAN integration.

Materials and Procedure. The survey questionnaire was adapted from Clark (2013). The said instrument has five sections, the first section contains seven demographic information questions and three open-ended questions while the remaining four sections are in the form of Likert scale. The open-ended serves to validate the results of the structured questionnaires. All 27 English faculty members were given the forms to answer, which were completed and returned to the authors. The SPSS was used to treat the data to get the mean, median, mode, and the interquartile range, including frequency and percentages.

Results

Research Questions and Findings

Research Question No. 1. What is the English teachers' perceived level of importance of globalization?

Table 1A
Perception on the Importance of Globalization

Indicators. Globalization is/will be/requires	Mode	Median	IQR	Mean	Interpretation
1. Good for the economy	4	4	1	4.33	A
2. Good for me	4	4	1	4.22	A
3. Ability to work with people from other cultures	5	5	1	4.56	SA
4. Ability to respond to changing job	5	5	1	4.56	SA

market

5. Major changes in educating students	5	5	1	4.48	A
6. Something we must accept and successfully respond to	5	5	1	4.56	SA
TOTAL/AVERAGE				4.47	A

Note: SA stands for strongly agree and A for agree.

Table 1B
Perception on the Importance of Globalization

Indicators (Globalization)	SD		D		NA		A		SA	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
1. Good for economy			1	3.7			15	55.6	11	40.7
2. Good for me					2	7.4	17	63	8	29.6
3. Work w/ people from other cultures							12	44.4	15	55.6
4. Respond to changing job market					1	3.7	10	37	16	59.3
5. Major changes in educating students					2	7.4	8	29.6	17	63
6. Something we must accept			1	3.7			9	33.3	17	63

Note: SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; NA=neither agree nor disagree; A-agree; SA=strongly agree.

Tables 1A and 1B show the English teachers' perceived level of importance of globalization. When asked whether globalization was good for the Philippine economy (Question 1) and for the respondent (Question 2), respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that it was good with percentages of 96.3% and 92.6%, respectively (Table 1B). This indicates strong belief that globalization is seen as

positive for the country and for the responding individual. In Question 3, 100% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that a global economy requires workers to have the ability to work with people from other countries/cultures while 96.3% either agreed or strongly agreed that globalization requires workers to have the ability to respond to the changing job market by reinventing themselves (Question 4). Again, this suggests strong belief that globalization will require changes in the workforce. Question 5 was about respondents' opinions on whether globalization has an impact on the way students are educated. Majority of the respondents (92.6%) either agreed or strongly agreed. Finally, Question 6 asked respondents if they believe that globalization is something they must accept, and if they should find ways to successfully respond to the challenges it will create. Once again, the results showed a percentage of 96.3% of respondents either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. This indicates that respondents seem to realize that globalization was an inevitable development in today's world, and it was perceived as more positive than negative.

Research Question No. 2. Up to what extent do English teachers want internationalization to be incorporated in the English curriculum?

Table 2A

Extent English Teachers Want Internationalization of Curriculum

Indicators	Mode	Median	IQR	Mean	Interpretation
1. Part of my college's mission should be to prepare students with international/global understanding	5	5	1	4.26	A
2. My college should plan to increase students' international/global understanding	5	5	1	4.33	A

3. Gen Ed courses with international/global focus should be available to students	5	5	1	4.30	A
4. A course with international/global focus should be included in Gen Ed requirements.	5	5	1	4.26	A
5. Designation of admin office to coordinate and support international education initiatives	5	5	1	4.26	A
6. International exchange opportunities should be available to English faculty members	5	5	1	4.30	A
7. My college would benefit from a linkage with institution in another country	5	5	1	4.41	A
8. Topics with international/global focus should be required in appropriate Gen Ed courses	5	5	1	4.26	A
9. Students should complete one Gen Ed course with international/global focus	5	4	1	4.07	A
TOTAL/AVERAGE				4.27	A

Table 2B
Extent English Teachers Want Internationalization of Curriculum

Indicators (Internationalization)	SD		D		NA		A		SA	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
1. Prepare students	3	11.1			1	3.7	6	22.2	17	63
2. Increase understanding	2	7.4					10	37.0	15	55.6
3. Available to students	2	7.4					11	40.7	14	51.9
4. Included in Gen Ed	2	7.4			1	3.7	9	33.3	15	55.6

5. Admin office	3	11.1			8	29.6	16	59.3
6. Int'l opportunities	3	11.1			7	25.9	17	63.0
7. Foreign linkage	2	7.4			8	29.6	17	63.0
8. Int'l topics	2	7.4	1	3.7	10	37.0	14	51.9
9. GE w/ int'l focus	3	11.1	2	7.4	8	29.6	14	51.9

The internationalization survey questions were designed to elicit respondents' perceptions on the importance of internationalizing and what types of activities their institutions should undertake to become more internationalized. According to Knight (2003), internationalization is "the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education." The survey section on internationalization was designed to examine the extent to which this integration was occurring, and to enable an analysis of the respondents' attitudes toward globalization. When asked whether preparing students with international/global understanding should be part of the mission of the college (Question 1, Table 2A), whether the college should have a plan designed to increase international/global understanding among students (Question 2, Table 2A), and whether general education courses with an international/global focus should be available to students at the college (Questions 3 and 4, Table 2A), respondents either agreed or strongly agreed at percentages of 85.2%, 92.6%, and 92.6%, respectively. This indicates strong support for internationalization efforts that directly impact students. This is further supported by the results of Questions 5 to 8 (Table 2A) in which respondents agreed or strongly agreed (88.9%) that there should be a designated administrative office at the college to coordinate and support international

education initiatives, international exchange opportunities should be available to English faculty members, there should be a linkage with institution in another country, and topics with an international/global focus in all appropriate general education courses must be required at the college. Further, majority of the respondents (81.5%) either agreed or strongly agreed that students should be required to complete at least one general education course with an international/global focus (Question 9, Table 2A). There was also a support for the notion that international exchange opportunities would be beneficial. Question 6 in Table 2A asks if international exchange opportunities should be available to general education faculty at the college, and the percentage of those agreeing or strongly agreeing was 88.9%. For the question pertaining to having a partner relationship with an institution in another country (Question 7, Table 2A), the percentage of respondents who either agreed or strongly agreed was 92.6%. Based on this data, it appears that respondents show strong support for internationalization of the curriculum of their college.

Research Question No. 3. Up to what extent is internationalization utilized in the English classrooms?

Table 3A

Perception on the Extent of Internationalization in the English Classroom

Indicators	Mode	Median	IQR	Mean	Interpretation
1. Issues relating to customs and values of other cultures are discussed.	4	4	1	3.70	F
2. Students are encouraged to share information with the class about their own culture/heritage.	4	4	2	3.67	F

3. Students become familiar with techniques to compare two differing points of view; that is, comparative analysis.	4	4	1	3.56	F
4. World events are discussed and students are encouraged to express their views and their impacts on their lives.	3	3	1	3.59	F
5. Students have opportunities to find, interpret and evaluate international/global data sources.	4	4	1	3.48	O
6. Opportunities are available for students to examine their own values and beliefs.	4	4	2	4.11	F
7. Students gain knowledge of the social, economic, and political climate in other countries.	4	4	2	3.70	F
8. Students have opportunities to network with people from other cultures/countries face-to-face.	1	2	3	2.67	O
9. Students have opportunities to network with people from other cultures/countries using video technology.	1	3	3	2.67	O
TOTAL/AVERAGE				3.46	O

Note: F=frequently and O=occasionally.

Table 3B

Perception on the Extent of Internationalization in the English Classroom

Indicators (Instructional)	N		R		O		Low	F		Med	AA		A		High
	F	%	F	%	F	%	0-33%	F	%	34-65%	F	%	F	%	66-100%
1. Customs/Values	1	3.7	4	14.8	4	14.8	33.3	13	48.1	48.1	3	11.1	2	7.4	18.5
2. Share info			6	22.2	4	14.8	37	10	37.0	37	7	25.9			25.9

Item															
3. Differing points of view	1	3.7	4	14.8	7	25.9	44.4	11	40.7	40.7	2	7.4	2	7.4	14.8
4. World events			4	14.8	10	37.0	51.8	7	25.9	25.9	5	18.5	1	3.7	22.2
5. Evaluate global data sources	1	3.7	5	18.5	6	22.2	44.4	10	37.0	37.0	5	18.5			18.5
6. Values and beliefs			1	3.7	6	22.2	25.9	11	40.7	40.7	7	25.9	2	7.4	33.3
7. Political climate			6	22.2	5	18.5	40.7	9	33.3	33.3	5	18.5	2	7.4	25.9
8. Network with people	8	29.6	6	22.2	5	18.5	70.3	4	14.8	14.8	3	11.1	1	3.7	14.8
9. Video technology	10	37.0	3	11.1	6	22.2	70.3	3	11.1	11.1	4	14.8	1	3.7	18.85

Note: For the purpose of discussing the frequencies, the responses were grouped into three equal categories: low (0 - 33 %), medium (34-65%), and high (66-100%).

Survey results on the extent of internationalization in the English classroom. The survey questions on internationalization in the English classroom were designed to elicit from the respondents the types and frequency of instructional activities that would promote a more international perspective in the classrooms. The types of activities included assignments, classroom activities and other strategies the faculty members use that will add a dimension to student learning dealing with a more international perspective.

Tables 3A and 3B present the instructional strategies as used by English faculty members of the College of Arts and Sciences. It may be noted that the scale used was different from that of globalization, internationalization, and administrative support. In this survey, respondents were asked to indicate how often certain instructional strategies with global concepts are incorporated into their classes with the following frequencies: never (0% of class sessions); rarely (less than 10% of class

sessions); occasionally (11-33% of class sessions); frequently (34-65% of class sessions); almost always (66-90 % of class sessions); and always (91-100% of class sessions).

In examining the frequencies in high usage (66-100%) as seen in Table 3B, the instructional activity that was most frequently employed by respondents was in providing opportunities for students to examine their own values and beliefs (Question 6). This shows that 33.3% of respondents are employing this strategy 66-100% of the time during class sessions.

The instructional activity that had the next highest response rates are Questions 7 and 2 in which 25.9% of faculty members provide students knowledge of the social, economic, and political climate in other countries and students are encouraged to share information with the class about their own culture/heritage. The other six international instructional activities garnered even less support among all faculty respondents, as seen from the percentages in Table 3B. The two lowest response rates in high usage (66-100%) were on Questions 3 and 8, which asked if students are given opportunities to network with people from other cultures/countries face-to-face and if students become familiar with techniques to compare two differing points of view. In Table 3A, on the other hand, it was Questions 8 and 9 which got the lowest mean of 2.67, where Question 9 asked if students have opportunities to network with people from other cultures/countries using video technology. Interestingly, this result was reflected in frequencies in low usage (0-33%), where Questions 8 and 9 got the same highest percentage of 70.3% which means that the great majority employed said instructional strategies the least.

Survey results for internationalization and instructional strategies. The results shown in Tables 2B and 3B which were presented earlier seem to contradict each other. Table 2B showed that the results of frequencies for internationalization were high, indicating significant positive support for internationalization. However, Table 3B, which presented the frequencies for the instructional strategies section of the survey showed that respondents' use of instructional strategies promoting internationalization were somewhat modest, given the strong support and overall perception that internationalization was a positive benefit for the college.

Research Question No. 4. What is the desired administrative support of English faculty members relative to ASEAN integration?

Administrative support survey. The survey on administrative support included a total of 10 questions. Five of the questions were designed to capture faculty members' perceptions regarding the amount of support they felt their institution should provide (desired support), and five of the questions were designed to capture faculty members' perceptions of the amount of support they believed they actually receive (perceived support). Table 4B shows the survey frequencies for desired support, which is the focus of this question.

Table 4A

Assessment on the Desired and Perceived Administrative Support

Part 1 Indicators **Desired Support – My college should provide…**	Mode	Median	IQR	Mean	Interpretation
Assistance to develop courses with an international focus	5	5	1	4.26	A
Opportunities to increase international/global understanding	5	4	1	4.19	A

Provide experiences to develop international understanding	5	5	1	4.22	A
Support attendance to international conferences	5	5	1	4.30	A
Develop co- and extracurricular international activities	5	5	1	4.19	A
TOTAL/AVERAGE				4.23	A

Part 2 Indicators **Perceived Support – My college does provide…**					
Assistance to develop courses with an international focus	4	4	1	3.59	A
Opportunities to increase international/global understanding among English faculty members	4	4	1	3.52	A
Provide experiences to develop international understanding	4	4	2	3.33	NA/D
Support attendance to international conferences	4	4	1	3.63	A
Develop co- and extracurricular international activities	4	4	1	3.41	NA/D
TOTAL/AVERAGE				3.50	NA/D

Table 4B

Assessment on the Desired and Perceived Administrative Support

Indicators (Admin Support)	SD		D		Dis-agree	NA		A		SA		Agree
Desired Admin Support	F	%	F	%	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Courses w/ int'l focus	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1			9	33.3	15	55.6	88.9
Opportunities	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1			11	40.7	13	48.1	88.8
Experiences	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1			10	37.0	14	51.9	88.9
Attendance to conferences	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1			8	29.6	16	59.3	88.9
Funds for int'l activities	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1	1	3.7	8	29.6	15	55.6	85.2

Indicators (Admin Support)	SD		D		Dis-agree	NA		A		SA		Agree
Perceived Support	F	%	F	%	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Does provide	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1	4	14.8	19	70.4	1	3.7	74.1
Does provide	2	7.4	2	7.4	14.8	4	14.8	18	66.7	1	3.7	70.4
Does provide	4	14.8	3	11.1	25.9	1	3.7	18	66.7	1	3.7	70.4
Does provide	2	7.4	1	3.7	11.1	4	14.8	18	66.7	2	7.4	74.1
Does provide	1	3.7	4	14.8	18.5	7	25.9	13	48.1	2	7.4	55.5

At the high end of the range, respondents believed that they should be given assistance to develop courses with an international focus; be provided opportunities to increase international/global understanding; provided experiences to develop international understanding; be given support to attend international conferences; and be provided funds to develop co-curricular and extracurricular international activities. Faculty respondents agreed or strongly agreed to all these desired indicators at a rate of 88.9%, except for the last indicator which only received 85.2%.

The results of the actual or perceived support are lower compared to the results of the desired support from the administration as shown in Part 2 of Table 4B. This means that faculty respondents needed more support than was actually received from the administration.

Research Question No. 5. What are the issues and challenges faced by English faculty members in ASEAN integration?

The survey on the issues and challenges faced by English faculty members in ASEAN integration consists of two open-ended questions on what respondents think is the greatest challenge they face and how the administration can help in addressing

these challenges. The frequencies of answers were tallied yielding the results shown in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5
Issues/Challenges Faced by Faculty Members

Issues/Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
1. The need to upgrade skills and boost academic qualifications	15	56%
2. Loss of job, less teaching load	8	30%
3. Internationalization/revision of curriculum	5	19%
4. Competition with other faculty members	3	11%
5. Lack of awareness in other ASEAN cultures	3	11%
6. Student preparedness	1	4%

Table 5 shows that 56% of faculty respondents view the need to upgrade skills and boost their academic qualifications as the greatest challenge they face. This could be because most faculty members only have master's degrees; thus, the need to take doctoral degrees in order to compete with the possible influx of more qualified teaching force as a result of ASEAN integration. They might have also considered this as a challenge since it is not easy to get further degree since it will entail a lot of time and money. The flow of professional workers is also seen by respondents as a threat to their job security. It may also be noted that the indicators presented in Tables 2, 3, and 4 on internationalization concerns and desired administrative support are reflected in the responses given by the respondents. This shows that the results of the open-ended questions validate the results of the structured questions based on Clark (2003).

Table 6

How Administration can Help in Addressing Issues/Challenges

Issues/Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
1. Offer trainings and development of faculty (curriculum development, ASEAN cultural awareness, skill development, support to further education)	14	52%
2. Communicate plans/conduct dialogue with faculty on their job status	5	16%
3. Provide alternative jobs to faculty members who will be displaced	1	4%
4. Provide opportunities for ASEAN culture immersion	2	7%
5. Invest in facilities, infrastructure and technology	1	4%

Table 6 presents the responses of faculty members to Question no. 5 on how the administration can help in addressing the perceived challenges they will face in ASEAN integration. The responses serve to confirm the results of Table 4 on the faculty members' desired administrative support by mentioning areas where they want the support to focus on. Except for items 2 and 3 that mentioned the preference of faculty members for management to hold a dialogue with them about their plans on faculty status and the provision of alternative jobs for those who will be displaced, all the others are reflective and supportive of the desired administrative support mentioned in Table 5.

Tables 5 and 6 show that although internationalization is positively regarded by faculty respondents, they still have apprehension on how ASEAN integration might affect their lives once the country becomes open to the influx of foreign professional workers. This reflects a more negative than positive attitude since the

challenge to further boost their academic qualifications and fears about job security are the two greatest challenges they foresee.

Discussion

Perception toward Globalization and Internationalization

Based on the results of the study, respondents generally perceive globalization as a positive development that is good for them personally and to the country as a whole. Moreover, faculty respondents also perceived the need to internationalize their institution which will be achieved by revising the curriculum and introducing classroom instructional strategies promoting internationalization. This is in line with the effort of HEIs to attract students from all over the region to provide globally competitive graduates in response to the knowledge demands of ASEAN integration. The result supports the study of Singh and Papa (2010) which claims that "globalization of the economy and its concomitant demands on the workplace requires a different education that enhances the ability of learners to access, assess, adopt, and apply knowledge, to think independently, to exercise appropriate judgment and to collaborate with others to make sense of new situations." Students need to acquire basic skills that will make them globally competitive. Globalization, on the other hand, makes HEIs more aware of the need to internationalize.

This is the reason respondents saw the need to internationalize the curriculum and incorporate instructional strategies promoting internationalization in the classrooms. Wende (2010), on the other hand, suggests that since knowledge is a prime factor for economic growth, internationalization of higher education has also become more market oriented, aiming to attract talented students and highly skilled workers as key resources for the knowledge economy. Thus, whether the HEI is

prepared or not, internationalization should be effected if institutions want to thrive in ASEAN and get a share of student enrollment.

Administrative Support for Internationalization

The responses on the perceived support and desired support showed that the faculty respondents desired more support than they perceive they are actually getting. In order to get the support of the administration, HEI officials should also have a positive perception toward internationalization. However, as discussed earlier, positive perception may not always translate to actions. Nevertheless, with ASEAN 2015, HEIs are left with no recourse but to embrace internationalization or suffer setback in student enrollment since they lack preparation to face the challenges of ASEAN 2015. According to Clark (2003), support for internationalization must begin at the administrative level and become an institution-wide process. Green (2007) suggests that one of the barriers to internationalizing HEIs is the view of institutional leaders that internationalization is not relevant for their institutions. Another possible reason that internationalization is not high on their list of priorities is the high cost it entails to support the endeavor. Moreover, if institutional leaders believe that internationalization is relevant for their institutions, they will likely support faculty efforts to bring about changes that will help to internationalize the college's curriculum and the institution as a whole.

Incorporation of Instructional Strategies

One result of this study reveals that positive attitudes of faculty members toward globalization and internationalization do not necessarily translate into the

incorporation of international instructional strategies in the classroom. Although the list of instructional activities promoting internationalization used in this study was limited, it still provides a glimpse at how faculty members incorporate instructional strategies promoting internationalization in the classroom. Results of this survey were quite modest as compared to the rate at how respondents view globalization and internationalization.

Challenges in ASEAN Integration

The greatest challenge of ASEAN integration, according to 56% of faculty respondents, is the need to upgrade skills and boost qualifications. This response is reflective of the profile of the faculty respondents where only 11% (3) have doctorate degrees and a vast majority (81%) have masters' degrees. It may be noted that those who have masters' degrees have been teaching in the University for as long as 6-38 years. The fact that they have stayed in the University for such a long time without furthering their education is an indication that faculty respondents indeed find it a challenge to pursue doctorate degrees. This is despite the availability of full scholarships for faculty members who are willing to pursue graduate studies. The few takers suggest the lack of motivation of faculty respondents to upgrade their skills and boost their academic qualifications which may be due to time constraints. Another reason is that most faculty respondents (21) are women. In the Philippines, the burden of caring for the home still lies in women, which they have to simultaneously handle along with their careers. Hune (1998) reports that women have demonstrated significant increases in bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees over the past decade but continue to lag behind male counterparts. This could be true also of

Filipino women as the lack of focus on their careers due to various responsibilities in the home hinders their professional growth.

Another challenge that respondents face is loss of job or less teaching load. Concomitant to ASEAN integration is the influx not only of goods and services but also of workers. This is deemed a challenge to respondents knowing that they are not qualified enough to compete with foreign professionals (with doctoral degrees) who might come into the country for teaching jobs.

In addition, internationalization/revision of curriculum is also considered a challenge by respondents. It is evident in Table 2 that faculty respondents strongly agreed that internationalization of curriculum is important; however, not much is being done by faculty members to incorporate instructional activities promoting internationalization in the classrooms. Since teachers are at the heart of curriculum change, revision of curriculum requires a lot of consideration, study and effort on the part of faculty members.

Other faculty concerns focus on student preparedness and lack of student/faculty awareness on ASEAN culture. Still, student preparedness may be addressed through faculty intervention through information dissemination, seminars, and the like. Awareness on ASEAN culture, on the other hand, may be achieved through cultural immersion, field trips to ASEAN member states, student and faculty exchange programs, etc.

Faculty members believe that the administration can help meet these challenges by providing trainings and faculty development programs on curriculum development, ASEAN cultural awareness, and improved support to faculty scholarship programs. On the other hand, they want their fears about job displacement

and/or loss of job to be addressed by the management by communicating to them the University's plans at retaining jobs and in providing alternative jobs to those who will be displaced.

Implications

It is not enough to have positive perception towards globalization and internationalization if the perception will not translate into instruction. Students should be provided with opportunities to gain knowledge of the social, economic, and political climate in ASEAN countries to prepare them for ASEAN integration and to make them globally competitive. Internationalization of higher education is the answer to achieve this goal. In order to understand people from other countries and cultures, more time should be allotted in the discussion of ASEAN customs and values in the classroom. Moreover, students should be given opportunities to network with people from other countries and cultures.

Meanwhile, the English faculty members from the College of Arts and Sciences who participated in the survey have positive attitude towards globalization and internationalization. Since all HEIs have no recourse but to internationalize the institution to prepare for ASEAN integration, the University administrators can tap into those positive attitudes to assist them with internationalization of the curriculum, introduce instructional strategies promoting internationalization, and internationalize the whole institution.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The following are the conclusions based on the results of the study:

1. English faculty members have a high level of awareness of globalization and its effect in their individual lives, the society, and particularly, at how students are educated.

2. Positive perception towards globalization and internationalization in preparation for ASEAN integration does not translate into teachers' frequency of incorporation of instructional strategies promoting internationalization into the English classrooms.

3. Support for internationalization must begin at the administrative level and become an institution-wide process. In order to do this, school administrators should view internationalization as relevant for their institutions.

4. To prepare for ASEAN integration, students need to be given opportunities to develop global competencies to help them gain knowledge of the social, economic, and political climate in other countries, and internationalization of higher education is necessary to achieve this goal.

5. English faculty members need to boost their qualifications to meet the challenges of ASEAN integration.

6. The issues and challenges faced by faculty members will be addressed if school administrators have positive perception towards ASEAN integration, which will eventually translate into financial support to faculty trainings and development programs.

7. The administration should focus on providing faculty members with staff development experiences to develop international/global understanding among English faculty members as well as funds to support their efforts to develop co- and extra-curricular international activities. These were the only two indicators where respondents neither agreed nor disagreed.

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Integrating Culture into English Classrooms: Suggested Teaching Techniques for Vietnamese Tertiary Teachers

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

The process of foreign language teaching and learning has been marked by the term "culture turn" (Byram, Holmes, & Savvides, 2013, p. 251) since the 1990s. Culture is conceptualised as the important element needed to be integrated into foreign language programs. The introduction of cultural elements alongside linguistic structures aims to equip students with linguistic and cultural knowledge as well as awareness of differences among diverse nations and the strategies to cope with a variety of intercultural interactions, which becomes the most achievable goals in language study in globalised community. It follows that foreign language teachers are put a burden of raising cultural awareness for their students and ultimately developing cultural competence necessary for them in intercultural communication. There are different methods to address culture into language study suggested by worldwide scholars. In Vietnam, the shift for "culture turn" has been captured by a number of researchers. Culture is a core component of foreign language education and it is necessary to address in classrooms. This paper stresses the importance of teaching culture and the necessity of developing students' cultural competence. A review of the culture

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teaching and the approaches to teach culture will be firstly made. From this view, the author will focus on the question of how to address culture element into Vietnamese English classrooms by suggesting a list of appropriate teaching techniques.

Keywords: culture, intercultural communicative competence, techniques for culture teaching

Introduction

In the global era, English appears as the international language with a very important role in communication (McKay, 2002; Sharifian, 2009). From individual perspectives, English as a means of communication can be used by people from different countries for the purpose of exchanging messages, sharing experiences as well as understanding different worldviews. From national perspectives, the relationship between diverse countries becomes easier than ever and much closer. It seems to be like that the success in the modern world thus is dependent on the mastery of English and therefore English language education, which provides learners with basic communication skills and information, has become a key part of global education. Vietnam is one country which takes important account into the teaching and learning of English. Vietnamese government gives privilege for English education for the development of the country. The requirement of sound English competent people who can live and work well in multicultural communities brings to the task of training students to become interculturally and communicatively competent English users. It follows that English teachers should develop intercultural competence in their students. Along with Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) – the current approach of choice – there is a shift from traditional teaching

method to ICC approach among Vietnamese researchers, scholars and teachers for the goals of developing students English proficiency in terms of providing students with acquisition of linguistic and culture knowledge, awareness of differences between nations and strategies to cope with variety of intercultural interactions. As a result, the question of how to address culture into English teaching programs becomes the important concern among the researchers. I will now discuss the teaching of culture in foreign language teaching, the ways to address culture into English as a Second Language/English as a Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) classrooms, and then come up with relevant strategies to teach cultural elements for Vietnamese tertiary teachers.

Culture in Language Teaching

Defining Culture

Culture is said to be an abstract concept that may mean different things to different people (Cakir, 2006) and can be understood implicitly but is difficult to define precisely. Culture is also a broad and, therefore, complicated concept (Phan & Nguyen, 2008). One of the earliest scientific definitions of the term 'culture' is taken from the British anthropologist Tylor (1871) in his book *Primitive Cultures* as "knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capacities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (cited in Yang, 2010, p. 177). The term culture in this definition firstly refers to general culture relating to the explicit aspects of culture, such as art, literature, music, food, clothing styles, etc., and secondly, describes the implicit aspects of culture such as cultural etiquette, behaviour, and customs. There are two categories of culture has been emphasized in his definition including "high culture" or "culture with a Capital C" which refers to the major

products and contributions of a society and "culture with a small c" which focuses on the ways people of a society live (Thanasoulas, 2001, p. 25).

As mentioned above, culture is a broad concept that embraces almost all aspects of human life. Culture is addressed by scholars from various fields such as cultural anthropology, cultural studies, communication studies, sociology and education. For those scholars who belong to the field of foreign language teaching and learning they share the similar conceptualisation of culture. First, according to Brown (1994) culture is "the ideas, customs, skills, arts, and tools that characterise a given group of people in a given period of time" (p. 380). Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, and Kohler (2003, p. 45) indicated that "culture is a complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviours, practices, rituals, and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artefacts they produce and the situations they create". Another definition synthesized by Sowden (2007) that "culture tended to mean that body of social, artistic, and intellectual traditions associated historically with a particular social, ethnic or national group" (pp. 304-305). The above definitions of culture contain two separated parts: the elements of culture and the group of membership. The former refers to the cultural patterns forming the whole way of life and the later indicates the given community where cultural elements are shared among the group members. The culture of a unique group can be identified only when people of this group share the structural elements. Obviously, the structural elements of culture are much emphasized than the group membership because they comprise both tangible and intangible products made by human beings.

In sum, culture is the combination of creations created by members in a group/community as the result of working for universal human needs which is different from any particular group of people. The limited understanding of the others' culture may lead to the failure in communicative interactions because the way people behave in this community may be considered unusual in others'. Therefore, it is important to teach culture in the process of teaching a new language for students. The following section will describe the relationship between language and culture under the views of linguists in the field of language instruction.

The Relationship between Language and Culture

Culture, as descriptive presented in section above, is a term used to depict the whole aspects of human's life. Culture is not in a static but changeable form, so people within a particular cultural group can create and re-create their own cultural societies with characterised cultural values. With regards to language, followings will be the brief definition of this term.

Language is described by applied linguist Halliday (1973, 1985) as "the systematic resource for expressing meaning in context, not the set of all grammatical sentences" (cited in Jordan, 2004, p. 6) and used by people as a mean to "deal with the external world…and…with each other" (ibid. , p. 7). From this view, language can be understood as a set of linguistics units as morphemes, words, sentences that people use as a tool of communication or to express their own feelings, thoughts and attitudes.

The study on the relationship between language and culture has been captured by numerous anthropologists and linguists in the development of foreign language

education (Beishamayum, 2010; Byram, 1989; Choudhury, 2013; Fishman, 1996; Gao, 2006; Kramsch, 1998; Liddicoat et al., 2003; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Risager, 2005, 2006; Thanasoulas, 2001). The two earliest linguists named Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf determined the mutual relationship between language and culture through the "Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis" (reviewed by Hussein, 2012; Jalalah, 1993). They supposed that language controlled the thoughts and perceptions of individuals, therefore language conditioned their worldviews. People from different cultural groups have definitely isolated worldviews and it is that the languages they use shape their cultures. According to these linguists, language like a means of communication conveys the information about people's lives, beliefs and values and through interactions people can exchange diverse messages about the whole views of world. Culture like the system of symbols and meanings affects the ways of transmitting the informative messages because "each culture has its own ways of doing things and dealing with things" (Jalalah, 1993, p. 103). The existence of various cultures implied that people who belong to these different cultures must follow their own language systems. This suggests that language is a reflection of human beings' society and the changes within that social cultural context can affect the language people use. In other words, language affects culture and vice versa culture affects language.

Thanks to the work of Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, the view of the relationship between language and culture then is more considered among researchers especially since the 1990s when the cultural turn has become dominant in linguistics. There are different points of views among them, however, the point of consensus is that language and culture is inseparable and interwoven, especially in the sense that

"culture is in language and language is loaded with culture" (Agar, 1994, p. 28). In following discussion, I would like to mention Fishman's and Kramsch's views on the relations that language have to culture.

According to Fishman (1996, p. 452), three links between language and culture consist of: language as a part of culture (language is an important tool to master for anyone wants to enter into and understands a given culture); language as an index of culture (language reveals the ways of thinking and doing things in the associated culture); language as symbolic of culture (languages can be used as symbols to defend or foster the cultures associated with them). Likewise, Kramsch (1998, p. 3) stated in her book *Language and Culture* that: language expresses cultural reality (people use language to express facts, ideas or events for sharing information from their own view points); language embodies cultural reality (the way people use language in communication to create meanings that are understandable to others, for example, the way they use verbal or non-verbal language, means that they are expressing themselves); language symbolises cultural reality (language is a system of signs that is seen as having itself a cultural value).

In a globalised world, the term of 'languaculture' (Risager, 2005, p. 110) has been widely used to support that language and culture are tightly related to each other by an invisible tie and cannot be separated but acquired together. The introduction of languaculture is a meaningful and relevant concept because it can sum up language and culture in one word and further it can offer the tie between them. In general, language and culture are inseparable. In the realm of language education, teaching a

language cannot be made separately from teaching culture. The session below will discuss the important role of culture in language teaching.

The Role of Culture in Language Teaching

As has been demonstrated, language and culture are interconnected. It comes to a predominant view shared by numerous scholars that language cannot be taught without culture, and consequently language teaching is culture teaching (Byram, 1989; Cortés, 2007; Deneme, Ada, & Uzun, 2011; Genc & Bada, 2005; Sercu, 2006; Thanasoulas, 2001). Culture plays a very important role in language teaching because the introduction of cultural aspects brings advantages to the process of mastering language competence of students. The teaching of culture aims to provide students with cultural knowledge and skills necessary for communication with English-speaking people, whereas the teaching of linguistic knowledge offers students grammatical rules and structures to make fluent and accurate utterances. As a result, language teaching can reach the goals of helping students to use the studied language to converse with people from diverse cultural situations.

Scholars supporting the significant role of culture in language teaching indicate the reasons why culture should be integrated into language classrooms and set the goals for the teaching of culture (Seelye, 1993; Thanasoulas, 2001). Thanasoulas (2001) noted three ideas for the necessity of culture teaching that: first, the process of foreign language learning comprises the learning of cultural knowledge and skills required to be a competent speaker of the studied language; second, the inclusion of culture helps students to avoid the stereotypes; third, the teaching of culture in language lessons enables students to improve their learning. It can be said

that culture as a part of language should be acknowledged by teachers and presented in language classrooms for the benefits it could bring to the students. With regards to the goals of culture teaching, Seelye in the book *Teaching culture: Strategies for intercultural communication* (1993, p. 29) indicated the main goals for cultural instruction was to help enhancing the intercultural communication because through the introduction of culture, teachers could develop in students the "cultural understanding, attitudes, and performance skills needed to function appropriately within a segment of another society and to communicate with people socialised in that culture". He then offered six specific goals to develop the students' ability for intercultural communication including the interest in other's culture, the understanding about cultural norms, traditions, attitudes, beliefs, etc. of that culture, the evaluation of that culture and the strategic skills necessary for interactions in that cultural settings. In sum, the teaching of culture in foreign language classrooms should be considered as important as the teaching of four basic skills consisting of speaking, listening, reading and writing. The process of teaching a new language cannot lack of the teaching of culture and consequently, students can improve their language competence efficiently.

In terms of English language teaching, culture is one of the main content needed in teaching programs and it is also recognized as a crucial area in language instruction (Beishamayum, 2010; Genc & Bada, 2005). Culture is taught and acquired implicitly and naturally through each lesson (Thanasoulas, 2001). Culture teaching plays an integral part in the process of communicative teaching. Without understanding the target culture, students become unfamiliar in the world of native speakers. They cannot avoid misconceptions in communication. Successful

communications require not only communicative competence but also intercultural competence. Moreover, when being aware of cultural customs in any foreign language countries, students will use language as a flexible tool by producing creative structures instead of stereotyped formula. Intercultural competence can enhance students' learning autonomy (Thanasoulas, 2001). It is a learner-centred approach because students have to negotiate their cultures and the target culture. Cultural competence benefits foreign language learners in general and makes learning much more significant because it stimulates students' curiosity (Thanasoulas, 2001) about the differences and similarities of another culture to their own.

As this paper aims to propose the strategies for culture teaching in foreign languages classrooms, the following session will review the literature on the approaches to teach culture and the evolution of ICC approach from 1990s.

Approaches to Teach Culture in Foreign Language Education
The Approaches for Culture Teaching

Different approaches can be adopted for culture introduction in an English Language Teaching (ELT) context. According to Evi (2004), the two main approaches for culture teaching are mono-cultural approach (mostly focuses on the target culture) and comparative approach (provides learners with both source culture and target culture through making comparison between two types of cultures). The mono-cultural approach seems to be inadequate in contemporary classrooms because it does not provide the knowledge of learners' local cultures. Yang (2010) described four approaches: note approach, combination approach, practice approach and

comparative approach. The two first approaches relate to the guidance for compliers to do with cultural content. The two last approaches highlight the importance of culture practice and comparison. It seems that comparative study is an integral means of culture teaching. Risager (1998) supported this view by introducing four approaches in which three of them included the aspect of comparison. Intercultural approach, multicultural approach and transcultural approach are in the same category. They give learners opportunities to discover the similarities and differences between their own countries and the others, so it is more relevant for learners to develop cultural competence. One more approach only focuses on the culture of countries where target language is spoken. It is called foreign-cultural approach. As listed above, there are different approaches for the teaching of culture. In foreign language classrooms, teachers can implement any kinds of approach to address culture in the classrooms, however they should bear in mind to consider which one is the most appropriate in their cases.

From the 1990s, the attention to culture, especially the incorporation of culture into notions of communicative competence resulted in burgeoning number of research projects by scholars from scholars all over the world. The "culture turn" (Byram et al., 2013, p. 251) becomes more and more evident in foreign language classrooms and quickly gains the interest of researchers, educational managers, teachers and students. The attempt to bring "culture turn" into foreign language education resulted in the universal view of considering cultural teaching and learning as an integral part of language education. The teaching of culture aims to provide learners "the knowledge needed to function in a societal group" (Lázár, 2007, p. 8). More specifically, it offers cultural understanding necessary for communicating "in the native context as

enculturation or in non-native or secondary context as acculturation" (ibid.). Therefore, language learners should spend time practicing the target language communicatively and interculturally. This kind of culture practice refers to "intercultural education" which is the process of helping learners to acquire "some kind of intercultural competence" (Lázár, 2007, p. 19). Many researchers have been interested in intercultural education and proposed appropriate models for intercultural teaching and learning (Bennett, 1993; Byram, 1997; Risager, 2007; Ruben, 1976). One of the most valuable works on this side was the Byram's well-developed model known as ICC. The ICC model came into existence in 1997 as a result of Byram's experience and it became the important reference for scholars in ELT education. In the following section, I will provide a detailed discussion of the term ICC in the ESL/EFL context.

The Evolution of Intercultural Communicative Competence Approach

The term "intercultural communicative competence" has been examined and defined in a variety ways by many researchers (Byram, 1997; Hyde, 1998; Sercu, 2004; Sinicrope, Norris, & Watanabe, 2007). It is conceptualised in terms of specific sample as cross-cultural adaptation, intercultural understanding or satisfaction with overseas experience in the early history of ICC exploration and during the past three decades, it is commonly viewed as an integrated mix of "knowledge, motivation and skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures" (Wiseman, 2003, p. 192). Byram (1997, p. 7) shares his conceptualisation of ICC by defining ICC is "the ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries". This definition implies the interactants' ability to negotiate and mediate between multiple identities and cultures in any situations. The challenging features for

intercultural interaction can be seen as the differences of interactants' cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the process of becoming interculturally and communicative competent is complicated because ICC requires five significant factors: *attitude, knowledge of oneself and others, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, critical cultural awareness* (Byram, 1997, p. 91). For the goal of foreign language education is to train language learners to be interculturally communicative competent language users, it is necessary and feasible to integrate intercultural communication into curriculum plan to develop students' ICC.

As has been demonstrated, ICC is the competence needed to be integrated in students, ICC approach has been developed. Foreign language education is changing rapidly in the era of globalization with English language and the ICC approach having a dominant position (Houghton, 2009). Numerous studies have asserted the integral role of ICC in foreign language teaching and intercultural communication (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005; Atay, Kurt, Camlibel, Ersin, & Kaslioglu, 2009; Collier, 1989; Houghton, 2009; Wiseman, 2003). According to Sercu, Garcia and Prieto (2004), ICC is one of the most demanding goals in foreign language education. The Council of Europe (cited in Sercu et al., 2004) issues this competence as a new requirement that students should achieve and teachers should promote in their students. Likewise, the inclusion of intercultural knowledge and skills is presented in national curriculum of the USA (American Council On The Teaching Of Foreign Languages, 2012), England and Wales (The National Curriculum for England, 2004), China (The National Curriculum Requirements for the Teaching of College English, cited in Xiaohui & Li, 2011), Vietnam (Ministry of Education and Training, 2008) and some other countries in the world (Aguilar, 2008). This fact demonstrates that

ICC has become the current approach of choice used to develop students' proficiency in a foreign language. The application of ICC approach in language education not only helps students with acquisition of ICC but also helps them be familiar with cultural differences and manage intercultural contacts. In the next section I will present strategies to address culture into Vietnamese English classrooms.

Addressing Culture into Vietnamese English Classrooms

Foreign Language Education at Tertiary Level in Vietnam

In Vietnam, foreign language policy has been of primary concern in the development of the country. The teaching and learning of foreign languages is not a new issue in Vietnam but originated for thousands of years since the country was under the domination of Chinese people. Foreign language instruction includes the teaching and learning of many different languages in which English education underwent explosive growth to become the most promoted foreign language in Vietnamese educational system (Do, 1996, 2006). English is taught nationwide in Vietnam from primary education to tertiary level. The current situation of English teaching and learning at Vietnamese colleges and universities will be discussed in more detail below.

At tertiary level, English education can be classified into two categories: English as a discipline and English as a subject. Vietnamese colleges and universities which run the first program train students to become teachers, translators, interpreters while those run the other focusing on improving English skills for their non-English major students. The non-English major educational institutions are offering the

English program including General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). GE focuses on improving the four basic modes (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) and providing students with general knowledge necessary to master English while ESP focuses on vocabulary and reading skill development. Both types of English instruction are important because they help to provide necessary language education for Vietnamese young professionals. Therefore, together with universities, Vietnamese Government and Ministry of Education and Training have to set the principles for foreign language education appropriate for "the fact that English is used as an international language in Vietnam" (T. M. H. Nguyen, 2007, p. 124).

In Vietnamese context, the quality of English language education is low and students do not master an adequate knowledge of English (Vu & Nguyen, 2004). Vietnamese English students cannot use English in learning, working and everyday communication after 10-year English training (Ha, 2007; Vu, 2007). One major reason for this low quality of English language teaching and learning is that it continues to emphasise the development of students' linguistic competence, through the improvement of four basic skills consisting of speaking, listening, reading, and writing, rather than the acquisition of the intercultural skills necessary for cross-cultural communication (Ho, 2009). The opportunities for Vietnamese students to achieve ICC alongside linguistic competence are limited (T. M. H. Nguyen, 2007). Consequently, the students are facing difficulties in relation to the cultural aspects of English teaching and learning, which has a dramatic impact on their potential to succeed in fields where English communication is essential. Additionally, the moral economy of Vietnamese classrooms and the implementation of traditional teaching method also contribute to the failure of English learners. Vietnam is a socialist

country with cultural values different from English-speaking countries. Collectivism and Confucian philosophy in education influence the national school system (P. M. Nguyen, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2006; Tran, 2012). Students are educated to respect teachers' authority and listen to teachers respectfully. Students tend to be inactive and dependent much on their teachers to provide them with knowledge. Most of them are not confident enough to practise English language skills or to converse with English teachers or English-speaking people. Further, most Vietnamese teachers are deeply influenced by grammar-translation method (Le, 2011). In classrooms, explanation, translation and sentence construction activities are the main activities. English, much like any other academic subjects, tends to be taught and used only inside the classroom. This situation leads to the mastery of English in terms of its grammar and linguistics but problems in intercultural communication, which is inconsistent with the goal of ICC approach.

As mentioned above, there is a need to better the English education in Vietnam. The concerns come into discussion is the application of more effective teaching method for Vietnamese English teachers. In the trend of world view, ICC approach has a dominant position in foreign language instruction (Houghton, 2009), it is apparent that ICC should be a core component of English language teaching and learning. In Vietnamese context, the campaign to address culture into English programs may well be one of the most significant undertakings of the future. This paper attempts to call for the need of integrating culture into Vietnamese English classrooms in order to develop cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills in students so as to improve their English proficiency. The following section will offer the

techniques to teach culture in Vietnamese English classrooms in terms of ICC approach.

Techniques to Teach Culture in Vietnamese English Classrooms in terms of ICC Approach

In this section, firstly I would like to re-state the importance of culture in foreign language teaching and learning. Teaching cultural knowledge and skills for language learners in order to develop cultural competence alongside linguistic competence should be acknowledged by teachers and students in each language lesson. Culture teaching is foreign language teaching (as stated in section 2.3) because culture is considered as the necessary skill introduced by teachers in the process of language teaching. More specifically, culture is described as the 'fifth skill" as in the statement by Kramsch (1993, p. 1) that:

> Culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard won communicative competence, challenging the ability to make sense of the world around them. (Kramsch, 1993, p. 1)

For the significance of culture in language teaching, teachers and students should work on the cultural-based activities in their English classrooms. Researchers who emphasize the implementation of culture into foreign language education offer a variety of techniques and activities for language teachers and students. Hughes (1986, pp. 167-168) proposed a list of eight techniques for teaching cultural awareness including comparison method, culture assimilators, culture capsule, drama, Audiomotor unit or Total Physical Response, newspapers, projected media and the

culture island. Damen (1987) presented eighteen methods to teach culture which can be re-classified in eight categories offered by Stern (1992, pp. 223-232). Cakir (2006); T. M. H. Nguyen (2007); Stern (1992); Thanasoulas (2001); Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) also suggested appropriate teaching techniques for developing intercultural understanding. Some of the methods overlap and some are combined with others in the classroom. The following list of techniques and activities is compiled from different sources and are based on Stern (1992) successful approaches to teach culture.

- create an authentic classroom environment: Techniques might be used to create a setting related to English speaking countries include posters, displays, bulletin boards, maps and realia.

- providing cultural information: This approach provides students with a lot of information through various activities such as culture capsules, culture clusters and culture quizzes.

- cultural problem solving: This helps students develop the skills to deal with encounters when they live in a different cultural community. Teachers can use these activities: case studies, culture assimilators and cultoons.

- behavioural and affective aspects: This focuses on information about conventional behaviour in English speaking countries and attitudes towards their cultures which are different from students' local cultural backgrounds. The techniques contain dialogues, simulation, situational exercises, role play, drama and mini drama.

- cognitive approaches: This is useful to create the academic study of the target culture through lectures, readings, discussions and student research.

- the role of literature and humanities: Students might acquire target cultural background information through reading activity. Reading materials include novels, magazines, newspapers and history books.

- real-life exposure to the target culture: Teachers can invite people from other cultures to the classrooms. They can talk about their cultures. They also interact with students and help them experience real life intercultural communication.

- making use of cultural community resources: This refers to students' usage of resources in English-speaking countries. Through this activity students can develop their thinking and skills to sort out materials from huge range of internet topics.

Above is the list of common techniques for the teaching of culture in foreign language classrooms. I will now make a discussion about which techniques can be utilized in the English tertiary classrooms in Vietnam and how teachers can use these techniques.

To start with, I would like to mention here the common goal for English language education in Vietnam which is noted in the Decision No 1400/QD-TTg that:

"…by 2020, most young Vietnamese graduates of professional secondary schools, colleges and universities will have a good command of foreign language which enables them to independently and confidently communicate, study and work in a multilingual and multicultural environment of integration;

to turn foreign language into a strength of Vietnamese people to serve national industrialization and modernization" (Prime Minister, 2008, p. 1)

The above statement implies the obvious orientation for the field of foreign language instruction in Vietnam with a focus on the international aspects, requiring the need for developing intercultural communicative competence. Along with this strategy, these following techniques can be utilized by teachers and students in English lessons (Table 1).

Techniques	Aims	Teachers What to do?	Students What to do?
Lecture	Provide background knowledge about cultures of different countries	Through lectures, teachers give students information about cultural aspects of different countries. Teachers may simply tell students the specific cultural aspect or the similarities/ differences among the diverse cultures.	Students listen to the lectures and take notes for the cultural information.
Reading	Raise background information about cultures of different	Teachers provide students with reading materials related to the	Students focus on reading the provided/suggeste

	countries for students	cultural aspects. Teachers may also suggest some kinds of materials for students to read.	d materials to raise the understanding of culture.
Dialogues	Help students to do more practice by repeating and memorize the dialogue sentences. Through practice they can remember the appropriate structures and understand well the meaning behind the words.	Teachers guide students to practice the dialogues and understand the use specific dialogue in its own context.	Students participate in dialogue practice activities and analyse the meaning behind the conversation under the point of cultural view.
Discussions	Help students to be confident in expressing ideas or giving opinions about the cultural aspects they may	Teachers guide students to work in pairs/groups discussing about cultural topics.	Students share their personal ideas about the topic.

	know.		
Culture quizzes	Check students' knowledge of culture	Teachers ask students questions relating to cultures and give them right answers afterwards. Teachers can compile the questions based on the content of the lessons or just create the quiz to test the students' knowledge.	Students work out with questions and then compare with the right answers. Students involve in the classroom activities to figure out the quiz.
Culture capsules	Make the differences between cultures	Teachers present the aspects of culture from other countries and then make the contrast with students' local culture	Students obtain the knowledge provided by teacher about the cultural aspects of different countries and involve in the discussion about the differences between diverse cultures
Culture	Similar to culture	Teachers design	Students work out

clusters	capsule, culture cluster aims to provide knowledge of cultural aspects about diverse countries and making the contrast among them. Culture cluster can be understood as the combination of two (or more) culture capsules.	different activities for students to practice. The activities present different aspects of culture. For one specific culture topic teachers propose the activities consisting of a set of some separate culture capsules and in turn introduce to students.	with each activity and then draw the general understanding of a specific culture topic from different aspects.
Culture assimilators	Provide students with understanding of cultural facts, the different cultural values, attitudes and beliefs. Help students to develop the skills to deal with encounters when they live in a	Teachers give brief description of critical incidents of cross-cultural situations that may cause the misunderstandings. Then teachers ask students to select the appropriate response	Students obtain the understanding of cultural conflicts and then figuring out with appropriate explanation for critical incidents.

	different cultural community.	among some choices that is right in the certain cultural contexts.	
Cultural simulation	Help students to have deep understanding about other's cultures through experiencing the differences between their local culture and another culture.	Teachers design activities which are new and different from the students' local cultures. Teachers help students to understand the differences and respond in appropriate behaviour.	Students experience the culture shocks by participating in the designed activities which are totally new and different from their cultures.
Contacting with foreigners	Help students to gain experience through real contacts with people from different countries.	Teachers may invite guest/visitors from different countries to their English classrooms (face-to-face contact). Teachers may also design indirect contact with foreigners through Skype/phone.	Students communicate with foreigners, learn from them the way to behave or respond to different situations in their cultures.
Acting games (role	Help students to be familiar with culture	Teachers choose the dramas, stories, etc. (and	Students practice to be their

play/drama /mini drama)	from different countries through acting themselves in the characters of the other culture.	design them if necessary) and guide students to position themselves in the role of drama characters.	assigned characters who are totally different from themselves.

Table 1: Techniques for culture teaching

In the context of Vietnamese classrooms, under the view of local or Asian education, teachers are perceived as the authoritarian transmitter of knowledge (Le, 2011) and students are described as "passive, rote learners" (Pennycook, 1998, p. 162) therefore the application of cognitive approaches such as lecture and reading seem to be the most relevant. The cultural information is directly transmitted to students. Also, teachers should provide clear explanation about the similarities and differences between the students' local culture and the other cultures. Dialogue practicing is an applicable technique because it helps students to be familiar with the expressions of the target culture. Vietnamese students are rote learners, so it is easy for them to remember the discourses as well as the cultural conventions in each dialogue. Discussion should be used by teachers to help students develop independent and competitive learning. This technique requires the initiative from the students, so teachers should bear in mind to encourage students to confidently participate in discussion activities.

Culure quizzes, culture capsules, culture clusters, culture assimilators and culture simulations are also good techniques that Vietnamese teachers can utilize to integrate culture into English classrooms. These approaches present the cultural facts

and make distinction among different cultures through the introduction of cultural misunderstandings, so teachers should give students relevant evidence to explain for any cultural conflicts. Acting games are ideal activities for students to learn about culture. However, it takes time and effort for teachers and students in preparing and performing their acting roles. Last but not least, contacting with foreigners is a good opportunity for students to experience the interaction with people differing from them in terms of language and cultures. When using this activity, teachers should firstly introduce some facts about culture, country, and people of the visitors. By doing that, students will feel more comfortable with the contact.

In general, a variety of techniques and activities can be used by teachers with the aim to bring culture into language classroom. Because the goal of ICC approach is no longer the amount of knowledge transmitted by the teachers but the focus on the skills, attitudes and critical awareness that students can master during learning process (Aguilar, 2008), students become the centre in foreign language classrooms and take the initiative in their study. With regards to cultural practice, teachers may employ these strategies to help students involve in the process of discovering and exploring their own local culture and the target culture; comparing these two kinds of cultures; and interpreting and negotiating meaning to find a third place between cultures (Liddicoat, 2002). Using them effectively requires that teachers should consider the overall factors from students, teaching materials, teaching goals, teaching principles, teaching approaches to choose the best methodology.

Conclusion

The evolution of ICC approach in the field of foreign language education has shed the light for Vietnamese teachers and students. Pursuing the goal of ICC approach is to train students to become intercultural speakers (Aguilar, 2008) who can communicate interculturally and communicatively with people from diverse cultures, Vietnamese teachers have the task of developing ICC in their students. By implementing the cultural-based activities, teachers can infuse culture into their English lessons so as to raise the students' cultural awareness and improve necessary skills for intercultural communication. It is obvious that the teaching of culture is very important, so teachers should be flexible in utilising the teaching techniques to achieve the best outcome of language teaching practices. The more Vietnamese tertiary teachers consider the significant role of culture in foreign language instruction, the more they count on the ways to address culture into their everyday lessons.

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Phenomenological Views of the Development of Critical Argumentation in Learners' Discourse

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Abstract

Our phenomenological approach to classroom discourse considers the relationship between a first-person perspective and the perspective of the 'other'. We argue that a detailed analysis of an enactment of a phenomenon such as team-based learning or the development of academic argumentation through interaction can be examined in a local context in a way that is translatable to other contexts. One aspect of the approach taken here is to interpret data extracts from insider and outsider perspectives rather than to adopt a more impersonal approach torater reliability. 'We' (a student, a teacher and an external researcher as co-authors of this paper and co-researchers) examine recorded data of the learning process alongside written outcomes. The student and the class teacher provide a first-person insider perspective. The external researcher confronts the experiential data with an explanation based on learning principles. We have analysed recorded data of a team of students engaged in a task that requires them to synthesize individual literature reviews into a team literature review. Our findings in this context suggested that detailed team discussion, while indicating a good understanding of synthesized writing, did not result in a perfectly synthesized final team-written written product, but it did result in a reasonably competent final draft which appears to represent emergent competence in synthesized writing. Interesting findings about the quality of team interaction and team-based writing have also emerged. The discourse analyzed indicated that there was a good team participation, but there was also a clear leader of the discussion. We report strong evidence in the data suggesting that his ability influenced the quality of the team-written report, but we also found that the individual writing performance of several, but not all, other team members did improve.

Keywords: classroom discourse, critical thinking, methodology, phenomenology, project-based learning

Devenir soi n'a de sens que dans la relation avec les autres (Jacques Attali, 2014b) Becoming our true selves only has meaning in our relationship with others

Introduction

Figure 1 below proposes a triangular and transcendental relationship between the method being practised through interaction, the local context and learning

principles. Our long term research project has identified ten principles that underpin the learning of critical reasoning/argumentation.

Figure 1: Method Pyramid

Improved Practice

Local Context

Learning Principles

Method-in-Use
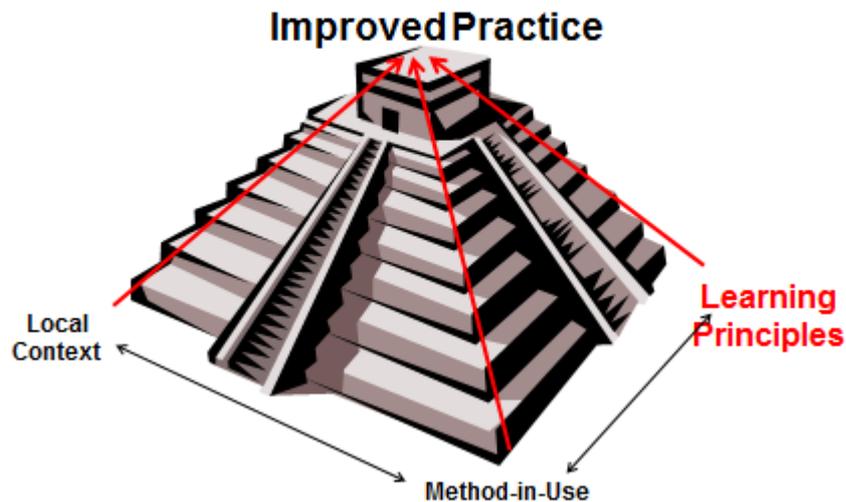
We focus on one of these, learning synthesized academic argumentation, as a focus of this paper. It may be potentially described as a 'global' learning objective of courses which focus on developing academic literacy, but only in the sense that it may translate to other contexts. Method-in-use (Nunn, 2011, 2010, 1996) is a coinage intended to indicate the importance of describing how local curriculum is actually being enacted in a specific location. At the same time, in the critical thinking literature, it appears to be accepted that critical reasoning is partially developed through interaction (Facione, 2011, Nunn, 1999), hence suggesting an important link between developing critical reasoning and the interaction that takes place during the learning process.

An analysis of classroom 'method-in-use' (Nunn, 2010, 2011) is a two-phase analysis. The initial descriptive phase provides a detailed four-part holistic description of curriculum as it plays out in the local classroom. This underpins the second phase which evaluates the extent to which learning is facilitated in relation to generalized principles of critical argumentation, focusing in particular on synthesized argumentation. Our analysis of classroom recordings also attempted to capture the

phenomenon of learning in teams through interaction. We suggest that the approach to the phenomenon as practised is 'translatable' to other contexts. By translatable, it is important to emphasize that we do not mean that what is conceived, designed or practised in one context, is automatically applicable elsewhere. Global generalizations may be attempted through the generation of principles, but no claim of universal value or applicability can be supported. We do assume that something is 'translatable' once it has been transferred, adjusted, adapted to the local context. We also suggest that while there is a (complex) relationship between individual learning and learning in teams, a phenomenological approach can help elucidate the phenomenon in a local context in a way that is translatable in other local contexts. The examination of the value and meaning of synthesized argumentation in team writing in one context must differ from one context to another, but a detailed examination of the phenomenon in one context will therefore help us understand the essence of the phenomenon itself which is then translatable to a related phenomenon in another context.

In this paper, we first examine interaction in a small group of local students and then attempt to determine the extent to which this interaction influences their critical academic reasoning in the form of synthesized argumentation in their team-written project report. The students in this case study were the six members of one team in a class of twenty students. Each team conducted a semester long research project culminating in a full research report and presentation. The project-based structure acts as a holistic framework in which students and the teacher interact with a view to developing academic literacy skills such as report writing and multimedia presentation. At the same time the course aims to improve critical reasoning skills and the ability to work in teams. Engineering students are required to work in teams, which raises questions about the relationship between individual competence and team competence when individuals are expected to contribute equally to a final team-based written product. Our paper attempts to capture that process by providing different perspectives on the two types of data we discuss: the interaction within a team and the final team-written project report. At the same time we provide data about the competence level not only of the final team outcome, but also of the team members' individual assignments.

As part of the semester-long project, each student wrote a short literature review based on one or two articles related to the students' chosen research topic: "*How to "build" a Creative Engineer*". They then met to discuss ways of combining their reviews into one coherent synthesized team literature review. When we refer to synthesis in this paper, we therefore focus mainly on the synthesis of individually written literature reviews into a team-written document. We analyse both extracts from this discussion and extracts from the final report. At the same time we provide three different perspectives on this discourse. As principal author and researcher, I (R Nunn) provide an external perspective using recorded data and transcripts. I did not participate directly in any of the class activities. The two co-authors of this paper and co-researchers provide insider perspectives. One is the teacher of the class (T. Deveci) and the other a student who participated in the team under investigation (Hussein Salih). It is hoped that our diverse perspectives on both the process and the outcome of the process will provide insights into both what represents competent student-written discourse and how synthesized discourse was developed in this particular team.

Some Brief Background Information

'Method-in-use' is a grounded description and analysis followed by an interpretation of the lived practice of students and teachers. (Nunn 2012, 2011, 2010, 1999, 1996). A description of interaction and discourse provides a broad range of descriptive categories to ground the analysis in recorded and transcribed data (phase 1). The four categories (table 1 below) are an attempt to encompass all types of discourse that are involved in spoken and written text creation. This stage is common to all our previous method-in-use studies which are readily available online (https://pi.academia.edu/RogerNunn) and is only slightly updated here. The local turn-taking (1) is analysed as a self-generated process. The subject matter of the interaction (2) is analysed in terms of present development, prior input and targeted future output. The nature of the pedagogical task (3) (decided here by the teacher) is also described. Finally the nature of the 'outcomes' (4), what is produced by the interaction, is characterized in terms of the relationship between convergence and divergence: convergence to a pre-established fixed outcome, a more unpredictable

self-generated divergent outcome or, as frequently appears to be the case, a task-related combination of the two poles.

Table 1 Phase 1 - A Holistic Discourse Description

Categories	Realisations
1. Turn-taking and exchange structure	Distribution of: Nomination, self-selection, bidding, interrupting, initiating, responding, following up, negotiating, eliciting, recasting, repairing, reflecting, probing, evaluating, terminating…? (See below holistic outcomes of these [e.g., reconstruction of a text])
2. Input, output and interaction: text and topic	Choice of text type: language, origin, genre and quality of texts Creation, re-creation, exploitation of spoken and written texts Choice, development, change of topic
3. Holistic types of pedagogical discourse activity	TASKS – "holistic" activities which practise the whole integrated skill in some way Presentations, dictations, reading aloud, explanation, translation, drills, lectures, narration, reconstruction of text, leading a discussion, participating in a group activity, circulating asking questions, interacting in pairs or small groups, writing a survey report, teacher-fronted (mini-) lectures
4. Focus and outcomes	Focus on product, process or both Convergent, predictable, or divergent unpredictable outcomes Student-created or pre-determined outcomes Ability to re-use or perform a similar task Holistic or atomistic outcomes

A method-in-use description is a hermeneutic approach (Gadamer, 2004 [1975]) based on an assumption that both spoken and written texts constitute true-to-life objective data that can be described, analysed and interpreted in order to understand the phenomenon being enacted through both types of discourse. In recent studies (Nunn 2012, Nunn and Hassan 2015), we used an observational approach. However, we preferred transcribed recorded data to ground this new study in a more objective phase of recording and transcription of actual data of the phenomenon itself. In the case of the discourse chosen here, the spoken text is naturally occurring text which

was recorded by the teacher and the written texts are those submitted by teams of students. The spoken interaction was always a preparation activity for the subsequent written version.

Once descriptive data had been established (phase 1), it was reanalysed in relation to the pedagogical area under investigation (phase 2). In previous studies, the extent to which classroom discourse appeared to promote SLA was investigated (Nunn, 2011, 2012, Ellis, 2005). The aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which the emerging discourse promoted the development of so-called critical reasoning/argumentation.

A check list of ten aspects of teaching emergent critical argumentation was generated in a recent pilot study (reported in Nunn and Hassan, 2015) which were listed as ten principles of learning (table 2 below):

Table 2:Principles of Critical reasoning/Argumentation
1. Instruction needs to provide opportunities for self-regulation through which learners develop their argumentation skills
2. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus on relevance by referring to known information from literature in relation to their own projects
3. Instruction needs to ensure that learners have opportunities to explain their ideas and research choices
4. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus on their choice of words to express appropriate levels of confidence in relation to evidence
5. Instruction needs to be directed at developing the ability to analyse issues and problems (such as by breaking a problem down into manageable components)
6. Instruction needs to develop the ability to evaluate strengths and weaknesses of arguments, research approaches, conclusions (in literature for example)
7. Instruction needs to develop the ability to interpret findings from their reading or own investigations
8. Instruction needs to develop the ability to synthesize output such as in group lit. reviews or discussion sections of reports
9. Successful instructed learning provides interaction opportunities promoting dialogue to enable learners to develop their reasoning ability
10. Instruction needs to provide opportunities for learners to critically examine their own written output in terms of coherent argumentation

In this paper, we examine in detail some extracts of recorded interactive discourse which led to the production of a written text by the team. Each individual

student had written an individual literature summary from one or occasionally two texts as part of their team research project. In the extracts examined here, they are attempting to transform the individual texts already completed into a combined literature review. While we believe all ten principles are important as a whole package, the data examined here correspond to principle 2 and especially principle 8 that relates to the ability to synthesize text from different sources. In this way, after analysing the emergent discourse, the quality of a more final text can also be analysed in order to compare a 'final' product with the earlier process of interaction. At the same time, it reflects a different type of interaction which may be underestimated according to Zimmerman (2012, p. 153).

> Because of the importance that a learner's interaction with course content plays in education, the body of research is incomplete without a deeper exploration of the impact that it has on course success. The academic and practitioner communities need rigorous studies that examine learner-content interaction.

Van Lier (1996, pp. 147-187) has also warned against a simplistic view of interaction as "talk … glorified for the sake of talk". For Van Lier "The quality of social interaction resides in the thing it *points to"* (p.147) which necessarily "includes interacting (using language) with the world in general through reading, thinking about worldly things and so on". Of relevance to the ten principles listed here, Van Lier also points to the quality of thinking brought to bear on the interaction.Our data illustrates this view. Before the interactive team discussion, students 'interact' individually with an academic text that is relevant to their topic. During the discussion students also interact not only with each other, but also with the text content they have brought to the discussion. Hence there is an intra- and interpersonal side to the interaction. The intra-personal side needs consideration. We also note that this intra-personal dimension often takes place outside class time.

In the extracts analysed here one of the participants was later recruited as a student co-researcher and is now a joint author of this paper. His insider (intrapersonal) perspective is drafted as a reflective narrative and presented unedited in the next section prior to our comparative interpretation with the spoken interaction:

Insider Reflective Narrative of the Activity

Last semester, we – Team TIATN – along with all the other teams in our class, were instructed to synthesize the literature reviews of our COMM 151 academic journals into a cohesive Team Literature review that represents the background to our research project. To that extent, we met later that evening in order to determine our modus operandi. We agreed to the chairperson, the order of communication and the decision making strategies we would follow during the synthesis meeting.

The aforesaid synthesis meeting took place during class time later that week. We gathered in a closed and quiet room adjacent to our classroom, with the instructor observing our discussion without interfering. I was chosen as chairperson and my task was to maintain the momentum of the discussion and facilitate constructive brainstorming by probing and mediating whenever necessary. Luckily, my team was already competent in those aspects and the discourse went along smoothly without any conflicts.

During the discussion, we noticed that most of our sources overlapped around the same themes – which was expected, since we chose our research topic (How to "build" a Creative Engineer" in such a way as to make finding relevant sources and gathering live data considerably easier. We did reach a point where we ended up with three distinct themes: "Workplace Expectations of Graduate Engineers", "Creativity in Engineering Education and the Comprehensive Skills of an Engineer". Thought the themes seemed incoherent at first, we decided to connect them as a sequence of events. This way, we could analyze the making of an engineer in explicit detail, without restricting ourselves to academia alone.

*In the end, we managed to reach a unanimous decision within 25 minutes of brainstorming. Originally, we wanted to avoid using the Majority Rule or arbitrating the decision to the instructor, therefore consensus was the most desired outcome. The instructor did not need to interfere with the discussion since our team managed to autonomously function. **All in all, I believe the experience was quite productive and educational, though I cannot help but think that some of the team members were slightly timid or perhaps unwilling to share their entire opinion. Perhaps they did not understand the significance of sharing your whole opinion, rather than the part of it which agrees with the team.***

Regardless, such selfless decisions are necessary for healthy teamwork. After all, isn't compromise the very essence of diplomacy?

This reflection mainly favours the use of a 'we' implying that decisions were made collectively and equally. However, the highlighted underlined section provides an interesting 'I' perspective which is in contradiction with the notion of total consensus implied elsewhere. We also note that synthesizing individually drafted text was externally imposed as part of the project requirements. In the discussion and in

the reflection above none of the local participants critically evaluate this approach itself, suggesting that it was broadly accepted as a valid activity.

Data analysis

The following section provides a detailed analysis of the recorded interaction through which we can confront the first-person reflection with the objective spoken reality. ('Objective' is used here only to mean that the video-recordings and transcripts exist independently of any subjective or intersubjective reflection.)

Turn Taking

Table 2 below was completed by the researcher who played no role in the activity. He did this after watching the video recordings and reading the transcripts. In terms of traditional views of rater reliability, we have not sought to validate the coding in extracts such as extract 1 below using coders of similar status. Instead the coding was first done by the external researcher (RN) and then validated by the student researcher (HS) and the class teacher/researcher (TD). The transcript is also available to the reader for a further perspective (For a fuller phenomenological discussion see the discussion under the heading Principles of Critical Reasoning below.)

Table 2a Turn-taking and exchange structure

Category	**Realisations (analysis by RN)**
Turn-taking and exchange structure (control of the discourse) Nomination, self-selection, bidding, interrupting, initiating, responding, following up, negotiating, eliciting, recasting, repairing, reflecting, probing, evaluating, terminating…?	Devolved student to student discussion task Frequent self-section by students without needing to bid for turns led to very broad participation. Some non-verbal nomination. The style of interaction made it easy for students to self-select and

	participate fully. The teacher was not involved

As explained in the insider narrative, the student author, Hussain, chaired the session reported here. In extract 1 below, he led the discourse on one subtopic for a total of 15 turns until the student Binjab took over in turn 16. Hussein used a negotiation style with rising intonation to nominate group members in turn. There was frequent negotiation to encourage full participation of all members. This was partially task-related as the information from each student's literature review was needed to complete the task.

Extract 1 Student led turn-taking

1	**Hussein**	I got my article – I had 2 articles, actually – related to skills. Could you guys tell me about yours?	**Initiation by student H**
2	Binjab:	Mine talks about creativity	Self-selection - response by student
4	Hussain:	Okay, creativity, and yours?	Negotiation and nomination by H
6	Khalifa:	Mine and [Ahmed Salim] Darwish's are about expectations at the workplace	Response
7	Hussain	Okay, workplace expectations and…?	Negotiation by H
8	Al Jasmi	Mine was skills	Response
9	Hussain:	Skills also, okay…	Negotiation by H
10	Al Nuaimi:	I'm also about creativity.	Response
11	Hussain:	…creativity, and…?	Negotiation by H
12	Darwish:	As he [Khalifa] said about industry.	Response
13	H:	…Industry expectations. So we have 2 industry expectations, 2… no, 3 skills and 2 creativity?	Termination/ negotiation for confirmation
14	B:	Yes.	Response
15	H:	So, in total we have 7 articles but we will be using what we have in the Literature Review to, you know, summarize. First, what do you guys say we find what's common between the	Termination (summary) Negotiation

articles? We'll find what's common between industries, creativity, skills and then we'll lump them together.

| 16 | B: | Let's start with our themes in creativity: my theme was mainly about Critical Thinking and how it is empowered or how it is produced in a student via university education. What about you, Abdulla [Al Nuaimi]? | Self- selection and appropriation by B of control of turn-taking

Nomination |

There is a strong indication in this extract that the team leader Hussein took on a leadership role and exercises considerable influence over the turn-taking. This is important because it allows us to interpret the impact that one individual may have on team performance at a later stage. At the same time, as he is a competent member, he may be helping the team develop, so this leadership can be interpreted in a constructivist sense too.

Input, Text and Topic

The holistic pedagogical activity (table 2c below) was a round table discussion to prepare for a combined literature review. Previously each student had prepared a mini-review of one extensive paper (or two shorter papers.) The topic of 'synthesis' was predetermined by the teacher and course task description as was the purpose of the activity. The students provided the text input in the form of their own writing, hence ensuring interaction not only with each other, but also with task-related content input. They were free to structure the task themselves. Evidence of students structuring their own process and referring to their pre-prepared individual contributions is provided not only in the video, where the prepared texts are present and constantly pointed to(See Unger, et al., 2015 for the importance of semiotic pointing) and sometimes cited, but also in text extract 2 below.

Table 2b Input, output and interaction: text and topic

Input, output and interaction: text and topic	1. Extensive spoken interactive input as preparation for a written literature review
Choice of text type: language, origin, genre and quality of texts	
Creation, re-creation, exploitation of spoken	2. Student written text from an

and written texts Choice, development, change of topic	individual lit. review with highlighted elements. (Video extract 1 used in the presentation provided visual evidence that each student had a hardcopy of their individual review at the discussion for text extract 2 below) 3. Focus on content.

Text extract 2 – using prewritten text as input in a discussion

H: Let me just give you an example of some of those skills, because they're a little… you know, you wouldn't expect them of an engineer.
This is a quote [from my own literature review] from the second article about technological innovation – this is actually an expectation of an engineer:
"As [2] states clearly, the most significant role of the engineer of the future is deemed to be innovation through the creation of new products or process or services, and that role stresses systems integration – which is synthesis and analysis".
What they're trying to say is that potential engineers need to make a transition from analyzing things to building things. And later on they [the aforesaid source] tell you that you'd expect innovation – inventions and new stuff – from a lonely genius, some guy who lives alone or in his parents' basement and, somehow, creates something new.

But we want that "lonely person" to be a group of engineers; engineers should become *inventors*. At the same time, they need to be businessmen for market exploitation and all that.

B: So those are the skills…

H: Yes, the comprehensive skills of engineering. Do you guys agree with that?

B: Yeah.

H: OK. Or the "Breakdown of the Comprehensive Skills of Engineering". We just want to see how much skill an engineer would need. We can even compare that to other occupations.

Extract 2 above confirms the view that the team leader and discussion chair plays a leading role in guiding team decisions.

Task
Table 2c Holistic types of pedagogical discourse activity

Holistic types of pedagogical discourse activity	1. Team discussion to draft a synthesized lit. review

Presentations, dictations, reading aloud, explanation, translation, drills, lectures, narration, reconstruction of text, leading a discussion, participating in a group activity, circulating asking questions, interacting in pairs or small groups, writing a survey report, teacher-fronted (mini-) lectures	It involved a pre-task reading activity where each student had a different text (or texts) to review (visibly present in the video recording of the discussion) Involved, contrasting, comparing and ultimately combining information from different sources as illustrated in the opening turn: (see text extract 3 below) [DIVERGENT PRE-READING ACTIVITY, SEMI-CONVERGENT AIMS]

Text Extract 3

As you know, we will now attempt to synthesize our literature reviews into one main literature review. So, initially we divided our topic – *How to Build a Creative Engineer* – into separate themes so that finding articles would be easier. Our themes were:
1. Engineering Skills, and
2. The Creativity involved, and lastly
3. Industry Expectations

While the task is predetermined, extract 3 above indicates that the team is able – again largely though its student leader – to redefine the task. In table 2d below, the nature of the learning outcomes are described. There is a balance between convergence and divergence, with more emphasis on divergence, as each team of students have a different outcome using different texts on a different project. However, they converge in that they are responding to the same generic task description which directs them towards creating a thematic synthesized literature review. A linear generic approach used in a previous course requiring students to organize their review paper by paper was deliberately avoided in favour of a synthesized theme-based review. Hence an exact pre-determined generic structure was not required but an underlying generic text feature (synthesis) was.

Table 2d Focus and outcomes of the interaction

Focus and outcomes Focus on product, process or both Convergent, predictable, or divergent unpredictable outcomes Student-created or pre-determined outcomes Ability to re-use or perform a similar task Holistic or atomistic outcomes	1. Teacher-instigated the task but divergent outcomes were self-negotiated between students 2. Focus here on the process. This discourse extract represents an emergent process 3. A balance between focusing on process and product. Students create their own product through their own interactive process. The final report is available in our data providing evidence that a coherent thematic synthesis was produced.

Extract 4 below illustrates the way students themselves influence the content and to some extent the form of the final literature review resulting in a divergent outcome in that it is unique to this team. Their discussion indicates that the final format depends to some extent on the content of the different texts that will be synthesized. 'Synthesis' was a given, but the way of doing a synthesis was not.

Text extract 4 Evidence of a divergent final outcome

H: Good, so we already have some idea of our team literature review. We have some contradictions. Whatever is not on this page is not a contradiction – everything is properly synthesized. (Flips page) This is where we will move on next, after the team literature review.

Before we get to this point, we will actually need to *write down* the literature review. What we should next – what I suggest we should do next – is to find parts of our individual literature reviews which agree. Unless we do that, we'll have to write it [the team literature review] from scratch, and that would be very difficult.

For now, just ignore the references. I'm sure all of us used [1] in our reference, so just ignore it for now. The order of the referencing will change depending on the main literature review. So the first theme – theme A [collegiate level] – will come first, then theme B [professional level], and then we'll attempt to link them using theme C.

So, try to connect your 2 literature reviews from here [A]. These two [in B] should also try to overlap. Turn it into one or just remove the irrelevant.

D: I think they're already overlapping a lot.

H: Yeah, so it should be relatively easy.

D: Especially for B.

H: So here [in A], it's critical thinking and design and divergent thinking, so extract those parts – only the important parts, because we don't want it to look like a very long literature review. It should be just as long as these [individual literature reviews].

The descriptive data discussed in this section was further supported by visual video-recorded evidence.

Principles of Critical Reasoning

Having considered the description of classroom discourse from four different angles, the ten principles can now be considered. We see our interpretive data as hermeneutic interpretation in that we favour multiple, but inevitably limited and subjective, perspectives from which to interpret objective textual phenomena, following Gadamer (2004 [1975], p.467)

> All interpretation is motivated in this way and derives its significance from the context of its motivation. Through its one-sidedness it puts too much emphasis on one side of the thing, so that something else has to be said to restore the balance. As philosophical dialectic presents the whole truth by superseding all partial propositions, bringing contradictions to a head and overcoming them, so also hermeneutics has the task of revealing a totality of meaning in all its relations.

We consider the three different independent perspectives in this central focus of our research on critical argumentation to enhance the validity of the interpretations. At the same time, in our own text, we are carefully monitoring our own use of a first-person voice, given that subjectivity/inter-subjectivity (Husserl, 1960 [1931], Ricoeur, 1992) is a major theoretical angle of this study from the field of phenomenology. Vessey (n.d) on Ricoeur's "Oneself as Another" expresses the complex interaction between the subjective "I" and the intersubjective "we" as follows:

> We are subjects in others' stories, others are subjects in our stories; others are authors of our stories, we are authors of others' stories. Our narratives are essentially interwoven with other narratives. We are characters in other narratives—we are our parents' child, our partner's partner, our friends' friend—and they are characters in our narratives. Also, through our

discussions and interactions with others we facilitate the articulation and direction of their narratives, and they ours. All this is to say that our identity is never simply our own. It is embedded with relations with others and we do not have ultimate control over the nature of these relationships much less the nature of our identity.

'We' in our study includes the principal researcher who was not present in the lesson but used the video recordings and the transcriptions, a teacher/researcher and a student/researcher The teacher/researcher and student/researcher, the co-authors of this paper, were present in the lesson. The student/researcher also took a leading role in the interaction. At this stage he was not aware of the precise focus of the project and had not been selected as a co-researcher. Our study was also able to draw upon extracts from the written reports which were drafted as the result of this recorded interaction. In this way, we are able to consider different stages of a process and individual work produced concurrently by the team members. We do not consider the final team text to be a 'finished product' as we believe that developing competence or knowledge does not finish with a so-called final draft. Just like published papers, there is a stage at which a draft is labelled 'final', but it never represents the final word or thinking in any total or definitive sense.

To avoid presenting very extensive amounts of data, in this section we will focus only on data that relates to principle 8 ("Instruction needs to develop the ability to synthesize output such as in group lit. reviews or discussion sections of reports"). The reader who would prefer to see the full consecutive data supported discussion should move to the appendix where the full discussion is available on all ten principles, which we attempt to apply in combination in the course. In this discussion, the principal researcher's notes (R Nunn) are presented alongside the teacher's view (T. Deveci). Both of us conclude that the interaction does provide clear evidence that the creation of synthesized text is being successfully prepared in this discussion and that the students do demonstrate clear understanding of what this means, using their own choice of words such as 'blend' and 'combine'.

Principle 8	Principal researcher's view	Teacher/researcher's view
Instruction needs to develop the ability to synthesize output such as in group lit. reviews or discussion sections of reports	This activity provides evidence as to how interaction can encourage synthesis. The students clearly state their aim is to synthesize individual literature reviews into a common version. Their discussion indicates a strong understanding of synthesized writing. (text extract 19)	Students display skills of synthesizing information from different sources. Specific examples are highlighted in bold in text extract 20

The lengthy discussion in text extract 19 below illustrates a process of working out which literature goes with which research subtopic or theme and what to include or exclude. The students end up agreeing but engage in debate before doing so.

Text Extract 19 An example of developing a synthesis through interaction

H: It's because we want our [team] literature review to be cohesive – we don't want it to be segmented; one second you're reading about the workplace, then suddenly you're reading about universities. **So, these 2 (refers to material) we'll blend them, and then we'll try to connect them to all the others. There will be places where they connect, that's the whole point.**

So, techniques to improve or enhance… to enhance creativity education. No, in education.

B: For engineering students.

H: Alright, in engineering students. OK, the last 2 are actually related to skills. We have here the creativity in the teaching level, and here we have the expectations in the professional level. And these (refers to material) are all the different skills – training and skills and everything – that an engineer would require.

B: So basically, this is basically in the workplace but can also be [found] in a university.

H: Yes, it goes both ways. So, what do we call this? It's a part of skills and all the necessary skills you'd need so that in the workplace you don't need training all over again.

N: "Basics for an Engineer"?

H: No, it's not just the basics. Everything.

D: Extra assets?

H: Assets… We can say these are fundamentals and…?

B: And the…?

D: Actually they're not fundamentals.

B: They're both fundamentals and what comes after them.

H: So… it's comprehensive. It's just the basics and the extra.

D: But, they're not like necessary. They're just extra assets.

B: They are necessary.

D: Okay they are, but not like [creativity]…

H: But we're not willing to drop 3 whole sources. Because here we talk about the techniques to enhance, and there we talk about the expectations. Where do they meet? If you don't have that "link", you'll have 2 separate reviews. We want one cohesive literature review. So… engineering skills, or the variety of engineering skills.

B: You can say this one talks about creativity – how engineers need it. And this one right here talks about why it is needed. But if you think about it, without those skills, a student – an engineering student – can't be an employee. Without those skills. So this does go in the middle. With creativity, you do need those skills – they are vital to become an engineering employee.

   This [creativity] does make you a better engineer and a better employee, but without the necessary skills, you cannot cross this to the workplace.

H: Yes, it's basically just the link.

B: Yeah.

D: Yes.

In text extract 20 below, we see a discussion which entails putting the parts together, classifying the parts under themes or subtopics and also renaming a subtopic to better match the data.

Text Extract 20 – Discussion of synthesis (highlighted section in bold)

H: I had 2 articles; one of them was pretty long and the other was very, very short. But, **they almost lead to one another**. One of them was about spatial skills that engineers in general – or in order to become an engineer – you will require some spatial skills; you'll need to be good in dimensions, vectors and all these. Between different engineering disciplines (Mechanical, Electrical

etc.) you either need more spatial skills, or less. **The next article builds upon the first article by** explaining the importance of design,
I think this occurred more than once. We have engineering: the ways it's taught, good and bad. So [one relationship is] "The way engineering is taught". What else? These are the "gaps". **Our literature reviews, the points where they meet, we'll need that for the synthesis.**
For now [we'll look at] where they overlap. I think **they overlap over** the creativity topic. How to build a creative engineer
J: It's about how to make courses for students, when they graduate, to enter the workplace without traditional training from the university.
B: **This kind of relates to the third [individual literature review] theme**, which is the workplace and what they expect; how to prepare you for the workplace.
…
H: Notice that **these 2 will be complimenting each other**: this one is about the expectations of the workplace, the obstacles, how much creativity is required of a graduate engineer, and…
Where do they *meet*? If you don't have that "link", you'll have 2 separate reviews. **We want one cohesive literature review**. So… engineering skills, or the variety of engineering skills.

The Final Written Report

In the final team report, the team produces a competently written literature review which illustrates the ability to create synthesized text that was the topic of the discussion analysed above. We can identify a clear link between the text of the interaction on 'creativity' and the written version in text extract 23 below.

Text extract 23

Recently, creativity became a necessity for everybody. Everything around us has been remodelled to be creative and innovative. [1] states that creativity is a vital tool for innovation in engineering. Besides, creativity is defined as a preference for thinking in unfamiliar ways and to be able to generate proper and unique kind of work [1]. This kind of creativity is called a general creativity, which is not directed or specified to a certain field [1].
Critical thinking can be referred to as the ability to move back and forth from the real and the theoretical [2]. Due to employers' requirements, critical thinking is a quality that is greatly encouraged in students [2]. As mentioned in [2], the importance of university education is greatly emphasized; according to [2] "Critical thinking is a graduate attribute that a university education claims to instil in students and by many is seen as the defining characteristic of a university education".

While this extract also illustrates that the freshman students have acquired competence in referencing and drafting, their competence is still not fully developed

in this respect. Their literature is consecutive in the sense that each paraphrase refers to a single text (paragraph 1 to [1], paragraph 2 to [2]. There is no synthesis of two references into one paraphrase. Similarly, in text extract 24 below, the team is able to synthesize, but the last sentence illustrates a clarity issue in the phrase "in order to be able to contribute more against generating creative engineers".

Text Extract 24

> However, there are blocks against achieving creativity in engineering , such as anxiety in unusual situations, fear of the unknown or even personal reasons such shame and pride [4]. [3] mentions the serious implications of engineering practice like mental stress due to creative thinking, the idea that engineers are executors not planners, and the constraint that engineers cannot take risks. Thus, the educators need to understand the significance of creativity in engineering practices in order to be able to contribute more against generating creative engineers [3].

The conclusion is that the targeted skill of 'synthesis' is emergent, but that it is in process rather than being fully acquired. The interactive discourse within the team activity did appear to support this development.

The Team Process: Quantitative Analysis

As the team interaction appeared to indicate a strong influence by one team leader, it is interesting to evaluate the relationship between team grades and individual grades. Around 42% of the total course grade was awarded for individual work. When individual work is compared to teamwork in terms of grades (table 3.1 below), we note that the team leader (S6), who tended to dominate decision making in the discussion, scores highest individually and his grade is only minimally affected by team performance (92.3/91.7). He benefits from a slight increase in the team grade from a peer evaluation (table 3.3 below) conducted in the team. The weakest student individually (S1), although he is penalized a little by a team peer evaluation, benefits from the team grade considerably in terms of final grade (70.4/82.3 = + 11.9%). While he would have scored a low C based on his individual work, he scores a B in the course. The second weakest student, S3, appears to be in a transitional stage, where improvement is undermined by the final exam. Students 4 and 5 appear to make considerable progress in their individual performance.

Table 3.1 Individual, team and final grades compared						
	Individual work		**Teamwork**		**Final grade**	
	from 42.0	**%**	**from 58.0**	**%**	**100.0**	**Comparison with Individual grade**
S1	29.6	70.4	52.7	90.9	82.3	+ 11.9%
S2	36.3	86.4	53.2	91.7	89.5	+3.1%
S3	31.7	75.4	53.2	91.7	84.9	+ 9.5%
S4	36.8	87.6	52.8	91.0	89.6	+ 2%
S5	37.8	90.0	53.2	91.7	91.0	+1%
S6	38.7	92.3	53.2	91.7	91.9	-0.4%

We also note (table 3.2 below) that all students except S3 (who performs badly in the final exam) either maintain a good individual grade or improve their grade over the semester. This is in spite of the fact that task difficulty of the reflective writing increases requiring considerably more synthesis and text reference (combining two topics and 3 texts in the final exam, one topic and one text in the initial graded reflective writing).

Table 3.2 Individual grades in the team								
	Refl. writing 1	**Refl. writing 2**	**Lit. rev**	**Refl. writing 3**	**Personal dev.**	**Exam**	**From 42**	**%**
S1	67.5	62	80	70	60	73.25	29.6	70.4
S2	84	81.6	87	86	100	84.5	36.3	86.4
S3	74.5	81.6	87	82	90	65.75	31.7	75.4
S4	83	86	70	88	100	90	36.8	87.6
S5	84.5	86	90	90	100	89.25	37.8	90.0
S6	89.5	89.2	5.00	90	100	90	38.7	92.3

This was demonstrably a successful team in terms of the final product produced as the team scored a clear A grade. However, that all students scored an A in team assignments in spite of peer evaluations (table 3.3 below) inevitably raises questions when team members' individual performance is compared. The evidence about the process and the ethnographic perspectives of the student researcher and the teacher are then invaluable in interpreting this information.

Table 3.3 Team-written assignment grades in the team									
	MOM	**Proposal**	**Prog-repor t**	**Draf t**	**Fina l**	**Peer eval.**	**Poste r**	**Presentati on**	**From 58**	**%**

				t	rep.	rep.					
s1	90	86	100	89	92	-1.2	95	89.75	52.7	90.9
s2	90	86	100	89	92	0.0	95	92	53.2	91.7
s3	90	86	100	89	92	0.0	95	92	53.2	91.7
s4	90	86	100	89	92	0.4	95	90	52.8	91.0
s5	90	86	100	89	92	0.1	95	92	53.2	91.7
s6	90	86	100	89	92	0.6	95	92	53.2	91.7

One possible implication of the three tables, the analysis of the assignment transcripts and the discussion is that the weaker individual students do benefit from the ability of the strongest student more than from their own team contribution. This is partly confirmed by a comparison of the average grades of all 17 students in the class. The average grade for the semester's individual work is 76.71%. The average teamwork grade is 80.70%. This is not a highly significant difference, indicating that the relationship between teamwork and individual work is complex and that a multi-method approach is needed to be able to unlock the complex relationships within teams and between team and individual work. The evidence further suggests that it is difficult to make generalizations across teams and that this phenomenon requires extensive investigation to generate firm conclusions beyond any particular team. Each team has a story of its own even when engaged in the same task as illustrated partially by the teacher's retrospective view (T Deveci) of the team process below based on his semester-long interaction with the team:

> These students' engagement in learning activities both in and outside of the classroom was apparent, and the leader's overall approach to completing tasks in a timely manner contributed to the success of the team. The team was cohesive throughout the course, except for the less able member who actually joined the team at a later stage. I feel that this particular student made a strategic move by approaching this team that showed clear indications of high-level competencies. His general positive attitude, coupled by the team's welcoming nature, helped him gain acceptance. However, throughout the course it was evident that the team had lower expectations of this member. I also feel that they purposefully kept his contributions to a minimum so as not to decrease their overall development. Although this could be seen as a tactical decision for all the members' good, I think it inhibited the growth of the less able student. Had the team challenged him and assigned him with more active roles, he could have felt more valued and therefore would have had more chances of pushing his limits. He would also have been encouraged to attend classes more frequently if he had felt more capable. Taken together, it is not surprising that his marks for the individual assignments were not as high as the

ones for the team assignments. On the other hand, the other students seemed to have benefited more from the leader's management style as well as their regular attendance to class. The fact they had worked in the same team in their previous Communications course seemed to have created a positive rapport in the team, which I believe had a determining effect on their linguistic and communicative competence.

Interim Conclusions

We have provided different perspectives in an attempt to acknowledge that external and internal viewpoints, qualitative and quantitative data, interactive data, written data, individual data, team-written data combine to provide insights which we might classify as glimpses that provide phenomenological insights into the development of academic literacy. In a paper of this kind which has attempted to provide a hermeneutic analysis of data, it is important to emphasize that it would not be appropriate to propose firm conclusions, but some insights into the nature and the complexity of the team process, and the complexity of the relationship between individuals and teams do emerge. This is not a new subject as subjectivity, inter-subjectivity and objectivity have long been the subject of extensive philosophical investigation, notably by phenomenologists. It is also important to note that the phenomena under investigation do not easily lend themselves to focused study. In this paper, for example, in which we needed to examine a phenomenon in some detail, we have only been able to consider a small amount of our recorded data from just one class (less than 5%). In addition, it is not possible to record all the many hours of interaction of even one class for a whole semester so even our total data from several classes only represents a small amount of the interaction that went on in-class. If we consider all the out-of-class interaction that went on within just one team during a semester long project, it is clear that only a small proportion of the real phenomenon is available for analysis. The aim can only therefore be to provide insights into the team process of text creation and the development of the ability to create competent text.

We chose the extracts used here from our video data, because they caught the students in the process of both discussing and creating synthesized text with some competence (principle 8). We did not, however, find that this led to a perfectly synthesized final written product. We preferred to classify their writing as emergent in

terms of competence, although it is at a competent level for freshman students studying in their second language. Interesting findings about the quality of interaction within teamwork and team-based writing have also emerged. The discourse analyzed indicates that there was full participation, but there was also a clear and able leader in the discussion and we soon found strong evidence in the data that his ability also influenced the team-written report positively.

The philosophical notion of inter-subjectivity (I/we and I/you relations) that has been substantially elucidated by our study of the German philosophers' detailed work provides an interesting hermeneutic mode of interpretation of this phenomenon. Investigation into the individual work of all six team members has provided another useful angle which in many ways 'closes the loop', providing us with a multiple-angled case study of a team-based process in which there was a successful team interactive process, a successful team-written product, but different levels of individual achievement in individual tasks requiring the same skill of synthesis. The extent to which teamwork enhances and reflects individual ability of all team members is always of interest. There is some evidence that the participation of a capable peer as discussion leader enhanced the ability of some but not all other members. A similar study from our data of different (possibly less able) teams could shed further light on the essence of the same phenomenon in a future paper.

Our analysis of classroom recordings and written text in one local context has attempted to capture the essence of the phenomenon of learning in teams through interaction. We find that there is a (complex) relationship between individual learning and learning in teams and that a phenomenological approach can certainly help elucidate the phenomenon. The examination of the value and meaning of synthesized argumentation must differ from one context to another, but a detailed examination of the phenomenon in one context will help us approach a related phenomenon in another context.

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The Use of Listening Comprehension Strategies to Recall on TOEFL:
The Case of Chinese and Japanese Successful and
less Successful Listeners

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

The present preliminary study aimed to discover how listening comprehension strategies can be used to recall on TOEFL. It also summarized the differences in using listening strategies to recall the contents between successful and less successful listeners from two different cultural backgrounds. Sixty-one participants (31 Chinese and 30 Japanese students) participated in this research. The students were all required to report how they recalled the content processed by using listening strategies when performing the corresponding comprehension task. The findings suggest that there were several differences in recalling the content processed by listening comprehension strategies between successful and less successful listeners. In addition, Japanese and Chinese listeners in our sample differed in recalling the contents decoded by adopting different strategies, which contributed to their performance differences.

Keywords: culture background, listening comprehension strategies, recall on TOEFL

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Introduction

Most foreign language learners encounter difficulties when listening to the target language (Goh, 2000). Comprehending spoken English is far from easy for EFL learners, as their first language would affect their communication (Chang, 2007). Students who intend to study in America are required to submit TOEFL scores to demonstrate their English proficiency. Test-takers of TOEFL listening comprehension test are not allowed to preview questions and answer options until they finish listening to the audio material. Therefore, TOEFL listening comprehension test is a tough task for test-takers to conquer. It is common for second language listeners to employ a number of compensatory skills or strategies to facilitate their comprehension. Most previous studies focused on the effectiveness of using listening comprehension strategies (Vogel, 1995; Goh, 2002; Chang, 2008; Bianco & Guisado, 2012). These studies also highlighted the differences in the use of listening strategies between high-level and low-level language learners. However, this study investigates how Japanese and Chinese students recall the contents processed by using specific strategies when corresponding to the listening comprehension task.

Literature review

The recall of contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies

The central executive and the phonological loop are crucial elements in working memory capacity, and the phonological loop consists of holding and recalling verbal information competencies (Revesz, 2012). Therefore, listeners' recall competency is closely connected to their working memory capacity. Working memory is a dynamic system that enables individuals to maintain task-relevant information in support of complex cognitive tasks (Kane, Conway, Hambrick, & Engle, 2007). Culter (2012) claimed that speaking, listening, reading and writing are all complex cognitive tasks. According to Buck (2001), when second language learners are listening, there will be gaps in second language listening comprehension. In TOEEL listening comprehension test, listeners might use various listening strategies to facilitate listening comprehension and recall the content they understood to finish the listening

comprehension task. This process, which is facilitated by working memory capacity, involves comprehending audio information, selectively processing new information, retrieving memory and reasoning. Unsworth and Engle (2007) claimed that individuals with low working memory capacity are less proficient in making inferences than those with high working memory capacity because low working memory capacity individuals are poor at focusing on task-relevant representations and retrieving memory. A number of scholars have investigated the relationship between working memory capacity and cognitive performance (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980; Call, 1985). For instance, Daneman and Carpenter (1980) found that a reader with a more reading effective process would have more working memory capacity that could be used for storage. Call (1985) concluded that memorizing syntactically arranged word is a crucial component of proficiency in listening comprehension, which verified the role of memory working capacity in listening comprehension.

A number of scholars put forward several versions of different categorizations of listening comprehension strategies. Mental mechanisms which learners used to obtain correct interpretation and comprehension are defined as strategies (Goh, 2002). In addition, Goh (2002) distinguished the differences between strategy and tactic, and the term "tactic" is referred to individual techniques through which a general strategy is used. Vandergrift (1999) concluded three kinds of general strategies: cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies, and he proposed that these three general listening comprehension strategies could be subdivided into a number of specific tactics. The present study is conducted in accordance with Vandergrift's categorization of listening comprehension strategies and tactics. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) proposed that students are familiar with Vandergrift's classification of listening strategies as those strategies have been integrated into language classes. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) concluded that Vandergrift's categorization might facilitate the think-aloud procedure, which would be conductive to recording the strategies used by students when responding to listening comprehension tasks. In this study, given the fact that test takers of TOEFL cannot preview answer options, the researcher ruled some listening strategies out of the original classification.

Despite of the scale of tactics in different listening comprehension strategies, there are many discrepancies existing in the effective use of them between intermediate and

advanced listeners. Vogel (1995) found that linguistic proficiency might exert an influence on the use of listening strategies. Bianco and Guisado (2012) proposed that high language proficiency test-takers are capable of using listening comprehension strategies consciously and their performance will be enhanced by the use of those strategies. Chang (2008) concluded that strategies used by high language proficiency and low language proficiency students differ little in the quantity of strategies but greatly in the frequency that they are employed, the preferential order, and how they are utilized. However, some scholars are proposing that the role listening strategies may be over-estimated (Vann & Abraham, 1990; Chang, 2008). For instance, Vann and Abraham (1990) stated that advanced and less advanced listeners use the same listening strategies, and the real difference lies in the manner of how listening strategies are used. Furthermore, Chang (2008) found that other factors such as listening task type and anxiety level could affect the use of listening strategies.

Previous scholars' interests lie in how test-takers use listening comprehension strategies in the stage of listening to audio materials. However, not too many scholars have discovered how test-takers recall the content processed by the use of various listening strategies. Chang (2009) concluded that there are three stages in a listening comprehension test: before, during and after test-taking, and the listening comprehension strategies used before the test-taking phase are strongly connected to the final performance. However, as was mentioned above, test-takers are not allowed to preview questions and answer options in TOEFL listening comprehension test. They must recall what they heard when completing listening comprehension tasks.

Vogel (1995) concluded that students who perceived themselves to be the most strategic listeners outperformed students who perceived themselves to be the least strategic listeners on recall tests. It is also imperative to discover how test-takers recall the contents that are processed by the use of various listening strategies. How successful and less successful listeners differ in recalling the content processed by using listening comprehension strategies remains unanswered. Finding an answer to this question is one of the objectives of the present study.

The relationship between culture background and the use of learning strategies

On the other hand, Grainger (2012) claimed that culture background affects how

language learners choose language-learning strategies. Grainger conducted a study on how learners of Japanese in Australia chose language-learning strategies, and found that Asian students would choose more strategies than Australian students. There are similarities in learning English between Japanese and Chinese students. According to Hu (2002), there are many characteristics of how Chinese students study English. Hu claimed that Chinese students tend to focus on details, memorize what they have learnt from the textbook and reflect on their mistakes. Ding (2007) discovered that successful Chinese learners of English consider text memorization as the most effective method for acquiring English, and most of them develop the habit of memorizing texts. Oxford and Burry (1995) found out that both Japanese and Chinese English learners prefer to be active language use strategies, and these strategies include seeking opportunities to listen to English, finding ways to use English and endeavoring to talk like native speakers of English. In addition, Oxford (1996) suggested that Japanese students tend to use analytical strategies to learn foreign languages since they pay attention to the accuracy of small details, which is identical to what Hu (2002) found about Chinese learners of English. However, there are some differences in learning English between Japanese and Chinese students. For instance, Oxford (1996) pointed out that Chinese students incline to adopt affective and social strategy, while their Japanese counterparts do not prefer this strategy. Grainger (2012) claimed that Japanese students have changed their English learning strategies. Grainger proposed that Asian students adopted the strategy of rote learning in the past, but now they use more Western behaviors, such as asking questions and interacting with others. Takeuchi (2003) proposed that Japanese students usually spend much time on deep listening at the initial and intermediate stages of their English study, and they would focus on getting the gist of the input at the middle of the intermediate stage. Takeuchi also concluded that deep listening means students spend much time on taking dictation exercises and processing every aural input.

These studies demonstrated that Japanese and Chinese learners of English language adopt distinctive studying strategies. However, less attention has been paid to the study of the differences in the recall of the content decoded by using listening comprehension strategies between Japanese and Chinese students. In view of the preceding findings and gaps, another important research question is that are there

differences between Japanese and Chinese students in recalling the content processed by using listening comprehension strategies. The study asks the following two research questions.

Research questions

   1. Are there any differences in the recall of the contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies between successful and less successful listeners?
  2. Are there any differences in recalling the contents decoded by adopting listening comprehension strategies between listeners from Japan and China?

Method

Participants

There were 61 participants in this study. 31 Chinese students from different Japanese and Chinese universities participated in the study. They were preparing for TOEFL when this study was conducted. Thirty students from several the highest-ranking universities in Japan participated in the study. Both Japanese and Chinese universities divided their students into different classes based on their English proficiency. All the participants in this study were chosen from the advanced English level class in their universities. The Japanese participants were chosen from the Level C English class at their universities. Only students who can pass the special examination organized by their universities can be enrolled into the Level C English. In addition, twelve of them received their basic education in the U. S., the U. K. and Singapore. The Chinese participants were chosen from the advanced English program in their universities, and they can speak English fluently. Some Chinese participants are English majors who are experienced in translation and interpretation. Further characteristics of the participants in Table 1 include their gender, age, major and language learning background.

Table 1. Characteristics of the participants

Characteristics	The Chinese participants N=31	The Japanese participants N=30
Gender		
Female	19	16
Male	12	14
Average age	20.6	19.2
Major		
English literature	18	0
Economics	12	0
Politics	0	1
Human resources	0	2
Chemistry	1	0
Undecided	0	27
The number of participants who took TOEFL	5	4
The number of participants who were preparing TOEFL	16	2
The number of students with overseas study experience	3	12

Materials

     All Participants were required to listen to one audio lecture named *Plant life in Salt Marshes* from the authentic TOEFL listening comprehension test. There were 6 multiple-choice questions (see Appendix A). The reason why the author used only one lecture lies in the assumption that participants might forget how they recalled the listening comprehension strategies if they were given more tasks.

Instruments

A questionnaire was used. This questionnaire was designed on the basis of Vandergrift's classification of listening comprehension strategies (1997). It contains 12 leading questions (see Appendix B), the purpose of which was to discover how they recalled the listening strategies so as to complete the corresponding listening comprehension task.

Procedures

At first, the procedure of this study was introduced to the participants. Then they listened to the lecture. They were not allowed to preview both questions and possible options until they finished listening to the lecture. Next, they were asked to complete the questionnaire mentioned above. Independent Sample t-Test in SPSS 20.0 was used to get answers to the two research questions. 61 students were divided into two groups: less successful and successful listener groups. The participants received more than 3 points were sorted as the successful listener group, and those with less than or just 3 points were classified into the less successful group.

Results

Differences in using strategies to recall between successful and less successful listeners

There were several significant differences in how the successful and less successful listeners recalled the contents processed by adopting different listening comprehension strategies. As can be perceived from Table 2, there was a difference in the quantity of listening comprehension strategies used by the successful and less successful listeners when they were completing the comprehension task, 5.15 and 3.79 on average respectively.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the successful and less successful listeners

Variables	The successful listeners N=33		The less successful listeners N=28	
	M	D	M	D

Number of strategies used to recall contents by a listener	5.15	1.33	3.79	1.67

Furthermore, much attention should be given to the differences in using listening comprehension strategies to recall the important contents between successful and less successful listeners. There were 12 listening comprehension strategies listed in the questionnaire for the participants to report how they used those strategies to recall the contents when completing the comprehension task. By Independent Sample t-Test (see Table 3), five significant distinctions between the two groups of the participants were discovered by the researcher. The successful listeners were inclined to recall the gist they heard to answer the test questions ($p < 0.05$）. Compared to the less successful listeners, the successful listeners preferred to recall the details they listened to complete the questions ($p < 0.05$）. In addition, the successful listeners were more adept at recalling the content processed by referring to the mental summary in their minds to finish the comprehension task ($p < 0.05$）. Furthermore, the successful listeners tended to refer to the notes they took than their less the successful counterparts ($p < 0.05$）. Lastly, the successful listeners were expected to be more proficient in recalling the content processed by making inferences to answer questions ($p < 0.05$）.

Table 3. Differences in how the successful and less successful listeners used strategies to recall.

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I recalled the main point in this lecture to choose my response	-2.950	59	.005
I recalled the details I heard to choose my response	-3.395	59	.001
I recalled the content processed by referring to the mental summary in	-2.893	59	.005

my mind to choose my response			
I recalled the content in the notes to choose my response	-3.735	59	.000
I recalled the content processed by making inferences to choose my response	-2.499	59	.015

Differences in using strategies to recall between the Chinese and Japanese listeners

There was a difference in the quantity of listening comprehension strategies used by the Chinese and Japanese listeners in this study to recall the contents in the lecture, 4.74 and 4.3 on average respectively (see Table 4), but the distinction was not statistically different.

Table 4. Differences in using strategies between the Chinese and Japanese listeners

Variables	The Chinese listeners N=31		The Japanese listeners N=30	
	M	D	M	D
Number of strategies used to recall contents	4.74	1.26	4.3	1.56

The researcher found out that there were some major differences in recalling the contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies between the Japanese and Chinese participants (see Table 5). The Japanese students were more sensitive to the tone of the speaker than the Chinese participants ($p < 0.05$）. Conversely, The Chinese students were more likely than their Japanese counterparts to recall the contents processed by referring to the mental summary in their minds and the academic background knowledge to answer questions ($p < 0.05$）. Moreover, the Chinese students were more dependent on social-affective strategy as they were more likely to encourage themselves when facing difficulties ($p < 0.05$）.

Table 5. Differences in how the Chinese and Japanese listeners used strategies to recall

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I recalled the content processed by focusing on the tone of the lecturer to choose my response	-3.552	59	.001
I recalled the content processed by referring to my prior knowledge to choose my response	2.404	59	.019
I recalled the content processed by referring to the mental summary in my mind to choose my response	2.585	59	.012
I could encourage myself when I encountered difficulties	5.216	59	.000

Discussion

Differences between the successful and less successful listeners

Based on the data collected, the competency of recalling the contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies was closely correlated with the final performance, which completes the statement that listening comprehension strategies used before the test-taking phrase are strongly connected to the final performance (Chang, 2009). The most pertinent reason could help to explain this conclusion is that students employ different strategies when facing different test formats. Chang (2008) proposed that various listening tasks could affect how students adopt strategies. Due to the unique test format of TOEFL, students would invest much energy when responding to the comprehension task; therefore it is necessary for them to take advantage of their working memory capacity, particularly, the recall capacity.

In this study, the successful listeners could employ more strategies to finish the comprehension task, which is in line with Goo's (2010) finding that working memory capacity is closely correlated to higher order cognitive functioning such as reading comprehension, reasoning and intelligence. As a complex cognitive functioning, being proficient in using working memory capacity to recall various listening

comprehension strategies is significant. This viewpoint could also be used to explain why successful listeners are good at recalling the summary in their minds and referring to the notes they took.

In addition, the researcher discovered that the successful listeners were proficient at recalling the gist and details they heard and the inferences they made in this study. Several reasons can be used to support this statement. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) concluded that there are two main listening strategies, top-down and bottom up strategies. Students would draw the main idea of and focus on the details of a lecture consciously. Successful listeners would combine these two strategies better. Goh (2002) proposed that advanced listeners are more adept in making inferences than intermediate ones, which could explain why successful listeners are good at making inferences and recalling them.

Differences between the Chinese and Japanese listeners

The differences between the Japanese and Chinese listeners in recalling the contents decoded by adopting listening comprehension strategies were connected to their final performance. In this study, the Japanese participants gave priority to recalling details and the tone of the speaker, which is in line with Oxford's (1996) finding that Japanese students tend to use analytical strategies to learn foreign languages since they pay attention to the accuracy of small details. In contrast, the Chinese participants were adept in recalling academic background and the mental summary in their minds. The reason is that most of the Chinese participants in this study were preparing for TOEFL, thus they might have had more background knowledge on the topic of the passage than their Japanese counterparts. Ding (2007) discovered that successful Chinese learners of English consider text memorization as the most effective method for acquiring English, which may contribute to explaining why the Chinese students were good at recalling their mental summaries. The Chinese students might have a better recall competency than their Japanese counterparts. Lastly, based on the result of the study, more Chinese listeners encouraged themselves when responding to difficult listening comprehension tasks, which is in accordance with Oxford's (1996) finding that Chinese students are more inclined than their Japanese counterparts to adopt affective and social strategies. Admittedly, there is a

limitation in the present study that only one lecture was used. This is caused by the possibility that the participants might forget how they used listening comprehension strategies to recall the context. Future researchers are suggested to choose more lectures with various topics to conduct similar research.

Pedagogical Implications

The authentic intention of this research is not to promote the use of listening comprehension strategies. In recent years, English learners are instructed by their teachers to use listening comprehension strategies. However, according to Goh (2002), the strategy training in general education has been questioned. In traditional English listening comprehension classes, students are usually required to listen to various English listening comprehension materials mechanically. Nevertheless, the role of recall has been ignored for quite a long time. Given the fact that, the recall competency is highly correlated with listeners' performance, teachers should add the element of training students' working memory capacity to the traditional English listening comprehension class; For instance, they should be required to recall and retell the listening comprehension material they listened.

As mentioned above, all participants in this study are proficient in English, but they performed differently in this listening comprehension test. Some participants in this study claimed that they would forget the contents in the notes they took easily. Thus, teachers are supposed to guide students on how to take detailed and logical notes and more importantly how to refer to the notes calmly when responding to the comprehension task.

It is advisable for teachers to design a new curriculum that combines the intensive listening comprehension practice with the training of recall capacity. In other words, much attention should be paid to the training of the intensive listening practice. Nowadays, students are inclined to pursue an effortless way to improve their English listening comprehension competency. Students are without difficulty to be captivated by ineffective test-taking skills, which would exert a negative influence on their future English study. Therefore, college English teachers have the responsibility to enable students to understand the roles of practicing English listening comprehension intensively and recalling details in listening materials logically.

Although the researcher could not attribute why the Chinese participants outperformed their Japanese peers to the fact that the Chinese students in our sample were adept in encouraging themselves when facing difficulties on TOEFL listening comprehension test, role of the affective strategy should be recognized and promoted. Students need encouragements from their teachers, and they should also be enlightened on how to cope with difficulties on various listening comprehension test so as to improve their self-efficacy.

Conclusions

The study investigated how listening comprehension strategies can be utilized to recall on TOEFL. The researcher also conducted a comparison of recalling contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies between successful and less successful listeners from two different cultural backgrounds. The study showed that successful listeners are more competent in recalling the contents decoded by using listening comprehension strategies. Successful listeners tend to recall the gist and details they heard and the inferences they made. In addition, they are more proficient in making use of the notes they took and recalling the abstract summary in their minds. This verifies the role of working memory capacity in listening comprehension tests.

Lastly, some differences in recalling the contents processed by using listening comprehension strategies between Japanese and Chinese students were discovered. Japanese students are more sensitive to recall the content processed by paying attention to the tone of a speaker while Chinese students prefer to recall the contents decoded by referring to their prior background knowledge and mental summaries. Furthermore, Chinese students are more likely to deploy social and affective strategies when they respond to test questions.

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Appendix A

Listening comprehension task

Q1. What is the lecture mainly about?

A. The effect of the tidal flow on the salt marsh

B. Ways that some plants have adapted to living in salt marshes

C. The process of osmosis in plants

D. Differences between plants that grow in salt marshes and plants that grow elsewhere

Q2. What is one result of reverse osmosis in the spartina?

A. Salt from seawater strengthens the plant's cells.

B. All parts of the plant are able to receive oxygen.

C. Salt evaporates oil the stems and leaves of the plant.

D. Water is unable to move across the plant cell walls.

Q3. Why does the professor mention reddish mud on the roots of a spartina?

A. To illustrate the high density of salt-marsh soil

B. To explain how spartina rhizomes move through the soil

C. To point out the problems spartinas face in getting fresh water

D. To provide evidence that oxygen is present in the spartina's root

Q4. In what way are rhizomes important for spartinas?

A. They allow plants to remain cool in direct sunlight

B. They reduce the possibility of plants being uprooted during storms

C. They help plants in dense soil process oxygen.

D. They reduce the concentration of salt in the surrounding seawater.

Q5. What can be inferred about the process that prevents spartinas from breaking in violent storms?

A. It is the same process that helps them survive being immersed in saltwater.

B. The process is also responsible for causing their air tubes to form.

C. The process sometimes damages their rhizomes.

D. Many other pants have developed a similar process.

Q6. Why does the professor say this?

A. To point out an incorrect conclusion

B. To clarify the meaning of a term

C. To admit that there is little evidence of the phenomenon she just described

D. To emphasize the difference between a fact and an opinion

Appendix B

Questionnaire

How did you choose your answer opinion to each question?

1.Directed attention: I recalled the main point in the lecture to choose my response.

2.Selective attention: I recalled the details I heard to choose my response.

3.Lingusitic inference: I recalled the meaning of the word I had guessed to choose my response.

4.Voice inference: I recalled the content processed by focusing on the tone of the lecturer to choose my response

5.Academic elaboration: I recalled the content processed by referring to my prior background knowledge to choose my response.

6.Imagery: I recalled the picture depicting the content of the lecture to choose my response.

7.Summerization: I recalled the content processed by referring to the mental summary in my mind to choose my response

8.Note taking: I recalled the notes I had taken to choose my response.

9. Inferencing between parts: I recalled the content processed by making inferences to choose my response

10.Grouping: I recalled the content processed by analyzing the relationship between sentences in the lecture to choose my response.

11.Translation: I recalled the understanding in my mother language to choose my response.

12.I encouraged myself when encountering difficulties.

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6
Your response						
The strategies you used to recall the contents when choosing response to each question.						