Korea TESOL Journal

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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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Korea TESOL Journal

The *Korea TESOL Journal* is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. The *Journal* focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. Two issues of the *Journal* are published annually.

As the *Journal* is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to the application of theory to practice in our profession, submissions reporting relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to teaching in the Korean setting are particularly welcomed.

The *Journal* is also committed to the fostering of scholarship among Korea TESOL members and throughout Korea. As such, classroom-based papers, i.e., articles arising from genuine issues of the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. The *Journal* aims to support all scholars by welcoming research from early-career researchers to senior academics.

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About Korea TESOL

Korea TESOL (KOTESOL; Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their professional development and to contribute to the improvement of English language teaching (ELT) in Korea. Korea TESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL (TESOL International Association), an international education association of almost 12,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as an associate of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), an international education association of over 4,000 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL had its beginnings in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) and the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE) agreed to unite. Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals, Korea TESOL seeks to cooperate with other groups having similar concerns.

Korea TESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL and IATEFL but also with PAC (the Pan-Asian Consortium of Language Teaching Societies), consisting of JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching), ThaiTESOL (Thailand TESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Association of the Republic of China/Taiwan), FEELTA (Far Eastern English Language Teachers' Association, Russia), and PALT (Philippine Association for Language Teaching, Inc.). Korea TESOL is also associated with MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association), TEFLIN (Indonesia), CamTESOL (Cambodia), ELTAM/Mongolia TESOL, MAAL (Macau), HAAL (Hong Kong), ELTAI (India), and most recently with BELTA (Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association). Korea TESOL also has partnership arrangements with numerous domestic ELT associations.

The membership of Korea TESOL includes elementary school, middle school, high school, and university-level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has nine active chapters throughout the nation: Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts of Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a diverse, inclusive, and multicultural membership.

Korea TESOL holds an annual international conference, a national conference, workshops, and other professional development events, while its chapters hold monthly workshops, annual conferences, symposia, and networking events. Also organized within Korea TESOL are various SIGs (special interest groups) – e.g., Reflective Practice, Classroom Management, Social Justice, Christian Teachers, Research, Women and Gender Equality, Young Learners and Teens – which hold their own meetings and events.

Visit *https://koreatesol.org/join-kotesol* for membership and event information.

Research Papers

Exploring the Approach of Eliminating Pushed Output in EFL Classes

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This paper draws from the literature on pushed output in Asian EFL contexts to support the claim that conventional EFL classes may be too ethnocentric and stress-inducing in their approach to offer lasting benefits to Asian learners from comparatively more reserved cultures than what is typically found in the West. Emphasis in this study was placed on Korean learners, but the literature was drawn from various Asian countries. Discussions and findings from this study can be applied to similar cultures across Asia. A case is made for the adoption of an input-dominant approach and the elimination of pushed output in the EFL classroom, and a practical model for implementing and researching such an approach is offered, including recommended resources and assessment materials. The goal of the paper is to offer a pathway for teachers to question typical EFL procedures that are a mainstay in the industry and *look* good from the perspective of teacher trainers and TEFL programs yet may lack the key elements of independent learning and engaging input that has been shown to be affective in language acquisition and may be more effective for Asian learners.

Keywords: eliminating pushed output, input dominant approach, language acquisition, SRS, independent language learning, EFL in Asian cultures

INTRODUCTION

A common problem concerning English language education in Korean universities is that even after 12 years of schooling, most learners still have poor English-speaking skills. This is not just a common reality that can be observed by those in the field but is

evidenced by the average to below average TOEFL iBT speaking scores of Korean test takers in comparison to other nations (Jeon, 2010; TOEFL iBIT test score, 2021). Teachers and students recognize this, and both value the need to improve speaking skills as a priority. However, the root of the problems lies in the emphasis of public education testing being placed on grammar and writing, which has had the knock-on effect of speaking and general conversation skills being neglected (Fauziah & Nita, 2001; Sakui, 2004; Spawa & Hassan, 2013). This effect is something that, even if changed, has no bearing on current university students who have already been through such a system. The recognition of needing to improve speaking skills, in opposition to vocabulary memorization and grammar studies dominating conventional classrooms, has led to the prevalence of EFL conversational classroom environments wherein output is forced, and students are expected to behave in culturally contradictory ways through activities designed to be lively and highly interactive. For many college students taking mandatory English classes, this has led to an increase in stress, lower motivation to learn English, and no great advances in speaking development.

This rang true in my own teaching context, having taught compulsory EFL conversational classes to Korean university students while writing this paper. A focus on popular conversational EFL textbooks and curricula that emphasize pushed output creates the impression of a different or unique class and gives the students the experience of more interactivity than they are used to. However, language competence tends to remain stagnant, and the discomfort and anxiety that students have about speaking English is often described as a burden, even when activities are level-dependent and designed to be engaging, stimulating, and fun. Clearly, pushed output is not the answer in this environment. The implementation and effectiveness of a teaching approach focused on input and eliminating pushed output will therefore be explored, and a model for others to further this research and assist in making curriculum design more contextually appropriate for Korean EFL learners will be offered. Additionally, the same problems explored and outlined in this paper have also been observed across Asia (and most notably for this paper, China and Japan, as these are two regions in which the author has experience at the university level). As a result, the research, findings, discussions, and recommendations in this paper will apply to (and draw from) similar contexts wherein a vigorous Western -centric approach based on communicative EFL methods emphasizing

pushed output may not be producing the desired results.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Stress and Anxiety in the EFL Classroom

In a study on Chinese EFL learners focusing on output, Zhang (2011) provided categorical insight into areas causing anxiety for many learners when faced with pushed output: an inability to express ideas, insufficient practice, a fear of tests (i.e., performance anxiety), a lack of knowledge about the topic, and low self-confidence. Khan (2015) studied speaking anxiety among Pakistani learners and found similar sources of anxiety. As a result, the inclusion of unsupportive classroom environments making students feel judged (i.e., constant evaluations), a fear of mistakes, introverts not wanting to speak openly (regardless of the language), pronunciation difficulties, complex grammar rules and vocabulary (also noted by Lightbrown and Spada, 2006, as sources of anxiety), overthinking, and the belief of needing to sound like a "native speaker" were added to the list.

The same sources of anxiety have been identified again and again in different classroom environments around Asia. Other researchers that have come to almost identical conclusions include Andrade (2009), Chan and Wu (2004), Chan et al. (2012), Cheng (2012), Miskam and Saidalvi (2019), Tian (2019), and many others. Stress and anxiety stemming from pushed output create roadblocks to acquisition, such as those identified by Tian (2019) when studying Korean college students. These roadblocks include repeated unconscious behaviors (e.g., fiddling, smiling, clapping), speech disturbances, silence, slow speaking, increased errors, and poor recall (Tian, 2019). Iqbal (2016) noted that adult Pakistani EFL learners experiencing anxiety would also display the above tendencies, along with aloofness, increased shyness, and anti-social behavior.

These behaviors are reflective of what Du (2009) refered to as *communication apprehension* (CA), an individual level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons. Another way of referring to this is by referring to the impact of these manifested behaviors on each student's *affective filter*, a common term in the field of ESL to refer to a "barrier" created by mental and emotional factors that hinder students' ability to acquire

language (Dulay & Burt, 1977, cited by Du, 2009). In sum, we can say that pushed output raises the affective filters of Asian learners, and by some margin!

The Rise and Pitfalls of Pushed Output

If so many authors have consistently observed the negatives of pushed output, how is it that its use is assumed to be so effective and has become widely used in EFL classes? One reason could be the theoretical popularity of Swain's (1985) comprehensible output hypothesis, which proposes that output heightens comprehension alertness and pushes students to notice their own errors and adjust accordingly. In other words, the interaction between the output and its modified form is part of the learning process. Even so, Swain does not claim that output forms a dominant role in acquisition. Instead, he states that the above happens sometimes in certain contexts and facilitates learning alongside input (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Output is not the dominant factor: How can a student notice errors without first becoming accustomed to the correct form? L2 speakers are likely to produce incorrect modifications and, as discovered by Auerbach (1993), will rely on proficiency dependent grammar rules and explanations and thinking through errors rather than on what sounds right.

What we want is to get a feel for the language and know when something sounds and "feels" right so that it can be naturally and automatically recognized or produced, and this requires lots of input (Kauffman, 2003; Lomb, 1983). Ironically, CLT and task-based approaches were partially implemented as a means to reduce stress by using language naturally while focusing on encompassing a goal and using authentic materials without directly focusing on language (Ramamuruthy, 2019). However, this is theoretical. Output is still forced as the classroom is not a natural context, testing is still linked to the grammar in these activities, and the approaches have not overcome the many sources of anxiety highlighted in various Asian EFL contexts.

The numerous studies on learner anxiety in EFL classes referenced so far indicate that speaking, particularly when pushed to use unfamiliar structures in demanding environments, and specifically within comparatively conservative Asian cultures, is uncomfortable for students and gets in the way of acquisition.

Furthermore, the concept of pushed output has promoted the notion

of "English only" in the classroom. Apart from this notion being based on theories, untested logic, assumptions, and the norm, it may also be rooted in ideology and serves to promote social and cultural imbalance and inequality (Auerbach, 1993). Being outspoken, extroverted, and openly discussing contrasting opinions in a lively manner are all Western norms and linked to dominant English-speaking cultures, but these characteristics are not intrinsic to the language. There is no reason why a comparatively reserved culture, where the norm is to listen more than to speak and where lively interactive classes are not usual, should use the language in the same way. Instead of using roleplays, games, drama, forced contexts, and "fun" to coax Korean learners into behaving as expected and maximizing output (see various such proposed activities from Aryn, 2021; Carlson, 2016; Fatimah, 2019; and Norhaidi et al., 2019), a better alternative may be to match the language to the culture – English is a lingua franca after all – to be used as its users see fit according to their own cultural context. Removing use of the L1 removes an element of this cultural context from the classroom and limits autonomy, while also removing a tool that could counter stress. Allowing students to rely on the L1 when needed and self-regulate when the L2 will be used increases opportunities to participate and learn from peers, reduces the need for intervention from the teacher, and results in learners consciously attempting to use the L2 more (Auerbach, 1993).

Exploring the Elimination of Pushed Output

The question, then, is can all pushed output be removed from the EFL classroom while still promoting language acquisition and improving speaking competence? This would mean complete reliance on reading and listening, with speaking in the L2 seen as optional. In such an approach, focus would be kept on L2 content but in a low-anxiety environment wherein students could listen to others, increase engagement, contribute freely in the L1, and have the autonomy to practice L2 output, if and when they felt capable. This runs counter to the idea of "improving speaking by speaking," but as Krashen (1998) explained, high levels of language competence are possible without output, and there is no direct evidence that comprehensible output leads to language acquisition. It remains to be seen if the language competence mentioned includes speaking competence, and this is where there is a gap in the literature. There are no studies of EFL classes wherein only

input was used to improve all language skills, so it is unknown if such an approach could work to eliminate the stress caused by pushed output while still achieving the desired language learning goals (including improved speaking competence).

In exploring, creating, and testing such a method, however, we can draw inspiration from the existing literature on input. According to Krashen (2017), the best way to fast-track language acquisition is to get a lot of comprehensible, very interesting, rich input, and it is recommended that this comes in the form of self-selected reading. In a study of Japanese language learners, where students had to read books and log their progress, Mason and Krashen (2017) found that every hour of self-selected reading translated into a score increase of 0.6 points on the TOEIC exam, regardless of level and book read (and with no studying or comprehension tests). The stories read should be interesting to the reader, and no testing about the content should be involved. Reading leverages the power of incidental learning, and comprehension tests on texts being read actually reduce comprehension and retention due to focus being shifted from the story towards trying to remember words and information. This was highlighted in an investigation into why Korean college students did not read English books for pleasure, along with the conclusion that reading was avoided due to the association with comprehension checks in class (Cho & Krashen, 2020).

Krashen suggests that exposure to interesting stories (for pleasure and in a low-stress environment) builds vocabulary and familiarity with text structure as well as motivation to read more, which should lead to students selecting their own content, and this builds the bridge to the acquisition of higher-level academic language (Krashen, 2018). The development of a larger vocabulary and increased grammar understanding during this process cannot be understated. Along with these, extensive reading enables a more advanced expression of ideas, a higher speaking vocabulary, and better overall communication skills (Mart, 2012).

A further method of increasing comprehensibility and providing students with examples of pronunciation while reading is to listen to and read the same content (simultaneously and separately), which provides richer input and the acquisition required to later produce language. Supporters of cognitive load theory may claim that reading and listening at the same time has been shown to decrease comprehension due to cognitive overload (Luchini, 2015), but this only makes sense when

keeping in mind that comprehension tests reduce comprehension due to a shifting of cognitive processes. In other words, comprehension and comprehensibility are not the same. When listening and reading at the same time, without turning it into an academic exercise to be tested on afterwards, comprehensibility increases, which serves as a benefit towards acquisition. Studies focusing on the link between listening and reading at the same time and vocabulary gain (rather than comprehension) show a clear positive correlation (see Chang, 2011, for a good example).

When combined with reading aloud, there is also the potential to improve pronunciation, firstly due to repeated exposure to the sounds of the language so that the ear can be "trained," and more directly through reading aloud with the story. Reading aloud for just five minutes a day over the course of an academic semester has been linked to improved pronunciation as well as eventually improving grammar and speaking skills (Seo, 2014). This can arguably be classified pushed output, but if used as a group (and/or if done simultaneously with the teacher or a recording), it functions more as a mechanical pronunciation practice and should reduce stress. This introduces a question that needs to be addressed before attempting an approach that eliminates pushed output: Does all pushed output result in enough stress to hinder acquisition (and therefore need to be eliminated), or are their certain types of pushed output that should be eliminated first? Answering this question will help to assuage concerns about the baby being thrown out with the bathwater. It is also an important step in finding a bridge between traditional EFL classes and a completely different approach that eliminates pushed output entirely.

It seems that a level of intuition can be relied on here to reach this answer in combination with the evidence presented above: When we speak of pushed output, we are referring to when students are forced to speak spontaneously, relying on their current limited conversational ability, with the expectation that they will be able to produce the correct utterances within the context of the current classroom activity (whether they feel ready to or not, or have the expected and assumed abilities or not). We are not talking about simply reading aloud, which requires no spontaneous construction of language. A classroom involves people, and people will and must speak, regardless of whether the philosophy of the classroom rests on a foundation of eliminating pushed output. Therefore, the aim is not to eliminate all utterances. It is to eliminate the stress of

being forced to produce English utterances before being ready to do so, or even if ready, when not willing to do so due to the potential stress and unnaturalness of a conversational EFL classroom (along with the expectations often associated to such classes). Reading interesting, comprehensible content aloud is more in the realm of adding pronunciation training and more dynamic layers to the input received and enhancing that input. It is also an acceptable activity, even when emphasis is placed on the elimination of pushed output.

In sum, the literature highlights the need for a course permeated with comprehensible input, interesting content, self-selected reading, complementary listening, an acceptance of the L1, use of the L2 when comfortable, and no pushed output or traditional comprehension testing. These elements should inform any program or study that wishes to adhere to this philosophy, but there is one element still missing. If high-pressured testing environments contribute to stress, and the aim of the proposed approach is to reduce stress, how can the realities of academic classes needing formative and summative assessments be overcome, particularly when comprehension and vocabulary checks may counter the positive effects of reading? The suggested answer for this paper lies in the Goldlist method.

Low-Stress Review and Assessment

The Goldlist method, a pen-and-paper, spaced repetition system (SRS), was created by David James (see James, 2018) and designed to enhance review, increase retention, and reduce the stress of memorizing word lists and daily cramming, as Korean learners tend to do. While an electronic option, such as Anki, could suffice as well, and has already proven to increase vocabulary retention in academic settings (Seibert Hanson & Brown, 2020; Varela, 2020), it has also been shown to induce boredom among students and eventual reluctance to use the app (Seibert Hanson & Brown, 2020). In contrast, the Goldlist method aims to be an enjoyable and pleasant experience (James, 2018). While the exact method has no studies to point to, spaced repetition systems come in many forms and have been proven to offer excellent results for retention (Kang, 2016; Tabibian, 2019; Teninbaum, 2016). Utilizing such a system will match the aims of an input dominant approach, give students direct control over their own review and formative assessments, and eliminate much of the performance anxiety that comes from frequent evaluations,

while simultaneously serving as review and increasing L2 language retention. For a simple explanation of the Goldlist method that can be shared (as is or modified) with students and other instructors (see Machova, 2021; Appendix A).

To test the effectiveness of the prescribed approach, some form of testing to determine pre- and post-course proficiency will be required, so these tests, along with any associated anxiety they may cause, cannot be avoided, but an important component here is that these tests should not be linked to content from the class. Instead, they must function as types of vocabulary and speaking proficiency tests. This approach should minimize the impact of impending evaluations affecting the in-class atmosphere and also enable different groups to take the same test, even if the classes are different (in the event of different classes being needed, such as a control group being compared to a group of students receiving the elimination of the pushed-output approach, or even in testing other variations within the approach between different groups). Suggested tests that can be used for this purpose can be found in Appendix B and Appendix C and are further explained under the Assessing the Effectiveness of an Input-Focused EFL Class section.

The next logical question to answer then is what does a course permeated with comprehensible input, interesting content, self-selected reading, complementary listening, an acceptance of the L1, use of the L2 when comfortable, and no pushed output or traditional comprehension testing look like? This paper would like to offer a suggested approach to teaching a class in this way, which has been designed to be as practical as possible, while adhering to all of the elements above. Additionally, ideas for resources will be offered (both paid and free, as well as online and offline). The approach will assume a 90-minute class length, which can be adjusted as necessary by shortening Phase 2 below.

A Sample Input-Focused EFL Class Without Pushed Output

In the first class, students must be given instructions to select an English book (from the university library, public library, home, or a bookstore) and/or must be given resources for interesting sources of English reading online. This material will be used as self-selected reading, not as the core content for the course curriculum. Therefore, the only criteria for this content is that it must be appropriate for the student (i.e., at a matching level and interesting for the learner). Note that

interest takes preference even if the content is slightly above the level of the learner, as a boring book will be poor motivation to keep reading on one's own. Ideally, a graded reader will be used, as these are designed for language learners, and the recommended pre-course test offered in this paper will pinpoint each learner's vocabulary level, thereby making it easy to choose an appropriate book. Most university libraries should be equipped with graded readers, and for those institutes interested in browsing the available options and ordering in the future, an extensive list of graded reader publishers and titles is made available by the Extensive Reading Foundation (Comprehensive List [Test], 2023). For free online options where learners can find stimulating content, teachers can recommend (a) Engoo Daily News (Daily News, 2023) to students, which offers leveled current news stories; (b) Wikipedia in Simple English (Simple English Wikipedia, 2023), which is the lesser-known spin-off of the popular online encyclopedia but with all articles modified to be at a B2 English level; and (c) EFL BITS (Skip, n.d.), which offers a lot of free quality reading materials with audio. It must be stressed though that self-selected reading should be compelling to be effective (Mason & Krashen, 2017), so it is best for a learner to select materials that may be above their level but are extremely interesting to the learner rather than something that is easier but offers no personal interest.

For course materials, interesting stories or sections of a story will be chosen for each lesson. The preferences of different teachers, and the contexts in which they operate, will dictate the choice of materials, but two good example sources that teachers can use for this are a book titled *English Short Stories for Beginners and Intermediate Learners* (Language Guru, 2019) and the website *American Literature* (American Literature, 2022), which has many great children's stories suitable for beginner to lower-intermediate students and do not look like typical children's stories on the surface (thereby making them suitable for older EFL learners). One of the websites recommended above for self-selected reading can also be used, but it is then best to omit it as a student recommendation so that there is no overlap.

The Input-Focused EFL Class Sequence

Classes will follow a three-phase format.

Phase 1

Students do distillations of the lists made in previous classes using the Goldlist method (this can be done from Week 3 and afterwards). For an explanation of the Goldlist method and how to do a "distillation" (see Machova, 2021; Appendix A).

Phase 2

A new lesson with new content will then begin, with students moving through each step outlined in Phase 2.

1. Learners will only listen to the story (the teacher will read, or audio can be used if it is available).
2. They will read the story while listening at the same time.
3. Then, students will read the story on their own, while making a note of words and phrases in the story that are not familiar and get in the way of understanding.
4. They will look these words up and add them to their SRS lists (writing down the full sentence and the Korean translation).
5. They will read and listen to the story at the same time again.
6. They will only then listen to the story for a final time.
7. In groups, students will get a list of English questions related to the story (but not testing comprehension of the story directly), which they will discuss with their group.

As an example of the discussion questions in Part 7 above, if a story talks about a man who was lost in the wilderness for seven years and hunted birds to survive, a poor choice of questions would be "How many years was the man trapped in the wilderness?" or "What did he eat?" as these test comprehension. Good question examples are "What would you do if you were lost in the wilderness?" or "Can you share a time when you were lost?" as these require personal interpretation about the story and remove the feeling of being in a stressful testing environment. Learners are free to answer questions in the L1 or L2.

The Phase 2 sequence is repeated as many times as possible over the course of 60 minutes, which could be once for a longer story, or twice or more for shorter stories. The level and pace of the class will also determine what can be covered, which will be up to each teacher to determine according to their own teaching context.

Phase 3

This is the final phase of the lesson and focuses entirely on self-selected reading. Students move through the following steps:

1. Students will be given 10−15 minutes to read English books or other publications that they have selected for themselves (see the above section, A Sample Input-Focused EFL Class Without Pushed Output).
2. Then, they will be given 10 minutes to add vocabulary from the self-selected reading to their SRS lists.
3. Finally, in groups, they will share what they read for the day and what they thought about it (they are free to use the L1 or L2 as they see fit) for 5−10 minutes.

Assessing the Effectiveness of an Input-Focused EFL Class

The course will feature three types of assessments that will be used five times in total to determine the vocabulary scores, speaking test scores, as well as the stress and anxiety levels of students when using this approach:

- Assessment 1: The updated Vocabulary Levels Test (Webb et al., 2017) will be used as a pre- and post-test to measure the student's vocabulary size.
- Assessment 2: A conversational speaking test will be used as a pre- and post-test to measure the student's conversational speaking ability (see Appendix B).
- Assessment 3: A stress and anxiety questionnaire will be administered as a post-test to measure the student's perceived stress and anxiety experienced in class for each of the teaching methods (see Appendix C).

The updated Vocabulary Levels Test is a 5000-word level test consisting of 50 questions (10 for each 1000-word family level). It is designed for measuring the vocabulary size and knowledge of beginner to intermediate English learners. Scores are interpreted separately based on each level, with a score of 95% indicating mastery for each of the first three levels and 80% for the final two levels. To assist with simplicity of scoring, the total scores will be multiplied by 100 to gain

a final figure representing how many of the total 5000 words are known. The paper version of the test, created by Webb et al. (2017), is recommended and can be found online for free, along with other types of tests, from the Victoria University of Wellington website (Vocabulary tests, 2023). An online version of the test can be accessed on the associated Vocabulary Size website (Vocabularysize.com test, 2023).

The conversational speaking test is a one-to-one speaking test designed by the author to evaluate the learners' speaking ability based on accuracy, pronunciation, fluency, and quality. It aims to test general conversational ability and has a simple form of assessment in which the instructor listens carefully for all classes of error and jots down a mark for each class error within each sentence uttered. The number of marks is combined and then subtracted from 100 to produce a total speaking score. This reverse approach (i.e., listening for errors in real-time rather than needing to determine a score based on performance after the fact) was determined so that any instructor could count errors and come to the same score, without the need for subjective interpretation. The test sequence and grading guide can be found in Appendix B.

The stress and anxiety questionnaire, also designed by the author to match the approach outlined in this paper, is a questionnaire that utilizes a Likert scale to ask students to rate their level of perceived in-classroom stress and anxiety while taking part in each classroom activity. This questionnaire produces a stress and anxiety score out of 100. It can be found in Appendix C.

An Open Invitation

The assessment materials listed above, particularly the stress and anxiety test, are not just designed to be used in isolation to assess the effectiveness of an input-dominant approach to teaching EFL classes in Korean universities. The materials also serve as tools for other instructors (including those in other teaching contexts) to test and research this approach for themselves, and to do so in comparison to traditional EFL classes and teaching methods that they may currently be using. For those who wish to undertake these types of research studies, the author of this paper offers an open invitation to use all methods and materials contained in this paper as they deem fit. If more collaboration and support is needed, the author can be contacted. For example, traditional EFL classroom procedures and matching stress and anxiety

tests that can be used for control groups. However, the best approach would be for instructors to use their current approaches in comparison and to explore ways in which they can add modifications that increase input and decrease stress within their own TESOL contexts.

CONCLUSIONS

While it seems intuitive and logical that the best way to improve speaking ability is to speak, and to design classes that motivate and force students to speak is the key to improving their communicative ability, this approach runs the risk of forcing Western ethnocentric notions into the Korean EFL arena, while going through the motions of what looks good and has become acceptable in the TEFL world. The literature indicates that pushed output causes stress in learners, and also that stress decreases learners' ability to acquire language. High amounts of engaging input, specifically reading, and ideally reading combined with listening, results in proven gains in proficiency test scores, along with overall communicative competence. These gains go beyond what have been observed from traditional EFL classes or the rote methods and grammar-focused approaches that have dominated the Korean language-learning education system. It is not enough for EFL teachers to assume that a "fun," lively, and engaged class, which may only rely on a few outspoken individuals to achieve, is a successful class nor to assume that pushed output will result in improved English communicative competence beyond utterances within the classroom. Without sufficient input, successful output is not possible.

Furthermore, without being shown how to use English content to engage with and learn the language independently and build a strong foundation that has been shown to lead to successful output in time, it is likely that Korean learners will continue to take required EFL classes year after year while still producing stagnant proficiency test results in comparison to other non-English-speaking countries. While it isn't necessary to forcefully eject all forms of pushed output from the field of EFL in Asia and to forgo all that has been taught about communicative approaches in recent years, the author of this paper does hope that the approach described here causes instructors to think more carefully about what really works when learning a language and not just what *looks* like a successful EFL class. The idea is not to eject all L2

output but to (a) tailor classes to the Korean cultural climate (or other similar cultural contexts in which instructors may find themselves) and to (b) emphasize the overwhelmingly important role that input, independent learning with engaging material, and language in context (i.e., stories) play in language acquisition.

Korean culture and the cultures of other Asian countries are vastly different from Western regions of the world, so perhaps it is best to think differently about how language learning is approached in each region and to remember that English is a lingua franca to be used and developed by each culture and not to mimic cultures that rely on it as an L1. This paper argues that an input-based approach that seeks to eliminate pushed output can be applied to EFL classes, which may reduce the lively perception of traditional EFL classes, but may also serve Korean students better and assist Asian learners in general to produce practical, positive results that align with the local culture, still adhere to proven principles of language acquisition, and offer long-term gains in overall English proficiency.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX A

The Goldlist Method Explanation

The Goldlist method will help you to remember new vocabulary without memorizing word lists or cramming! To use this method, you will need:

- A notebook that has at least 28-30 lines per page. Choose a nice notebook that you like!
- Good quality pens that you enjoy working with.

Follow these steps:

1. Open up a double page, and write the date on the top left corner of the left page.
2. Draw a line in the middle of both pages.

You will make a list of 20 sentences at the top of the left page.

3. When you find a word you don't know, write down an English **sentence** with the word to the left of the line on the left page.
4. Write down the translation in Korean on the right side of the line on the left page.
5. Continue until you have 20 sentences.

You must write all of the words on the same day (we will make one list in each class).

6. **Do not look at the list for the next 2 weeks!**
7. Two weeks later, read through the English sentences.
8. If you remember the Korean translation without looking at it, make a line through the sentence.
9. If you don't remember the sentence, don't make a line.

You should have under 14 words that you didn't remember.

10. Make a new list at the top of the page on the right with words and translations you didn't remember.

11. If you have more than 14, combine some words into new sentences so that the list has 14 sentences.

Removing words and adding the ones you don't remember to a new list is called *adistillation*.

12. Every two weeks, you will repeat this process.
13. The second distillation will leave a list of 10 or fewer words at the bottom of the right page.
14. The third distillation will leave a list of 7 or fewer words on the bottom of the left page (under the original 20 words).
15. The words that are left after the fourth distillation will be used to start a new list!

After each distillation, you should remember about 30% of the words, and as they are eliminated, they enter your long-term memory. The first list is called a "bronze list." When you do a fourth distillation and make a new list, that list is called a "silver list." When you do four distillations of the silver list, the remaining words are used to create the "gold list." By the time you start doing gold lists, many words would have entered your long-term memory!

In each class, we will take some time to distill old lists (starting from Week 3), and we will start a new list of 20 items using content from the class.

The layout for your notebook should look like this:

Date for initial list		Date for distillation 1	
1		1	
2		2	
3		3	
4		4	
5		5	
6		6	
7		7	
8		8	
9		9	
10		10	
11		11	
12		12	
13		13	
14		14	
15			
16		**Date for distillation 2**	
17		1	
18		2	
19		3	
20		4	
Date for distillation 3		5	
1		6	
2		7	
3		8	
4		9	
5		10	
6			
7			

For a more detailed look at the Goldlist method, download Lydia Machova's free ebook, "The Goldlist Method in a Nutshell" from the following address: https://www.languagementoring.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/02/The-Goldlist-Method-in-a-Nutshell-Language-Mentoring.pdf

APPENDIX B

Speaking Tests and Grading Guide

Speaking Pre-Test
Part 1: *Personal Questions*
> How are you today?
> What did you do _____? (insert past day, time, or event).
> What are you going to do _____? (insert future event).
> What do you like to do in your free time? (+follow-up based on answer)

Part 2: *Picture Description*
> The student sees a picture and describes what is happening. Follow-up questions are asked based on this answer (elicit information about what happened before and after the picture as well).

Part 3: *Keeping Up a Conversation*
> The student must ask the instructor any question and respond appropriately to keep the conversation going.

Speaking Post-Test
Part 1: *Personal Questions*
> How are you today?
> What did you do _____? (insert past day, time, or event).
> What are you going to do _____? (insert future event).
> What would you do if _____? (insert scenario from class content and stories)

Part 2: *Story Description*
> The student chooses any story that they came across over the course of the semester and tells the instructor what happened. Follow-up questions are asked based on this answer.

Part 3: *Keeping Up a Conversation*
> The student must ask the instructor any question and respond appropriately to keep the conversation going.

Grading Guide

Grades are assigned according to accuracy, pronunciation, fluency, and quality. Over the course of at least one minute of student speaking time, listen for each category error per sentence and make a minus mark (−) in the corresponding column (e.g., If a student makes two pronunciation mistakes in one sentence, that is one minus mark. If a student makes two pronunciation mistakes and one fluency mistake in a sentence, that is 2 minus marks (one per category). The total minus marks are subtracted from 100 to produce the final speaking score. Minus marks are made under the following situations:

Accuracy: Any grammatically incorrect utterance.
Vocabulary: Incorrect usage of a word, omitting a needed word, or using an L1 word as a substitute.
Pronunciation: Incorrect pronunciation of a word, or obviously unnatural sentence intonation.
Fluency: Long pauses, stutters, and hesitations between and within words.
Communication: Using vague answers or a lack of expression due to sentences and utterances being too short or simple. Incorrect/non-matching/inappropriate response or follow-up question to information given. Long pauses instead of continuing conversations when prompted to do so.

Accuracy	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Communication
Total minus points:				
Total speaking score (Total minus points subtracted from 100):				

APPENDIX C

Stress and Anxiety Test (for output-focused EFL class without pushed output)

(Name and other details can be added if anonymity is not an issue.)

- Do you ever feel stress and anxiety in the EFL class?
- Think about the activities you did in class this semester.
- Answer each question by rating the level of stress and anxiety that you felt when doing the activity.
- Circle the number that matches your stress and anxiety level. Each number means the following:
  1: No stress and anxiety, I was completely relaxed.
  2: Very minor stress and anxiety, but I was relaxed enough to not really notice.
  3: Some stress and anxiety, I sometimes couldn't relax during the activity.
  4: Clear stress and anxiety, I couldn't relax for most of the activity.
  5: A lot of stress and anxiety, I was not uncomfortable and not relaxed at all.

Questions

1. Listening to a story for the first time, read by the teacher.
   1   2   3   4   5

2. Reading the story while listening to it.
   1   2   3   4   5

3. Reading the story on my own while making a note of unfamiliar words.
   1   2   3   4   5

4. Looking up the meaning of words in the story.
   1   2   3   4   5

5. Adding English sentences from the story to the SRS.
   1   2   3   4   5

6. Adding Korean translations in the SRS.
   1   2   3   4   5

7. Reading the story while listening to it, after sentences have been added to the SRS.
   1   2   3   4   5

8. Listening to a story again without reading, after sentences have been added to the SRS.
   1   2   3   4   5

9. Discussing questions related to the story.
   1   2   3   4   5

10. Doing the story sequence above a second time in the same class.
    1   2   3   4   5

11. Doing the story sequence above a third time in the same class.
    1   2   3   4   5

12. Selecting my own reading material.
    1   2   3   4   5

13. Doing self-selected reading in class.
    1   2   3   4   5

14. Adding vocabulary from my self-selected reading to the SRS.
    1   2   3   4   5

15. Sharing what I read with other students.
    1   2   3   4   5

16. Doing distillations of SRS lists at the start of each class.
    1   2   3   4   5

The total stress and anxiety score is calculated by adding the total of all numbers selected, dividing the total by 80, then multiplying by 100.

Principled Criteria for English Textbook Evaluation

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While there is debate regarding their effectiveness, limitations, and downsides, textbooks and other educational materials play an important role in a large number of language classrooms. This is why textbook evaluation is crucial, as it serves to not only aid in the selection of course materials but also in the development of such materials. While a number of frameworks and checklists for materials evaluation have been published, the majority of these utilize criteria that fail to meet proposed standards for evaluation criteria, leaving teachers and other stakeholders inadequately prepared to perform rigorous textbook evaluation. While no generic evaluation can be created that would be perfectly appropriate for all possible contexts, it is possible to establish several generic criteria that are firmly based on our current understanding of language acquisition. This would allow stakeholders to incorporate, adapt, and expand on these criteria when forming context-appropriate evaluations. This paper sets forth such criteria, alongside expounding on the importance of the principles they were drawn from.

Keywords: textbook evaluation, materials design, materials evaluation

INTRODUCTION

There is a myriad of elements that are instrumental in making language courses successful, but few would deny that the textbook used plays a fundamental role. This is why textbook evaluation, be it in the pre-use, in-use, or post-use stage, is critical. It not only helps ensure course materials are appropriate for the class they're being utilized in but can also be used as a tool by publishers and developers to ensure that those materials are as polished as possible upon release. Amrani (2011)

goes so far as to envision a future where post-use evaluation informs materials design, predicting that "evaluation will become ... an ongoing process where materials are refined and even changed throughout the life of a product" (p. 295).

This growing awareness of the importance of evaluation has led to a wealth of papers and books being published that deal with how to conduct evaluations, when to conduct evaluations, and providing checklists and frameworks for evaluation. However, many of these frameworks have been criticized for utilizing criteria that are not genuinely evaluative nor reliable, as well as reflecting dogmatic views on language learning (Tomlinson, 2012). As such, there is great need for evaluative criteria drawn from clear, well-supported SLA principles that can be utilized or adapted by teachers, researchers, and other stakeholders when seeking to evaluate a textbook.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Textbook Evaluation

Given the pivotal role that textbooks play in most classrooms, there is a great need for careful analysis and evaluation when it comes to selecting textbooks and to assessing how well the textbook is fulfilling, or has fulfilled, its role in the class. The question is how, exactly, such an evaluation should be conducted.

Research into textbook selection suggests that a large portion of textbooks are selected based on cursory examinations, such as a quick scan of the book, a "30-second evaluation" (Byrd, 2001, p. 422), or through blindly selecting books based on prestigious authors or publishers and/or their status as best-sellers (McGrath, 2016; Tomlinson, 2010). To move away from such ad-hoc selection processes, a number of methods for evaluation and analysis have been proposed intending to provide a more principled assessment of the merits and demerits of textbooks.

To aid in this, a number of evaluation checklists have been published, such as Tucker's (1975), Skierso's (1991), Ur's (1996), Byrd's (2001), and Garinger's (2002), (see Mukundan and Ahour, 2010 for an extensive comparison of checklists). These checklists tend to vary

in their methodology, some requiring a simple yes/no answer, others working on a rating scale. Frequently, the checklists evaluate textbooks based on a number of criteria organized around specific areas, such as Byrd's (2001) checklist, which focuses on how the material fits with the curriculum, students, and teachers; or Garinger's (2002) checklist, which delineates the evaluation into four areas to examine: program and course, skills, exercises and activities, and practical concerns.

However, several criticisms have been levied against published checklists that purport to be universally applicable. One concern is that these checklists and their criteria are often presented without any rational or theoretical justification (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2017). Another is that when these checklists are examined (Tomlinson, 2012), many criteria fail to meet the standards proposed by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), namely, that they are actually evaluative (instead of being a simple yes/no analysis), focus on one specific question, are free from dogma, and are reliable (i.e., interpreted the same way by evaluators). This has raised questions as to how rigorous the evaluations conducted by these checklists actually are.

Another concern is the question of whether a universal checklist is possible at all, given the diverse range of classroom contexts. It would be alarming if an evaluation for an academic writing class in Nigeria was conducted using the exact same criteria as an evaluation for a general conversation class in Singapore. Evaluators need to be aware that "different criteria will apply in different circumstances" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 2).

For this very reason, recent literature has moved away from proposing generic checklists to instead encouraging evaluators to develop their own criteria when assessing textbooks. One common thread is the need for criteria that examine local, contextual factors such as the course goals, the learners' goals and cultural backgrounds, and the learning environment (Bahumaid, 2008; McDonough et al., 2013; Richards, 2014; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). Beyond these criteria, the inclusion of principled criteria was developed on the basis of research into how language is acquired is seen to be of fundamental importance (Mishan & Timmis, 2015; Tomlinson, 2003; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2017).

SLA Principles

While there are a wide range of principles that could be applied to

an evaluation, the following nine principles are firmly established and largely supported by current research. They are drawn from various sources (predominantly Ellis, 2005; Lantolf, 2000; Richards, 2006; Tomlinson, 2011, 2012; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013). In the interest of clarity and transparency, each principle has been expanded on to elucidate their precise meaning as well as detailing the research supporting the principle.

Materials Should Be Authentic

A number of positive effects are associated with the use of authentic materials. Their use has been found to be beneficial to the learners' overall communicative competence (Gilmore, 2007, 2011; Guariento & Morley, 2001; McGrath, 2002; Widdowson, 2003) and has been postulated to help develop critical thinking skills (Erkaya, 2005). It has also been correlated with increased motivation due to an awareness and appreciation of interacting with materials designed for native audiences instead of construed materials designed for textbooks (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Peacock, 1997). Additionally, authentic materials are richer in both context and culture than construed materials, as they expose students to natural language that contains elements of language use not commonly found in classroom settings, thereby facilitating the learner's transferal of linguistic skills from the classroom to the world at large (Larson-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Spelleri, 2002).

One caveat is that there is some debate as to what materials qualify as authentic. The consensus (Nunan, 2004; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Tomlinson, 2012) is that it refers to material "which is produced in order to communicate rather than to teach" (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 162). However, such materials are rarely appropriate for classroom use as is, and "poor quality, length, and other pedagogic considerations" (McGrath, 2016, p. 105) provide compelling reasons to adapt or modify authentic materials, essentially rendering them inauthentic.

However, this only applies when authenticity is viewed as a binary state of authentic or inauthentic. It is, as suggested by Brown and Menasche (as cited in Tatsuki, 2006), possible to conceptualize authenticity as a continuum of five stages: genuine input, altered input, adapted input, simulated input and inauthentic. In this view, while strictly authentic materials are appreciated and should be used where appropriate and possible, even simulated input has merit, as long as "it is normal, natural language used by native or competent speakers of a

language" (Harmer, 2007, p. 273). Indeed, Harmer (2007) compares construed materials to a playwright writing a play or a parent talking to their child, arguing that the "language which students are exposed to has just as strong a claim to authenticity as the play or the parent, provided that it is not altered in such a way as to make it unrecognizable in style and construction from the language which competent speakers encounter in many walks of life" (p. 274).

Tasks and Activities Should Be Authentic

Activities and tasks that are reflective of language use outside the classroom setting have been theorized to have a number of advantages over purely pedagogical activities such as vocabulary activities or comprehension checks. They are believed to be more engaging and meaningful for students (Breen, 1985), as the materials provide them with opportunities to rehearse communicative behaviors that will be of use outside the classroom setting (McGrath, 2016).

It should be noted that authentic activities are not limited to emulating scenarios that may be conducted in real life, such as making reservations. Rather, authentic activities are those that reflect the original communicative purpose of the material on which they are based, activate the learners' existing knowledge of language and culture, and are reflective of communicative behaviors the learners will be called to draw upon when communicating outside the classroom (Mishan, 2005). Truly authentic activities should create opportunities for "learner cognition, engagement, collaboration, problem solving, critical analysis, and the development of language for specific and often localized communication purposes" (Rilling & Dantas Whitney, 2010, p. 1).

Learners Should Be Engaged Affectively

Learner engagement is a crucial element of language acquisition (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Svalberg, 2009) and has been identified as "the major force of learning" (Ellis, 2019, p. 48). It is reflected in increased attention, motivation, and active participation (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020; Philp & Duchesne, 2016), which leads to increased language awareness (Svalberg, 2018) and facilitates the noticing of linguistic features (Gass & Mackey, 2015).

While engagement is a multifaceted construct reaching across a number of dimensions (Philp & Duchesne, 2016), affective engagement

is one element that has drawn particular attention for its role in language acquisition and motivation. As Tomlinson (2013) said, "Learners who are stimulated to laugh, smile, feel joy, feel excited, and feel empathetic are much more likely to acquire communicative competence than learners who are restricted to bland, safe, neutral materials which do not stimulate any emotional response" (p. 12). Affective engagement can be enhanced through focusing on topics that are learner-preferred and of interest to the learners (Ainley, 2012: Phung, 2016) and through active, learner-centered, autonomy-rich activities and tasks (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

Learners Should Be Engaged Cognitively

Alongside affective engagement, cognitive engagement has been identified as being crucial to language acquisition and is associated with an increased focus and attention on language. Tomlinson (2010) argued that "thinking whilst experiencing language in use helps to achieve the deep processing required for effective and durable learning, and it helps learners to transfer high-level skills, such as predicting, connecting, interpreting, and evaluating, to second language use" (pp. 88−89).

Cognitive engagement arises from challenge, with materials ideally requiring learners to invest effort and thought without being so difficult as to be discouraging nor so easy as to lead to dissatisfaction and boredom (Aubrey et al., 2020; Pawlak et al., 2021). In addition to ensuring appropriately challenging material, cognitive engagement can be facilitated through incorporating a variety of different activities that appeal to a range of learning styles (Ellis, 2005), especially activities that involve experiential learning and strategy training (Richards, 2006; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010).

Learners Should Be Provided Opportunities to Use the Target Language to Achieve Meaningful Communication

It cannot be stressed enough how important meaningful communication is for language acquisition. Alongside input, it is considered one of the most crucial facilitators in achieving communicative competence and should be at the heart of any course that alleges to be based on communicative language teaching or sociocultural theory. A plethora of studies have been conducted on interaction and communication and the role they play in language acquisition (for a

detailed review, see Loewen & Sato, 2018). These studies suggest that meaningful communication improves the learners' motivation and increases overall engagement (Richards, 2006), leads to an increased awareness of language, facilitates the noticing of linguistic features (Gass & Mackey, 2015), and provides learners with opportunities in which to engage in negotiation of meaning (Long, 1996) and peer mediation (Lantolf, 2006). Additionally, meaningful communication requires learners to produce output, which has also been theorized to be a key component of language acquisition, thereby increasing fluency and allowing for hypothesis testing and the noticing of errors while functioning to enable learners to engage in metalinguistic reflection (Swain, 2005). Engaging in active communication also improves the learners' strategic competence, as it exposes learners to linguistic errors and reveals linguistic deficiencies that require the utilization of communication strategies to overcome (Savignon, 1998, 2002).

Learner Autonomy Should Be Supported and Facilitated

Over the past 30 years, there has been a lot of interest in learner autonomy, which is reflected in the large number of papers and books that have been published regarding it (e.g., Benson & Voller, 1997; Holec 1981; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003). The concept of what exactly is meant by "learner autonomy" differs greatly depending on the theorist, but perhaps the most succinct definition was given by Benson (2011), who described it as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p. 58). It is seen as being extremely beneficial to learners, as

> Students who are encouraged to take responsibility for their own work ... are more likely to be able to set realistic goals, plan programs of work, develop strategies for coping with new and unforeseen situations, evaluate and assess their own work, and generally, to learn how to learn from their own successes and failures in ways which will help them to be more efficient learners in the future. (McGarry, 1995, p. 1)

This perception of autonomy leading to improved language acquisition has been supported by longitudinal studies on the effect of learner autonomy on language proficiency (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Little et al., 2017) as well as by evidence that it influences the learner's practices outside the classroom by stimulating interest and prompting

learners to be aware of and seek out resources and opportunities to engage in language learning beyond the classroom (Inaba, 2013).

Much research and discussion has been conducted regarding how to support and increase learner autonomy. Providing learners agency regarding decisions involving learning goals, topics, syllabus decisions, and grading has been lauded as an ideal way to encourage autonomy (Benson, 2007, 2012; Everhard, 2018; Nunan, 2003). However, having the leeway to allow for this is not common, as it certainly falls outside the purview of what a textbook can provide. What can be achieved on the level of course materials is providing learners with clear instructional goals, encouraging learners to be aware of and reflect on their own learning and on learning strategies, and allowing learners to pursue language learning outside of the classroom (Nunan, 2003; Oxford, 1990).

Learners Should Be Exposed to an Extensive Amount of Language in Use

It is impossible to imagine language acquisition taking place in a vacuum, devoid of any kind of exposure to some sort of language input. Almost every teacher and theoretician would agree that input plays an important role in language acquisition, though the extent and nature of input's role may vary. It has been postulated to act as the primary source for acquiring a mental representation of the language (VanPatten & Williams, 2007) and is the cornerstone of several influential theories on how language is acquired, that is, the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), the input-interaction-output hypothesis (Gass, 1997), the input and interaction hypothesis (Long, 1985), and the autonomous induction theory (Carroll, 2007).

The benefits of exposure to a large amount of input are highlighted by the results of studies regarding extensive reading and extensive listening. Extensive reading not only improves reading fluency and comprehension (Jacobs & Farrell, 2012) but also facilitates vocabulary development (Nation, 2008) and enhances the learners' understanding of contextual grammar use, thereby enabling improved use when communicating (Ellis, 2005). Research into extensive listening has likewise demonstrated that it results in improved listening comprehension and fluency (Chang & Millet, 2014), while leading to an overall improvement in linguistic proficiency, as seen by reported improvements in vocabulary, reading skills, speaking skills, and increased confidence

(Zhang, 2005, as cited in Renandya & Jacobs, 2016).

While it may not be possible for textbooks to provide learners with enough reading or listening material to qualify as being extensive, aside from those dedicated to extensive reading or listening, it is important that there is sufficient material to expose learners to rich, varied, and comprehensible input across a variety of genres, as learners "need a lot of experience of the language being used in a variety of different ways for a variety of purpose. ... They also need to experience particular language items and features many times in meaningful and comprehensible input in order to eventually acquire them" (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 87).

Materials Should Promote an Awareness of the Global Nature of English

While issues regarding the ownership of language and cultural representation within textbooks may seem to be primarily sociolinguistic in nature and have little bearing on language acquisition, there are very real pedagogical issues tied into how the nature of English is framed. For one, the positioning of English as a lingua franca has resulted in English being used as a tool for global communication, and not just to interact with culture or communicate with speakers from a limited number of "inner circle" countries (being the main English-speaking countries as described by Kachru's [1992] model of the three circles of English). It follows that learners are as likely to be using English to interact with speakers who communicate in a variety of English as they are to be using it to interact with one whose English adheres to inner circle standards. Students who are under the mistaken perception that most of the English encountered outside the classroom reflects the standards commonly depicted in textbooks will be ill-equipped to communicatively function in global contexts (McKay, 2012). To better prepare learners to achieve communicative success, it is vital to instill in them an awareness of the varieties of English that will be found outside the classroom via exposing them to a broad and diverse range of these varieties (D'Souza, 1999; Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011), as "exposure to as many varieties of English as possible would do more to insure intelligibility than trying to impose a single standard on everyone" (D'Souza, 1999, p. 273).

In addition to the communicative benefits of being exposed to a

wide range of varieties of English, this exposure may well work to lessen the learner's language anxiety, which inhibits language acquisition through a variety of negative effects on areas such as complex learning, achievement, effective thinking, and willingness to communicate (Arnold, 2000; Gregersen et al., 2014; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 1998). While not being the only source of anxiety, a desire for perfectionism and a fixation on the differences between the learner's English and the inner circle standards found in textbooks can fuel feelings of inadequacy and despair (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

The extent to which the course materials display a global orientation can be determined using Syrbe and Rose's (2015) framework, which compares the differences found between materials based on an EFL-orientated ideology compared to a Global Englishes-orientated ideology.

TABLE 1. Syrbe and Rose's Framework for Global Orientation of Textbook

	EFL-Orientated Ideology	Global Englishes-Orientated Ideology
Who are positioned as owners of English?	Native speakers, with an emphasis on inner circle use	Native and non-native speakers, with emphasis on global use
Who are the target interlocutors in the materials?	Native English speakers	Native English speakers and non-native English speakers
What models and norms of English are presented in the book and audio materials?	Inner circle, native Englishes; English as standard and static	World Englishes; English as diverse and flexible
How is culture depicted in the materials?	As fixed, inner circle cultures	As fluid, global cultures

Materials Should Be Appropriate for the Context

Since Hymes (1972) observed that the key to understanding what occurs in the classroom is to understand what occurs outside the school setting, there has been a shift from the perception of learning as being a purely cognitive process to the growing awareness that it is influenced by a number of factors ranging from individual differences, such as

learning styles, learning strategies, and affective variables (Ehrman et al., 2003; Dörnyei, 2005), to social factors on both a macro and micro level (Atkinson, 2002; Barkhuizen, 2007; Ellis, 2008). Housen et al. (2011) identified three overlapping contextual levels to instructed language learning: (a) the individual learning context, incorporating individual needs, preferences, abilities, social networks, and preferences; (b) the educational or curriculum context, encompassing the school's language policies, the country's broader educational system, the course curriculum, and prescribed pedagogical approaches; and (c) the extra-curricular context, comprised of broader sociolinguistic, demographic, and cultural concerns.

The extent to which a textbook is appropriate at each of these contextual levels needs to be considered during an evaluation. No textbook works for every classroom, culture, or student. As evidenced by Nguyen's (2005) tale of how incorporating an authentic broadcast about the lack of religious freedom in Vietnam resulted in offending and angering one student to the point that they left the classroom, topics can be culturally offensive or inappropriate for a variety of reasons, thereby drastically affecting learner engagement and motivation. The pedagogical principles upon which a textbook is founded could be incongruent with the culture. Instructed vocabulary may be wildly inappropriate for the learners' needs. Above all, the goals and purpose of the course should be kept in mind, and materials should be examined in terms of whether they facilitate the learners in achieving those goals.

DEVELOPMENT CRITERIA

Twenty-seven criteria have been directly drawn from the principles discussed above. To facilitate the ease of evaluation, the criteria have been organized into the following sections: listening and reading materials, activities, and general and can be found in Appendices A and B.

Pilot Evaluation

In the interest of ensuring validity and reliability (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), these evaluation principles were piloted with a group of 4 teachers and 15 students. The participants were all teaching or studying

in an upper-intermediate language course for adults at a Japanese private language school that used a self-published textbook. The participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each criteria using a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*).

Follow-up discussions with the participants revealed that they found the criteria clear, easy to understand, and easy to measure, and the results accurately reflected their overall opinions on the textbook. Chronbach's alpha for the 28 criteria was 0.95, suggesting a high level of internal reliability.

As a result, from the sample evaluation, the textbook utilized in the course was shown to be extremely positively viewed by students and teachers alike, with most criteria being rated about a 4. However, the evaluation did identify one area of dissatisfaction, highlighting that both teachers and students believed there to be an insufficient use of authentic materials in the text. It was suggested that this deficiency could be mitigated through supplementing classes with additional topic-based reading and listening material that could be utilized in-class or used as additional study material by students.

CONCLUSIONS

While not being an exhaustive list of all the criteria that should be applied to a textbook given the classroom context, these criteria form a principled backbone that can be utilized in a range of contexts when developing an evaluation framework. The hope is that these criteria will not only empower educators to make more principled decisions when selecting textbooks but also be utilized by teachers to help identify weaknesses that may be addressed by adapting lessons whilst using textbooks, provide a tool for both teachers and students to reflect on the effectiveness of textbooks after use, and allow material developers to assess textbooks in order to inform future development.

These criteria can easily be adapted to form the basis of an evaluation by using a 5-point or 10-point Likert scale assessing agreement with the criteria as performed in the pilot evaluation. Additional criteria may also be included to address criteria specific to the context, such as whether the textbook is affordable for students; whether the supplementary material, if any, is easy to use and is useful or

appropriate for the course; whether the textbook helps students achieve any specific goals of the course; or whether the grammar or vocabulary taught in the textbook meets the students' needs.

It should, however, be noted that whilst the criteria proposed in this paper are firmly grounded in current beliefs regarding the process of language acquisition, there may arise a need to change or add to these criteria to better reflect our growing understanding of how second languages are acquired.

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APPENDIX A

Developed Criteria for English Textbook Evaluation

Listening and Reading Materials
1. There is a sufficient amount of listening and reading materials.
2. The language used in the listening and reading materials is natural.
3. The reading materials are appropriately challenging.
4. The reading materials reflect a variety of styles and types of writing.
5. The reading materials seem authentic (i.e., material that would be read outside of a textbook).
6. The listening materials are appropriately challenging.
7. The listening materials reflect a variety of situations and styles of verbal communication.
8. The language used in the listening materials seem authentic (i.e., material that would be heard outside of a textbook).
9. The listening materials involve a mix of characters from a wide range of countries.
10. The listening materials expose learners to a wide variety of accents.

Activities
11. There is a wide range of different types of activities.
12. The activities are appropriately challenging.
13. The activities are enjoyable.
14. The activities provide ample opportunity to engage in meaningful discussions.
15. The activities provide ample opportunity for learners to express their own opinions.
16. The activities reflect situations that might arise outside the classroom.
17. The communication skills used in these activities are skills that are useful outside the classroom.

General
18. The textbook is easy to use.
19. The design of the textbook is attractive.

20. The topics presented in the textbook are interesting.
21. The textbook makes the learning goals for each lesson clear.
22. The textbook encourages learners to study on their own outside of class.
23. The textbook encourages learners to reflect on their own learning.
24. The textbook presents a wide range of cultural views.
25. The cultural views expressed in the textbook are appropriate for the cultural context.
26. The textbook is not culturally biased.
27. The textbook does not contain any negative stereotypes.
28. The textbook meets the goals of the course.

APPENDIX B

Principles and Associated Criteria

The following criteria were each drawn directly from the principles above as shown in Appendix A.

Principle	Associated Criteria
Authenticity of Materials	2, 5, 8
Authenticity of Tasks	16, 17
Affective Engagement	13, 15, 18, 19, 20
Cognitive Engagement	3, 6, 11, 12
Opportunities for Meaningful Communication	14
Autonomy	21, 22, 23
Exposure to Extensive Amount of Language	1, 4, 7
Facilitates Awareness of Global Nature of English	9, 10, 24, 26
Contextually Appropriate	25, 27, 28

Addressing Behavior Problems in the High-Enrollment EFL Class

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Large class sizes have been shown to have many negative effects for both students and teachers. Problems with large class sizes range from student behavior problems and disengagement to teachers feeling stressed and overwhelmed. Many of these problems have a direct negative effect on the students' ability to attain the course learning outcomes. This reflective article presents a review of the literature on the negative aspects of large class sizes as well as the causes and solutions to student behavior problems in large classes. The author then provides reflections on problems encountered in his high-enrollment classes and the research-inspired solutions that he implemented, showing how these research insights helped him to create a better classroom experience for him and his students. This reflection will be of interest to EFL educators teaching at the undergraduate level who are looking for sound advice on how to effectively manage large classes.

Keywords: class size, English as a foreign language, large classes, teaching approaches, undergraduate teaching

INTRODUCTION

The number of adults enrolled in higher education programs has increased greatly, with enrollments higher than ever before. This growth in enrollment often leads to large numbers of students in each class because of teacher shortages, financial constraints, and other factors (Sharndama, 2013). Cooper and Robinson (2000) are confident that "in undergraduate settings large classes are prevalent and will remain so in the foreseeable future" (p. 6). EFL classes in higher education settings,

especially at the undergraduate level, have not escaped this trend.

In some countries, such as South Korea, there seems to be a recognition that small class sizes are beneficial for students. In fact, according to Han and Ryu (2017), a class-size reduction policy was implemented in South Korea in 2001. This policy was justified on the basis that "small classrooms [foster] creativity and communication skills" (p. 3). The policy succeeded in decreasing the average number of students in some high school classes to 35. Other studies further showed that South Korean educational institutions favor smaller class sizes. For example, Lee and Wallace's (2018) study on flipped learning in English classes at a South Korean university noted that class sizes did not exceed 20 in the English program where they conducted their study. To give evidence to further support initiatives to reduce class size, such as those implemented in South Korea, and to help teachers in countries with large class sizes, it is important to understand how teaching and learning in EFL classes is affected by large class sizes and to present solutions for teachers who must teach large classes.

PROBLEMS PRESENTED BY LARGE CLASS SIZES

General Negative Effects

Large class sizes present a number of negative effects for students and teachers. Mulryan-Kyne (2010) identified the following negative effects on students' learning: (a) decreased interactions because of increased anonymity and passivity, (b) lack of community (i.e., students do not get to know each other), (c) high absenteeism (i.e., absences may be tolerated or not noticed), (d) poor engagement with course content and low participation levels, (e) lack of motivation to ask questions or make contributions, and (f) increased off-task behaviors. These factors may have a large negative effect on the students' attainment of educational outcomes.

Teachers also suffer the negative effects of large class sizes. According to Mulryan-Kyne (2010), large classes (a) make it difficult for teachers to build rapport with students, (b) make the classroom unsuitable because of problems with visibility and acoustics, which causes problems with noise levels during in-class tasks, and (c) make

teachers feel overwhelmed, which added to the pressures of their other responsibilities, can cause teachers to default to more traditional teaching and assessment methods (i.e., lecturing and written exams). Mulryan-Kyne also points out that large class sizes increase demands on the faculty because of the inevitable variety of ability, interest, and motivation levels that large numbers of students introduce into the classroom.

As has been seen, large class sizes can be troublesome for both teachers and students. Survey data on students' and teachers' reactions to being part of large classes also support this view. Elisa Carbone and James Greenberg (1998) surveyed 100 students and 60 teachers at the University of Maryland about their experiences with large class sizes. According to the faculty survey results, teachers expressed the following concerns in order of importance:

- Conflict between large class format and learning goals
- Perceived lack of accessibility to students and personal contact
- Lack of student motivation and preparation for large class format
- Lack of reward structure for successful large class teaching
- Lack of accountability in student classroom performance (p. 314)

The students' most frequently identified problems with large classes were the following:

- Overall dissatisfaction with the quality of the large class learning experience
- Lack of interaction with faculty (in and out of class)
- Lack of structure in lectures
- Lack of/poor discussion sections
- Inadequate contact with teaching assistants
- Inadequacy of classroom facilities and environment
- Lack of frequent testing/graded assignments (p. 315)

Carbone and Greenberg's results provide further evidence that large classes present obstacles in meeting learning goals and can cause dissatisfaction with the teaching and learning experience.

In another study, David Hayes (1997) used reflections made about class size by teachers in Thailand to identify five categories of problems that teachers face when teaching large class sizes: "discomfort, control,

individual attention, evaluation, and learning effectiveness" (p. 108). In Hayes's study, *discomfort* referred to perceived problems stemming from the material space of the classroom itself. He reported that teachers felt "confined" by the limited classroom area, and therefore, they felt unable to have students do interactive activities, believing that there was "no room to move about" (p. 108). The teachers also reported discomfort in a bodily sense, perceiving the experience of teaching large classes to be physically tiring because of the strains of managing large numbers of students, such as pain from having to speak at high volume. The problems Hayes classified as *control* were related to classroom management. The teachers felt that they could not effectively manage large groups. For example, the teachers felt unable to control noise levels, which easily increased above appropriate levels, creating various disadvantages for teachers and students. The *individual attention* category referred to the teachers' lack of ability to provide students with personalized assistance because of time constraints. *Evaluation* problems included the excessive amount of time that was needed for grading the assignments of large numbers of students and other problems associated with assessment. For example, one teacher reported not being able to hear the students during a speaking activity, so she was not able to provide feedback or error correction. Problems related to *learning effectiveness* referred to the teachers' view that they did not know whether students were learning.

The Problem of Lecturing

One common assumption teachers tend to make when faced with teaching large classes is that lecturing is their best choice, and the effects of this choice present yet another problem with large classes. Allen and Tanner (2005) stated that because professors in higher education are "often faced with the struggle to achieve effective practice in both the teaching and research arenas" while under "considerable time constraints," it is not surprising that they "choose the default position of the lecture, with its predictability and efficiency at imparting information" (p. 262). It can be assumed that when the burden of teaching large classes is added to the customary challenges of professorial life, choosing lecture as a methodology is even more probable. The tendency to lecture is strengthened by the widespread teacher-centered assumption that professors should be the students'

source of knowledge. This traditional, but perhaps now antiquated, view of teachers has persisted in common thought and still influences teachers, students, and administrators today. Lecture is the teaching methodology that most corresponds to this view of teachers.

The problem with lectures is that they may not be the most effective method to achieve student learning goals. Schmidt et al. (2015), writing about the ineffectiveness of lectures, stated that this teaching methodology is "based on the information transmission fallacy," which incorrectly assumes that "information can be directly transmitted from one person to another ... [and] remembered, provided the receiver pays attention" (p. 14). In reality, though, "students have to do something with the information to enable them to remember and use it in the future" (p. 14). In short, students may not learn what the teacher lectures, but they will likely remember what they do on their own. Thus, lectures may be seen as a poor choice of methodology because they generally preclude the students' active participation, and thus, perhaps their ability to really learn.

Fortunately, teachers of large classes do not have to lecture. According to Asodike and Onyeike (2016),

> A good lesson plan coupled with effective class control will help to relieve the teachers' fear about teaching many students. It will help to deliver a lesson calmly, and the teachers' confidence will carry over to the students who in turn will be more comfortable in learning from the teacher. (p. 38)

Student Behavior Problems

Many teachers have noticed that students in large groups do not act the same way as students in smaller classes, and teachers may even notice many more behavioral problems in large classes than in small ones. Attempting to explain the cause for poorer behavior in large classes, Carbone (1999) has suggested that "many students find from the start that the impersonal nature of large classes is alienating, and their uncivil behavior is often an offshoot of this alienation" (p. 39). Behavior problems may include worse attendance, students attempting to leave early, increased cheating, and not participating well during group activities (Carbone, 1999). Other behavior problems that I have observed in large classes include students playing on their smartphones, students

having side conversations rather than listening to the teacher, excessive use of the L1, and students arriving late, which distracts others.

Tardiness, a problem that I have experienced in my own large classes, is another example of a behavior problem that stems from the impersonality mentioned by Carbone (1999). I have observed students coming to class 10 to 20 minutes late, likely because they believe that I will not notice or care because of the large number of students. This is simply a matter of students feeling anonymous due to the size of their class. Students' feeling of anonymity is in part logical, since it can be difficult for a teacher of large classes to quickly learn the names and faces of all the students.

Behavior Problems for South Korean Students

Teachers should be aware of how gender and culture interact with behavior problems as well. For example, in Lee et al.'s (2018) study of behavioral problems in Korean high schools, it was found that female students tended to internalize problems, showing higher scores for anxious/depressed and withdrawn/depressed factors, whereas male students scored higher on measurements like rule-breaking behavior. Thus, for South Korean EFL teachers or for any teacher working in contexts with significant populations of South Korean students, it may be important to recognize that the behavior problems found in large classrooms might be more likely perpetrated by male students, but female students may suffer behavioral problems and related issues that go unnoticed. Therefore, it is important for teachers to be sensitive to behavior problems that are less obvious so that students with more internal behavior problems can also be attended to. The teacher needs to collaborate with the students and come up with expectations and policies to both help male and female students feel more comfortable and less at risk to the above-mentioned behavioral problems.

This section has reviewed the various problems that teachers and students may encounter in large classes and has explored some of the reasons behind them. These are problems that need to be addressed in order to improve education, especially for the most vulnerable groups of students: those who are in their first years of university. Unfortunately, the large lecture class is most commonly used at the start of the students' university careers, which is a sensitive time for them, replete with challenges and high chances of failure. Cooper and Robinson

(2000) have stated that "it is a sad commentary on our universities that the least engaging class sizes and the least involving pedagogy is foisted upon the students at the most pivotal time of their undergraduate careers: when they are beginning college" (p. 7). The needs of new university students should be taken into special consideration when administrators decide on class sizes and when teachers determine their methodology, no matter the size of class they may have been given.

SOLUTIONS TO SOME PROBLEMS PRESENTED BY LARGE CLASSES

A number of solutions to the problems presented by large classes have been proposed in the literature.

Building Rapport in Large Classes

Researchers have proposed that some of the problems of large classes can be corrected by teaching them as if they were small classes. Exeter et al. (2010) stated that "teaching very large classes effectively requires the same skills and commitment as teaching smaller classes," including such skills as being able to increase student motivation and creating interesting assignments (p. 761). However, they noted that implementing "these [skills] become increasingly difficult with large classes" because of increased heterogeneity among students (p. 761). This added difficulty should not, however, prevent teachers from attempting to employ these skills, even on a small scale. For example, it may be impossible for a teacher of very large classes to learn all the students' names, as would be possible in a smaller one. However, if a teacher can manage to learn even some students' names and something about their backgrounds, it can help build rapport and help students feel less anonymous.

Carbone (1999), who theorized that impersonality was a causal factor of behavior problems in large classes, proposed the solution of "making a large class more personal" as a remedy to those behavioral problems (p. 38). For example, she suggested that teachers employ some of the following behaviors, among others, to make a large class feel more like a small one, thereby increasing rapport:

> Come in early and chat with a few students, when a student asks a question move closer as you answer it, stay after class to talk with interested students, make an effort to learn as many names as possible, and choose twenty or so exams or papers from each batch graded by your teaching assistants and write personal comments on them. (p. 39)

Carbone presented these practical solutions to help teachers focus on and do what they *can* do to build rapport and give individualized attention instead of focusing on what they cannot do in a large class.

Another way to make teaching large classes more enjoyable and effective by building rapport, according to Lloyd-Strovas (2015), is for teachers to first "share personal information about [themselves] with [their] students" (p. 4). This information could include the teacher's "research interests ... what [they] enjoy about teaching ... [or] about [their] family and hobbies" (p. 4). She said that this kind of sharing helps the students see the teacher as a real person, and it "will help them feel like they know [their teachers] on a more personal level even if they never talk with [them] one-on-one" (p. 4). Lloyd-Strovas also suggested that teachers should "show [their] personalit[ies] and interests in class." For example, the author suggests that if a teacher is artistic, then they could make artistic visuals to help explain concepts (p. 5).

Sorcinelli (2004) also provided suggestions for teachers to build rapport and thereby to create a positive environment that would lead to appropriate behaviors from students. She suggested that teachers arrive early to class and stay late to provide more opportunities for students to have access to them and to use technology such as email and surveys to get to know the students better. Also, to encourage positive behavior, she recommended offering extra credit assignments to reward students who show up to class early or on time.

Discipline

Besides making large classes feel smaller, more positive, and less anonymous, teachers can also consider discipline as a solution to some behavior problems presented by students in large classes. Discipline is often seen as unnecessary or inappropriate at the undergraduate level and inconsistent with treating these students as adults. However, discipline may be an important part of stopping unwanted or troublesome

behaviors, and some teachers already regularly include punishments without perhaps thinking of them as such. For example, not accepting late work, giving late penalties, and giving zeros for plagiarism can all be examples of discipline that teachers regularly use in university-level classes.

Clearly, a teacher's priority should be the prevention of behavior issues. According to Sorcinelli (2004), taking steps to prevent inappropriate conduct from the beginning takes less effort than attempting to discipline it after it happens. Sorcinelli stated that "establishing a positive climate and expectations for large class learning can avert many problems" (p. 1). These ideas are in agreement with what has been stated by other authors, such as Carbone (1999). As has been seen, much undesirable conduct can be avoided and discipline made unnecessary if teachers can manage to diminish the impersonality of large classes, thereby making students feel less anonymous. But in the event of poor classroom behaviors, Sorcinelli (2004) asserted that if teachers do not act quickly to put an end to them, they will persist and become harder to terminate in the future, as students come to see these behaviors as acceptable.

Before attempting to implement discipline in a classroom, the teacher needs to decide what behaviors are unacceptable in their classroom. What is considered appropriate behavior will vary from teacher to teacher, and indeed, different teachers may disagree on the appropriateness or seriousness of the same behavior. According to Carbone (1999), defining appropriate and inappropriate behavior and what behaviors are worth disciplining is a decision each faculty member must make independently based on their own preferences and what they consider to be best for the community within their classroom.

REFLECTION OF SPECIFIC PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS WITHIN THE AUTHOR'S HIGH-ENROLLMENT CLASSROOM

This section relates some specific problems that I encountered in my high-enrollment classes and what I did to solve them.

Off-Task Smartphone Use

One behavior problem I encountered was off-task smartphone use. Researchers have suggested that it is important to prevent inappropriate behavior by directly clarifying expectations of appropriate behavior early on to prevent misconduct (Cabone, 1999; Sorcinelli, 2004). I attempted to do this on the first day of class, but failed because I realized that I did not yet have a well-defined policy on smartphone use. I saw this as an opportunity to involve the students in the creation of class policies, perhaps to increase their buy-in, but also to get some ideas about how my colleagues dealt with this issue. During the second class meeting, I asked students to come up with reasons smartphones should not be used in class, and I also asked them to describe how their other teachers were dealing with students using smartphones as an off-task behavior. Teachers' reported discipline strategies ranged from ignoring the behavior to taking the phone and keeping it for 24 hours. After talking with the students and seeing what they had to say in group discussions, the class came to a decision on smartphone use. They decided that students should put their phones in their backpacks during class, but that mature students could have their cell phones in front of them on the desk, turned facedown so that incoming messages would not distract them.

It is important to note, however, that smartphones are tools. I still plan strategic uses for smartphones in class, for example, telling students to take out their phones to play online quiz games such as those created on Kahoot!

The teacher is often the best model for appropriate classroom behavior, so requiring students not to use their smartphones put me in a delicate situation when I used mine as a watch and timer for classroom activities. Therefore, on the third day of class, I began wearing a watch and keeping my phone in my bag so that students could see that I was also putting my time and energy into the class, rather than demonstrating off-task behavior and disinterest.

Having an agreed-upon smartphone rule made a large difference in the class. A significant number of students stopped playing on their phones and instead started focusing more on the activities presented. Due to this, I felt that the students were learning. I also felt that I could better fulfill my role as a facilitator of student learning in the classroom rather than as a disciplinarian who had to spend his time nagging students to pay attention. Setting this expectation about cell phones has

also decreased my stress and has increased my job satisfaction.

It is sometimes argued that university students are mature enough to know how to use their smart phones appropriately in class and to not be distracted by them; therefore, they should be able to keep their smartphones with them in class. However, as my experience testifies, students often do not have the maturity, self-control, or perhaps the awareness to use phones appropriately in class. That all students do not naturally use smartphones in the correct ways in class is understandable given their addictive nature and the ubiquity of their use in everyday life in almost all situations. Therefore, it is necessary to establish a clear expectation about the correct use of smartphones in class and to enforce it consistently. Furthermore, involving students in the creation of these policies helps them feel like the teacher is not treating them as children. A clear classroom policy on smartphone use is an important element in creating a positive classroom culture.

Tardiness

Another problem that I encountered in my high-enrollment classes that I did not experience as often in my low-enrollment classes was student tardiness. This was a problem that needed attention because when students enter the classroom late, they distract other students. Therefore, this problem was a priority for me because it could affect student learning.

It is sometimes suggested that teachers wanting to reduce tardiness should lock the door so as not to admit students who are late, but I felt this solution to be too extreme, especially since student tardiness is unavoidable in many circumstances. Besides unforeseeable problems such as traffic and transportation issues, some reasons for student tardiness are specific to the university where I teach. For example, a number of teachers in the university keep students in class late, which causes them to arrive late for their subsequent classes. In addition, students often have to walk long distances between classes and on paths that are hilly or sometimes unfinished. Therefore, locking the door five minutes after the class has started may be unjust. Furthermore, it can deter the fostering of classroom friendships and positive relations between teachers and students. It is necessary for teachers to have a late policy that is fair and reasonable in order to encourage prompt class attendance. Students coming to class punctually will not only give them

more instructional time, but will also give more time for the teacher to build the rapport that has been shown to be crucial in ameliorating some of the negative effects of high-enrollment classes.

As I did with the problem of smartphone use, I asked the students to work in groups to create a policy on tardiness that they thought would be fair. Some suggestions were that late students should have their class participation grade lowered or that the student entering late should be silent when they come in and not distract others. Taking their suggestions, I decided that students should be able to come to class five minutes late only if they entered silently. I also talked with them about solutions to some problems that were making them tardy, in particular, the problem of teachers in a prior class keeping them late. I told them that if teachers consistently did this, students should inform the dean of the teacher's school.

Future Solutions

In some countries, universities have devices called "clickers" for students to use. Clickers allow students to quickly answer a question that the teacher writes into a connected software program. These devices allow the teacher to get immediate feedback from students and thereby have an efficient way to assess student learning and plan instruction accordingly to meet students' needs. These devices are especially helpful in large classes where student learning and responses can be difficult for teachers to gauge. Unfortunately, my students do not have clickers. Several programs could fulfill the same surveying function, such as surveys in Zoom or Google Forms, but these are not as efficient as clickers, as they require students to log in to a program first. Furthermore, the process of asking questions and making the survey available for students is often more cumbersome than it could be.

For the future, I intend to identify a free platform, application, or tool that could perform the same functions as clickers with a similar level of efficiency. A program in which students can answer a survey item or other question quickly and in which anonymous results could be displayed for the class to see would be ideal. For the time being, I will continue to use exit slips, where students answer a question anonymously on a piece of paper and turn it in at the end of class. It is not a technologically advanced solution, but it provides helpful feedback on student learning.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, large class sizes present various problems for teachers and students. While smaller classes are better for student learning, various adjustments in the teachers' perspectives and the choices they make in the classroom can ameliorate some of the problems posed by large class sizes and help teachers and students make the best of this situation. Several solutions have been posed to help reduce behavioral problems in large classes, including discipline and building rapport, and it can be seen how students can be involved in creating classroom policies. These solutions can enhance the effectiveness of any large EFL classroom.

THE AUTHOR

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Preparing L2 College Composition Students for Oral Assessments

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Given the increasing affordances provided through generative AI, teaching and assessment are changing. As a proposed alternative assessment model, oral presentations have been suggested as a way to mitigate students' potential misuse of generative AI for completing traditional assessment tasks, such as process-based essay writing. This paper summarizes a classroom-based research project in which the author shifted her focus in her composition classrooms from a nearly exclusive emphasis on written communication to include more spoken skills development. What resulted was a dialogic classroom, one that leveraged both skills in service to each other. The effect of the intervention was tested by comparing L1 and L2 learners' pre- and post-course surveys, measuring self-perceived public speaking self-efficacy and apprehension. The results show a slight potential increase in public speaking self-efficacy and a statistically significant decrease in apprehension for both L1 and L2 classrooms. Implications are discussed for instructors and curriculum designers.

Keywords: college composition, generative AI, public speaking, English for academic purposes, assessment, public speaking self-efficacy, communication apprehension, alternative assessment

INTRODUCTION

This study was motivated by the public unveiling of ChatGPT in October 2022. The author considered what changes to the curriculum this might necessitate in the English Composition classroom as well as in other university classrooms students would find themselves, since part of the goal for English composition is to prepare students for writing and

communication tasks they would encounter in their academic careers, whether in their general English courses or in their major/minor courses.

In reading about the potential curricular and assessment effects generative AI could have on education, the author encountered the idea that speaking might be one method of assessment that would increase, given the increased ease of using ChatGPT for writing assistance. This, coupled with a colleague's comment about the L2 students having a hard time participating in class, subsequently prompted the author to revise her curricula. Additionally, the fact that this was the first time post-COVID that the author was teaching the course entirely in-person made the author keenly aware of potential affordances the virtual classroom lacked. The opportunities for relationship-building specifically seemed increased in the physical classroom and, given that students were still emerging from the pandemic, focusing on community-building seemed like an important focus in redesigning the curriculum.

Specifically, she decided to transform one of the major high-stakes writing assignments into a small group presentation. The original writing assignment was a summary evaluation that required multiple drafts and was source-based. Feedback was given on the two drafts by the author as well as one round of peer feedback; additionally, the author met with the student once to discuss their paper in conferencing.

The revised assignment was a paired presentation that would require the student group to meet with the author to conference over their PowerPoint draft. After the conference, the students would make subsequent changes to their PowerPoint and then present live in class. This would be followed by small group discussions, based on the group's posed questions, and then a short ten-minute journal-writing activity in which the students would summarize their takeaways from the presentation and discussion. These journal-writing notebooks would be the later source of evidence from which to draw to inform future class projects. This requirement, to draw from colleagues experiences, served several purposes: (a) This reduced the likelihood that the student could unethically use generative AI to write parts of their paper (since the examples had to include those from classmates), and (b) the student could see that their experiences had value, as these were drawn to confirm, contradict, or qualify the sources' claims.

By having this presentation instead of the written draft, this did mean that students were then required to submit their other two writing projects for their final portfolio. While this took away their choice –

before they got to submit any two of the three writing projects for their final portfolio – in fact, most students had not been choosing the summary/evaluation one, and instead had chosen to submit the second and third writing projects. Also, the two major writing projects that remained written had built-in choice and flexibility, depending on the students' individual interests and thoughts.

Ultimately, the author wanted to improve the learners' speaking skills and help ensure that they didn't cheat, that is, use ChatGPT to circumvent learning. To do that, she created her curriculum to be more dependent on the students, as opposed to just the texts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Curricular Redesign in the Generative AI Era

Since the broad release of ChatGPT in late 2022, a number of educational stakeholders have called for a redesign of curriculum, with an emphasis on assessment. In their rapid review of ChatGPT's impact on education, Lo (2023) concluded that indeed AI seems to pose a threat to accurate academic assessment of students. This conclusion was empirically supported by Moorhouse et al.'s (2023) review of fifty of the U.S.'s top universities' public guidelines for assessing students, given generative AI. From their review, they even proposed a new instructional competency: generative artificial intelligence (GAI) assessment literacy, to help ensure learning outcomes are achieved. The idea is that instructors would respond to the situation of access to generative AI by critically evaluating and responding to the potential impact on their curricula and assessment methods. Further, the competency would ensure learning along with generative AI, even with implementing it intentionally in the evaluation process, and include ethical use discussions as well. While instructors will likely differ in their views on if and how to implement generative AI in the classroom, the essence of the competency – developing curriculum, including assessment tasks, ever mindful of students' access to generative AI – makes sense.

A few categories of tasks have emerged in terms of assessments that might help ensure learning and aid students in resisting the temptation to rely on generative AI for their thinking. In his review of how

ChatGPT could affect engineer education, Qadir (2023) called for more "alternative assessments," such as projects and orals, since such assessments may be easier to truly gauge the level of student work. As opposed to traditional assessments, such as essays, Qadir rightly asserted that a more live, dynamic demonstration of learning, whether that is an individual or a group of students, would help ensure learning. Such process learning can also be found in accepting "alternative modes of representation" (Moorhouse et al., 2023). Moorhouse et al.'s synthesis of higher education's guidelines showed that such modes could include discussions, recordings, and visuals (i.e., more multimodal expressions, compared to text exclusively). The call for alternative assessments was extended by Overono and Ditta (2023) to also include less traditional grading practices, including the use of upgrading and alternative grading practices. While such assessment methods are on the rise in some composition spaces, the impact on radically increasing adoption of such alternative grading practices seems less realistic than the increase of differing assessment measures. That is, both changes seem too radical, but change may happen incrementally, with an increase in alternative assessment measures coming first.

Specifically, re-envisioning in-class work has been a focus. Labeled "real-time assessment," Tlili et al. (2023) called for oral presentations and in-class essays. Rudolph et al. (2023) expanded the vision of in-class time to also include various teaching choices. They suggested the increased use of flipped learning, which includes more at-home study, with in-class time devoted to dynamic exercises and dialogue between instructor and course participants.

Given that in-class writing might be seen as regressive, oral assessments appear as a more possible assessment measure that might be implemented in response to generative AI (Gardner & Giordano, 2023; King & ChatGPT, 2023; Lo, 2023; Tlili et al., 2023). Tlili et al. even proposed that a redesign of assessment measures, including more oral presentations and debates, might require a "new teaching philosophy." The use of oral-based assessment seems so inevitable that when conversing with ChatGPT, King received such a suggestion as a way to ensure student learning. Gardner and Giordano (2023) provided a discipline-specific example of how such oral assessments might be realized. In the undergraduate physical chemistry classroom, the authors report on the relative success of implementing such an assessment measure. The authors report that although the students experienced the

task as challenging, the students ultimately praised the assessment, as they perceived it as preparing them for their future professional work. For future class interactions, the students were "overwhelmingly in favor" of keeping the evaluation method (p. 1706). In terms of instructor experience, Gardner and Giordano noted that the time commitment was rather large. However, even with this drawback, the instructors thought that the oral exams helped preserve academic integrity and also, perhaps surprisingly, allowed for deeper relationship-building among students and instructors. Finally, the instructors reported that student knowledge gaps appeared more in the dynamic oral assessment compared to more traditional measures. Of course, such assessment would likely be a bit more difficult to organize, given the pressures placed on students with accommodations or students who might be asked to perform the assessment in a subsequent, not first, language. Regardless, Gardner and Giordano (2023) provided an example for learning with the use of oral assessments in academic courses.

A theme of redesigning curriculum for the inclusion of more real-world experiences was not only echoed in Gardner and Giordano (2023) but in other sources as well (Moorhouse et al., 2023; Overono & Ditta, 2023; UCLA CAT, 2023). In their review of fifty U.S. higher educational institutions' guidelines, Moorhouse et al. report that instructors were encouraged to "incorporate contextual elements by connecting course content to real-life experiences" (p. 8). At least one institutional guideline further recommends not only student's lives but current events (Guidance). Conceptually, Overono and Ditta (2023) labeled this more direct emphasis on connecting learning to student experience as "[refocusing] students on work that is personally meaningful, accomplished only by humans."

What is clear from the above is the potential for an increase of oral assessments for student learning in the postsecondary context. However, how this might affect preparatory courses (e.g., entry-level writing requirements at universities) is not yet known. If in fact there will be more of an emphasis on verbal work, it would be prudent for such courses to recalibrate their emphasis as well.

What may be most striking with the more commonplace practice and utilization of generative AI is the more glaring difference it exposes about human and non-human agents. With a focus on technology-created writing, what humans can do well or differently from generative AI technology is a question worth considering. It may be that Fink's (2013)

taxonomy of learning, in contrast to Bloom's, found even more relevance in curriculum studies. In contrast to Bloom's cognitive taxonomy that is often referenced (Armstrong, 2010), Fink's model accounted for a broader set of competencies in learning, including an enriched context for one's learning. Defining learning as "changing," Fink incorporated within his learning model the following ideas: foundational knowledge, application, integration, human dimension, caring, and metacognition. Further, he described the taxonomy as relational and interactive, in contrast to Bloom's hierarchical and progressive model. Specifically, the categories of caring and the human dimension extend beyond the learner to account for the broader social context in which the learning occurs and for which it takes shape and is in response to. While generative AI holds foundational knowledge, can at least minimally apply information, and even more limitedly integrate information, it is the human and caring notions that remain salient for the human learner theirself. The final "learning how to learn" principle, while it may be possible in unsupervised learning with machines, for the human learner is reflective and individualized. In sum, Fink's more human-infused learning taxonomy may be an especially useful model for reconceiving curriculum in an era of emerging generative AI technologies.

Positioning learning, at least meaningful learning, as taking place between humans, cooperative learning practices emerge as ever more important learning activities. In their discussion of what makes for a motivating classroom, Dornyei and Muir (2019) argued that some motivation can be influenced by the instructor's management of the classroom and related activities. In the context of English language learning, Dornyei and Muir argued that sustained learning depends in part both instruction and enjoyable classroom conditions. They stress the value of group cohesiveness, which they define as "the internal gelling force that keeps the group together" (p. 4). What's required is acceptance among group members, the group's commitment to the task at hand, and group pride. Dornyei and Muir further discussed how group norms and roles can influence motivation for learning. This discussion sheds light on the interactiveness and almost dependence on learning by, at least in part, having a welcoming classroom climate. The fruits of such a harmonious classroom were empirically confirmed in Zhang et al. (2020). As a result of their work, they found that self-efficacy, as it relates to English for academic purposes (EAP), could improve over time with classroom work. In addition to ample practice time, teacher

feedback, and encouraging process, they highlighted the "[building of] a supportive and cooperative rather than a competitive, stressful classroom climate to reduce speakers' anxiety levels" (p. 13). While extrinsic rewards, such as grades, certainly play a part in learning, this discussion shows that cooperation can also be motivating and result in learning gains for speaking skills.

L2 Speaking

In an EAP context, "one of the biggest difficulties for students is expressing themselves in speech" (Jordan, 1997, p. 193). This may be by participating in discussions, asking questions in lectures, or presenting material; the skill is multi-faceted. Thus, it follows that due attention should be paid to cultivating this skill in EAP classrooms.

Influencing speaking as a skill are the impacts of self-efficacy and anxiety. Mills et al. (2006) defined self-efficacy as "a construct grounded in social cognitive theory ... defined as personal beliefs in one's capabilities" (p. 277). In their work, they further cited Bandura's definition of anxiety: "a state of anticipatory apprehension over possible deleterious happenings" (p. 278). In measuring students' self-efficacy and anxiety related to reading and listening tasks in an additional language, Mills et al.'s work found that "anxiety serves as both a resource and effect of self-efficacy beliefs" (p. 279). They further reported that self-efficacy was more of a predictor of achievement than anxiety. They found that students with higher levels of reading self-efficacy had higher reading proficiency scores, and they also had less anxiety. As for listening, self-efficacy was only related to achievement for female students. And listening anxiety was significantly associated with the listening performance of all students.

A variety of scales have been developed to attempt to accurately capture the complex skill of speaking in English as an additional language, especially as it relates to public speaking anxiety. Within the context of English as a foreign language public speaking, Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) completed work to develop a Public Speaking Class Anxiety scale. McCroskey (1986) outlined a 24-question survey to assess speaking communication apprehension. This survey accounted for four contexts: group discussions, meetings, interpersonal conversations, and public speaking. The assessment also accounted for three distinct audiences or "receivers" of one's spoken message: strangers,

acquaintances, and friends. This instrument, named Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA)-24B, later evolved into PRCA-24 (McCroskey, 2005), which omitted the receiver sub-scores, which may have been redundant with the rhetorical context sub-scores. This latest survey, PRCA-24, was tested on both non-student adults and postsecondary learners, showing similar findings.

In terms of self-efficacy with speaking, Zhang et al. (2019, 2022) created an assessment for the L2 learning context. Their original work in 2019 sought to develop a scale to assess EPS self-efficacy. Testing their instrument in China with 455 EFL students, they distilled their work into four competencies: topic, organization, language, and delivery. In their more recent work, Zhang et al. (2022) brought their bifactor model into the L2 realm, which allows for more generalized scores as well as individual sub-scores. They based their work on Bandura's (2006) notion that self-efficacy is domain specific. Their work includes three models (one old and two new) for assessing self-efficacy in L2 public speaking. They concluded that their bifactor model was able to measure the uniform ESL construct including the four aforementioned competencies. Further, Zhang et al. (2022) provided a series of implications for increasing such self-efficacy in the language learning classroom. Specifically, they outlined the scaffolding of model delivery, practicing strategies for effective delivery, peer presentation opportunities, and using group discussions for learning. Such work both provides an instrument for assessing L2 speaking and also possible interventions for improving self-efficacy with public speaking specifically.

Such recommendations for classroom engagement appear to have roots in a sociocultural learning approach. With Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of mind, such an approach theorizes a reciprocal approach to learning amongst learners: one informing the others' learning (Ortega, 2009, p. 219). As a model for a dialogic classroom, Weissberg (2006) argued for the "inclusion of social interaction in writing instruction for L2 learners." He called this phenomenon a model for a "dialogic writing classroom" (p. 9), a space that allows for a "synergy of conversation and writing to take place" (p. 19). While grounding this work primarily for L2 learners, Weissberg drew on development theories to argue that such a classroom can support not only L2 but L1 learners as well. Like Dornyei and Muir (2019), Weissberg emphasized that such a classroom is not incidental but intentional.

Weissberg (2006) outlined his model, which identifies five "primarily opportunities for dialogue in typical writing lessons" (p. 21). These writing phases include pre-writing talk, invention talk, prompting, responding to students' writing, and reflective talk. Weissberg identified pre-writing talk as being most applicable in the planning and pre-writing stage of a writing assignment. This can include small-group or whole-class discussions on the topic that the assignment is on and include discussion of the assignment guidelines as well. Invention talk is aligned with most planning, pre-writing, and the composing stages of writing, where students generate material for their written assignments, whether that is words, phrases, or full sentences. The third opportunity for dialogue in the writing classroom is prompting. This can manifest as the student requesting assistance on an assignment, a peer's comments on another's assignment, or an instructor asking for clarification or elaboration on a learner's assignment. The fourth space in the dialogic classroom is responding to students' writing in the revising and editing stage of the writing process. Again, this could be from peers in a peer review task or a conference with a tutor or instructor, and either written or oral. Finally, reflective talk and debriefing is an opportunity in the post-writing stage, wherein one reviews their work metacognitively and can forge links to future assignment or communication opportunities.

The current review of the scholarship has shown that postsecondary assessment is likely to change as a response to the threats generative AI pose to curriculum. One idea that has been discussed is using oral assessments, whereby students' spontaneous output is less prone to being inappropriately informed by generative AI and subsequently clearer as to what the student knows. However, especially in the college composition classroom for L2 learners of English, what curricular interventions can prepare students for such assessments is less known. This paper seeks to contribute knowledge to this gap by outlining a curricular intervention, using a dialogic classroom model framework (Weissberg, 2006). The intervention measures the effects of such a classroom intervention on L2 learners' English public speaking anxiety and self-efficacy.

Research Questions

RQ1. To what extent can redesigning college composition curriculum with a focus on oral expression decrease L2 learners' communication apprehension for speaking English for

academic purposes?

RQ2. To what extent can redesigning college composition curriculum with a focus on oral expression increase L2 learners' self-efficacy for speaking English for academic purposes?

METHOD

Context

This study took place in two English composition classrooms in an American research-intensive university. The two courses, occurring in the Spring 2023 quarter, fulfilled the university's analytical writing requirement, with the L2 course also fulfilling the university's English as a second language requirement. The ten-week courses shared the same curriculum, with the L2 course worth an additional credit unit for language and rhetorical support. Both courses were taught by the same instructor.

Participants

All participants were enrolled undergraduates. Nineteen students enrolled in an entry-level writing course, and 14 in another entry-level writing course designated for L2 learners. Of those students, 13 in each class completed both the pre- and post-course surveys.

Study Design

This study measured the changes in English public speaking self-efficacy and anxiety via pre- and post-course surveys. The survey was a hybrid of two scales: that of Zhang et al. (2022) and that of McCroskey (2005). Coupled with this measurement was the redesigning of curriculum, which involved transforming an individual writing project into a partnered presentation. Subsequent revisions to the curriculum included small group discussions following the presentations, and then journaling time in a digital notebook. Finally, students leveraged their journal notes and presentations as evidence in their individual final papers. Students were further given an option to complete a written or spoken course reflection, when in the past the written mode was required.

Students were invited to take the pre-course survey via email by Week 1 of the course; they were also given time in class to complete it. The post-course survey was administered in class in Week 7 of the quarter, which was the week following the conclusion of all student presentations. Both the pre- and post-course surveys were administered via the course learning management system, Canvas. The responses were reviewed, downloaded, and analyzed after grades for both courses had been submitted. Students were informed of the research and the voluntary nature through a statement on the syllabus, by emails about the research, and in announcements in class.

The intervention took place in Weeks 2–6 of the ten-week course. First, students were introduced to the critical reading representation guidelines and the rubric. The author (i.e., the instructor) then delivered a multimodal presentation (i.e., a spoken presentation enhanced with PowerPoint slides) of the day's reading. This presentation was meant to provide a model to the students. Small group discussions followed in which students asked each other questions about the reading that they had produced as homework. They then were provided a ten-minute in-class journaling time to reflect on the presentation, their small group discussions, and their own understandings of the reading. This sequence provided students an example of what tasks would accompany their presentations in subsequent class sessions. Students then watched and analyzed a sample TED Talk both for content and for effective speaking style. In the following class, additional discussion of another TED Talk, one assigned for homework, ensued. Student small group presentations then commenced in the second half of Week 2, with 1–2 presentations delivered each class through Week 6.

The critical reading presentation was a 5-to-10-minute summary/ evaluation of an assigned source (reading or TED Talk). The guidelines and rubric specified an analytical approach to the summary and the evaluation requiring a review of the source's assumptions or reasoning, coupled with evidence in support of the position. This assignment was a revised version of the original written assignment. Like the former assignment, the presentation followed a process approach, with students being required to meet beforehand to jointly craft a presentation draft, which was then conferenced with the author at least two days before the presentation itself. A revised presentation was then delivered by the students live in class and their PPT posted on the class website, followed by small group discussions, and journaling. The journals and PPT

postings then served as options for evidence to use in their final writing project.

Data

The instrument was a pre- and post-course survey, comprising two vetted scales: Zhang et al.'s (2022) English for Public Speaking's ESES scale, measuring self-efficacy with public speaking, and McCroskey's (2005) Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24), which measures communicative apprehension.

Data Analysis

RStudio was used to run two sets of ANOVA tests to compare pre- and post-course surveys across the two student groups. The author completed CITI training for working with human subjects. IRB approval was obtained: 23-000418.

RESULTS

RQ 1. To what extent can redesigning college composition curriculum with a focus on oral expression decrease L2 learners' communication apprehension for speaking English for academic purposes?

The ANOVA results showed statistically significant differences in the two student groups in terms of change (lower) in their post-course survey response concerning public speaking apprehension, compared to their pre-course surveys (*p*-value = 0.012; see Table 1).

The ANOVA is a mixed subject, as the level variable (L1 and L2) was between subjects and the time period was within pre- and post-course surveys. The computations were based on 24 degrees of freedom, after subtracting 2 (since there were two levels, L1 and L2) from the number of participants, 26.

TABLE 1. ANOVA Output Table for Communication Apprehension with Public Speaking

Effect	DFn	DFd	F	p (p < .05)	ges
level	1	24	0.161	0.692	0.006000
time_period	1	24	7.392	0.012	* 0.026000
level:time_period	1	24	0.156	0.697	0.000553

Note. DFn = degrees of freedom for the numerator, DFd = degrees of freedom in the denominator, F = the F-statistic, p = p-value, and ges = generalized eta squared. The asterisk (*) indicates a p-value of statistical significance at 0.05 or lower.

Descriptive statistics for the effect of time period ($n = 26$) showed a mean of 69.19 with a standard deviation of 15.16 for pre-course surveys and a mean of 65.65 with a standard deviation of 14.95 for the post-course surveys.

RQ 2. To what extent can redesigning college composition curriculum with a focus on oral expression increase L2 learners' self-efficacy for speaking for English academic purposes?

The ANOVA results showed a p-value approaching significance ($p = 0.107$) for the variable of time for pre- and post-self-assessments concerning self-efficacy in public speaking (see Table 2). While an alpha level of 0.05 for p-value is most commonly used, a level of 0.107 could mean a possible trend.

TABLE 2. ANOVA Output Table for Self-Efficacy with Public Speaking

Effect	DFn	DFd	F	p (p < .05)	ges
level	1	24	1.234	0.278	4.10e-02
time_period	1	24	2.807	0.107	.90e-02
level:time_period	1	24	0.006	0.937	4.45e-05

Note. DFn = degrees of freedom for the numerator, DFd = degrees of freedom in the denominator, F = the F-statistic, p = p-value, and ges = generalized eta squared.

Descriptive statistics for the effect of time period ($n = 26$) showed a mean of 37.85 with a standard deviation of 6.39 for pre-course surveys and a mean of 39.46 with a standard deviation of 5.59 for the post-course surveys.

DISCUSSION

Curriculum Redesign in the Generative AI Era

The described classroom redesign marks one example of an instructor's attempt at generative AI assessment literacy (Moorhouse et al., 2023), wherein the instructor evaluated and redesigned their course, given the threats generative AI posed to the previous curriculum. Anecdotally, the author was able to see that students seemed to meet the learning outcomes compared to the previous curriculum. This was evidenced by the students producing rich analyses in their presentations and continued to do so in their subsequent writing projects. Interestingly, the author observed that the students' source critiques (i.e., the content of their presentations) were more nuanced than previous course participants' writings.

This paper's intervention adds to the emerging body of evidence that, indeed, oral presentations, informed by the students' personal experiences, can meet learning outcomes similar to those of writing assignments. Further, the documentation and analysis of students' experiences vis-à-vis the presentations present authentic evidence for student analysis in subsequent assignments, further hedging against the possible misuse of generative AI. Such a shift in the curriculum did appear more like a philosophical shift as Tlili (2023) suggested, as a change to one assignment had a cascading effect on subsequent assignments. The author viewed curricula with an emphasis on social engagement and then capitalizing on this for knowledge creation in student-produced artifacts. Additionally, such emphasis on social exchange with course participants did appear to spark deeper relationship-building as Gardner and Giordano (2023) suggested.

This revision to the curriculum also marks a refocusing of content to students' lives. That is, the curriculum can create a meaningful experience for the students not only by practicing rhetorical skills (i.e, speaking and literacy) but with critical reflection on how well current ideas capture their lived experiences and by showing students that such ideas can be revised based on conflicting experiences they have had. This intervention presents a case example of refocusing curriculum on the student and the current moment for negating inappropriate generative AI use (Moorhouse et al., 2023; Overnono & Ditta, 2023). Arguably, the

intervention thus offers a more humanized vision of learning, part of which, as Fink (2013) stated, contributes to significant learning.

L2 Speaking

The results for the first research question show that students in both groups, L1 and L2 college composition classrooms, reported decreased apprehension in terms of public speaking. To the extent that self-perceived apprehension is overall a useful characteristic (i.e., one that has real implications for student learning), this result suggests that engaging students in a more dialogic approach to learning (Weissberg, 2003) can have measurable psychological effects. The classroom environment employed Weissberg's framework of integrating speaking in the service of writing. Indeed, Weissberg's theoretical framework was practically implemented with pre-writing opportunities, including a whole-class discussion of the assignment guidelines – both the presentation and writing projects – and the students engaging with their colleagues' presentations in the subsequent discussion and journaling period. Invention talk was employed in the post-presentation discussion as well and in the conferencing of the presentations with the author. Prompting was most used during the interaction the presentation group had with the author in terms of reading content, their ideas, and how to convey that to their audience most effectively. Further, speaking was employed in responding to students' writing when the author commented on the student's PowerPoint draft during conferencing for the presentation, as well as in continued conferencing on the two major writing projects. Finally, reflective speaking was apparent when small groups discussed how they would use the material referenced in the presentations (the PPTs) and generated in their journals to inform their final writing project.

These findings align with Zhang et al.'s (2020) reporting of decreased anxiety levels in students' speaking with a supportive classroom environment. Such an environment was achieved with students partnering to complete the group presentation and sharing in dialogue in small groups with the aim of exchanging ideas and stories of experience to later draw from and incorporate into other assignment projects.

As students' self-reported self-efficacy changed on the pre- and post-course surveys at an alpha level approaching significance ($p = 0.106$), more investigation to corroborate or challenge this potential

significance is needed. As Mackey and Gass (2016) have called for, setting significance levels to 0.05 is somewhat arbitrary and replication studies would help determine significance, especially when long-term research is not possible. Thus, there is a potential that self-efficacy increased with the intervention. What can be said with more confidence is that apprehension lowered more than an increase in self-efficacy. That these results differed suggests that apprehension and self-efficacy may continue to be independent constructs and thus should be measured separately. Future studies on curricular interventions for an anticipated increase in speaking assessments would likely want to measure each construct and continue to investigate the relationship between them.

Further, while self-reported anxiety decreased, this did not seem to have a (positive) effect on self-efficacy, as Mills et al. (2006) reported is possible. This may be due to the relatively small decrease in apprehension. Thus, it is possible that continually working to find instructional methods to decrease speaker anxiety may, in fact, show a positive effect on self-efficacy. Such an outcome could be desirable to further improve student performance (Mills et al., 2006).

CONCLUSIONS

This study presents a model of curriculum redesign through the lens of generative AI literacy (Morrhouse et al., 2023) using Weissberg's (2006) model of a dialogic classroom for L2 writing instruction. The results offer a promising approach to further considerations of curriculum (re)design as instructors and other stakeholders continue to re-envision learning in a watershed era of technological affordances.

One important limitation of this study is the low number of participants. With more research participants, the conclusions drawn can be more valid. Future research efforts can aid in testing the conclusions drawn in this study and may even consider using the instrument that this author used.

If in fact oral communication skills grow more salient not only in post-secondary curriculum and assessment but in professional spheres as well, it is ever more important to prepare L2 learners of English with the self-efficacy and reduced anxiety to speak in such contexts. Further work to uncover the most promising methods of such instruction are warranted.

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The Blossoming of a Language Teacher Identity: Revisiting a Semi-Native Speaker's First Journey in English Teaching

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This report shares the author's self-reflective flashback of her very first English teaching position through preliminary findings from an autoethnography that consisted of a narrative of her language background as well as the events that surrounded the time of her very first English teaching post, which was that of an internship in Japan that lasted for four months. The author examines how perceived language teacher identity affected these first language teaching work experiences in her life and how they, in turn, further added to her developing identity at the time and later in her academic and professional life. In addition to the narrative, the author addresses how personal characteristics and factors, such as physical appearance, ethnicity, family background, and personality affected how her superiors, English learners, and their parents perceived her as a language teacher. Through an analysis of teaching reports, evaluations, cultural notes, and teaching logs from this early period in her professional life, the author hopes to address some challenges of teaching English in East Asia, especially challenges faced by teachers with language and cultural identities that do not appear to align with the mainstream expectation of what an English teacher ought to be.

Keywords: EFL in East Asia, English language teaching, identity negotiation, language teacher identity, linguistic identity

INTRODUCTION

"What does it mean to be a language teacher?" or similar variants of the question, have been asked of me during the job application process for almost all teaching positions I have ever applied for. As a

relatively inexperienced newcomer to the professional scene, I used to think of the answers in a very straightforward manner: that to be a language teacher simply meant to fulfill my duties in such a way that educates those who are placed in my charge. As to how I would fulfill my duties, I was full of optimism that as long as I used all that I had learned through my own education, training, qualifications, and preparations up to that point, I would achieve the expected results. However, as the years went by, and as I accumulated more education, training, and experience as a language teacher, I began to realize that there are some characteristics within me that will always be influencing factors in the perceived effectiveness and quality of language education that I am able to provide for the language learners whom I am assigned to teach. Research further suggests that such realization often comes with emotional turmoil, as teachers deal with the "emotional vulnerability" that may arise from different expectations of diverse students and workplaces, leading them to mask "what they actually feel" into "what they try to feel" in an effort to align with their "professional status" and eventually causing "shifting pedagogies" (Song, 2016, pp. 633–634). Therefore, along with this realization also comes the discovery that my language teaching identity, who I am and who I have come to be throughout my language teaching journey, will always affect the outcomes of whether I succeed in helping students meet their language needs and goals.

Furthermore, this personal self-discovery appears to align with various scholars' research on language teacher identity throughout the decades, as they have argued that as teachers negotiated their own professional and multilingual identities, students' learning outcomes could either be enhanced or changed as a result of teachers' emerging sense of self through their interactions with the given environment, as well as their dynamic formations of their sociocultural and sociopolitical identities, which may also affect their pedagogical practices (Chao et al., 2019; De Costa & Norton, 2017; Edwards & Burns, 2016; Hochstetler, 2011; Song, 2016). This type of transformation is even more poignantly felt for teachers teaching internationally, as issues such as race, ethnicity, native or non-native speaker status, and varieties and accents of English have all played important roles as well in shaping the teachers' experiences in what may already be uncharted territory for them in their teaching journey, as they must also navigate a different cultural and behavioral code in their relationship-building with students. In such

cases, the "classroom" serves as an "in-between space" in which the "self" interacts with "others" in a given "sociocultural context," where "pedagogy" may become "the negotiation of values, ideologies, race, and power between teachers and students," causing the combination of "instruction" and "identity" as some teachers came to long for "approval from a particular group of students and colleagues" (Chao et al., 2019, p. 9). Throughout this report, some existing literature on prominent aspects of language teacher identity that may affect many teachers' overall experience in teaching English in East Asia, such as native speaker status and ethnic or cultural background, are explored. This is followed by a revisit to my own first English language teaching journey in Japan through work logs, cultural notes, and evaluations, in the hope that there is an improved understanding of how the development and transformation of my language teacher identity took place and implications that this may have on language teaching identity and English teaching in East Asia in general.

KEY LITERATURE

At the turn of the last century, a new wave of opportunities in parts of East Asia rushed in like a tidal wave for EFL teachers, who were already often sought after with English being an international language. This was in part caused by government policies in Japan, Korea, and Taiwan that would introduce English education as early as first grade in elementary schools (Butler, 2004). The sudden need for public English school teachers meant that society was in want of English speakers, native or non-native, in a sudden movement to fill in vacant positions. However, many teachers' English competencies at the time varied and had "varying levels of qualifications and levels of training" (Butler, 2004, p. 247). In this sudden need for so many English teachers simultaneously, the affordance to hire what is considered a native English speaker within the allotted time was perhaps in that moment a rare treat.

Nevertheless, decades later, the need for the ideal native English speaker as the sought-after English teacher has now evolved into an almost exclusive requirement. Ruecker and Ives provided an example of how a Korean recruitment website for English teachers used imagery devices in its pictures and advertisement to send the overall message that

the ideal (i.e., sought-after) English teacher was "a young, White, enthusiastic, native speaker of English coming from a predominantly White country where English is the official language" (2015, p. 734). This perception of what the English teacher is and ought to be does not change even if the teacher may share similar commonalities with the students. This is especially true throughout Asia, where English teachers of Asian descent, even with native or near-native speaker status, do not receive the same privilege or reception as those who are perceived as the ideal English teacher as aforementioned. For example, Filipino teachers of English working in Thailand are perceived as "second-class English-speaking teachers" with less pay and "less favorable housing arrangements and working conditions" compared to their white colleagues because "English is perceived as interconnected with whiteness" and "variants of English" from the West are considered the norm for English, whereas other variants, such as Philippine English, is considered "less prestigious" (Perez-Amurao & Sunantra, 2020, pp. 108−109). The racialization of this profession is further illustrated in a Singaporean advertisement that sought "native speaking Caucasian English teachers" (Aneja, 2016, p. 576). Through this lens, it would appear that qualifications and experience aside, the emphasis for the ideal candidate in this profession is on race and being a native speaker. These expectations may all have an effect on how language teachers view their own identity. For those who are privileged enough to have these prerequisite expectations met, do they struggle with identity transformation or the need to maintain others' perception of their ideal status? And for those who are in this case the marginalized group of teachers, how will they overcome these struggles and grow into a new, confident teacher identity?

This has often caused me to wonder whether all English language educators must face some level of identity crisis in their professional lives, and whether that is a rite of passage in the profession. After all, teachers of English, depending on where and whom they are teaching, are likely to have a myriad of labels that are bestowed upon them by others through perceived expectations. Scholars have referred to teaching languages as "identity work" where outwardly we are guides, global citizens, powers of authority, etc., who must constantly experience change inwardly, whether consciously or subconsciously, as we come to possess enough confidence to become more aware culturally or reflectively (De Costa & Norton, 2017; Edwards & Burns, 2016;

Hochstetler, 2011). However, some of the changes may be negative and yet at the same time difficult to pinpoint, as in the example of one English teacher in South Korea, who was once "considered to be a good teacher" and therefore "was proud of what [she] was doing and what [she] was able to do for the students" but now feels "trapped" because she felt that she no longer "was the teacher that was admired" (Song, 2016, p. 231). The good news is that within the last decade, teachers of English with multi-faceted identities, such as those who are not native speakers of English, have been making breakthroughs, gradually coming to terms with their multi-lingual and multi-cultural identities, and even embracing their non-nativeness as well as other aspects of their language teacher identity (Park, 2012; Yazan, 2019). Among these teachers, one scholar attempted to piece together his journey of negotiating his identities as a language learner and teacher through an autoethnography (Yazan, 2019). It is through this inspiration that I decided to face my past self and looked back into how the very early stages of my life teaching English in Japan helped me first navigate through my many identities.

METHOD OF REFLECTION

Autoethnography is "a genre of qualitative research" where "our researcher personality becomes a central piece" as we "explore the ways we influence and are influenced by cultural discourses surrounding us," and it enables us to self-reflect to "negotiate in-between identities" (Yazan, 2019, pp. 40–41). In this report, I focus specifically on my first-ever English teaching job, which was a four-month internship in Japan. To construct my self-reflection, I will provide a detailed flashback narrative that serves as a preliminary interpretation of certain events that I believe to have influenced my perceptions of the whole experience as either positive or negative in my memory. Then, I present existing data from monthly reports that I had written every month, daily teaching logs, cultural logs that I wrote periodically whenever I noticed something in the target culture that I found interesting or was not accustomed to, and periodic evaluation forms from the parents of students whom I taught. Through these existing data, I attempt to find commonalities and patterns to piece together my experience at the time and gradual growth in my first attempt to negotiate my multiple identities within the scope of

English language teaching.

First Teaching Experience Revisited

As the new year approached, the wintry weather had once again engulfed the valley in which my school was situated in glistening snow when I returned for a new, first day of school in the winter semester. I had just completed one-and-a-half years of school as well as a study abroad program without any break since I started university. Still, upon my return to school, I was already filled with anticipation of all the training and tasks I was about to undertake that semester in preparation for an English teaching internship in Japan during the spring and summer months that I had just successfully applied to and secured. This day marked the beginning of my journey as a language teacher. I was filled with hope, excitement, aspirations, and dreams of what it might be like to be an English teacher. I imagined where my learning, training, and language teaching practicums would take me. I also fantasized about the bridge that I could become between cultures as lasting relationships with my co-workers and students were built. However, as I very quickly realized, the road towards becoming that bridge was full of rocks that came in the form of preconceived notions, doubt, prejudice, and awkwardness.

The very first task I was given was a four-month assignment in which I was to aid in digitizing the textbooks that would be used in the four teaching months in Japan before I set off for the country. Although it was difficult to juggle such a workload during a busy semester, I found a sense of fulfillment. I was contributing to the overall English teaching program by transcribing passages, editing authentic materials to match the students' levels, and creating vocabulary lists with translations after school. Everything was considered "voluntary" unpaid work, which I did not mind, especially whenever I thought of how many future years of teachers and students these materials may benefit. I must confess, though, that I did feel a sudden sharp pain of bitterness when, one day, one of my fellow classmates in my preparatory language teaching pedagogy class, who also worked on the project, reminded everyone via email to "clock in" for their work. She was soon to discover that she and one other American classmate were the only ones who were officially hired and paid to work on, and perhaps to even oversee, our project as peers, serving as almost an intermediary supervisor between the rest of us "volunteers" and the director of the program. This was the

first time since my preparation for the internship that I began to feel a sense of self-doubt. Perhaps, among those whom I thought to be my peers, I felt I did not deserve to be anything beyond an unpaid intern because I did not possess an ease with the English language that true native speakers would feel. After all, though I was born in the United States, I had spent a significant part of my childhood in Taiwan, and while I believed myself to be at least a near-native if not a native English speaker, my years abroad may have affected my overall English language ability due to a lack of daily practice and use. However, I shall not jump to conclusions just yet, for upon looking back at this memory, I should like to think optimistically and assume that there may have been reasons, beyond simple prejudice, that my peers who were chosen to be paid to do the same type and amount of work perhaps had other skills to provide. They may have been editors or English majors, for instance, and with additional communication and transparency in terms of program management, I perhaps would not have felt so taken aback.

In spite of all this, my confidence had not completely wavered just yet. While handling material preparation tasks, I was simultaneously enrolled in courses that involved going through a series of teaching practicums, where I learned the fundamentals of language teaching methods. Additionally, I took a course aimed at enhancing our intercultural competence before arriving in Japan. The professor in the intercultural preparation course cautioned us about the dangers of what he termed "abominable fluency." This refers to a situation in which we might utter grammatically correct sentences but inadvertently cause offense due to a lack of cultural awareness. I was at the time confident that this would not relate to me, for I prided myself in having been fortunate enough to be exposed to aspects of Japanese culture more than my fellow classmates. Growing up in Taiwan, I would often hear my older relatives recount what it was like living in Taiwan during the pre-WWII Japanese colonial era, interacting with their Japanese neighbors and friends, and the Japanese cultural remnants that were left behind in modern Taiwanese lifestyles. I never imagined then that among all my peers, I would eventually come to have the most difficult time adjusting to the cultural environment.

Monthly Reports and Teaching Logs

As I arrived during the first day of class with a fellow American

colleague, the students, who ranged from junior high school to adults, and some of the students' parents, who stayed for the whole first class, appeared to be rather curious about me. They wondered whether I was my colleague's "assistant," and asked me questions about where I am from and details about my personal background, as if to navigate my language teacher identity themselves. At the end of the class, I overheard one of the parents ask in a whisper to another, "I wonder if she can really speak English well?"

As it was my first day, I shrugged it off. Upon reviewing my initial internship report now, it is evident that this did not affect me much. I still expressed high hopes that I would not only be able to prepare students linguistically and culturally for the U.S. – as some aspired – and help them pass all the standardized English proficiency tests but also to build meaningful and lasting relationships with students, parents, colleagues, superiors, and host families that I met while in Japan.

However, by my last internship report, which I wrote to a professor at my university who was not involved in the internship itself but oversaw my growth as part of an internship-for-credit option for my academic grades, I was clearly discouraged as time progressed. None of the students passed their English proficiency exams during the course of my internship, even though I did believe myself to have worked hard everyday in preparing what I thought to be effective lessons – grammar, drills, essay writing tips, pronunciation corrections, going over readings of authentic materials that consisted of stories and famous speeches, etc. However, all of this gave me the label of the "boring" teacher who did not know what she was doing. Perhaps that was how I eventually thought of myself, too, and my own view towards myself may have shown through in my teaching as well. Some students were frank in their thoughts about the class at the end of a class day, perhaps thinking that I did not understand Japanese, and expressed how pointless they thought the classes were, especially in contrast with my fellow American colleague. From one of my teaching logs, I can see that one week when they came back from a long weekend, I asked them what they had remembered from the prior week. While no one remembered any grammar points that we had gone over from the textbook or mock proficiency exams, they did remember some of the lyrics that I had shared with them from Taylor Swift's new album and music videos at the time, as well as the jeopardy game we played in class with a small prize of candy at the end.

Evaluation Forms

The music, fun, and games were just what I would have preferred myself anyway over the materials that I was teaching, but at the time, I thought that to be taken seriously as a professional was to really tackle the materials that related to their goals in a straightforward manner. Now looking back, I know that I was subconsciously trying to play the role of who I thought I ought to be. I evidently thought wrong. Not only were the students displeased, the parents, who from their first class impressions may have already doubted my English skills and teaching abilities, all gave me low ratings on communication, dependability, and creativity, when asked to check how well I performed in several categories on periodic evaluation forms. How could this be? I had never prior to this been labeled as a person who lacked creativity. In fact, teachers, classmates, and friends throughout my life had often described me as a creative thinker. In terms of communication, I felt that though there were difficulties expressing my exact sentiments in Japanese, I had the right words and grammar most of the time and strove to faithfully report to the parents their children's progress in their native language. Yet, I could feel that as time progressed, any meaningful connection I had hoped to build was slipping further and further away with each passing day, but I did not understand the reason for this. By the end of the program, my relationship with my students had gotten so poor that they were not willing to perform their final-day cultural performances under my direction until my fellow American colleague urged them to. Looking back, I did observe that there was much fun and laughter to be had whenever students and parents were in conversation with my fellow American colleague. She spoke very little Japanese, and when she finally did say something in Japanese and used it in such a way that would have been culturally inappropriate, no offense appeared to be taken. Trying to make sense of all this, I looked back on the cultural logs that I had kept at the time to see whether there might be factors recorded there that contributed to this.

Cultural Logs

The first note in my cultural log is a quote of what more than a few Japanese people had said to me while I was in Japan: "Anna-san looks

like an Asian person." Prior to this encounter, I had always thought this statement to be obvious. Are not Japanese people Asians too? Why am I given the special distinction of looking like an Asian person? The first reason, as I later found out, is that in general the Japanese see themselves as people who are distinct from those of other parts of Asia. Perhaps this is due to both geographical and cultural reasons; however, they do not deny that they are from Asia. The second reason had to do specifically with my individual circumstances, as one of my host fathers kindly clarified. He remarked that even though I introduced myself as coming from the United States, I looked Asian (for I am Asian, after all!). Yet something about me gave me away as not being Japanese. It turns out that even though many people in Japan asked me about my ethnicity, as people used to do when I was in America, the way the Japanese make assumptions or guesses about someone's ethnicity goes beyond physical traits, skin tone, and facial features. My second host father, who was native Japanese, said that I smiled too much and often made direct eye contact when talking to people. Normal Japanese people do not usually do this. Yet, many Asians from nearby countries also do not smile so often and make eye contact naturally, which makes people wonder what kind of Asian I may be. Based on my behavior, I did not appear to belong to any group of Asians whom the Japanese people had met.

Another point in my cultural notes served as an example of how my language ability in Japanese may have done more harm than good in my communication with my students, their parents, and all the native Japanese people I wished I had built better relationships with. Upon the recommendation of my Japanese professor to take ownership of my own Japanese language studies during this time, I read stories about Japan in Japanese and sometimes shared them with my host families, whose children were among the students in my class. Once, upon coming across a story, I remarked without pretense that I thought the behavior the character in the story exhibited was a bit strange. This character turned out to be a deeply respected historic figure in Japanese society and my remark was not taken lightly. Upon hearing my remark, one of my host parents sighed and commented, "Anna-san is not Japanese, so we can't expect her to understand the heart of the Japanese people." I also later found out that the Japanese word for "strange" could sound a lot more serious than its English equivalent. As illustrated through this example, my Japanese language ability was at a level that would enable

communication but could not prevent an untactful choice of words, so in a way, this was a lot worse than if I had not known how to speak a word of Japanese at all. All of these social faux pas, when added to my originally more quiet personality, perhaps made me very disagreeable as a person, especially as one who was given the duty to teach children English.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Spring is coming again, and it will have been almost a decade since my first, fresh step into the world of English teaching. I never got to see the cherry blossoms in full bloom while I was in Japan, even though I was there in the right place, in the right season. I remember that in my final internship report to my internship coordinator, I was asked to give advice to future interns. By that time, I was so discouraged and exhausted that I only managed to tell them to be sure to stay healthy, go out and explore to find inspiration as well as build cultural awareness, and take care of themselves. These were the basic things I never really did, for I was bathed in self-doubt, lack of confidence, and lack of ability to build positive relationships, which stemmed from failing attempts to navigate and reconcile who I am, what others perceived me to be, and how I should teach English. All added to the final state of feeling overwhelmed, overworked, and exhausted. I am still a language teacher but no longer teaching English. In the end, that spring and summer in Japan only raised more questions about me than answers to them. It was as if my first attempt at navigating multiple aspects of my own identities only came into full blossom for a short time and then faded away shortly afterwards – just like the cherry blossoms I never got to see because I was hiding in my room worrying about what to do for the next lesson and how to appear like a better teacher in front of the students, to no avail. In the future, a more in-depth analysis would be needed to see how I have reconciled perceptions of my identity through other people's lenses and my own understanding of myself. This is not meant to be a discouragement for any language teacher about to embark on a journey to teach English in an East Asian country, but rather a reflective exercise that hopes to inspire teachers to understand some of the challenges that may await them and how they might influence the development of language teacher identity and affect teaching. The

experiences were not all negative, and I am grateful to have had this first opportunity to grow. I like to think that I have matured over the years and my own language teacher identity has become more fully developed compared to what it was at that time. I have often wondered whether the results would be the same if I were to start the internship with my current self, but only future research may be able to indicate this full journey of self-realization.

THE AUTHOR

Anna Chang is currently a foreign language instructor in California, USA. Her interests include watching reality shows, cheesy melodramas, and musicals with catchy songs, which she often shares with her students as authentic learning materials. These interests stemmed from her youth, when she often glued herself to the TV to learn a target language. They helped her shape her linguistic identity throughout her youth, and later, her language teacher identity, the topic of which is explored in this account. She received her MA in second language teaching from Brigham Young University. Email: annac90127@gmail.com

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The Effects of Creativity-Enhancing Activities on Young Korean English Language Learners' Engagement

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This study aimed to assess the effects of using creativity-enhancing activities (CEAs) with picture books as a source to promote engagement of young English language learners (ELL) in Korea and to explore the relationship between their creative capabilities and their preferred CEAs. The study targeted young learners and focused on their engagement through CEAs. Young learners have generally been excluded from past research. The participants were three eight-year-old learners of mixed ability levels in a particular English class offered at a church located in South Korea. Various tools were adopted for investigation, such as interviews, recordings, and reflective journals. The participants were more engaged in the CEAs than the non-creative imagination-enhancing activities (NCEAs) presented in this study. It can be assumed that the CEAs are effective in the language learning class. Participants' Torrance tests of creative thinking (TTCT) results were used to determine their creative strengths to discover a relationship between their preferences for CEAs.

INTRODUCTION

South Korea has modeled its educational system after the American education system because of the United States' previous success in encouraging creativity in children (Kim, 2005). Torrance (1966) has found that knowledgeable and talented individuals emphasize the crucial function of personality factors, opportunities, experiences, and other environmental aspects that could play a relevant role in developing creativity. Creativity education has become an international issue, and

discourse on the subject is one of the main focuses driving education reforms globally (So & Kang, 2014).

Increasing creativity may be a key to solving these problems because creativity makes learning exciting and dynamic (Mindham, 2004). The Korean government introduced the 5-31 Educational Reform Plan, which aimed "to raise a creative person" (Choi et al., 2011). The 5-31 Educational Reform Plan aimed to have a curriculum to foster character and creativity systematized with personality (morality, social, emotional, etc.) education provided for each school level. The Ministry of Education committee minimized curriculum management restrictions to encourage creative efforts and participation of schools, teachers, and parents. Korean education has successfully produced highly academic students, yet they must develop a desire to learn (So & Kang, 2014). Previous studies in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching have suggested that successful language learning requires an appropriate learning environment dependent on personal psychological variables such as creativity and engagement (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Liao et al., 2018). There has been an insignificant amount of research integrating creativity into English instruction with young learners, although several studies have researched the theoretical bases for integrating creativity into English instruction (Kim, 2014; Lee, 2013). The present study differs from other existing studies by using picture books as a variable to promote more creative thinking in the ELL classroom, focusing on the engagement of young Korean children in the English classroom. The findings from this study might provide a new option for teaching creativity-enhancing activities (CEAs) to ELL students when learning the English language. Two research questions governed this study:

RQ1. How did implementing CEAs using picture books affect the participants' engagement?
RQ2. How were participants' creativity capabilities associated with their preferences for types of CEAs?

This study explores the effects of using CEAs with picture books as a method to enhance creativity and complement enhancing activities of picture books on young EFL learners' language engagement. The study assumed that using activities to promote creative thinking might be effective in teaching the participants in this study. The effect of CEAs on students' engagement and creative capabilities was investigated to test

this assumption. This hypothesis was based on the findings that students should be provided with cognitively challenging tasks (Kang, 2005), that all people have a potential for creativity (Carter, 2004), and that one has to project their thinking and experiences to produce one's creative products (Starko, 2017).

METHOD

Participants

The participants in the study were three eight-year-old Korean students with mixed linguistic abilities in the English language who attended an English class at a church in South Korea. They had enrolled in an extra-curricular program provided by their church that met after the Saturday service and taught English through activities. All three participants were monolingual and spoke Korean as their mother tongue. The participants were two girls and one boy. They will be identified as Students A, B, and C. Each participant is briefly described as follows:

- Student A was an eight-year-old girl who had only learned English for one year before this study. She was identified as a lower-intermediate English language learner by her English academy's placement test. She read to herself often and liked to learn about Greek and Roman mythology through picture books. Student A's parents' goal for her was for her to perform well in writing and reading in English.
- Student B was an eight-year-old boy who had learned English for two and a half years. His English proficiency was at the upper-intermediate level. He attended an English academy three times a week. His parents used games, videos, songs, books, and extracurricular education, such as after-school classes and English play groups, to develop his English abilities further.
- Student C was an eight-year-old girl who had studied English for under a year. She was identified as a beginner according to her proficiency level in English. Student C only learned English provided at her school for only 40 minutes a week. She spoke only Korean at home and liked to be read to by her parents twice a

week in Korean. The goals of Student C's parents were for her to read and write well in English.

Procedure

The English lessons were conducted every Saturday for seven consecutive weeks between April 30 and June 18, 2022. Each session was held from 10:30 to 11:30 a.m. This study used a triangulation of multi-situated methods to collect data concurrently. The participants were administered the Torrance tests of creativity thinking (TTCT) only on the third week of the study.

Seven learning lessons were given to the participants between April 30 and June 18, 2022. The books that were used in this study were *The Dot* by Peter H. Reynolds, *The Gruffalo* by Julia Donaldson, *Where the Wild Things Are* by Maurice Sendak, and *Through the Magic Mirror* by Anthony Browne. The participants were read picture books, followed by activities categorized as creativity-enhancing activities (CEAs). All the other activities in the lesson were classified as non-creative imagination-enhancing activities (NCEAs). On June 11, video-recorded interviews were conducted with each participant.

Lesson Flow

Each session lasted for a total of 60 minutes. Each picture book was taught for two weeks, except for *Through the Magic Mirror*, which was taught for only one week. If the participants were reading an introduction to a new picture book, the lesson flow was introduction vocabulary, learn the song, picture walk, first reading, discussion, CEAs, survey, and ending with the song they learned and a quick vocabulary review. If it was the book's second week, the lesson flow followed the following procedure: vocabulary review and song, second reading, discussion, CEAs, and vocabulary review. For the participants in the study, the treatment contained a total of four books that were selected to be read in the seven weeks of English lessons. Each book was read for two weeks, except for *Through the Magic Mirror*. Research suggests that repeated book-reading episodes positively affect young children's expressive language (Carey, 2010; Eller et al., 1988; Elley, 1989; Trivette et al., 2012). The picture walk method of instructions was used.

After each reading, a discussion was led to check comprehension among the participants. Then, the participants partook in CEAs to explore how effective the CEAs were compared to NCEAs. Songs were used as a tool to achieve and increase the motivation of the language learners. Lee and Lin (2015) stated that music positively increased young learners' motivation and attention time. A lesson from the study is presented in Appendix A.

Creativity-Enhancing Activities

Creativity-enhancing activities (CEAs) that reflect the characteristics of creative people have been developed, and the effects of using CEAs have been studied (Kang, 2005; Starko, 2017). The CEAs in this study were used to teach language objectives in the four picture books the participants were introduced to in the seven-week course. Engagement is central to learning in all curriculum areas and for all children when learning.

Activities Enhancing Metaphorical Thinking

Two CEAs adapted from Kang (2005) reflected metaphorical thinking. The first CEA was an activity that focused on newly learned target words to predict what a "gruffalo" could be. The participants were asked to choose two words from the target word list that were similar or different and then compare them based on the participants' imagination. The second CEA required the participants to compare unrelated things, such as the gruffalo and the instructor (this researcher). The participants then had to interpret their reasons for a comparison. Activities enhancing metaphorical thinking are presented in Appendix B.

CEAs Enhancing the Finding of Order in Chaos

Two CEAs were created reflecting creative categorization to foster students' ability to identify and categorize order in chaos. In one CEA, the participants were given pictures of domestic, wild, farm, and marine animals and then were asked to develop their organized categorizations. Activities for discovering order in chaos are presented in Appendix C.

CEAs Enhancing Openness to New Experiences

Two CEAs were created to develop the participants' ability to take

risks and try something new. One CEA had the participants draw their version of a dot; I then asked them the following question: "Can you bring it to life? How?" After the participants had drawn their dot, they could bring their drawings to life using the author's electronic notepad containing the Colar app, which brings the drawing to virtual 3D. Before showing the participants the app, *The Dot* was focused on the language pattern *I can... I can't...* Through questioning the participants if they could bring their drawing to life, they responded with this language pattern. One CEA related to *Through the Magic Mirror* was the shape game. The participants first drew a shape on a piece of paper, passed their drawing to the participant seated next to them to change the drawing in some way, then passed the drawing to the next elbow partner, and the process was then repeated. The CEA reflecting openness to new experiences is presented in Appendix D.

Problem-Solving

Two CEAs were created to centralize creative thinking regarding taking risks, experimenting, and making mistakes. In one CEA, the participants were asked to imagine what they could do with a dot on coffee filter paper before reading *The Dot*. They were asked to write or predict what would happen if they sprayed water onto the coffee filters decorated with color markers. The second CEA also had the participants write their predictions, develop ways to make a boat float, and retell the story as a language activity for *Where the Wild Things Are*. The problem-solving CEAs are presented in Appendix E. To test if CEAs are more beneficial to promote engagement in the classroom, NCEAs were also included.

Picture Books

Book 1, *The Dot* by Peter H. Reynolds, is a story of a girl named Vashti who is on a journey of surprise and self-discovery in her art classroom. Her art teacher ignites the creative spirit in her with just a simple dot. This book was chosen for this study for its theme of creativity and its role in symbolic reasoning. Children's transfer of new content from books with fantastical contexts and characters should be more impactful than from books with realistic contexts and characters (Richert et al., 2009).

Book 2, *The Gruffalo* by Julia Donaldson, is about a mouse, the protagonist, walking in the deep, dark woods and encountering many animals who want him, but he scares them off with a made-up character called the "Gruffalo." For this study, this book was chosen for its fantastical contexts. Books with fantastical aspects can engage young children in imaginative thinking as well as build better deductive reasoning (Dias & Harris, 1988) and increase empathy for and understanding of others (Mar & Oatley, 2008).

Book 3, *Where the Wild Things Are* by Maurice Sendak, is about a boy, Max, called a "wild thing" by his mother and sent to his room. He gets upset in his room and falls asleep. He dreams or imagines that his bedroom turns into a jungle and that he becomes king with the monsters. For this research, this story was chosen to teach a moral lesson.

Book 4, *Through the Magic Mirror* by Anthony Browne, is about a boy named Toby, who gets bored while staying home and walks through a magic mirror into a world of surrealism. This story was chosen because it would allow the participants to distinguish reality from fantasy related to their representational development.

Data Sources

Collection Instruments

This study used both quantitative and qualitative instruments to answer the research questions. The following instruments were employed: questionnaires for the parents, interviews, video recordings of lessons, reflective journals, TTCTs, and collected artworks, which can be found in Appendices B, C, and E.

Questionnaires

A questionnaire was created to collect information about the students in the study. It was also created to provide an opportunity to gain insight into the students' experiences with picture books and their language experience using English. The questionnaire was developed using Google Forms. It was created in both English and Korean and is presented in Appendix F.

Creativity Test

The participants took the Torrance test of creative thinking (TTCT)

figural form consisting of three activities, with ten minutes allowed to complete each activity. The tests are designed in a game-like form to catch children's interest. The TTCT figural form has picture-based exercises appropriate for all levels, K through adult, and is particularly useful in multicultural settings. Torrance (1979) introduced norm-referenced measures that are indicators of creativity that enable creative behavior: fluency, flexibility, originality, elaboration, and abstractness of titles for the test, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1. TTCT Norm-Referenced Measures

Indicator	Descriptor
Fluency	The ability to produce many ideas.
Flexibility	The ability to propose various approaches to solving problems.
Originality	The ability to give birth to ideas of their thinking.
Elaboration	The ability to describe something in detail.
Abstractness of Titles	The ability to produce good titles.
Resistance to Premature Closure	The ability to "keep open" and delay closure of figures.

The test is also scored against the criterion-referenced measures known as the Checklist of Creative Strength, which gives added insights into how the individual perceives their world. The streamlined scoring provides standardized scores for the following creative strengths: emotional expressiveness, storytelling articulateness, movement or action, expressiveness of titles, synthesis of incomplete figures, synthesis of lines or circles, unusual visualization, internal visualization, extending or breaking boundaries, humor, the richness of imagery, colorfulness of imagery, and fantasy. The TTCT also gives educators a way to identify gifts and talents in children from underserved populations because they are not as culturally loaded as other standardized assessments that might be used (Torrance, 1979b). The test can provide information about how students think through an activity that most children enjoy.

- In Activity I, the participants construct a picture using a pear shape provided on the page as a stimulus.
- In Activity II, the participants use ten incomplete figures to make objects or pictures.

- The last activity, Activity III, is composed of three pages of lines of circles, which the subject is to use to create a picture or pictures (Kim, 2006). The participants are encouraged to give titles for their finished drawings.

Interviews

A mini-interview was conducted on the last day of the treatment. The participants were asked questions based on their perceptions of the classroom activities, their favorite ones, and their least favorite activity. A translator was used to confirm the responses of the participants. The participants expressed their attitudes towards the CEA and NCEA activities and towards learning English. The participants were asked the interview questions in English (see Table 2) and in Korean, while being shown the activities that they did in front of them. The interviews were video-recorded, and notes were taken as the students spoke. In analyzing the results of the mini-interview, a cross-case analysis was used to organize the participants' responses according to the interview topic (McKay, 2006).

TABLE 2. Interview Questions

No.	Interview Question
1	Which activity did you like to do the best? Why?
2	Which activity did you like the least? Why?

Reflective Journal

A reflective journal was used to reflect on the research. Journals are multidimensional instruments that can exist in various forms (Boud, 2001). A reflective journal was used critically to consider how the participants benefited from the approach, the activities, and the books selected. Lee (2008) suggests that journals are a valuable instructional tool for teacher educators to hear their students' voices. It was noted how each participant seemed to be actively involved and disengaged to complete a task. Notes on the participants' behavior during each CEA were also taken.

Observation

Video-recorded observations were prepared for each lesson, which were each one hour long and amounted to a total of 420 minutes for the

whole period of the seven-week study. They were reviewed seven times each to investigate the learners' attitudes and attention towards each session's CEA and NCEA activities. The total number of minutes consisting of NCEAs in the lesson was 315. The total number of minutes consisting of CEAs in the lesson was 105. The observation tally sheets presented in this study were adapted from Robson (2011). How each participant responded to each activity in the lesson was observed. The tally sheet is presented in Appendix C.

According to Merriam-Webster (2014), a distraction makes it hard to think or pay attention. The word *distraction* has a negative connotation because it is generally considered detrimental to productivity. *Distraction* in this study represents any movement irrelevant to the learning session, such as the picture book reading and activities. For most of the activity, 10−20 minutes were selected during the lesson session to check every five minutes for each participant's distraction rate. The video was paused every five minutes, and the tally of the distraction rate was counted; then, the same procedure was continued every five minutes. Distraction rate was collected from all participants (Ewell, 1997a, p. 6).

In this study, the participants who were on-task behaviorally and focused on doing the task were regarded as having active involvement. Active involvement regards positive responses relevant to the picture books, participating in both CEAs and NCEAs, such as by raising hands, asking and answering questions, and speaking out target words in the designed activities independently and with their classmates. Laever (2005) discussed the keywords related to a child's involvement: active, concentrating, interested, asking questions, interacting, focus, and astonishment. The TTCT instrument is valid and reliable in measuring students' creativity concerning how they complete the task. For validity reasons, Scholastic Test Services (STS) conducted the scoring of these participants' TTCT test pamphlets.

RESULTS

Participant Engagement

Distraction Rate

This section describes the engagement of the participants throughout

the study; each participant's engagement throughout all sections of the lesson was observed and reflected on. The observation checklist was used when observing the participant's engagement. From the results of the observation checklist, it was found that certain types of activities affected the attitudes, distraction rate, and active involvement of the participants towards their engagement in learning the English language. The results show that the effect of using CEA activities on younger learners produced fewer distractions than NCEA activities in learners' attitudes and engagement, with a ratio of 4.3 distractions on CEA activities, compared to the NCEA distraction rate of 13.9.

FIGURE 1. Results of the Distraction Rate

Number of times participants were distracted per hour
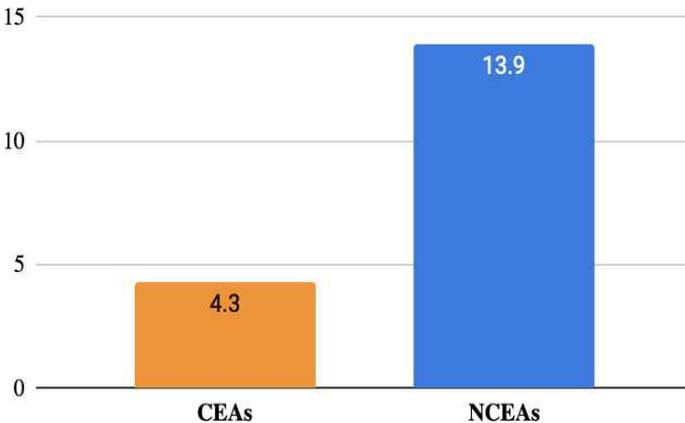
Observation analysis showed that the frequency of unrelated movement increased when the learners were asked to make predictions in the picture walk, vocabulary learning, and the first reading of the week's picture book. According to observations, they left their seats, moved around the room, made disruptive sounds, or did not follow instructions. As was illustrated in the reflective notebook, "Student B needed more focus when it came time to do picture walks, vocabulary learning, and during the readings."

As shown in the results in Figure 1, the study participants were the most distracted during the NCEAs in the lesson. They were most distracted in the NCEAs of first reading, second reading, and the picture walk. During these sections, the participants often needed rest to follow

the story. However, it was surprising to find that they were indeed paying attention in their unique way as illustrated in the reflective journal: "Student C appeared uninterested and looked at the other participants to see whether they were paying attention."

It has been concluded that one of the participants was previously exposed to one or more of the books presented in this study. This also affected the participant's level of engagement throughout the study of the results of the most distracted sections: second reading, first reading, or the picture book. The following was recorded in the journal: "Student A appeared to be distracted during the story of *Where the Wild Things Are* due to exposure to it in Korean before the lesson."

The NCEAs had more negative effects than the CEAs as a higher rate of distraction was shown, implying that they distract learners. The young participants had difficulties concentrating on their tasks when they were taught abstract concepts for the NCEAs. They also might have been exposed to such concepts as "heavy vs. light" or "float vs. sink" in their L1 but not in their L2. The following was recorded in the journal to examine the participants' opinions on which they enjoyed more: the CEAs or the NCEAs.

When the participants were completing their surveys for the gruffalo lesson, they were asked which activity they liked more, the CEA or the reading activity (NCEA). Both Student A and Student C responded, and their responses were noted:

> Student A: The CEA. Student B made it hard to remember the words of Gruffalo's body parts.
> Student C: CEA. Student B kept making monster noises.

From the results, complex concepts and the level of noise in the classroom might be very challenging for young learners and lead them to be distracted. For this reason, it might be effective and engaging to offer more stimulus activities for NCEAs with multimedia.

Active Involvement Rate

According to the observations, the participants actively showed positive attitudes towards the CEAs. For example, in the video observation, they showed higher participation by answering questions from the teacher, raising their hands, taking part in the activity they asked to do, and speaking out target words without being reinforced to

do so.

FIGURE 2. Active Involvement Rate

Number of times participants were actively involved per hour
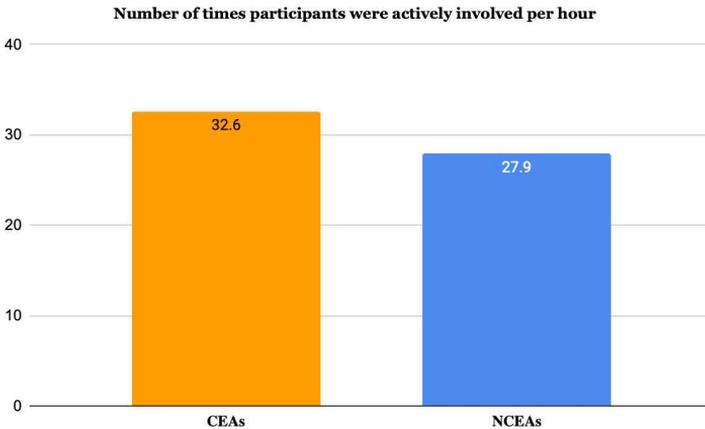
CEA vs. NCEA Involvement

Implementing CEAs has a positive influence on language learners. From the results, CEAs can support young learners' cognitive skills and attitudes towards the foreign language classroom. According to observations, the participants enjoyed what they did in the CEAs and did not have difficulty completing their tasks. The perceptions of the attitudes and behaviors of the participants towards the CEAs were reflected in the journal:

> Student A was eager to please me; she appeared to have fun while learning the vocabulary and doing CEAs. Among the group's participants, Student B was the most distracted student. Student C was the most involved during the CEA portion of the lessons; she also liked to draw and create things. She sometimes copied Student A's work by making her figures closely related.

TTCT Results

The streamlined scoring of Figural Forms A of the TTCT provides scores in multiple creative areas or measures: five norm-referenced measures and thirteen criterion-referenced measures, which are provided

above (see the Method section). The activities are first scored using specific norm-referenced measures. Participants receive a separate score for each norm-referenced measure and an average score for the five norm-referenced measures. The participants' results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. TTCT Creative Norm-Referenced Measures

Creativity Dimension	A	B	C
Fluency	28	16	19
Originality	19	4	14
Titles	5	1	2
Elaboration	5	3	4
Resistance to Premature Closure	18	13	12

The TTCT results also provided a score of the creative strengths of each participant. The number of occurrences necessary to achieve a particular score or rating for the thirteen indicators is generalized in Figures 3, 4, and 5. The TTCT results can be found in Appendix I in their entirety. Exceptions to this scoring scale are noted for a particular indicator when they occur.

FIGURE 3. Checklist of Creative Strengths of Student A

Note. An asterisk (*) indicates some evidence of strength (usually 1 or 2 occurrences). Double asterisks (**) indicate repeated evidence of strength (usually 3 or more occurrences). Student A scored a 10 for her creative strengths.

FIGURE 4. Checklist of Creative Strengths of Student B

Note. An asterisk (*) indicates some evidence of strength (usually 1 or 2 occurrences). Student B scored a 6 for his creative strengths.

FIGURE 5. Checklist of Creative Strengths of Student C

Note. An asterisk (*) indicates some evidence of strength (usually 1 or 2 occurrences). Double asterisks (**) indicate repeated evidence of strength (usually 3 or more occurrences). Student C scored a 6 for her creative strengths.

Interviews and Relationship to Their TTCT

After the seven weeks of the course, the participants were interviewed. These interviews gave in-depth information about the participants' perceptions and engagement towards CEAs. The participants were interviewed one by one after class. The participants' answers to

each question were analyzed. Regarding the questions asking for reasons for their answers, most of the students replied, "I don't know," and we had to question the participants more. Student A was the first participant to be interviewed. When asked the interview questions, she admitted to enjoying the CEA of enhancing metaphorical thinking, singing words from the word box to draw how the teacher and the Gruffalo were the same. Her least favorite activity was the CEA problem-solving. Student B also enjoyed learning English by using picture books. She bought *The Dot* by Peter H. Reynolds, both in Korean and English. Her words were written in the reflective journal:

> I like to make the Gruffalo nice like the teacher; the animals do not run away with a nice Gruffalo. Gruffalo is mean with orange eyes. I like the same and different. I do not like making a boat for Max. I like picture books in Hangul and English. I like pictures and drawing! [Student A]

FIGURE 6. Student A's Data on Favorite and Least Favorite Activities

Favorite Activity	Least Favorite Activity
Enhancing metaphorical thinking CEA of comparing the teacher and the Gruffalo.	Problem-solving CEA of making a boat for Max using various materials. Will your boat float or sink?
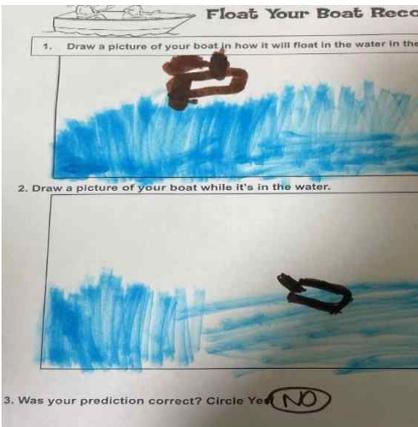
Student A: "Gruffalo has orange eyes; they are not nice. The teacher is nice with jaws."

Student A: "My boat is in the water, down in the water. It will not stay up."

Relationship to the Creative Strengths Skills of TTCT

Student A received a 10 as the overall score for their creative strengths. As noted above, Student A enjoyed the metaphorical thinking CEA the most. This could be due to her strength in extending or breaking boundaries humor. According to the TTCT Scoring Guide, humor is a creative trait because it involves unusual combinations and surprises. She tried to link the differences and similarities between her teacher and her gruffalo as well as to her unusual visualization skills. Student A also had creative strengths in storytelling articulateness (context, environment) as she justified her reasons for her preferred activities.

Student B was the second participant to be interviewed. When asked the interview questions, he admitted to enjoying the enhancing of finding order CEA for grouping the animals into groups with words of their choice. According to the observation of the learning sessions, Student B came up with multiple categories to group the animals into. His least favorite activity was the enhancing openness to new experiences of collaborating CEA using the shape game. As recorded in observations, Student B had a little difficulty waiting for his classmates to finish adding their marks to the image before it was his turn. He appeared bored and anxious about waiting. His words were noted in the reflective journal:

> I like thinking and making the animals into groups. I am right, and I can teach the teacher. I do not like the shape game. I hate drawing and art! It is boring! English. I like pictures and drawing! [Student B]

FIGURE 7. Student B's Data on Favorite and Least Favorite Activities

Favorite Activity	Least Favorite Activity
Enhancing finding order in chaos CEA of grouping animals into group words of their own choice.	Enhancing openness to new experiences of collaborating CEA using the shape game.

Student B made his category "Korean Folktales." Added two lines to make "101."

Relationship to the Creative Strengths Skills of TTCT

Student B received a 6 as the overall score for their creative strengths. Student B appeared motivated to make his categories in the CEA of enhancing finding order in chaos. He identified categories of Korean folktales, which could be extending or breaking boundaries. He could extend his knowledge and apply it to make unique categories, such as animal sounds, textures, and folktales. As stated in the TTCT Scoring Guide, the creative solution to many problems involves redefinition, getting out of unsuccessful solutions, and extending or breaking the boundaries of a problem as currently defined.

The TTCT Scoring Guide explained that this creative strength is found in a creative person who sees possibilities that others assume have been closed and, under restrictive conditions, can use whatever freedom is allowed. Student B likes to have his own ideas; however, it was observed that he wanted to avoid getting answers wrong and would instead do little in an activity rather than face the risk of making mistakes and not being 100 percent correct.

Student C was the last participant to be interviewed. When asked the interview questions, she admitted to enjoying the CEA of enhancing

metaphorical thinking by choosing two vocabulary words with similar or opposite meanings to predict what a gruffalo is. Her least favorite activity was the CEA enhancing finding order activities in chaos, which involved grouping the animals into groups of their own choice. Student C admitted to also liking English by learning through the usage of picture books; she said:

> I like thinking about what a gruffalo was. I never saw a gruffalo! I saw the words in box, which was easy for me to do. I did not like making my groups of animals. It was hard for me. I like English and would like to read more easy picture books. [Student C]

FIGURE 8. Student C's Data on Favorite and Least Favorite Activities

Favorite Activity	Least Favorite Activity
Enhancing metaphorical thinking CEA: Choose two words that have similar/ opposite meanings.	Enhancing finding order in chaos activities CEA of grouping animals into group words of their own choice.
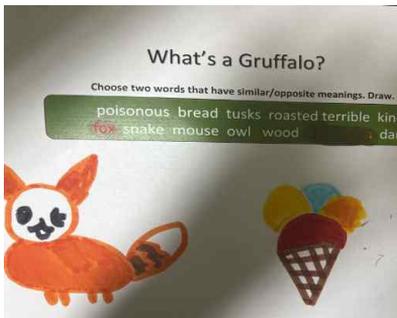
Student C: "A Gruffalo is a fox who likes ice cream."

Student C: "They have headbands."

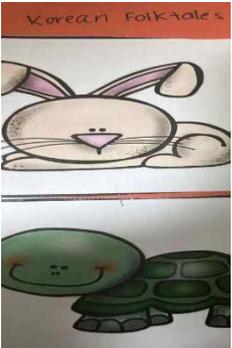## Relationship to the Creative Strengths Skills of TTCT

Student C received a 6 as the overall score for their creative strengths. Student C preferred the CEA of metaphorical thinking the most; she could compare two unlike things given a choice of words. She could also do this due to her creative strengths in internal visualization. As the TTCT Scoring Guide noted, creative people can better visualize beyond exteriors and pay attention to internal, dynamic workings of

things. Internal visual perspective is the presentation of objects with the interior visible in some way. Student C could understand words due to her visualization skills and preferred to show her understanding of the targets by acting out the words or drawing them. Her least favorite CEA was enhancing finding order in chaos due to her creative strength weakness in fantasy.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the influence of creative-enhancing activities (CEAs) on young Korean ELLs' engagement through picture books. It also investigated what activity types the study participants preferred when learning vocabulary through CEAs using picture books. It additionally sought to determine a relationship between the participants' creativity capabilities according to their TTCT scores and their preferences for the CEAs. There were three findings from this study concerning CEAs. The CEAs caused fewer distractions amongst the participants and caused more engagement compared to other areas in the lessons. The study found a relationship between the participants' TTCT creative strengths scores and their preferences for the CEAs presented in this study. The CEAs could have been more favorable to each participant by first examining the participants' weak areas of creative strength. This disparity could result from some students not being exposed to such activities in their L1 and therefore needing help in thinking of ideas to solve a specific CEA. The CEAs were helpful to participants in their engagement in the EFL classroom. They could improve their learning attitudes towards engagement. Teachers should pay special attention to making adaptations in CEAs according to the English proficiency level of the students. The students might become disengaged if an activity is not comprehensible at their proficiency level, possibly causing them to hold back their ideas. If teachers implement CEAs in the classroom, it is suggested that the teacher conduct a reliable test like the TTCT (Torrance tests of creative thinking) or the TCAM (thinking creatively in action or movement) and adapt CEAs according to students' creative strengths scores to help build creative thinking in the target language.

One of the limitations of this study was the small sample size of participants ($N = 3$), which sheds doubt on the validity of the observed significance of the results. It also prevents the results from being

generalized to other EFL contexts. More studies need to be conducted with more participants to obtain reliable results and generalize the findings. Second, the TTCT was conducted once in this study, which prevented further analysis of whether the CEAs affected the participants' creative strengths.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX A

Lesson Plan

Lesson 3, Week 3
Book: *The Gruffalo* by Julia Donaldson

Proficiency Level: Novice
Age Level: 5–6

Home Language: Korean
Target Language: English

Target Vocabulary: poisonous, stroll, wood, mouse, fox, owl, snake, knobbly knees, tusks, claws, wart, frightened, fled, toes, teeth, eyes, prickles, creature
Language Frames: "A mouse saw ... and the ... looked good"; What is a Gruffalo?

Objectives: Students will be able to...
Sequence the events of *The Gruffalo*.
Make metaphorical thinking connections to the vocabulary words. Listen and respond to directions.
Make their own dot after reading the story.
Discuss the central message of the story of making friends and how to be a good friend.
Use the vocabulary in the context.

Context: The researcher will introduce a new book to the students that they will use for the learning sessions of Weeks 3 and 4, *The Gruffalo* by Julia Donaldson.
The researcher will invite the students to experience a woodsy environment by having natural objects on the table to activate their prior knowledge.
They will learn new ways to connect the new vocabulary terms to build creative thinking skills focusing on metaphorical thinking.
(Lesson 1: 60 minutes)

Time	Task	Description	Material	Interaction/Group
10:30–10:35 a.m. (5 minutes)	**Warm Up/Lead In**	T will lead a discussion about the woods to activate Ss prior knowledge. Introduce song.	Natural materials, nature sounds on soundboard	Whole class
10:35–10:45 a.m. (10 minutes)	**Vocabulary Learning**	T introduces the vocabulary of *The Gruffalo.*	Gruffalo vocabulary; Picture cards	Whole class and teacher
10:45–10:55 a.m. (10 minutes)	**Produce (CEA)**	Ss will make connections of vocabulary words to enhance metaphorical thinking.	"What is a Gruffalo?" activity	Whole class and teacher
10:55–11:15 a.m. (20 minutes)	**Reading & Discussion**	T will begin with a picture walk with Ss, then will begin the first reading.	*The Gruffalo, The Gruffalo* matching vocabulary worksheet	Whole class
11:15–11:20 a.m. (5 minutes)	**Reading Activity**	T will ask the students to sequence the events of the story on a number line.	Picture cards from *The Gruffalo*	Whole class
11:20–11:30 a.m. (10 minutes)	**Song, Vocabulary Review**	T will play *The Gruffalo* song one more time, as well as have Ss complete a vocabulary sheet before leaving.	*The Gruffalo* Vocabulary worksheet, survey sheets	Whole class

APPENDIX B

CEAs Enhancing Metaphorical Thinking

Choose two words that have similar/opposite meanings to predict what a Gruffalo is. Draw.

Use words from the box above to draw how the teacher and the Gruffalo are the same.

APPENDIX C

CEAs Enhancing the Finding of Order in Chaos

Group the animals into groups of your own choices.

Create a monster or a new animal using the cutouts.

APPENDIX D

Openness to New Experiences

Draw your version of a dot. Can you bring it to life? How?

We are going to add to our friends' drawings to make something new. When you're done drawing, pass it to your friend, in turn, to draw the picture.

Playing the Shape Game is easy!

Find a friend to draw you a shape and then use your imagination to turn it into something recognisable – be it a face, a fried egg, a dinosaur or even a gorilla.

Anthony has drawn this shape to help get you started. He says: *"you can use any materials you like from a basic felt-tip pen to paints, crayons or collage. Turn the paper upside down or sideways, take as much or as little time as you want – simply let your imagination run wild and have fun!"*
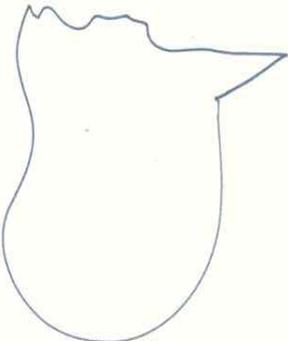
APPENDIX E

Problem-Solving

Draw a dot on the piece of paper. What would happen if I sprayed water on it?

Can you make a boat for Max using all these materials? Will your boat float or sink?

Float Your Boat Record Sheet

1. Draw a picture of your boat in how it will float in the water in the box below.
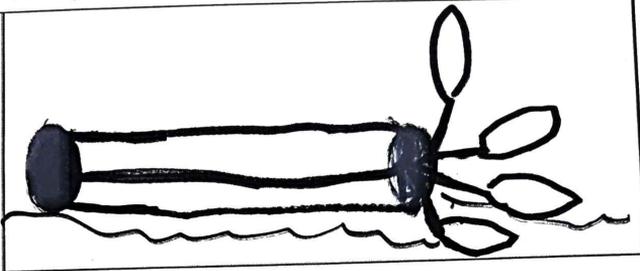
Draw a picture of your boat while it's in the water.
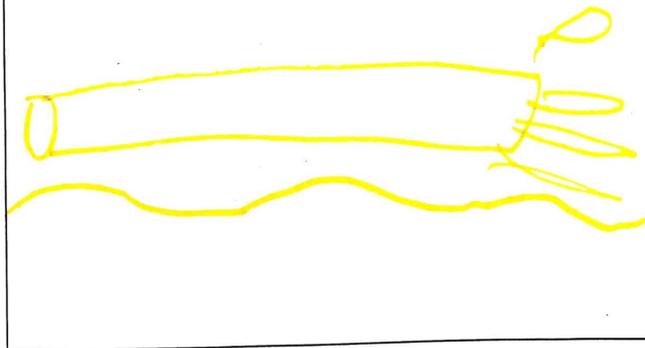
Was your prediction correct? Circle Yes/

APPENDIX F

Parents' Questionnaire

Questionnaire: English Children's Book Class (설문: 영어 동화책 클래스)
Please complete the questionnaire below to help the researcher understand your child's level of interest and proficiency level in English.
(아래의 설문을 완성해 주시고 아이의 영어 관심도 및 수준을 이해하여 영어 동화책 교육법에 대해 함께 고민하는 시간이 되었으면 합니다.)

1. What is your child's name?
   (아이의 이름이 무엇인가요?)

2. Which city do you live in?
   (어느 도시에 살고 있나요?)

3. How old is your child?
   (당신의 아이는 몇 살인가요?)
   - □ 4 years
   - □ 5 years
   - □ 6 years
   - □ 7 years
   - □ 8 years
   - □ 9 years

4. How long has your child been learning English?
   (아이가 영어를 배운 지 얼마나 됐나요?)
   - □ Never learned (배운 적 없음)
   - □ Less than 1 year (1 년 미만)
   - □ 1 to 2 years (1–2 년)
   - □ 2 to 3 years (2–3 년)
   - □ 3 to 4 years (3–4 년)
   - □ 4 to 5 years (4–5 년)

5. What is your child's level of English?
   (아이의 영어 수준이 어느정도 되나요?)
   - □ Novice (기초)
   - □ Low Intermediate (초중급)
   - □ Intermediate (중급)
   - □ Upper Intermediate (중고급)

6. What language do you speak with your child at home?
   (집에서 아이와 어떤 언어로 말하나요?)
   - □ Korean (한국어)
   - □ Korean and English (한국어와 영어)
   - □ Others (다른 언어)

7. Does your child like to read? Do you read a book to your child?
   (아이가 읽기를 좋아하세요? 또는 아이에게 책을 읽습니까?)
   - □ Yes (네)
   - □ No (아니요)

8. How often do you read to your child?
   (아이에게 얼마나 자주 책을 읽어 주시나요?)
   - □ Everyday (매일)
   - □ Three times a week (일주일에 세번)
   - □ Twice a week (일주일에 두 번)
   - □ Once a week (일주일에 한번)
   - □ None (읽어주지 않음)

9. In what language do you read picture books/books?
   (어떤 언어로 된 그림책/책을 읽어 주시나요?)
   - □ Korean (한국어)
   - □ Korean and English (한국어와 영어)
   - □ Other (다른 언어)

10. Does your child like to read on their own?
    (아이가 스스로 책을 찾아 읽는 편인가요?)
    - □ Often (자주)
    - □ Once a week (가끔)
    - □ Rarely (아주 가끔)

11. Where does your child learn English and how often do they go?
    (아이가 영어를 어디서 배우고, 얼마나 자주 가나요?)

12. What are other ways that your child practices learning English?
    (아이와 영어를 접하는 다른 수단이 있나요? (중복 가능)
    - □ News and Magazines (뉴스와 잡지)
    - □ Games (게임)
    - □ Videos, YouTube, etc., (영상, 유튜브 등)
    - □ Books (책)
    - □ Songs (Nursery Rhymes) (노래, 동요 등)

       ☐ Tutoring or Private Academy (과외 혹은 교육)
       ☐ Other (기타)

13. If you selected "Other," please explain in more detail.
   ('기타'를 고르셨을 경우, 조금 더 자세히 설명해 주세요.)

14. What are your child's interests?
   (아이의 관심사가 무엇인가요?)

15. What are your goals for your child in learning English?
   (아이가 영어를 배움에 있어 당신의 목표는 어느 정도인가요?)

16. Do you wish to share advice or recommendations about your child? We
   would appreciate it if you could freely write in your preferred language.
   (조언 혹은 추천을 아이와 공유하시나요? 편하신 언어로 자유롭게 적
   어 주시면 감사하겠습니다.)

APPENDIX G

Tally Sheet for Behavior and Distraction

Tally Sheets of Participants Distraction Rate (Min. = minutes Ss: 5 participants, A-C)

Vocabulary Learning						
	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		0	2	1	0	3
B		2	3	0	0	5
C		2	1	0	0	3
Picture Walk						
	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		3	0	0	0	3
B		3	0	0	0	3
C		2	0	0	0	2
First Reading						
	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		2	2	0	0	4
B		4	4	0	0	8
C		2	2	0	0	4
Discussion						
	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						

A		1	0	0	0	1
B		4	0	0	0	4
C		3	0	0	0	3

CEAs

	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		0	1	0	0	1
B		1	1	0	0	2
C		1	1	0	0	2

Reading Activities

	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		2	0	0	0	2
B		1	2	0	0	3
C		2	1	0	0	3

Vocabulary Review

	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		0	0	0	0	0
B		0	0	0	0	0
C		0	0	0	0	0

Second Reading

	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
Ss						
A		0	2	0	0	2
B		4	1	0	0	5

	Min.	0–5	5–10	10–15	15–20	Total
C		1	2	0	0	3
Review						
	Min.	**0–5**	**5–10**	**10–15**	**15–20**	**Total**
Ss						
A		1	0	0	0	1
B		2	0	0	0	2
C		1	0	0	0	1

APPENDIX H

TTCT Results for Students A, B, and C

Individual Student Report	Torrance® Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT) Figural Streamlined, Form A SABRINA PAIGE POWELL ProcNo: 54015	Date: 5/28/2022 Grade: 2 Section: 1

Scholastic Testing Service, Inc.

Student A Age: 08 years   Gender: 2   Codes:

Profile of Creative Thinking Scores

Standard scores are provided for total scores in each of the dimensions of creativity assessed by the TTCT. Separate by grade, standard scores are reported on a scale with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 20. In the profile below, percentile ranks associated with such standard scores in a normal distribution are given to serve as interpretive guidelines. Local percentile ranks have also been provided for ready comparisons within your group.

Following is the profile for Student A. While it is logical to focus upon the average, it is important to consider all scores, to see what they tell about the creative potential of Student A.

Creativity Dimension	Raw Score	AGE BASED		GRADE BASED			Standard Score Scale for Grade
		Natl %-ile Age	Std Score Age	Local %-ile Grd	Natl %-ile Grd	Std Score Grd	60 80 100 120 140
Fluency	28	85	121	83	86	122	
Originality	19	85	121	83	86	122	
Titles	5	30	90	83	36	93	
Elaboration	5	8	72	83	10	74	
Resistance to Premature Closure	18	93	130	83	94	131	
Average	66		107	83	69	108	

Checklist of Creative Strengths

After regular scoring, scorers review each booklet for evidence of special creative strengths. A rating of ** is given for repeated evidence of a strength (usually 3 or more times); a rating of * is given for some evidence (usually 1 or 2 times); and a blank is given in the absence of evidence. A blank need not mean absence of strength, but rather absence of evidence of the strength in these figures. Ratings on creative strengths for Student A are to the right.

	Score Age:SS /NP Grade:SS/NP / LP
10	99 48 103 55 83

* Emotional Expressiveness (in drawings, titles)
* Storytelling Articulateness (context, environment)
  Movement or action (running, dancing, flying, falling, etc.)
  Expressiveness of Titles
  Synthesis of Incomplete Figures (combination of 2 or more)
  Synthesis of Lines (form A) or Circles (form B) (Combinations)
* Unusual Visualization (above, below, at angle, etc.)
* Internal Visualization (inside, cross section, etc.)
** Extending or Breaking Boundaries
   Humor (in titles, captions, drawings, etc.)
   Richness of Imagery (variety, vividness, strength, etc.)
** Colorfulness of Imagery (excitingness, earthiness, etc.)
** Fantasy (figures in myths, fairy tales, science fiction, etc.)

The Creativity Index

An index, found to serve well as an overall indicator of creative potential, is found by pooling the creative strength ratings and the average standard score from the profile. The index for Student A is to the right.

AGE: Creativity index: 117   Natl %-ile: 65

GRADE: Creativity index: 118   Natl %-ile: 68

Part-Score Information

Total scores are usually sufficient for the TTCT. For those wishing more detail, raw scores for each dimension within each activity are to the right.

* (Bonus is included in Originality Totals)

	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Fluency		10	18
Originality	1	6 *0	12 *0
Titles	2	3	
Elaboration	2	1	2
Closure		18	

v11.004: (10/27/2022 T33-54015-4)

Individual Student Report	Torrance® Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT) Figural Streamlined, Form A SABRINA PAIGE POWELL ProcNo: 54015	Date: 5/28/2022 Grade: 2 Section: 1

Scholastic Testing Service, Inc.

Student B   Age: 08 years   Gender: 1   Codes:

Profile of Creative Thinking Scores

Standard scores are provided for total scores in each of the dimensions of creativity assessed by the TTCT. Separate by grade, standard scores are reported on a scale with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 20. In the profile below, percentile ranks associated with such standard scores in a normal distribution are given to serve as interpretive guidelines. Local percentile ranks have also been provided for ready comparisons within your group.

Following is the profile for Student B. While it is logical to focus upon the average, it is important to consider all scores, to see what they tell about the creative potential of Student B.

Creativity Dimension	Raw Score	AGE BASED Natl %-ile Age	AGE BASED Std Score Age	GRADE BASED Local %-ile Grd	GRADE BASED Natl %-ile Grd	GRADE BASED Std Score Grd	Standard Score Scale for Grade 60 80 100 120 140
Fluency	16	30	90	17	30	90	
Originality	4	4	65	17	5	67	
Titles	1	3	62	17	5	67	
Elaboration	3	1	53	17	1	53	
Resistance to Premature Closure	13	50	100	50	51	101	
Average		4	74	17	5	76	

Checklist of Creative Strengths

After regular scoring, scorers review each booklet for evidence of special creative strengths. A rating of ** is given for repeated evidence of a strength (usually 3 or more times); a rating of * is given for some evidence (usually 1 or 2 times); and a blank is given in the absence of evidence. A blank need not mean absence of strength, but rather absence of evidence of the strength in these figures. Ratings on creative strengths for Student B are to the right.

Score Age:SS /NP   Grade:SS/NP / LP
6   79 15   83 20 33

	Emotional Expressiveness (in drawings, titles)
*	Storytelling Articulateness (context, environment)
*	Movement or action (running, dancing, flying, falling, etc.)
	Expressiveness of Titles
	Synthesis of Incomplete Figures (combination of 2 or more)
	Synthesis of Lines (form A) or Circles (form B) (Combinations)
*	Unusual Visualization (above, below, at angle, etc.)
*	Internal Visualization (inside, cross section, etc.)
	Extending or Breaking Boundaries
	Humor (in titles, captions, drawings, etc.)
	Richness of Imagery (variety, vividness, strength, etc.)
*	Colorfulness of Imagery (excitingness, earthiness, etc.)
*	Fantasy (figures in myths, fairy tales, science fiction, etc.)

The Creativity Index

An index, found to serve well as an overall indicator of creative potential, is found by pooling the creative strength ratings and the average standard score from the profile. The index for Student B is to the right.

AGE: Creativity index: 80   Natl %-ile: 4

GRADE: Creativity index: 82   Natl %-ile: 5

Part-Score Information

Total scores are usually sufficient for the TTCT. For those wishing more detail, raw scores for each dimension within each activity are to the right.

* (Bonus is included in Originality Totals)

	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Fluency		9	7
Originality	1	3 *()	0 *()
Titles	1	0	
Elaboration	1	1	1
Closure		13	

v11.004: (10/27/2022 T33-54015-2)

Individual Student Report	Torrance® Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT) Figural Streamlined, Form A SABRINA PAIGE POWELL ProcNo: 54015	Date: 5/28/2022 Grade: 2 Section: 1

Scholastic Testing Service, Inc.

Student C Age: 08 years Gender: 2 Codes:

Profile of Creative Thinking Scores

Standard scores are provided for total scores in each of the dimensions of creativity assessed by the TTCT. Separate by grade, standard scores are reported on a scale with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 20. In the profile below, percentile ranks associated with such standard scores in a normal distribution are given to serve as interpretive guidelines. Local percentile ranks have also been provided for ready comparisons within your group.

Following is the profile for Student C. While it is logical to focus upon the average, it is important to consider all scores, to see what they tell about the creative potential of Student C.

Creativity Dimension	Raw Score	AGE BASED Natl %-ile Age	AGE BASED Std Score Age	GRADE BASED Local %-ile Grd	GRADE BASED Natl %-ile Grd	GRADE BASED Std Score Grd	Standard Score Scale for Grade 60 80 100 120 140
Fluency	19	45	98	50	46	98	
Originality	14	61	106	50	63	107	
Titles	2	8	72	50	10	74	
Elaboration	4	3	62	50	4	65	
Resistance to Premature Closure	12	41	95	17	43	96	
Average		16	87	50	18	88	

Checklist of Creative Strengths

After regular scoring, scorers review each booklet for evidence of special creative strengths. A rating of ** is given for repeated evidence of a strength (usually 3 or more times); a rating of * is given for some evidence (usually 1 or 2 times); and a blank is given in the absence of evidence. A blank need not mean absence of strength, but rather absence of evidence of the strength in these figures. Ratings on creative strengths for Student C are to the right.

Score Age:SS /NP   Grade:SS/NP / LP
  6   79 15   83   20   33

*	Emotional Expressiveness (in drawings, titles)
	Storytelling Articulateness (context, environment)
	Movement or action (running, dancing, flying, falling, etc.)
	Expressiveness of Titles
	Synthesis of Incomplete Figures (combination of 2 or more)
	Synthesis of Lines (form A) or Circles (form B) (Combinations)
	Unusual Visualization (above, below, at angle, etc.)
*	Internal Visualization (inside, cross section, etc.)
**	Extending or Breaking Boundaries
	Humor (in titles, captions, drawings, etc.)
	Richness of Imagery (variety, vividness, strength, etc.)
**	Colorfulness of Imagery (excitingness, earthiness, etc.)
	Fantasy (figures in myths, fairy tales, science fiction, etc.)

The Creativity Index

An index, found to serve well as an overall indicator of creative potential, is found by pooling the creative strength ratings and the average standard score from the profile. The index for Student C is to the right.

AGE: Creativity index: 93   Natl %-ile: 13

GRADE: Creativity index: 94   Natl %-ile: 16

Part-Score Information

Total scores are usually sufficient for the TTCT. For those wishing more detail, raw scores for each dimension within each activity are to the right.

* (Bonus is included in Originality Totals)

	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Fluency		7	12
Originality	1	5 *0	8 *0
Titles	0	2	
Elaboration	1	1	2
Closure		12	

v11.004: (10/27/2022 T33-54015-3)

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Breaking the Silence: How Can English Foreign Language Teachers Mitigate Foreign Language Anxiety in Shy/Anxious Learners?

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This paper explores ways in which English foreign language teachers can assist shy and anxious learners who suffer from foreign language anxiety (FLA) to improve their performance in the classroom during speaking practice. Nine foreign language teachers who taught children English as a foreign language were interviewed using semi-structured interviews. Data were then analyzed, and findings highlight the complicated nature of FLA and that classmates play a pivotal role in both creating and lowering anxiety amongst shy and anxious learners. They also suggest familiarity is a powerful tool that teachers can utilize to counter FLA in the classroom. The paper concludes by offering ways to assist shy and anxious language learners overcome FLA, consisting of immediate measures teachers can take, aspirational goals they can implement over time, and a multifaceted panacea based on a special group-centered approach to teaching built around the study's findings.

Keywords: foreign language anxiety, shy and anxious learners, young learners, foreign language teaching methods, classrooms and learning environments

INTRODUCTION

Classrooms are complicated settings of interrelated social, cultural, and environmental macro-level forces – each with its own unique rules, ambiance, and interpersonal relationships (Romero, 2015). Evidence shows that young learners' motivation may largely be influenced by the learning environment, with able learners disproportionately affected by classrooms not conducive to learning (Wallace & Leong, 2020). Teachers should and do strive to create relaxed, fear-free settings for students

(Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Salehi & Marefat, 2014). Yet learners come to language classrooms with a set of unique personal experiences and personal characteristics that can impede the learning process due to shyness or a sense of anxiety. Shyness and anxiety impede language learning and acquisition.

This study reveals how English foreign language teachers can help shy/anxious learners (SALs) cope with foreign language anxiety (FLA). FLA affects nearly one-third of learners (Fallah, 2017) and presents itself as a debilitating fear that hinders second language (L2) acquisition. Similarities to post-traumatic stress disorder, such as avoidance, hyper-vigilance (Pyszczynski & Kesebir, 2011), and persistent self-negativity (Sareen, 2014), mean FLA's repercussions are widespread, impacting not just L2 learning but life beyond the classroom (Liu & Jackson, 2008). Therefore, it is important that English foreign language teachers recognize anxiety-provoking situations and how to manage them, so that students are able to reach their full potential (Williams & Andrade, 2008).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Effects of Shyness and Anxiety

Shyness and anxiety fuse behavioral and emotional components (Brophy, 1995), and physiological responses (Bekleyen, 2009; Leary, 1982; Scovel 1991), affecting people in different ways (Bekleyen, 2009; Brophy, 1995). Sufferers' emotions and behaviors center around fear, self-consciousness, withdrawal, reticence, and restraint (Brophy, 1995); they include alarm about immediate circumstances or future communications, feelings of vulnerability and inferiority, and concerns about looking foolish or doing something wrong (Brophy, 1995). Behavioral effects are mostly avoidant (Bekleyen, 2009), which means conduct attempts to minimize or avoid interactions involving speaking (Leary, 1982). An extreme example is "freezing-up" (Leary, 1982; Young, 1991). Others include sitting in the back row to avoid participation (Bekleyen, 2009; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991), fewer and shorter conversations (Leary, 1982), greater tolerance for silence during conversations (Leary, 1982), and generally minimizing social interaction

(Bekleyen, 2009). Disaffiliated conduct also includes image protection measures characterized by excessive communicative feedback (such as smiling, nodding, and utterances such as "uh-huh"), and reluctance to interrupt (Leary, 1982). Physiological responses are also common (Bekleyen, 2009; Scovel, 1991) but harder to spot. They include accelerated heart rates, perspiration, blushing, and feeling flushed (Bekleyen, 2009). Physically observable examples include stuttering (Bekleyen, 2009; Leary, 1982) fiddling, fidgeting, squirming in seats, or generally appearing unsettled (Leary, 1982).

Sources of Anxiety

There are six general sources of language anxiety stemming from classroom procedures (Fergina, 2010; Young, 1991): teacher/student interactions (Young, 1991), beliefs about language learning held by SALs (Fergina, 2010; Horwitz, 1988; Young, 1991), beliefs about teaching held by instructors, personal and interpersonal anxieties (Young, 1991), and test situations (McLoone et al., 2006; Young, 1991). Classroom procedures and social dynamics impact SALs significantly (Young, 1991), with immediate causes of shyness identified by Bus (1980, 1984) being the novelty or formality of a situation, a child feeling ignored or overly acknowledged, a prior history of failure, and breaches of privacy when discreet behavior is exposed (McCroskey, 1984). Speaking in front of an audience is widely cited as the most stressful activity for students (April et al., 1991; Bekleyen, 2009; Fergina, 2010; Phillips, 1992; Price, 1991; Young, 1991, 1992). Research by April et al. (1991) revealed more than half their students identified speaking in front of classmates as the activity most likely to create anxiety. Statistically, over 68 percent of students are more comfortable during lessons if they do not have to speak in front of peers (April et al., 1991; Young, 1990).

Another source of anxiety for students is error correction (Koch & Terrell, 1991; Young, 1991). Evidence suggests anxiety caused by error correction may stem from how it is delivered, opposed to receiving negative feedback itself (Young, 1991). Harsh feedback is often reported by learners as anxiety-inducing (April et al., 1991; Young, 1991), with students feeling less anxious around teachers who reacted appositely to mistakes (April et al., 1991). Anxiety may be amplified in SALs if their teacher fails to find the appropriate level of attention to give them (Bus,

1980, 1984), with too much or too little evoking negative emotions. SALs say relaxed, patient instructors reduce FLA (April et al., 1991; Young, 1990), so it is reasonable to infer that being impatient, rushing students, or not taking time to help them could be catalysts for uneasiness. SALs worry about responding incorrectly (Young, 1990) and report anxiety about how performances will be received and evaluated (McCroskey, 1984; McLoone et al., 2006; Young, 1991). In fact, teachers and instructor–learner interactions are reported as major causes of FLA in numerous studies (Al-Aamer, 2018; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991; Salehi & Marefat, 2014; Williams & Andrade, 2008; Young, 1991).

Learner beliefs are another anxiety cause (Fergina, 2010; Young, 1991). The perception of being different, of lower linguistic ability (McCroskey, 1984; Young, 1991), or further down on the social hierarchy can evoke FLA (McCroskey, 1984). Misguided thoughts on what is important in language learning and what represents success, such as perfect pronunciation (Gynan, 1989; Young, 1991) and grammatically correct sentences (Horwitz, 1988), can trigger SALs. Unrealistic ideas about achievement, such as reaching fluency within a short time, are also sources of FLA (Fergina, 2010; Horwitz, 1988; Young, 1991). Young (1991) put it best, saying, "When beliefs and reality clash, anxiety results" (p. 428).

Pre-existing personal and interpersonal anxieties also likely contribute and are probably the most studied and discussed area of FLA (Young, 1991). These can be caused by low self-esteem (Bailey, 1983; Young, 1991), perfectionism (Bekleyen, 2009; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), over-competitiveness (Bailey, 1983; Fergina, 2010; Young 1991), repeated failure (Brophy, 1996), fear of new or unfamiliar topics (Bekleyen, 2009), or insecurities about being incorrect, appearing stupid, and "losing face" in front of others (Ellis, 1994; Fergina, 2010; Young, 1991).

Alleviation Measures

A range of techniques is needed to address FLA (Young, 1991). Teachers can help lower anxiety (Salehi & Marefat, 2014) with relatively simple methods (Brophy, 1996) but need to recognize its sources to be able to respond (Fergina, 2010). Praise and positive reinforcement are simple ways to reduce anxiety (Alrabai, 2014; Brophy, 1996; Creemers

& Tillema, 1987; Fergina, 2010; Price, 1991; Setiawati, 2012; Wheldal & Merrett, 1984), as it develops confidence and positive thinking. Recognizing efforts, giving rewards, and showing faith by setting high expectations also boost confidence (Alrabai, 2014). An affable demeanor also helps (Young, 1990). SALs recognize error correction is needed for improvement (Bailey, 1983; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Young, 1990, 1991) but say teachers can lower the anxiety that accompanies it by being mindful of feedback execution and frequency (Young, 1991). Teachers can also reduce FLA experienced by SALs during error correction by recognizing that every student makes mistakes and viewing them as integral to language learning (April et al., 1991; Young, 1990). Teachers should talk privately with SALs every day, striving to foster close relationships (Apter & Conoley, 1984; Brophy, 1995), minimize stressful or embarrassing situations (Brophy, 1995), and cultivate a friendly classroom atmosphere (Brophy, 1996; Fergina, 2010; Underwood, 1984). Setting achievable goals (Alrabai, 2014), and environmental engineering (Brophy, 1996) also help.

Educators can help by addressing outdated or unhealthy instructor beliefs (Young, 1991) and confronting anxiety-provoking learner beliefs (Alrabai, 2014). Teaching SALs effective coping routines (Bekleyen, 2009) and implementing appropriate classroom strategies, such as those suggested by Crookall and Oxford (1991) and Kendall and Hedtke (2006) also helps (see Appendix A). Task-based learning (TBL) has been shown to significantly reduce FLA (Beh & Curtrone, 2018; Hasan, 2014). Helping learners realistically interpret anxiety-provoking situations and talking openly about FLA also helps (Alrabai, 2014; Foss & Reitzel, 1988).

Teaching students to be mindful of fears and verbalize them helps SALs understand anxiety-prompting situations and process them (Foss & Reitzel, 1988). Writing fears on the board shows SALs that others feel the same (Foss & Reitzel, 1988). Learners themselves employ their mother tongue to reduce anxiety (Carless, 2002), recognize practice and regular use of the target language reduces shyness and hesitancy (Taous, 2013), and say choice of lesson topic also helps (Fergina, 2010). Reassuring internal dialogue is also widely recognized as helpful (Alrabai, 2014).

Risk reduction is also effective in reducing FLA. Task participation involves ambiguity and risk, which teachers can reduce by being more generous with grades, using established tasks (Bailey, 1983; Creemers &

Tillema, 1987), incorporating preparation time into activities (Bekleyen, 2009; Salehi & Marefat, 2014), and using familiar teaching material (Bekleyen, 2009). Consistent exposure to classroom activities seems to decrease the anxiety associated with them (Bekleyen, 2009; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Horwitz & Young, 1991); so, familiarity plays a role in reducing anxiety. Several authors recommend peer-to-peer (PTP) involvement to counter FLA (Brophy, 1996; Maheady et al., 1992). Blanco and Bogacki (1988) suggested regular small-group work (SGW), cooperative communication with friends, and peer tutoring as possible solutions. Friedman and Karagan (1973) proposed engaging SALs in private interaction and then progressing to PTP work before transitioning into whole-class environments. Cognitive behavioral therapy is also shown to be effective (Brophy, 1995; Mychailyszyn, et al., 2011). Although more complex, exploratory evidence shows it can be implemented in schools successfully (Mychailyszyn, et al., 2011), with studies demonstrating cognitive behavioral therapy performed by teachers to be as effective as that of psychologists when dealing with anxiety (Barrett & Turner, 2001; Mychailyszyn, et al., 2011; Stallard et al., 2005). Teachers receive training in L2 instruction, but learner training is neglected (Crookall & Oxford,1991), and students should be made aware of helpful strategies (British Council, 2021; Crookall & Oxford, 1991). Anxiety reduction tactics that SALs can employ include relaxation techniques, encouraging themselves to take risks, self-talk, sharing concerns with classmates, rewarding themselves for achievement, being aware of stress' physical signs, writing down feelings, and remembering that speaking ends quickly (Hurd, 2007; Salehi & Marefat, 2014). Evidence shows that SALs given learning strategies by teachers were not upset by it (Fergina, 2010), suggesting help is welcomed.

Language Learners

When considering students in the classroom, we should be mindful that many may not want to be there. Both Horwitz et al. (1986) and Bekleyen (2009) stated that foreign language lessons are more anxiety inducing for many students than any other class, and Alrabai (2014) highlighted that many learners may be there purely to pass an exam or because it is mandatory. Also, evidence shows SALs are convinced that teachers know they are nervous, even though research indicates that as being doubtful (Fergina, 2010). Learners report they enjoy playing

games, listening to songs, and watching movies in lessons (Wallace & Leong, 2020). Research shows they want lessons that maximize student talk time and time performing activities (Setiawati, 2012); activities should be kept simple as learners avoid participating in frustrating tasks (Fergina, 2010). Tasks also require clear instruction (Crookall & Oxford, 1991).

Students most susceptible to FLA are self-conscious or have a poor self-image (Brophy, 1995), feel they have lower ability (Young, 1991) or intelligence (Brophy, 1995), or perceive themselves as further down the social order (Bus, 1980, 1984; McCroskey, 1984). Learners with competitive natures (Bailey, 1983; Fergina, 2010; Young, 1991), previous experiences of failure (Brophy, 1996; Bus, 1980, 1984; McCroskey, 1984), or negative expectations (Brophy, 1995) are also likely candidates. Asian students may be more at risk from FLA than learners in other parts of the world due to social and educational cultures found in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

Teachers and FLA Awareness

Studies into teachers and language anxiety are limited (Bekleyen, 2009). What research has been done indicates teachers have difficulty recognizing FLA unless students clearly express fears (Fergina, 2010; Ohata, 2005), yet they intuitively know how to help SALs with issues once aware (Brophy, 1996). However, many more problems surrounding FLA could be effectively managed if teachers consistently utilized strategies (Brophy, 1996), such as giving effective instruction (Creemers & Tillema, 1987; Spaulding, 1983) and employing PTP work in considered ways (Brophy, 1995; Creemers & Tillema, 1987). Teachers can also compound existing problems by labeling children as shy. If a child then internalizes this label, behaviors and patterns become established, helping create additional and more serious symptoms (Honig, 1987; Thompson & Rudolph, 1992). These can include unease and anxiety in social situations, exaggerated self-awareness, and increasingly negative self-perceptions in social contexts.

Teachers clearly enhance language learning, as research shows that instruction alone is less effective than reactive modified guidance in aiding L2 uptake (Ellis & Fotos, 1999; Wang & Castro, 2010). However, educators should remember that many learners struggle to understand them speak (Wallace & Leong, 2020) and pay careful attention to task

selection as it greatly impacts classroom participation (Creemers & Tillema, 1987), which Long (1981) suggested facilitates L2 speaking acquisition. Other professional goals teachers should strive for include being seen as a helper rather than an authority figure (Brophy, 1995), giving clear task instructions (Spaulding, 1983), speaking to students using the target language as much as possible while simultaneously creating chances for them to use it (Kikuchi, 2009; Wallace & Leong, 2020), cultivating supportive, trusting relationships with learners (Brophy, 1995), and employing reward systems rather than punishment because extensive studies show they are far more effective (Setiawati, 2012).

METHOD

Semi-structured interviews were chosen for data collection due to the psychological nature of FLA as a good way to acquire abundant raw data on participants' thoughts and feelings (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 219). They are favorable for small-scale studies and have several advantages over structured and unstructured interviews (Thomas, 2009, p. 164), allowing the examination of new and surprising themes that surface during analysis (Matthews & Ross, 2010, p. 28).

Purposive sampling was used to reach a targeted audience with speed identified as a potential drawback of the methodology. Sample criteria were shaped by a necessity for research participants with enough experience and emotional intelligence to generate data fertile enough to yield worthwhile insights. The author felt that teachers over 25 would be better able to provide this, as research suggests a slight increase in empathy with age (Fariselli et al., 2008), and many under 25 have little experience or just teach while traveling. Those teaching classes of under 10 children were excluded on the basis that social anxieties contribute to FLA (Iizuka, 2010; MacIntyre, 1995; Motoda, 2005; Oxford, 1999), and the author felt it necessary that participants worked in a classroom environment big enough that some learners be exhibiting FLA triggered by the presence of others.

Interviews were conducted online. Memos were taken to support the research with reflective data (Birks et al., 2008), and software was used to transcribe interviews immediately after completion. Recordings were revisited while scripts were proofread simultaneously for accuracy and

then sent to participants to check.

DATA ANALYSIS

Thematic analysis was used to evaluate the data and identify core themes, relevant details, and insights buried within. The 473 identified codes were whittled down to 22 topics of special interest, comprising 103 sub-topics. These 22 topics were selected based on the importance participants placed on them and the frequency with which they occurred during coding. The topics were then combined further into the six major themes: Students (STU), Teachers (TCH), Schools and Classrooms (SAC), Familiarity (FAM), Triggers and Therapies (TAT), and Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) and then visualized (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1: The Theme Atom, Depicting the Six Main Research Themes and Their Corresponding Codes

With data organized, analysis began. This was done using context, comparison, thick description, and lateral thought (Litchman, 2013; Thomas, 2009). Coded data were visualized as recommended by Harding

and Whitehead (2013) and Licqurish and Seibold (2011), resulting in the creation of six research particles, an example of which is included as Figure 2. Topics and sub-topics depicted in the research particles were distilled into 14 simplified categories and portrayed with the theme mapping molecule (see Figure 3). This was used to explore interrelated areas of interest using theme mapping and to look for relationships among the data. New theories were checked against the raw data to ensure that they incorporated important findings, and the raw data analyzed any new insights.

FIGURE 2: The Research Particles and Corresponding Sub-Theme Codes Visually

FLA 1.3
FLA 1.7
FLA 1.14
FLA 1.16
FLA 1.17

FLA 2.3
FLA 2.5
FLA 2.7
FLA 2.9
FLA 2.12

Behavioural Effects
• FLA 1.3 = Avoidance
• FLA 1.7 = Disengagement
• FLA 1.14 = Poor Performance
• FLA 1.16 = Resistance to Participation
• FLA 1.17 = Self Isolation

Mental Effects
• FLA 2.3 = Cognitive Interference
• FLA 2.5 = Distorted Reality
• FLA 2.7 = Feeling of Being Alone
• FLA 2.9 = Insecurity
• FLA2.12 = Nervousness
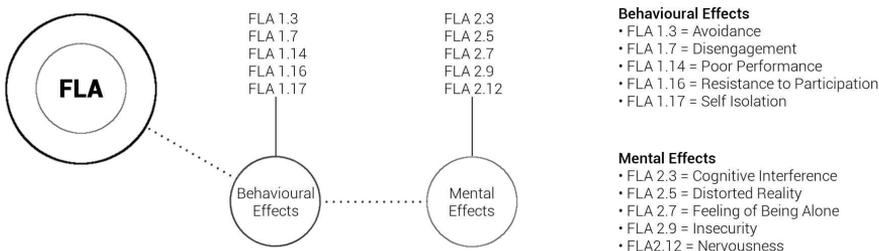
FIGURE 3: Theme Mapping Molecule: Foreign Language Anxiety,
Therapies and Triggers, Students, Schools and Classrooms, Teachers, and
Familiarity
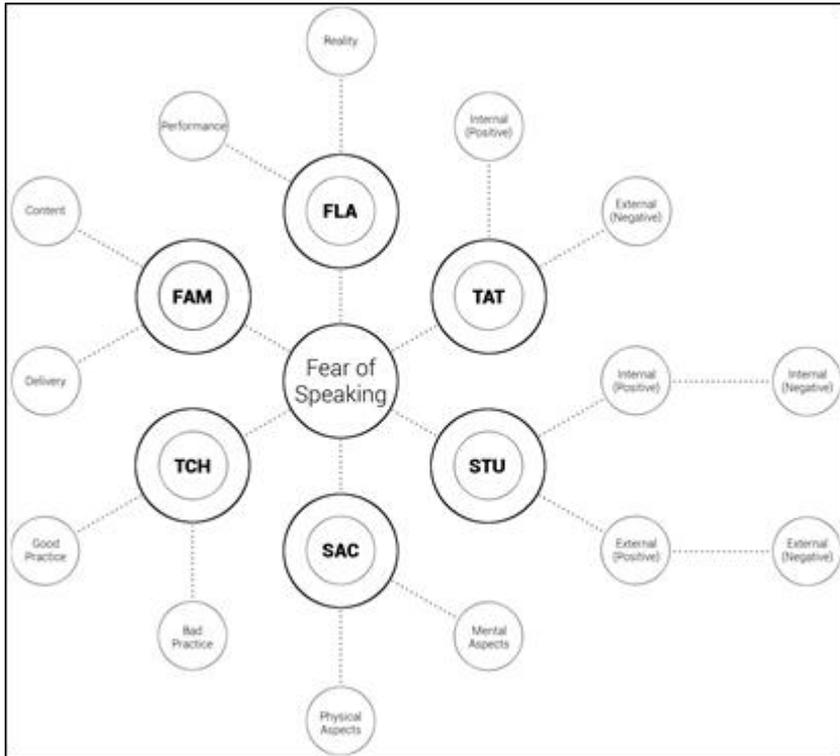
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Foreign Language Anxiety

Analysis revealed two main ways FLA affects children: mentally and
behaviorally. Participants declared children would try to withdraw and
self-isolate, and avoid activities, speaking, and general participation.
Brophy (1995) substantiated this. When they did attempt tasks, fear and
reserved effort lead to diminished performance. Mentally, children feel
insecure, nervous, and alone, and FLA interfered with their cognitive
process, so thinking became muddled and impaired. The author also

surmised that children with FLA experience a form of "distorted reality," seeing things through a "twisted lens" that finds negatives, magnifies insecurities, and sees great importance in trivial matters. Feeling that the teacher is "going to be upset" or "only ever comes to them," that "everyone else gets it" or they are constantly undergoing "some kind of assessment" are examples of false realities found hidden in the transcripts of Participants 1 and Participant 8. SALs experience distorted truths.

Therapies and Triggers

Triggers were fear of failure, along with uncertainty and self-imposed pressure to perform. Actions with a perceived risk (real or imagined), such as answering questions, going first, or speaking in front of peers, also exacerbated symptoms. The biggest trigger, though, was being the focus of attention, which children with FLA always believed was the case. This is corroborated by Bekleyen (2009), Fergina, (2010), Phillips (1992), Price (1991), and Young (1991, 1992), and in research by April et al. (1991) and Young (1990) in particular. The author felt this belief was another example of a distorted reality based on a half-truth. The root cause of these concerns seemed to be other students and distress about how they would be judged and perceived. As one participant posited: "They're afraid other students are going to laugh." Although peers are not mentioned as an immediate anxiety source by Bus (1980, 1984), this is in line with findings by Brophy (1995), and supported by Ellis (1994), Fergina (2010) and Young (1991).

The data suggested countermeasures are feeling comfortable, positive reinforcement, and establishing trust. Most participants strongly felt small-steps and one-to-one teaching were effective at countering FLA. Participants ventured that cultivating close relationships with SALs is also extremely beneficial, which Brophy (1995) supported. However, the author strongly suspects establishing trust between classmates to be as important (if not more so) as trust between teacher and child. He concludes this because peers were identified as one of the root causes of FLA, and other students negatively impacting SALs was an extremely evident theme. This is also because Ellis (1994), Fergina (2010), and Young (1991) cited appearing stupid in front of others and losing face as triggers.

Conversely, the research also suggests that peers can be equally

therapeutic for SALs under the right conditions; for example, during small-group work (SGW). SGW was viewed as less risky than working alone, as failure is shared. It facilitates knowledge-sharing and peer learning. And it provides group security and social support. However, participants acknowledged it sometimes creates social pressures such as those expressed by Participant 2 who mentioned "having to keep up or perform well." Literature confirms powerful ways peers both hinder (Ellis, 1994; Young, 1991) and help SALs (Kouicem, 2010; Saeed, et al., 2016). Therefore, assigning SALs partners should be done mindfully.

Students

The data identify feeling comfortable, confident, safe, and proud as the main helpful emotions SALs experience. Pride was thought to be felt when shy learners got to demonstrate knowledge. The author theorizes that competent task completion and praise might also generate pride (although "appearing smart" was also a trigger for some). Negative emotional states appear to be nervousness, embarrassment, feeling stupid, and experiencing a sense of failure. The students' main fears were revealed as speaking, failing, being wrong, and being judged, which has already been shown to be supported by the literature. A statement belonging to Participant 5 best expresses the shared view that SALs fear: "Other students are going to laugh at them." Worry about negative repercussions from teachers, parents, or friends is a major contributor to FLA. Participant 1 stated, "A lot of the anxiety students feel is because they fear getting in trouble," and continued, "There's a lot of different things that could be high stakes if they know that it's going to affect their grades or their report card or their future in some way." This is supported by McCroskey (1984), McLoone et al. (2006), and Young (1991), who reported SALs feeling anxious about teacher evaluation. Considering this information, it seems plausible that fears reflected in the data stem not from the acts of speaking, failure, or answering incorrectly − but from the consequences.

The data demonstrate that SALs need guidance and instruction on how to perform and complete tasks asked of them − and a safe environment free from risk and repercussions should they stumble. They need to feel confident in themselves and about what they have to do. They require lots of positive feedback and reinforcement, along with reassurance − about themselves, their abilities, and that what they are

doing is correct. Participant 2 stated, "What they want in my experience is, particularly, guidance and assurance that they're doing the right thing." Any feedback or correction needs to be sensitive, which April et al. (1991) and Young (1991) confirmed. The data also suggest they desire confidantes who address their concerns, make them feel safe, and help them achieve.

When speaking was unavoidable, SALs did not like speaking loudly. They were cripplingly concerned with how their actions appeared and how friends and classmates perceived them. Their personalities were hyper-aware. They were overly conscious of everything, including their mistakes, performance, level of ability, and skill of their peers. They were especially aware of any attention they received from their teacher and fellow students. Participants shared a view best illustrated by Participant 7, who stated that SALs experience a sense of "having everyone's attention on everything you say." They felt that classmates were major sources of anxiety for SALs. Participant 6 posited, "There's always the humiliation by other kids. The peer pressure." SALs felt that classmates were constantly watching and evaluating − that they would witness mistakes, judge errors, and make fun of them. Other students were also seen as competition. This is in line with papers by Bailey (1983), Fergina (2010), and Young (1991), who cite overly competitive students as prime FLA candidates. However, participants also felt peers could help FLA by leading shy learners, demonstrating what to say, and completing tasks. They also offered companionship and reassurance, which the data highlight as two important SAL needs. Classmates can also create confidence in SALs by demonstrating that a task is achievable, that they too make mistakes, and that capable students also receive feedback. They give answers SALs can copy and share pressure by taking focus away. They can help SALs be more outspoken by offering guidance and bonding with them by giving positive reinforcement. In fact, they can create confidence in SALs by just being in the seat next to them. From this, the author concludes that classmates play a pivotal role in FLA and should feature in any solution − and the data strongly parallel Brophy (1996), Blanco and Bogacki (1988), Friedman and Karagan (1973) and Maheady et al.'s (1992) recommendations of PTP work.

SALs believe they have to know the answer and get things right and that not knowing is bad − it means failure, and it makes them look stupid or incompetent. Participant 3 posited that SALs are "scared of

people seeing them fail and scared of not knowing." SALs believe answers must be 100 percent accurate and mistake-free and believe strongly that they will be judged by their peers. Interestingly, SALs also believe they will be picked to answer questions and that they will answer wrong. Viewed in context alongside other beliefs, the author feels this would surely exacerbate and compound anxieties.

This was one of the author's major revelations: that SALs' fears and beliefs unite and feed into each other, creating super anxieties. For example, Participant 1 stated that SALs believe, "I'm going to be called on all the time and I'm not going to be able to answer." Consider the following:

- SALs believe they *will* be called on to answer in class.
- SALs believe they *will* get the answer wrong.
- SALs believe answering wrong is bad.
- SALs believe teacher *will* be angry when they answer incorrectly.

The author concludes that SALs' anxieties become amplified and that SALs are not dealing with normal fears, but composite fears. Fears that combine and compound to create ultra-anxieties, which could further support the author's theory of distorted realities. Readings showed that co-occurring anxiety disorders exist and often contribute to each other (Ellis, 2019; Ollendick et al., 2010), sometimes worsening a condition's symptoms, so the theory seems possible (Ellis, 2019). Other examples of composite FLA fears exist to support the fact that this is not an isolated example:

- SALs fear they are in a competition due to distorted reality or competitive nature.
- SALs fear risk and uncertainty, which are intrinsic to competition.
- SALs fear they are less capable than classmates. Ergo, they will "lose the competition."
- SALs fear they will lose face when the inevitable occurs.

Teachers

Analysis showed teachers exhibit helpful or unhelpful behaviors when teaching. Examples of practices that benefit SALs include showing empathy, guiding learning, trying to maximize student talk time

(although often difficult), and pairing SALs with appropriate partners for SGW. Goals supported by Spaulding (1983), Setiawati (2012), Brophy (1996) and Maheady et al. (1992), respectively. Examples of unhelpful practices are focusing on strong learners and having them answer for the class, paying weaker students less attention, creating uncertainty with confusing actions or unclear instruction, and randomly selecting students without warning. Over-correction and providing feedback insensitively or in front of peers were examples supported with literature by Koch and Terrell (1991).

Interviews revealed that only Participant 7 had heard of FLA and had some understanding of it, though all regularly encountered SALs and had witnessed FLA's effects. None informed children what they would be studying in their next lesson or set homework, which is a missed opportunity to create familiarity with pre-task knowledge. When asked, most had never given the idea of informing children about the topic of upcoming lessons any thought and did not feel it important. Participant 8 said,"[Children] are aware of the following lesson as it follows the unit layout in their pupil book" and could look ahead if concerned. The author felt this was an in-the-moment response to justify not setting homework (which participants seemed embarrassed to admit), rather than a truly held belief. At best, the author felt this an assumption − and untrue − as in their experience, classes rarely follow a workbook's structure.

Games were extremely popular with teachers as well as students. Findings show that they animated learners, created a fun atmosphere, lowered inhibitions, and shifted the focus off learning and performing. Participant 7 reported, "With shy learners, games put the learning aspects in a different light." The majority loved using games and found them an extremely effective teaching method, which Matsuda and Gobel (2004), Ohata (2005), Salehi and Marefat (2014), and Wallace and Leong (2020) support. Only Participant 6 was slightly hesitant about them, admitting however, "I became a convert on this." He recognized their value but used them cautiously. Teachers also felt PTP teaching and SGW were beneficial for all students. Participants also reported utilizing SALs' favorite topics as a very effective way to engage them in learning − as recommended by Fergina (2010). The author noticed this was not just because SALs are more excited to talk about them but also more familiar with them, which the data show lowers FLA. Participants directly cited taking small steps, popular topics, and one-to-one teaching as

countermeasures to FLA, and strongly believed building trust to be important, too.

Like Brophy (1995) and Apter and Conoley (2014), participants felt taking time to cultivate close personal relationships is one of the most beneficial things teachers can do to build trust and combat FLA. Participants felt the trust-building process starts immediately and everything you do affects it. Teachers believed trust is gained with students slowly over time. Utilizing theme-mapping, the author concluded that time helps create trust by allowing familiarity to develop. Demonstrating knowledge about shared interests and favorite topics also built trust. It allows children to feel a sense of familiarity with their teacher by seeing that they have something in common. Trust is also gained using consistent and appropriate behavior. The data show that SALs need to trust that teachers' behavior (the measures they take, the work they set, the responses they give) will be appropriate. Participant 1 declared, "Never put them on the spot or, like, publicly chastise them, or in any way make the classroom feel like a scary place." Evaluating the data, the author himself deduces trusting the class may be equally, if not more, important to SALs as trusting their teacher due to the frequency peers are mentioned as causing FLA.

Schools and Classrooms

In the classroom, demonstrations were regularly used as they greatly helped students by providing guidance, structure, and clarity, and because they are popular with students, discussions and debates were also commonly employed. SGW was viewed favorably by interviewees. When talking about it, the author noted it was then that participants became most animated during their interviews. Benefits of SGW included its realism, ability to build competence and confidence, and being a more enjoyable process, leading to better outcomes. TBL was viewed favorably and its usefulness recognized. However, it was mostly reserved for older children, and regarded by some teachers as complicated to implement. It was the author's impression that TBL was not used enough, which was surprising because it is so acclaimed (Ismaili, 2013), but just as Jeon and Hahn (2006) suggested. The data indicate that symbolism and meaning is attached to seating positions and that a regular spot provided a sense of comfort and familiarity for SALs. However, seating was often rotated at the start or during a lesson.

Participants generally thought SALs had a proclivity to gravitate towards the back or edges of the class. Nearly all felt somewhere in the middle, a few rows from the front, would be a good spot for SALs. The author thought there was some merit to this, as it allowed maximum access to peer support, meant SALs couldn't hide, and were close enough to receive assistance when needed without being in the front row, which might induce feelings of being watched.

Familiarity

Throughout the study, the theme of familiarity was found to be extremely important to SALs, which Bailey (1983), Bekleyen (2009) and Creemers and Tillema (1987) support. Games, popular topics, demos, sample answers, and speaking and reciting exercises were revealed as ways to create it. The data showed familiarity should be established for SALs before speaking practice using demos and sample answers. Sample answers and popular topics were the familiarity-building sub-themes most mentioned by interviewees. As revealed earlier, homework was rarely set, which is a missed opportunity to create familiarity with upcoming lessons. Information about the content of future lessons was not actively given. Overwhelmingly, teachers relied on books and curriculum to inform children of future classes, which was another missed opportunity to provide familiarity. The data also showed that, although games are popular with both teachers and children, they were never used in the context of pre-teaching knowledge and building familiarity. With uncertainty at the root of most fear-based phobias (Bergland, 2016; Gorka, 2017), it is easy to understand why familiarity was such a persistent theme.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Immediate

Findings suggest several steps teachers can immediately implement to help SALs. They can give lots of reassurance and positive reinforcement and set small, achievable tasks to generate pride and confidence. They can begin cultivating trusting classroom atmospheres

and build camaraderie between students using collaborative games (Depping, et al., 2016), SGW (Creating a Supportive Learning Environment, 2018), and shared goals (Depping et al., 2017). They can cease calling on students randomly and asking them to speak in front of the class unprepared, and they can make feedback anonymous by delivering it to the whole class rather than individually. Teachers should adjust demeanor to be calm, friendly, appropriate, and predictable, and make it clear that mistakes will not be punished. They can address common misconceptions about language learning, stressing speech is shorter, simpler, and less organized than written English (Teaching Speaking Skills 1, 2021), and clarify that failure is part of learning and nothing to be ashamed of. They can utilize more SGW and TBL in lessons, pairing SALs strategically or, as recommended by Carless (2002) and Brophy (1995), assigning them roles. The increase in TBL and SGW will increase the amount of time learners interact, which (from the data, the author theorizes) should increase familiarity, and therefore trust, among classmates. They can also begin informing students about their next lessons and set homework based on its content so that SALs can familiarize themselves with the material.

Aspirational

There are less immediate but potentially more impactful measures teachers can take to help SALs. They can introduce a regular structure and pattern to lesson plans, reducing uncertainty and increasing familiarity for SALs. These should be based on SALs' favorite topics and SGW activities. This will reduce the attention upon SALs from the whole class to four or five group members, facilitate PTP learning, and turn competitors into companions. One-to-one teaching should then be employed when needed. When preparing lessons, attention should be given to crafting sample answers and instructions, so task guidance is clear and rehearsed, not impromptu, as recommended by Richards and Lockhart (1996).

Radical

Previous recommendations seem instantly apparent from the research. However, the revelations of distorted realities and

ultra-anxieties suggest a powerfully complex anxiety that the author suspects to require a heterogeneous remedy. Examining the theme-mapping molecule developed for the study, the author came to a realization analyzing the SAC theme: Teachers cannot directly affect the mental aspects of schools and classrooms. They can, however, immediately manipulate the physical environment. This prompted the idea that an environmentally driven panacea might provide a truly disruptive solution to FLA, which is a concept supported by Brophy (1996) and Blanco and Bogacki (1988). Based on this, the author contemplated the following.

The data show that English foreign language teachers have immediate control over the physical environment. While studies on how environmental changes impact behavior and learning are scarce (Guardino & Fullerton, 2010; Guardino & Antia, 2012; Schilling & Schwartz, 2004), what there are show that modifying classrooms increases engagement and changes behavior (Guardino & Antia, 2012; Guardino & Fullerton, 2010). Also, the literature review evidenced young learners' motivation may be largely influenced by the learning environment (Wallace & Leong, 2020), which supports the author's theory. The author also noted that seating is symbolic and used to facilitate avoidance. SALs like sample answers, guidance, familiar content and topics, feel pressure from classmates and preconceived learning beliefs, and dislike uncertainty. Students like debates and discussions. Based on this, the FLA Group-Centered Tuition Teaching Model (GCTTM) was created (see Figure 4).

FIGURE 4. The FLA Group-Centered Tuition Teaching Model
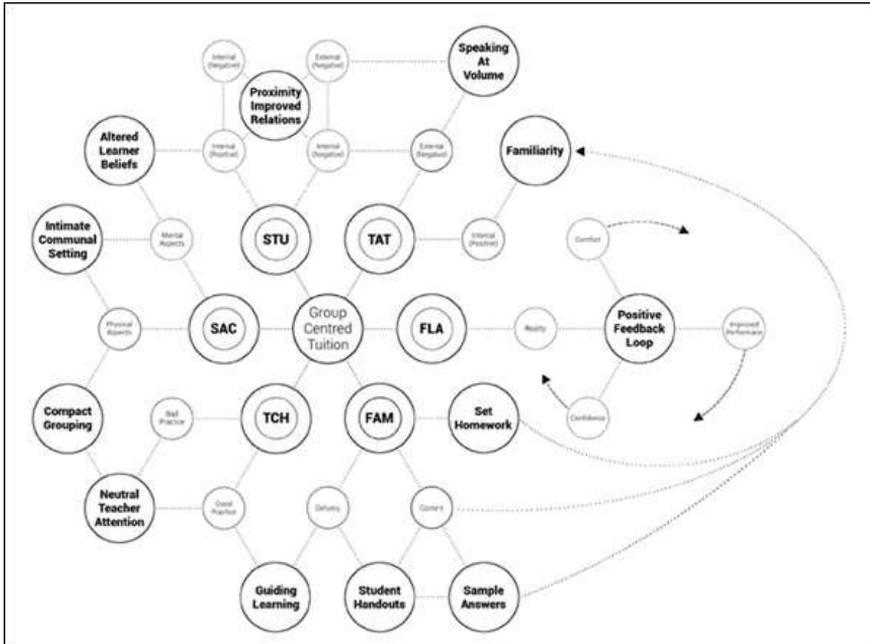
Note: This is a roadmap to and visual depiction of the Group-Centered Tuition Teaching Model and its interrelating pathways of influence, showing how the model creates an orchestrated approach by implementing changes to the six main research themes, which complement and reinforce each other in order to help SALs. The benefits of the model are not limited to those depicted here, and for maximum effect, the model can be used in conjunction with other recommended methods of reducing FLA, such as praise, peer-to-peer teaching, favorite topics, and anonymous feedback.

The author recommends that teachers stop the traditional style of teaching in front of the board and move to teaching in a group, amongst the students, in the middle of the class. Immediately, this central position is more personal, and SALs are no longer required to use a loud voice, which they dislike. Lessons will resemble a discussion or a debate, which the data showed to be popular, and may help dispel concerns associated with preconceptions about learning and classrooms. Sitting together will make it harder for SALs to hide, and teachers less likely to forget them. Reading confirms that this "circle-style teaching" improves classmate trust and relationship quality (Moss & Wilson, 1998), with many lauding its benefits (Bruner, 1986; Dowrick, 1993;

Kutnick, 1995; Ogilvy, 1994). The teacher should prepare handouts containing the lesson structure and sample answers. This should remove uncertainty about what is coming and allow SALs to discretely familiarize themselves with words and phrases in advance. The fact that every student is given this handout provides SALs with anonymity. The board can then be reserved for cooperative games to decrease competition or displaying helpful classroom phrases as practiced by Participant 7, who recommends, "Like, 'I don't understand?' or 'Can you repeat that?' or 'How do you say...?' So then they're comfortable with those phrases."

This multifaceted catholicon theoretically addresses issues within all six themes and all twelve sub-themes of the theme-mapping molecule at once. By changing physical aspects of SAC, eventually, we will theoretically alter its mental aspects. All STU sub-themes are engaged – with work to regulate internal emotions and external behavior in progress. It employs good teacher practice while eliminating bad habits – the two branches of TCH. It involves the two arms of FAM – content and delivery – in the form of advanced knowledge and student handouts. It involves both facets of TAT – providing therapies such as familiarity, trust-building, and sample answers, while circumventing triggers such as uncertainty and speaking at volume. If successful, both branches of the FLA theme are also tackled, leading to achievement of the research objective of discovering strategies to reduce children's fear of speaking in class because altering the distorted reality SALs experience may ultimately lead to improved performance, creating a positive feedback loop by continuously generating greater confidence and comfort (see Figure 5).

FIGURE 5. The Positive Feedback Loop
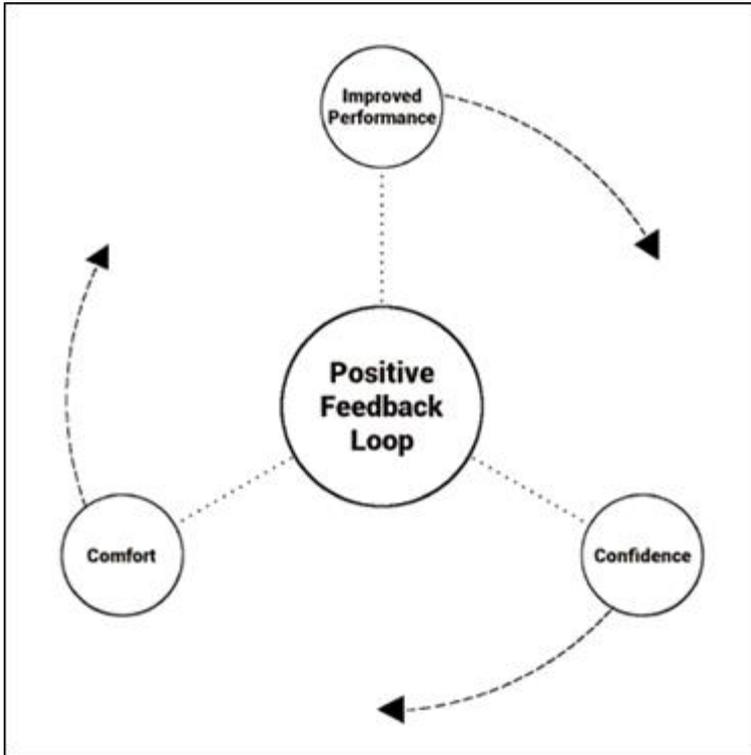
Note. A visual representation of the positive feedback loop that the author theorizes should result from use of the Group-Centered Tuition Teacher Model. The figure shows how implementing the model should help create confidence in shy/anxious learners, which in turn will also contribute to generating confidence in them. Doing so should lead to improved performance in the classroom, fulfilling the research objective of discovering strategies to reduce children's fear of speaking in class. With improved performance comes greater confidence, and the cycle repeats, ultimately creating the consistent reduction of FLA in shy/anxious learners.

CONCLUSIONS

The author discovered that FLA is an intensely potent mix of anxieties that SALs suspect amplify each other, making it an overwhelmingly complex anxiety, and extremely difficult for students, teachers, and researchers alike. This motivated research to go beyond just

behavioral management techniques and the lackluster approaches in the literature review, such as rewards, praise, and positive thinking. A plethora of suggestions surround the subject, and the author hopes this study illustrates a way through the maze of recommendations already available with a tangible, multifaceted approach for teachers in the form of the GCTTM.

FLA is an ultra-anxiety and needs an ultra-solution that addresses multiple facets at once. It is the author's hope that disrupting the classroom culture will also disrupt SALs' negative beliefs about the nature of learning and lessons. Implementing big changes that address multiple symptoms at once may interrupt SALs' mental models and challenge their distorted reality. For teachers unable to implement the GCTTM, the author recommends utilizing strategically implemented SGW, anonymous feedback, and building familiarity into tasks and lessons whenever possible. Anything teachers can do to reduce the risk of failure for students should greatly decrease FLA. And cultivating a trusting classroom is crucial, as concern about peer perception is a major cause of anxiety. Their new understanding of FLA's intricate nature underpins the author's recommendation for future action research into their GCTTM.

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Brief Reports

Changes in Students' Perception of Active Learning and Class Engagement

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Because of COVID-19, many universities in 2020 transitioned quickly to online learning with varying degrees of success. Although many students appreciate the flexibility and convenience of online classes, student ratings of instructors (SRIs) show that most students prefer face-to-face (F2F) classes (Jayaratne & Moore, 2017; Winer et al., 2016). This study focuses on students at a private university in Japan who were studying English as a foreign language and how the emergency transition to online instruction affected their perceptions of active learning and classroom engagement. This university had never offered distance learning courses, so most faculty and students were novices concerning online education. Across three semesters, 5,176 SRIs were analyzed. Findings show that students' perceptions of active learning and classroom engagement were largely unchanged from the pre-COVID-19, F2F semester compared to the following two semesters, both delivered online. Additionally, students reported they perceived that they improved their speaking proficiency slightly more during the online courses.

Keywords: active learning, transition to online learning, COVID-19, student engagement

INTRODUCTION

When COVID-19 disrupted society across the globe in 2020, it marked another instance in history where a pandemic reshaped the landscape of education. Isaac Newton is said to have developed calculus during isolation caused by the Plague. Similar disruptions happened in 2002 when SARS forced the closure of many academic institutions in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. However, the COVID-19 pandemic

affected the greatest number of students ever in the history of the world. As of October 2020, an estimated 200 million students globally experienced changes in their university education, either through closures or a shift to online learning (Salmi, 2020, p. 4). The transitions were not without challenges for many universities, especially in Africa and South America, and other countries with less established internet networks established across the nation. In countries such as Chile, Columbia, Tunisia, Kenya, Ghana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe, large groups of students petitioned to stop online education, citing issues such as the lack of technology and educational inequality (Salmi, 2020). A global survey conducted in March and April 2020 found that, compared to the global average of 59%, Africa disproportionately experienced a higher rate of closure of higher education institutions, at a rate of 77% (Marinoni et al., 2020). Additionally, in the UK, USA, and South Korea, students lobbied for tuition refund due to the shift to online education (Salmi, 2020). The unprecedented global pandemic necessitated the evaluation of educational methods, namely, the adoption of online learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Universities attempting the transition to online courses during the COVID-19 pandemic experienced varying degrees of success, with challenges emerging on different fronts. Studies indicate that students generally favor planned online classes for their flexibility and diverse learning experiences (Gacs et al., 2020). During the COVID-19 pandemic, researchers found widespread student satisfaction with online schooling (Azizan et al., 2022; Rifiyanti, 2020; Zou et al., 2021; Famularsih, 2020).

Despite students' satisfaction, unsurprisingly, the role of professors emerged as a significant factor of overall student satisfaction during online classes (Gopal et al., 2021). For instance, studies conducted in Indonesia and China found that students felt that their professors were well skilled at teaching online (Rifiyanti, 2020; Zou et al., 2021). It's essential to recognize the distinction between planned online learning and crisis-driven online learning. Given the stressful nature of the Covid pandemic and the limited preparation time, it's understandable that many schools, instructors, and students were not at their best during this

difficult time. The urgency of the Covid pandemic lead to a "hurried triage experience" (Gacs et al., 2020, p. 390). A study in Pakistan found significant student disappointment with their online learning options, with 75% stating that they were *unlikely* or *very unlikely* to choose online courses in the future, primarily attributed to technical difficulties (Iqbal et al., 2022). In addition, a survey on Romanian university students revealed that a deficit in resources and training negatively impacted the online learning process during the Covid pandemic (Raboca & Cotoranu, 2020). Even in technologically advanced South Korea, the transition to online university courses faced "substantial apprehension and doubt" (Fanguy et al., 2021, p. 40), with students citing issues like insecure internet access (Shim & Lee, 2020).

Additionally, students grappled with challenges both inside and outside of the virtual classroom during the pandemic, each set of challenges unique to their individual situations. For example, a study on undergraduate students in the USA revealed that first-year students experienced the most difficulty, while junior- and senior-level students, along with those above 30 years old, adapted better to the transition to online schooling (Stewart et al., 2021). The study highlighted that more than half of the undergraduate students in the study experienced "increased difficulty" and "anxiety." Additionally, 48% experienced a "household income decrease," 35% experienced "job loss," and 20% experienced an "increase in workload/hours on the job" (Stewart et al, 2021, p. 48).

Faculty members, too, experienced various challenges in the sudden shift to online teaching. A study in Romania highlighted lack of resources and training as the top two issues affecting the instructor's ability to teaching online (Raboca & Cotoranu, 2020). Moreover, institutional disorganization exacerbated faculty challenges, emphasizing the need for a systematic approach to online learning (Khalil et al., 2020).

Despite the challenges highlighted above, it is necessary to recognize the benefits that emerged from the transition to online learning during the pandemic. A comparative study in Uruguay, conducted before and after the pandemic, found that despite students' initial resistance, the online version of the course resulted in a better student outcome (Freire & Rodriguez, 2022). Additionally, teachers in South Korea indicated that online learning facilitated increased participation, namely, from shy students, easier classroom management, and an increased student-centered classroom (Fanguy et al., 2021). Findings from another study in

South Korea involving 393 college students echoed the same sentiments, with the students voicing their positive perceptions of online learning for fostering positive interactions with peers and instructors (Shim & Lee, 2020).

It is evident that every region faced unique challenges and responded differently to the pandemic. For instance, in Japan, while most K–12 schools implemented measures such as staggering attendance for in-person classes, most universities transitioned to online or hybrid courses (MEXT, 2020). For many students, faculty, and institutions, the abrupt shift to online learning represented uncharted territory. A study in South Korea highlighted the steep learning curve associated with the transition to online learning. To ensure preparedness for potential future shifts, this study suggested that institutions, faculty, and students should incorporate online components into standard face-to-face courses, creating a more adaptable educational environment (Fanguy et al., 2021).

Although there has been much research on students' attitudes towards online learning, there remains a gap in understanding how students' attitudes and engagement were impacted by the sudden shift to online learning during the Covid pandemic. This article aims to fill in the gap by addressing a specific aspect: how engaged and active the students felt in online classes.

For the purpose of this article, I adopt Agbatogum's (2014) definition of *active learning*: "anything course-related that all students in a class session are called to do other than simply watching, listening, and taking notes. It keeps students awake and provides the opportunity for a high-level of learning and retention unlike what happens in the traditional lecture classroom" (p. 259). Classroom engagement, in this context, encompasses not only students' internal motivation and interest but also their visible participation, including but not limited to asking questions, taking notes, and joining in group work (Al-Bogami & Elyas, 2020).

Much of the information from how students are faring and what they need in order to thrive at university comes from student surveys. Student ratings of instructors (SRIs) serve as a crucial mechanism for evaluating faculty performance, with universities globally relying on these surveys to gauge teaching effectiveness. These evaluations, often referred to as "student evaluation surveys" or "faculty evaluation questionnaires," play a pivotal role in shaping decisions related to class assignments, tenure, and other rewards. Notably, they provide valuable insights into students'

perspectives of the classroom experience, offering a wealth of information for educators and researchers alike (Willits & Brennan, 2017).

However, before delving into the insights provided by SRIs, it is prudent to address critical questions concerning their validity, reliability, and potential biases. Faculty members, administrators, and university staff may express skepticism, fearing that unavoidable challenges or biases could tarnish their SRI records. For instance, a 2014 study involving over 8,000 SRIs revealed that students tended to rate face-to-face (F2F) instructors higher on nearly all factors than their online counterparts, with synchronous or asynchronous online courses receiving feedback suggesting they required more work (Young & Duncan, 2014). Similarly, a study in North Carolina found that, despite a generally positive attitude towards online classes, students preferred F2F classes when all other factors were equal (Jayaratne & Moore, 2017).

Contrary to these findings, a study by Willits and Brennan (2017) analyzed 3,780 student SRIs from three Penn State campuses (including online and F2F) and found only minimal effects of bias. This contrast emphasizes the complexity of evaluating teaching effectiveness through SRIs and the nuanced relationship between different instructional modalities.

In conclusion, while SRIs are imperfect and subject to variations in student preferences and biases, they remain a valuable tool for gaining insights into students' opinions and perceptions of their classes and instructors. Faculty can use these evaluations to improve and enhance their teaching effectiveness, fostering continuous development. Finally, researchers can draw upon the SRI data to glean insights into best practices for educational delivery, contributing to ongoing improvement of educational practices.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study explored the following questions:

RQ1. How do students' perceptions of active learning and classroom engagement change after a crisis transition to online courses?

RQ2. Does a change to online classes affect the students' perceptions of what language skills they are improving in a language class?

METHOD

In the spring months of March and April, amidst global uncertainty about the duration and severity of the COVID-19 pandemic, the university educational practices underwent substantial changes. The spring 2020 semester started online with an introductory class at the end of April, followed by regular classes, all conducted via Zoom, beginning in the second week of May; a month later than initially scheduled. It is worth mentioning that the university mandated synchronous teaching, where classes had to be conducted in real-time, with faculty tracking attendance. Unlike many institutions offering distance learning, this university did not provide the flexibility associated with online courses, such as on-demand access to the course.

To support faculty, the university administration facilitated the loan of laptops, high speed internet hotspots, and cameras to effectively conduct instruction online. Training workshops and ongoing Zoom consultation were also offered. The language department collaborated to compile a unified list of Zoom rules for students and instructors. Additionally, they shared Zoom tutorials and held frequent faculty meetings for idea-sharing, troubleshooting, and assisting one another. One significant consequence of the transition to online instruction was the temporary cancellation of a high-stakes English exam for both the spring 2020 and fall 2020 semester for all English language students, impacting the curriculum and students' grades significantly.

At this private international university, a practice was established wherein all teachers allocated class time in the final week of the semester for students to complete online SRIs anonymously. The SRIs used in this study were based on the Student Evaluation of Educational Quality (SEEQ) questionnaire, a widely recognized tool initially published in the *British Journal of Educational Psychology* in 1982 by Herbert Marsh. It is freely available for use by any learning institution. A study in 2001 recommended the SEEQ when "reliability and validity are important" (Coffey & Gibbs, 2001, p. 92). The analysis focused on a subset of questions related to active learning, engagement, and skill improvement. All questions and a summary of responses used in this study are available in the Appendix. All responses have been kept anonymous, with average responses for the field and department being shared with all faculty, while the individual class results were sent only to the respective instructors.

This study specifically analyzed the SRI responses from students enrolled in undergraduate English courses, with all data anonymized to protect student and faculty identities. Most of these students studying English were domestic Japanese students aged 18–22. These students were enrolled in a variety of courses with levels from elementary to advanced included. Refer to Table 1 for details on the number of responses received across three semesters.

TABLE 1. Total Number of Students Versus Number of Students Who Completed SRIs During Three Semesters

Semester	Total Number of Students	Valid Responses	Response Rate
Fall 2019	2113	1657	78.4%
Spring 2020	2737	2013	73.5%
Fall 2020	2253	1506	66.8%

RESULTS

Instructors might initially hypothesize that the crisis transition to online courses, accompanied with the challenges and uncertainty related to Covid, would result in a lower rating of students' engagement and active learning during the online spring and fall semesters of 2020 compared to the F2F fall semester of 2019. A slight increase might be expected in the fall 2020 semester, as both students and teachers become more comfortable and accustomed to online learning and teaching. However, contrary to these expectations, the results showed that there were minimal changes in student engagement across the three semesters: F2F classes before Covid, the first semester of online courses, and the second semester online. The results can be seen in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

FIGURE 1. Students' Perception of Active Learning (Likert Scale Responses)
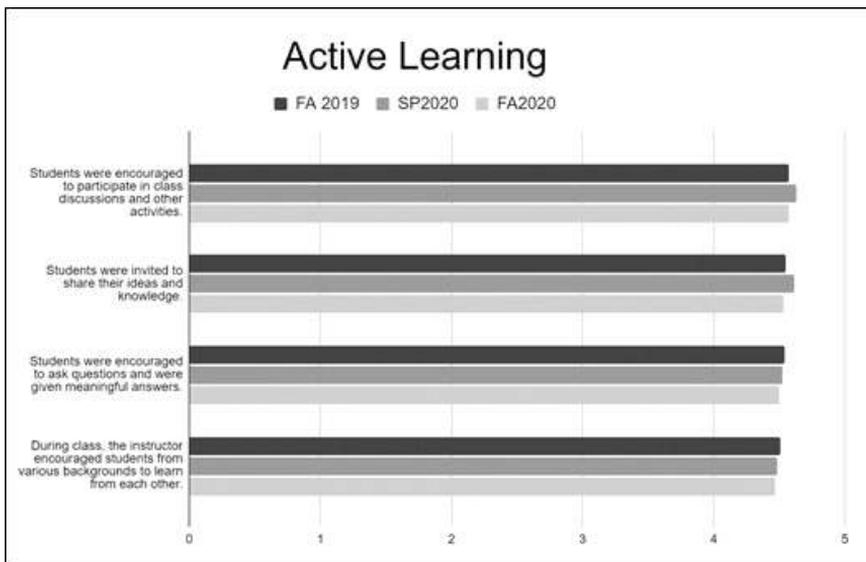
Note. FA = Fall semester; SP = Spring semester.

FIGURE 2. Students' Perception of Engagement (Likert Scale Responses)
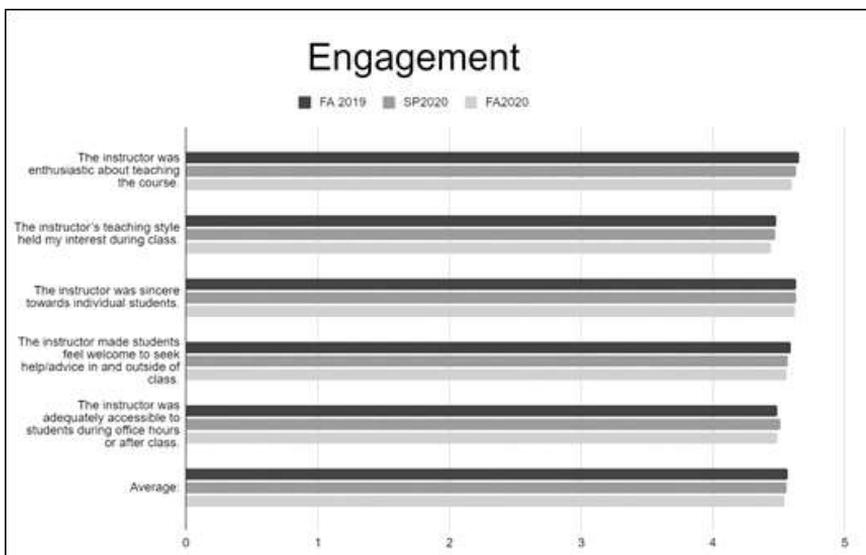
Note. FA = Fall semester; SP = Spring semester.

Changes for each question were negligible, with the total average for active learning showing minimal fluctuations: from fall 2019 to spring 2020, a change of +0.02; and from spring 2020 to fall 2020, a change of −0.04. Similarly, regarding engagement, the average displayed slight variations, with a change of −0.01 from fall 2019 to spring 2020 and a change of −0.02 from spring 2020 to fall 2020.

Figure 3 shows the results when students were prompted to evaluate which language skills they perceived as having improved the most in the course. One interesting aspect of these findings is that I and many other teachers felt a limitation in the online teaching format concerning students' collaborative work, discussion, and group work. Although Zoom provides the option to form pairs or small groups in "breakout rooms," concerns arose about students underutilizing these breakout rooms. Without the oversight that is available in the traditional classroom setting, many instructors worried that students were not actively engaged in assigned tasks, possibly due to confusion, shyness, or low motivation.

FIGURE 3. Students' Perceptions of Which Skills They Improved in Their Course
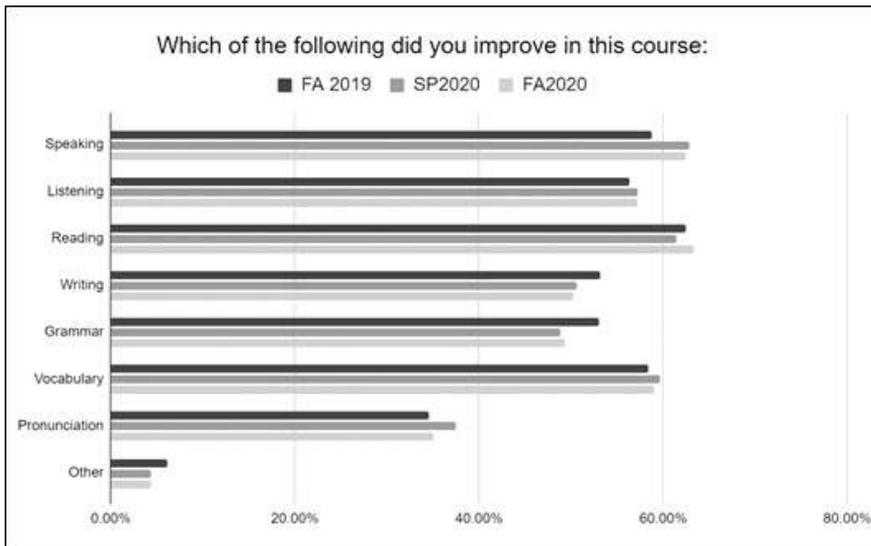
Note. FA = Fall semester; SP = Spring semester.

In Table 2, it is evident that students perceived a greater

improvement in their speaking ability during the online classes, with an initial increase of 4.1%, followed by a marginal decrease of 0.5% in the following semester. Table 3 illustrates students' perceptions of their improvement in grammar: a reduction of 4.2%, and then an increase of 0.5%.

TABLE 2. Percentage of Students Who Felt That They Improved Their Speaking Ability

Fall 2019	Spring 2020	Fall 2020
58.8%	62.9%	62.4%

TABLE 3. Percentage of Students Who Felt That They Improved Their Grammar Ability

Fall 2019	Spring 2020	Fall 2020
53%	48.8%	49.3%

DISCUSSION

Several factors contributed to the stability of active learning and engagement during the shift from F2F to online learning. Firstly, the difference between F2F and online learning were reduced due to the features offered by Zoom, such as breakout rooms, and the requirement for synchronous classes. In addition, support and training from the administration and colleagues may have alleviated the challenges of this transition. Additionally, students who initially struggled with the first year of university experience away from home may have found returning to familiar surroundings beneficial. Many students opted to live at home during the fully online semester, reducing financial burdens, transportation time, and the challenges associated with living away from home. The ease of attending classes from home likely contributed to increased class participation, as students saved on transportation costs and had more flexibility with their schedules.

Regarding improved speaking ability online, students may have felt more comfortable practicing in the privacy of their rooms or in small groups compared to a busy classroom setting. Notably, the perception of

improved speaking ability coincided with a decline in perceived improvement in grammar. This might suggest a shift in instructional focus, with instructors prioritizing speaking-based activities over grammar lessons to enhance active learning and engagement. Despite the rushed transition to online learning, the study indicates that in terms of engagement and active learning, students did not experience adverse effects from the shift from F2F to online learning. Perceptions of active learning and engagement remained steady, with minor variations in the focus and improvement of specific skills.

These findings hold potential for guiding the decision-making process in various countries, including South Korea. Both Japanese and Korean universities have large English language departments, with English classes being mandatory in most higher learning institutions. Anecdotal evidence suggests that individuals in both Japan and South Korea start studying English from a young age but may still grapple with confidence in their language proficiency. University students in these two countries often aspire to spend time abroad in English-speaking countries or aim to enhance their skills for such experience in the future.

Furthermore, the timing of the Covid pandemic, coinciding with the start of the academic year in both Japan and South Korea, implies that students in these two countries likely faced rapid and challenging transitions to online learning. This is in contrast to the USA, where the pandemic surged strongly at the end of the school year. Additionally, both Japan and South Korea experienced a delayed school openings initially, followed by a transition to online learning (Byun & Slavin, 2020). The shared attributes of a robust GDP, a technologically adept population, and reliable infrastructure in both countries enhance the generalizability of conclusions drawn from this survey to diverse international contexts.

LIMITATIONS AND AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the valuable insights gained, this study has limitations. The non-100% response rate to the SRIs raises the possibility of skewed results, as some low-performing students, students with low motivation, or students with poor attendance might have dropped the course by this point or skipped the class in which the SRI was administered. If such students avoided the SRIs, it could impact the overall findings.

In addition, the analysis focused on selected questions, potentially offering an incomplete picture of the students' perception of their online courses as compared to their F2F courses. Future research could benefit from a comprehensive examination of all the responses to present a more nuanced picture of students' perceptions.

Finally, there is a need for additional research to explore the differences between consistent, required, synchronous online classes, such as those examined in this study, and the more common online format of classes that involve recorded lectures, written discussion chats, and less frequent synchronous meetings.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the unexpected transition to online learning caused by COVID-19 had both negative and positive implications. The results of this study found minimal changes in students' perceptions of active learning and engagement during the transition. Despite disruptions, institutions may feel more confidence in transitioning to or expanding online formats, as research suggests that students can effectively learn and engage in these classes. This study aligns with the notion that a well-organized online curriculum can serve as the basis for a new learning environment. It underscores the potential benefits of online learning, offering flexibility for students and faculty (Jung & Shin, 2021). Finally, integrating online classes into educational structures could prepare future generations for a seamless transition between F2F and online education.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX

TABLE A1. Student Rating of Instructors (SRI) Items and Responses

	Items	FA19	SP20	FA20
Engage-ment	The instructor was enthusiastic about teaching the course.	4.65	4.63	4.6
	The instructor's teaching style held my interest during class.	4.48	4.47	4.44
	The instructor was sincere towards individual students.	4.63	4.63	4.62
	The instructor made students feel welcome to seek help/advice in and outside of class.	4.59	4.57	4.56
	The instructor was adequately accessible to students during office hours or after class.	4.49	4.51	4.49
	Average of Engagement	**4.57**	**4.56**	**4.54**
Active Learning	Students were encouraged to participate in class discussions and other activities.	4.57	4.63	4.57
	Students were invited to share their ideas and knowledge.	4.55	4.61	4.53
	Students were encouraged to ask questions and were given meaningful answers.	4.54	4.52	4.5
	During class, the instructor encouraged students from various backgrounds to learn from each other.	4.51	4.48	4.47
	Average of Active Learning	**4.54**	**4.56**	**4.52**
Improve-ment Areas	Speaking (%)	58.8	62.9	62.4
	Listening (%)	56.3	57.3	57.3
	Reading (%)	62.4	61.5	63.3
	Writing (%)	53.1	50.6	50.2
	Grammar (%)	53	48.8	49.3
	Vocabulary (%)	58.4	59.7	59.0
	Pronunciation (%)	34.5	37.5	35.1
	Other (%)	6.2	4.4	4.4

An EFL Teacher's Reflection on Korean Demographic Changes, a Harbinger for a New EFL Learner Population?

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This reflective piece shifts and expands discussions of Korean ELT beyond the long-time focus on young learners' acquisition of English and young adults' preparation for college entrance exams and the job market. The discussion addresses the changing Korean ELT landscape due in part to the country's major demographic shift. The author offers an EFL practitioner piece that reflects on her experiences in responding to the Korean demographic shifts in the EFL learner population. The objective is to share and foster a bottom-up discussion, rather than a top-down discussion around the changing demographic and EFL employment opportunities.

Keywords: Korean demographic changes, low birth rates, cultural centers, elderly learners, changing EFL market

INTRODUCTION

South Korea (hereafter Korea) is experiencing a demographic change with a significant number of individuals growing older and increasing the mature-aged and elderly population. This demographic shift is occurring in other parts of the world as well. One sixth of the world population will be over sixty-five years old by 2050 (Lee & Botto, 2021). However, Korea is in a precarious state with exceptionally low birth rates with 0.84 births per woman in 2020 (Lee & Botto, 2021) marking the country's population decline, despite government efforts to provide incentives, such as tax incentives and cash awards for couples to have children and support couple-matching events to encourage younger individuals to marry and start a family (J. Lee, 2023, J.-H Lee,

2023). These initiatives are at the national, provincial, and local government levels (J. Lee, 2023), suggesting the importance of the issue for a variety of reasons.

It is not clear if the demographic changes in Korea are a harbinger for ELT educators as the EFL learner population shifts, or for others facing aging populations and low birth rates like Japan (Kuhn, 2021, 2023), but the lived experiences of longtime EFL educators responding to shifting clientele is valuable, as it initiates a discussion around a market population (i.e., senior citizens) that has been traditionally overlooked but could potentially play a larger role in Korean ELT. As such, the author first provides a discussion around the shift in enrollment in English language instruction across various programs from pre-kindergarten to high school, as well as lower university quota enrollments in English language teaching majors. This is followed by a description in the growing English and other programs for aging Koreans. The literature review closes with a view on how language policy is implemented across various levels and not only driven by national measures. The article then shares the new employment trajectory of the author as an older Korean female in the shifting EFL market in Korea. This is followed by a discussion with implications for EFL educators within the shifting market.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The future characteristics of the country's population is not only being shaped by how the South Korea government is managing the declining birth rate but also by how the younger populations (i.e., those born between 1990 and 1999) respond to the initiatives. Younger generations are now more focused on developing their career before marriage, and when married, the cost of living and raising and educating children is so costly that many couples opt to have only one child (Thompson, 2023). While the country is providing incentives and services to make having children more feasible and affordable, there is a simultaneous need for services for a growing elderly population. This is not just with respect to healthcare and housing, but also how the government and societal entities will provide this population accessible personal well-being and social activities (i.e., religious activities, social gatherings, volunteering opportunities) to enhance their quality of living

in their "golden years."

Such opportunities can be linked to social, exercise, and educational programs offered at municipal cultural and senior centers, where senior citizens have an opportunity to engage with their peers, keep fit, participate in the community, and partake in learning opportunities to keep their body and mind active. However, currently life satisfaction among older and elderly Koreans is quite low (i.e., the bottom third globally; Yoon et al., 2020). With the industrialization of the country in the past four decades, life expectancy has increased, but most older and elderly Koreans are limited to their homes, often isolated from their communities, their children, and their families.

Language Policy Implementation Beyond Top-Down Initiatives

Baudalf (1994) describes how during the development of language policy one factor that does not often receive much attention is the "unplanned" side of policy implementation. He discusses this phenomenon in terms of minority languages, but the local and/or unplanned side of the EFL instructional policy in Korea is not much of an action driver from below, as the country is predominantly a top-down structured society.

However, those on the ground that are building careers and need to secure incomes to support their lives anchored in the Korean ELT area are strategizing new employment opportunities and leaving young learners and young adults to serve senior citizens. In some form, this response is a bottom-up policy that in effect works to support a successful outcome for the official macro-level, top-down English-instruction policy. Baudalf (1994) explains that the planned and unplanned features of language policy often coexist in the same situation with differing goals, yet the unplanned can still work to support the planned. Additionally, the absence of some activity in policy implementation often provides information about the very phenomenon in which constituents are interested. Language policy and implementation decisions are power related, so policy and its implementation tend to reflect political and economic objectives of particular social groups rather than what could be stated as social, political, economic, or educational concerns of those on the ground (Luke et al., 1990).

New Employment Trajectory

This is where my trajectory as an EFL educator intersects with Korea's current demographic shift and ELT. The following section offers a personal account on my professional experience and the recent adjusted leveraging of the increasing elderly EFL learner population for my own professional goals and personal income needs.

My Experience and the Recent Market Shift

I have forty-plus years in ELT in Korea, working in numerous instructional contexts. However, the last few decades have been predominantly through my own freelance business. I have seen the rise of *hagwon* (private academies) and the increasing demand for *gwaoe* (i.e., private English tutoring), where parents stretch their budgets to best position their children for standardized exams and the national college entrance exam to later fare well in the job market. Within my private freelance business, tutoring for adolescents was the bulk of my clientele.

I lived in the U.K. for a good stretch, when one of my children was young, and completed a postgraduate TESOL certificate in Korea from a reputable university in the early 2000s to provide additional leverage for securing clients when the EFL market was booming. So, although I am a mature non-native English teacher, I possessed the leverage of having near-native English proficiency, even in speaking, matched with sociocultural competencies, and a relatively younger demeanor and physical appearance. So, I was able to leverage my experience to meet the elitest social educational standards to earn a good living wage and maintain a large student clientele.

However, with recent market shifts, opportunities for fewer gwaoe students in support of the Korean college entrance exam (i.e., *suneung*, or CSAT) and other standardized tests to support my freelance business as an aging adult slowed. I explored potential opportunities to expand to teaching English in cultural centers based on the growing need for seniors in the community, as their adult children are busy with work and family demands in the country's competitive employment market. Sometime ago, there was little need for older Koreans to learn English beyond a language class for socialization, which still exists today. However, I found with the increasing economic growth of Korea, young

adults are obtaining jobs on the international stage or moving overseas for employment opportunities. Among these and many other reasons, there is a demand among many Korean seniors to communicate with grandchildren in country and beyond via Skype family sessions and even on face-to-face visits overseas.

Korean Senior Center EFL Programs

I have taught for five-plus years now at the Guro Cultural Center in Seoul and the Uijeongbu City Community Welfare Center adjacent to Seoul. The class size is significantly different between these two centers. At the Guro Cultural Center, class size is about 20 people in each of the two classes, with one-hour and 20-minute lessons meeting eight times a month. At the Uijeongbu City Community Welfare Center, class size is 10 people or under in each of the two classes, with one-hour and 20-minute lessons meeting eight times a month. Also, at the Uijeonbu Center, intake is monthly, so there is more fluctuation in student numbers based on intake and attrition. In both language programs, the average age of the students is 50–70 years old, with a few who are in their 30s or 40s, and a minimal number over 80 years old. Class times are in the morning for one class and in the early afternoon for the other class at both centers, which is logical for the needs of the populations.

Beyond English, there are other classes at both centers, mainly at the Guro Cultural Center, where more than 40 people are enrolled and some teachers have maxed out classes, with waiting lists.

Constraints in Leveraging the Recent Market Shift for Employment

I just recently resigned from my teaching position at the Uijeongbu City Community Welfare Center at the end of 2023, as I am moving back to Seoul where I have lived and worked for decades. I lived in Uijeongbu since 2020, a total of three years, which afforded me the employment opportunities to teach a new ELT demographic. For various reasons, I need to now reside in Seoul again and the commute to Uijeongbu would be too long (approximately one hour) to warrant the travel time (i.e., two hours round trip) for a lesson twice a week. The specifics of my employment and student populations are being

determined as this article goes to press. However, leveraging job opportunities always requires flexibility in understanding what one has as a skill set, how one can meet employer and student needs, and the tenacity to give it a try.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

I believe that an understanding of my shift in focus to draw on the opportunities to teach an unexpected learner population (i.e., Korean elderly) can offer significant insight to various Korean ELT stakeholders. Older populations have often been overlooked with decades of focusing on English language instruction for younger learners (i.e., pre-kindergarten, K–12, and even university).

I understand that not all foreign ELT educators in Korea will be able to explore opportunities at cultural centers such as I have, as they are bound to employer visa contracts. Yet Korean nationals like me can certainly benefit from exploring such employment venues and beyond. Moreover, as Korea has continued its economic growth, an increasing number of foreigner ELT educators have chosen to make Korea their country of long-term residence and would therefore have more flexible employment opportunities based on visa and legal status.

It is a bit far-fetched to say now, but could there be a day when Korean is not only seeking foreign nationals to teach English to the country's youth but also recruiting such individuals already in country to teach senior citizens and recruiting similar ELT educators for tele-teaching classes from an overseas location. Or local Korean ELT educators, like me, could be sought as a local option for a local need.

CONCLUSION

This is a humble account of my experience in shifting my targeted student demographic based on societal shifts and my age as an ELT professional. I hold certification in teaching Korean as a foreign language, but it seems that longer-residing foreign nationals in Korea may also have shifting needs, as Korea has developed over the decades and as there is now a presence of English and other prominent foreign

language support in the social and commercial sectors. Additionally, it is likely that my age, despite having certification to teach Korean as a foreign language, may be a factor in my opportunities to teach in such private and public sector programs. Although this is a humble personal-professional account, I believe my experience reflects how individuals collectively respond to market needs and inform micro-policy practices.

THE AUTHOR

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Book Reviews

Review of *Young Children's Foreign Language Anxiety*: *The Case of South Korea*

By Jieun Kiaer, Jessica M. Morgan-Brown, & Naya Choi
Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters (2021).
Pages: v + 149. ISBN-13: 978-1800411593

Reviewed by Joseph Curd

INTRODUCTION

In the past, getting a job teaching English was relatively easy. In Korea, most of those jobs were for young learners, and there were few standards for who could apply. Since then, the chance of a native teacher showing up in a backpack and getting a job is increasingly less likely. The majority of teachers for young learners are still underqualified, but progress is progress. This progress has made its way into academic literature, too. One example is *Teaching English to Young Learners* by Lynn Cameron (2001).

A more recent one is *Young Children's Foreign Language Anxiety*: *The Case of South Korea*, for which the authors deserve a large round of applause for the comprehensive literature review, the overview of English education in Korea, and to a lesser extent, the two case studies they carried out.

Young learner (YL) education is an important topic. Issues to consider: Korea's population is declining (Yonhap, 2023); English kindergartens are increasing (Yonhap, 2022), while regular kindergartens

are decreasing (Park, 2023); and parents are also spending more on private education (Lee, 2023).

On top of that, every teacher works with someone who used to be (or still is) a young learner. Every teacher also has to deal with foreign language anxiety (FLA) to some extent. It could be argued that FLA is the opposite of motivation. In my experience, many Korean adults harbor negative feelings towards English, most of which seem to stem from their experiences as young learners. As such, this book provides valuable insight into the possible sources of these negative feelings.

SUMMARY

As the name suggests, this book is about, but not specific to, YL education in Korea. I'm not aware of anything else in ELT literature that is as far-reaching in scope as this. The authors shy away from discussing English ability; however, to their credit, they focus on the affective factors (i.e., motivation and anxiety) that impact all learners, especially YLs, who lack agency.

The authors start by discussing FLA and foreign language enjoyment (FLE) in general contexts, noting that these two are not mutually exclusive. By Chapter 3, the focus shifts to FLA in children and its correlation with child psychology. Chapter 4 narrows the focus further by looking at FLA in South Korea. Chapter 5 then looks at sources of YL FLA in South Korea. Until here, the book comprehensively reviews the relevant literature − nearly 400 sources are cited.

The authors carry out their case studies in Chapters 6 and 7. In the first case study (Chapter 6), they look at sources of FLA from kindergartens and English-language kindergartens. The second case study (Chapter 7) examines the effects of learning L2 vocabulary through cooking activities. Finally, in Chapter 8, the authors look at ways to increase awareness of FLA and ways to alleviate it in the classroom.

Throughout the book, they look at inefficiencies in English education in Korea. The reasons for these run the gamut. Some are SLA myths, such as the critical age hypothesis, which leads to the belief that earlier is better and immersion is best. The authors persuasively overturn both of these ideas. Other factors include social and economic perspectives such as native-speakerism, perfectionist tendencies, the *Seunung* (Korea's university entrance exam) and other standardized tests, a lack of

guidance from the Ministry of Education, and a culture in which some expect a teacher-centered classroom.

Finally, the authors clearly state what I've noticed a lot of: "under-qualified teachers, badly developed curricula and English-only policies ... interfere with students' understanding and cause anxiety" (p. 39). The overall message isn't that YL education is negative; instead, there is much to be improved so that YLs can learn and feel good. Many of the problems (under-qualified teachers, poor curriculum, etc.) can't easily be solved by three researchers. However, they advocate paying more attention to FLA in the classroom.

EVALUATION

This well-researched book provides an overarching view of English education in South Korea. It would be a valuable asset to any YL educator, institute owner, policymaker, and/or parent considering YL education. That said, it does have some weaknesses.

One issue is that despite identifying several issues within English education in South Korea, they don't offer clear solutions. The authors frequently refer to learning styles (kinesthetic, visual, etc.) but do not present any evidence to indicate this is a legitimate construct in education or even SLA. Even the founder of multiple intelligences, Howard Gardner, does not advocate learning styles (Strauss, 2013). The authors frequently and positively referred to learning with the five senses despite there being no evidence of how, say, the sense of smell contributes to language learning.

As mentioned, there are two case studies. The first seems to be quite thorough. The researchers gathered data from 14 different kindergartens around the country, from 453 parents and 47 teachers, to find the causes of FLA. They found that, among other results, students had more FLA in English kindergartens than in regular kindergartens. This was further aggravated in institutes with English-only policies.

The second case study is the book's weak point. A control class of kindergartners was taught food names using pictures and a PowerPoint presentation. The experimental class used actual food and made a fruit salad. After running their experiment, the authors concluded that "using cooking as a task in TBLT can help young EFL learners not only enjoy language learning but also help them to perform better" (p. 107). But the

devil lies in the details. They clearly stated that about 25% of the students "were unable to complete the experiment ... [because of] a high drop-out rate and ... lack of concentration" (p. 95). While the experimental group had "statistically significant" results compared to the control group, the authors stated that out of ten target words, learners in the control group learned one new word while the experimental learned two. Out of ten. Statistically significant or not, defining this as successful learning seems a stretch. In later interviews, the students displayed positive feelings towards the class, so progress is progress.

Perhaps it's worthwhile to ask why the children in the experimental group didn't learn more than two words. It wasn't clearly discussed, but as the authors hinted throughout the book, earlier isn't better.

CONCLUSION

There is a "great academic tradition of knowing more and more about less and less until you know everything about nothing" (Pinker, 2011, Preface, para. 2). Perhaps we've all seen some academic writing like this. On the other hand, there is research that zooms out to look at the big picture. Some are specific to Korea and quite insightful, for example, Moodie and Nam (2016) and Jeon (2009). This book is a fine addition to the list.

It provides insight into problems that diminish the quality of education. By identifying these, one can advocate for a better learning experience. The information is relevant, up to date, and provides a sweeping overview of English education in South Korea. This information would provide a better education for those who cannot speak for themselves.

THE REVIEWER

Joe Curd has lived and taught in South Korea for 15 years. He primarily teaches young learners and thinks it's pretty fun. He's especially interested in reading instruction and more recently has developed an interest in corpus linguistics. He has a Cambridge DELTA and a Master of Arts in Teaching from Eastern Oregon University. Email: Josephmcurd@gmail.com

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Review of *Classroom Research for Language Teachers* (2nd ed.)
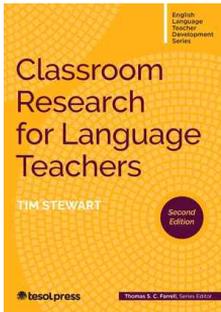
Reviewed by Jake Kimball

INTRODUCTION

You, my friend, are reading the *Korea TESOL Journal*. I imagine you are a classroom teacher. Or trainer. Which means you must be interested in exploring some aspect of your classroom or helping others to do so. Perhaps you are an experienced instructor with a research and publishing agenda. Or you might be more of a novice, hesitant about taking the first steps in a research journey. Regardless, you are the target audience of this pocket guidebook.

The TESOL International Association publishes in-house teacher resource books. One series, the English Language Teacher Development Series, is edited by Dr. Thomas Farrell. *Classroom Research for Language Teachers* (2nd ed.) is a newly revised edition in the collection. It is a straightforward guide to reflecting on and researching your own context. Is there anything new in ELT that has not yet been researched? Even though a lot of topics have been explored already, each new generation of EFL teachers must reinvent the wheel, so to speak, and engage in classroom research for their own professional development.

SUMMARY

Classroom Research for Language Teachers (2nd ed.) is a gentle introduction to the topic of classroom research. It is concise, clocking in at only 50 pages. There are only five, brief chapters. Chapter 1 situates the teacher as a researcher and calls for a change in mindset. The author's intention is to simplify and elucidate the research process and spark a sense of can-do in the reader. Readers get the opportunity to get their hands dirty in Chapter 2; right off the bat, readers pinpoint areas of concern in their own context and draft research questions. In Chapter 3, we find out what it is like to plan a research project and decide what data to collect and how to analyze it. Chapter 4 offers advice on how to publish your findings and where. Chapter 5 closes the book. It is a feel-good chapter much like Chapter 1. It prompts the reader to continue contributing to the ELT field. There are brief vignettes to highlight how others sustain their research passion. Finally, there are valuable links to publications. In this revised edition, there is a section with a sample classroom research report, too.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Interested in getting started with research? Don't know where or how to get started with your project? Are you procrastinating? Then *Classroom Research for Language Teachers* (2nd ed.) is a suitable introduction with actionable steps to begin your project. Of course, there is no substitute for reading published research. And the best place to start is with the journal you intend to publish in.

Finding a research focus is a helpful starting place for those of us investigating our classrooms because this is the first hurdle teachers stumble over. Stewart offers *focusing circles* as a productive technique to formulate questions. He borrows this from Edge (2001), and points readers to *loop writing* found in Freeman (1998).

Chapter 3 provides actionable steps for data collection and analysis. It includes a simple chart for planning concrete steps. There is a series of *wh*-questions about your project and an area for note-taking where you can outline your procedures. The surrounding pages discuss workable solutions and serve as a quick reference guide.

Chapter 4, on publishing your work, is a useful compendium of advice on going public in some form. Stewart offers sound advice for conference proposals and ideas for publishing your work. There is even a convenient checklist for publishing articles. And when you put yourself out there, you are bound to be rejected. It is inevitable. Well, there is practical advice for your next step, too.

EVALUATION

Classroom Research for Language Teachers (2nd ed.) is worth a read. It is a gentle introduction to the topic. In fact, it is concise. It can be read in one sitting, though you would get more bang for your buck by slowly going through the tasks and journaling with the reflective prompts. While short in length, this does not mean it is essentially a summary of approaches to classroom research. That would be a valid critique if one prefers more in-depth coverage of the topic. Of course there are many other classic, research texts that readers might find more instructional. Nunan and Bailey (2009), Freeman (1998), and Dornyie (2007) at once come to mind. These more academic texts you will likely need for a deep dive, especially for learning about data collection and analysis. But they are necessarily longer and require dedication.

Classroom Research for Language Teachers is a concise guidebook, Stewart's revised edition is a welcome niche publication that instills a sense of confidence to get started.

One more aspect of the book is worth noting. That is the writing style. The tight, compact discourse serves as a model for efficient writing. Readers who happen to be bloggers or write short articles for newsletters or magazines will find that Stewart's writing sets a standard.

No book is perfect. Readers should be aware of the e-book platform. It is not exactly user friendly. It is available from TESOL Press Bookstore, and it is published via Adobe Digital Editions, an Adobe program that needs to be downloaded. And it can only be read on a desktop computer or notebook. It cannot be read on a portable Kindle, other e-readers, or tablets. The TESOL Press Bookstore shows that it is available for a variety of devices. That is not the case. Adobe Digital Editions 4.5 does not currently support devices other than desktops and notebooks.

Regarding content, there is one area of classroom research that has

been omitted, likely in the name of economy. Conspicuously missing is discussion about challenges one meets when engaging in classroom research. Since the main task of the book is to prime teachers as researchers, it would be helpful to briefly note common obstacles and workable solutions. Undoubtedly, every research project has its own pitfalls, and these are often predictable. It would have been helpful to allocate some space to this issue in Chapter 5.

CONCLUSION

*Classroom Research for Language Teacher*s (2nd ed.) is the book I wish I had when I first started out as a teacher and began exploring my own classroom practice. It is readable and succeeds at inspiring readers to roll up their sleeves and get on with the task of exploratory practice. If you feel as if you have plateaued in your job or career, this short pocket guidebook just might bring about the change you need. It has all the necessary resources to start a research project.

THE REVIEWER

Jake Kimball holds an MSc in educational management in TESOL from Aston University, and his research interests include program evaluation and classroom dynamics. He is especially interested in classroom management issues that impact willingness to communicate (WTC) and demotivation. Taking part in teacher development activities has been a long-time interest. He is an assistant professor of English in the Liberal Arts Department of Semyung University in South Korea.

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Appendix

Korea TESOL Journal
General Information for Contributors

As an academic journal in the field of English language teaching (ELT), the *Korea TESOL Journal* welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. Submissions should be of practical import, dealing with aspects of the Korean ELT context or directly applicable to it. As a journal that is dedicated to the nurturing of research among ELT practitioners, the *Journal* also welcomes quality submissions from the early-career researcher.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* invites submissions in three categories:

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3. Reviews. The *Journal* invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video or audio material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be 800−12,000 words in length.

Manuscripts are accepted for peer review with the understanding that the same work has not been submitted elsewhere (i.e., not pending review or currently under review) and has not been previously published, online or in print. A statement confirming this should accompany submissions.

Manuscripts should follow APA style guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th ed.), especially for in-text

citations, reference items, tables, and figures. Submissions should be made with tables, figures, and other graphics embedded in the manuscript text (and upon request, as separate files). Graphic text must also follow APA style. All figures should be created in black and white, and graphs (pie graphs, bar graphs, etc.) must display distinctive shades or patterning for readability. Manuscripts should be submitted as MS Word (DOC or DOCx) files.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* accepts submissions for two issues annually.

Inquiries/manuscripts to: journal@koreatesol.org

For more information on submissions to the *Korea TESOL Journal*, including paper submission deadlines, evaluation criteria, and manuscript formatting requirements, visit:

https://koreatesol.org/content/call-papers-korea-tesol-journal

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