THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
IN INDONESIA

Developing Indigeneous Models of English Language Teaching and Assessment

Edited by:
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English Department Faculty of Letters and Culture
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FOREWORD

This book entitled **Developing Indigenous Models of English Language Teaching and Assessment** is a collection of articles presented at the 62nd TEFLIN International Conference held in conjunction with the celebration of the 53rd *Dies Natalis* of Udayana University, in Sanur Paradise Hotel from 14th through 16th September 2015. The theme of this year conference is *Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century*. The articles were contributed by plenary and featured speakers covering issues of English-language teaching from the perspectives of (1) Language Policy and Planning in Assessment, (2) Quality Assurance in ELT, (3) 21st Century Language and Communication skills, (4) Assessment in Character Education, (5) Rotes of ICT in Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners, (6) English for Young Learners, (7) Innovations in Teaching and Assessing, (8) Best Practices in L2 Teaching and Research, (9) School-based Assessments, (10) English for Specific Purposes, (11) Standardized Tests of English Proficiency (e.g. KLTS, TOEFL), (12) English for General Purposes, (13) The National Examinations and their Impact on L2 Learning, (14) Translation in Language Teaching, (15) Teacher's Professional Development, and (16) Literature-Based Language Teaching.

We would like to express our sincere gratefulness to Prof. Andy Kirkpatrick, Dr Alvin Pang, Ass.Prof Saowadee Kongpetch, Dr. Wawan Gunawan, Dr. Willy A Renandya, Prof. Dr. Luh Sutjiati Beratha, MA; Prof. Jayakaran Mukundan, Ph.D; Prof. Lesley Harbon, Prof. Anthony John Kunnan, Prof. Ali Saukah, Dr. Angela M Dadak, Prof. Dr Anak Agung Ngurah Marhaeni, M.A, and Prof. Dr. Masaki Oda. as contributors who have shared their ideas and expertise at the conference. More importantly, we express our gratitude to Prof. Fuad

Abdul Hamied, Prof. Ida Bagus Putra Yadnya, and Dr. I Gusti Ayu Gde Sosiowati who have worked hard in reviewing the submitted articles as editors.

Denpasar, September 2015.

The 62nd Teflin Conference Committee

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DEVELOPING INDIGENOUS MODELS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ASSESSMENT: AN INTRODUCTION

by
Fuad Abdul Hamied
Ida Bagus Putra Yadnya
I Gusti Ayu Gde Sosiowati

This edited volume is the second publication, after a similar one published at the 61st TEFLIN International Conference last year. This is again a collection of plenary and featured papers to be presented at the 2015 TEFLIN International Conference at Denpasar, Bali, the theme of which is "English Language Teaching and Assessment for the 21st Century." This publication is entitled "Developing indigenous models of ELT and assessment." One of the key words which could attract attention here is the word 'indigenous.' Going indigenous seems to be a buzzword at the moment especially here Indonesia, adopted and adapted in some ethnic communities, notwithstanding global issues and impacts penetrating in all walks of life almost anywhere. The term 'indigenous' is commonly understood and used to refer to originating or taking place naturally in a particular place. Indonesia with a more open and democratic atmosphere has currently been characterized here and there with activities indigenizing new values and different kinds of cultural products in different parts of the region concerned. In the context of ESL/EFL teaching, there is a strong tendency among teachers, including EFL teachers for taking benefits out of indigenous resources and making a choice of teaching topics replete with indigenous cultural items.

Contributors to this volume have also underlined implicitly or explicitly the significance of indigenization as the process of characterizing new incoming norms and values with indigenous colors and attributes, as a foundation for indigenous models of ELT

and assessment. For example, Leslie Harbon posits that "in the intercultural space there is the room to negotiate meaning." Antony John Kunnan puts forward a question whether an assessment should be beneficial to the society in which it is used, whose answer is certainly a strong yes, "it should be beneficial to the society." By the same token, the teaching of ELF, according to Alvin Pang, should among others enable the learners "to observe and use the language that is appropriate to each community or culture." Authenticity of assessment is pointed out by Ali Saukah, who recommends authentic assessments which should be integrated in the classroom activities. Wawan Gunawan suggests that research on teacher education should take place by considering sociocultural changes taking place in a local context. Andy Kirkpatrick talks about the irrelevance of assessments based on native speaker norms and cultures for the lingua franca approach. Let us see some of the essences put forward by each of the contributors to the volume.

Andy Kirkpatrick's article is on the lingua franca approach to English language teaching, entitled "the development of English in Asean: implications for assessing English language proficiency." In this article he proposes a way "how can English be promoted while at the same time ensuring that the respective national and local languages retain their place in the education system". He starts his deliberation off with six principles that could give support to the lingua approach, the key phrases of which are mutual intelligibility, intercultural competence, local multilingual English teachers, lingua franca environments, spoken and written differences, and relevance to the context. From here, Kirkpatrick asserts that "there is no point adopting the principles outlined above and then assessing the students against native speaker norms and cultures. Assessment must be closely aligned with what is being taught." This then will entail the development of functional proficiency measures. He even suggests that we discard "benchmark that only awards the top level to speakers whose accent betrays no first language influence," and adopt instead "criteria that measure how successfully students can get their messages across and perform certain linguistic tasks."

English for international understanding is the issue addressed by Alvin Pang, with a focus on improving oracy and classroom talk in English as a Lingua Franca classrooms, by examining practical

ways and strategies. His deliberation on the issue begins with an argument that teachers must "break away from the traditional initiation-response-feedback (IRF) teacher-talk to embrace dialogic teaching" in order for them to effectively improve the learners' oracy and develop a more dialogic classroom talk. Pang observes that "most current learners of English in Asia are more likely to use English with fellow learners from their own country or people from the region than with 'native speakers' from the Inner Circle." The room is then wide open for indigeneity efforts in ELF classrooms in the Asian context. Pan then describes how the Certificate Course in English for International Understanding is managed at RELC, with the key objectives "to hone participants' pedagogical skills in the teaching of EIU and raise their language awareness of teaching EIU for inter-cultural communication;" and "to enhance participants' language and communication skills for professional communication in cross-cultural contexts." At the end of his study, regarding the effectiveness of the dialogic approaches to cooperative learning in small groups, Pan came to a conclusion that "with intervention and modelling by the teacher trainer on the strategies that promote oracy and improve classroom talk, the teachers of English on the EIU programme became more confident and adept in adopting dialogic teaching in the ELF classroom to raise the level of dialogicity and the willingness to communicate among the Japanese college students."

Saowadee Kongpetch's article has a twofold purpose: to discuss "the importance of the explicit teaching of the generic structure and language features typical of the Narrative genre in the EFL classroom," and to describe "the impact of the genre-based approach on students' narrative writing performance." She asserts that GB approach is a viable alternative to teach narrative writing to Thai students and she believes that "if students are aware of the expectations of the context of communication, they will be in a better position to exploit the conventions to achieve their social purposes. She further concludes that GB approach "helps raise students' genre awareness" and also that "genre analysis offers starting point to language teachers who want to teach their students to write a narrative."

Wawan Gunawan discusses conceptions of grammar in English education by an EFL teacher. Gunawan analyzes how a non-native speaker EFL teacher participating in a U.S. based MATESOL program

made sense of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and genre-based pedagogy in designing and reflecting on literacy instruction for EFL learners. Using longitudinal ethnographic methods, Gunawan found that "this teacher's conceptions of grammar shifted from a traditional sentence-level, form-focused perspective to a more functional perspective, operating in interconnected ways across genre and register features of texts." It was concluded that the shift from functional perspective of grammar to the traditional one is caused more by assessment-driven curriculum.

Reading in a foreign language is the topic of Willy A Renandya's article, with a focus on the question of what else is important besides skills and strategies. He examines two major approaches to teaching reading: a strategy-based that views reading strategies as a critical factor that influences students' reading development and text-based approaches that considers the text as "the focal point of learning, i.e., the text itself provides a major source of students' reading development". After reviewing research in the past three decades, he confirms that "(1) not all strategies are equally effective, (ii) not all students benefit from strategy instruction, (iii) little is known about how strategies work, (iv) more importantly, the effect of strategy instruction may not be as large as many believe it is." He then cautions that we need to take into account levels of proficiency of the learners in selecting strategies that could have positive effects in the reading program. He then concludes by asserting that "the bulk of classroom instruction should be devoted to providing students with meaningful reading experiences, where they read a variety of highly interesting texts that fall within their linguistic competence."

Ni Luh Sutjiati Beratha talks about managing change for teachers at schools. Beratha believes that teachers need the ability to manage change. From her observation, she asserts that teachers as change-agents need to master strategies to teach the language, including: the ability to change the purposes, the ability to acquire and mobilize resources, the ability to relate resources to ends effectively, and the ability to sustain cooperation with students." She believes that teachers, as the agents of change have to propose ways to support school and student success so that they can build the entire school's capacity to improve. The discussion in the paper focuses on the change-agent process which includes framing the

problems, selecting an intervention point, selecting a strategy, and change-oriented activity complemented by methods of language teaching particularly second language teaching. It is based on a library research followed by a descriptive qualitative analysis, which involves "the process of inspecting, transforming, and modeling the data qualitatively with the goal of highlighting useful information, drawing conclusions, and supporting decision making of the study."

Jayakaran Mukundan discusses the importance of out-of-class English language development in pre-service teacher preparation on the basis of experience of his students on internships in a fully residential schools. The students' experience through this co-curricular projects has provided inputs as regards the importance of bringing about an atmosphere for effective learning which could take place "when learners are more relaxed, invest more in their own learning (the undergraduates in this project mainly facilitated) and are appreciated." He then come to a conclusion that "PBL can lead to things which are bigger. Real communication takes place during PBL and out-of-class learning situations. More important is the tolerance on errors which is really good because learners are encouraged to take risks. When they do this they challenge themselves more often."

The chapter contributed by Lesley Harbon deals with assessing culture learning by underlining at the outset the importance of urging language teachers in conceptualizing their curriculum as well as in planning and making decisions to reflect on the culture inherent in teaching materials that they will teach. She then recounts that in a language teacher education program, in which pre-service and in-service activities are conducted, teachers are commonly provided with opportunity to learn how to reflect on cultural items to be taught. She also portrays a language education program as commonly covering an ever-growing list of required competencies, knowledge and skills. A language teacher anywhere is held accountable for his/her learners' level of target language proficiency. As a result, the assessment component becomes crucial in a language education program, so that "language teachers' tasks increase in their complexity." The dynamic and changeable nature of culture-in-language has become Harbon's focus of attention as it would require a change in the language teachers' mindsets. The language teachers are then expected to "guide their students away from the idea of learning about a specific

'static' culture idea," as a result "foreign language classrooms revolve around the negotiation of understandings, between one or more."

The quality of large-scale assessments has been given prominence to by Antony John Kunnan in his contribution to this volume, with fairness and justice as the key assessment issues that he has raised. He has asserted that due to such defining characteristics as using standardized formats, having a norm-referenced approach, using selected response exclusively, having high volumes in terms of test takers, are high-stakes, large-scale assessments face challenges for their quality safeguarding, especially to ensure that those assessments are fair and just to all testees. Language assessments need to be very much concerned with individual rights and possible "inequalities in test takers' life prospects." Adopting two general principles of fairness and justice from Rawls and sen, Kunnan outlines such sub-principles as provision of "adequate opportunity to acquire the knowledge, abilities, or skills to be assessed for all test takers," consistency and meaningfulness "in terms of its test score interpretation for all test takers," and "beneficial consequences to the test taking community."

Ali Saukah discusses the national exam in Indonesia and its washback effect. He begins with an observation of how the exam is implemented and how it affects different aspects of education in Indonesia. In his view, the policy change as regards the role of the national exam formerly as a basis to determine the status of student graduation and currently as the basis for mapping out the quality of education throughout the country and filtering students to a higher level of education does not in reality change the status of the national exam as a high-stakes testing apparatus. As a high-stakes measuring instrument, it certainly does have negative washback effects on the teaching-learning activities in the classroom. Saukah underlines his belief that "the root of the problems related to the negative effects of the National Exam needs to be investigated further."

The topic of navigating the global and the local in writing assessment is addressed by Angela M Dadak, acknowledging at the very outset that the terms *global* and *local* have multiple meanings, which could add further complexity of teaching and assessing writing. *Global* could refer to "assessments on a larger scale, for example national and international evaluations of writing," but it

could also refer to "features of an entire text such as organization, main message or argument, overall support for the main idea and tone of the text." Whereas *local* refers to sentence-level features, correctness, citations, punctuations and other micro-features of a text. "These multiple meanings begin to illustrate the complexity of assessing writing, particularly for instructors of writing, who negotiate these levels constantly: guiding students to understand how their global writing choices affects the message in their writing, attending to local issues of correctness in a text, developing class writing assignments and preparing students to take large-scale exams." Dadak suggests five themes to establish focus and flexibility in assessing writing: understand the contextual nature of writing, treat writing assessments as contextual, be knowledgeable about writing assessment instruments, be explicit about writing assessment, and use assessment to improve student writing.

Anak Agung Istri Ngurah Marhaeni puts forward a topic on portfolio assessment and metacognitive development in EFL classrooms. She has found that portfolio assessment affects students' metacognitive development. She has also observed that risk-taking is facilitated when portfolio assessment is carried out. Marhaeni also suggests use of this particular authentic assessment as it enhances learning ownership that could "eventually facilitate development of learner autonomy, that is, the ability to choose and decide the goal and to measure what effort(s) to dedicate (make) in order to reach the target goal."

Masaki Oda provides us with two examples from Japan on proper assessments and sees how teachers deal with them critically: the relevance of 'standardized' tests as a means of assessments in Asian context and the relevance of CEFR as introduced to ELT in Japan. Policy implementation being strict in the Japanese contexts, Oda suggests that "a critical analysis of the policies is still possible at different levels even though policies are rather strictly enforced," that "when we adopt some elements of CEFR to our context, a continuous fine tuning is needed." He further concludes by saying that "it is a responsibility for each of us who are involved in the ELT profession to constantly evaluate the policies implemented at different levels."

To sum up, throughout this quite enriching volume, there have been underpinning concepts and attributes surfacing from the

articles, which could enhance the significance of indigeneity within the framework of EFL teaching and assessment, pedagogic models out of which should be founded by digging up what is rooted within the context where the teaching-learning activities are taking place. Indigenizing pedagogic practices, while acknowledging unavoidable global influences, means taking as much benefit out of indigenous resources as possible and utilizing indigenous cultural items as well as indigenous values to such an extent that learning English is inherently enhanced by sociocultural encouragement from within. This is especially true in an English as a lingua franca setting like what is taking place in and among Asian and especially ASEAN countries.

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1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN ASEAN: IMPLICATIONS FOR ASSESSING ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

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1. INTRODUCTION

In this article I shall propose a number of principles for what I have called the lingua franca approach to English language teaching (see also Kirkpatrick 2012a, in press). As the context for this will be East and Southeast Asia, I shall first briefly describe how English is being used as a lingua franca in this region. For a full description, please see Kirkpatrick 2010.

In 2009, the Charter of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) made English the sole working language of the Association. This had been the de facto position for many years (Krasnick 1995), but the ASEAN Charter formalised the use of English as ASEAN's sole working language. All discussion and negotiation among the ten nations of Southeast Asia which make up ASEAN is in English and all documents are in English.

This means that people whose first language will be one of several possible Asian languages, use English as the official means of communication. In this sense, then, English functions as a lingua franca in a situation where no-one is necessarily advantaged by speaking English as their first language. This provides a striking contrast with the use of English as a lingua franca in other situations, such as the European Union, for example.

The decision to make English the sole working language of ASEAN has obviously given further impetus for the need for English. This need has been even further increased with the aim of firming

ASEAN integration by the end of this year. As part of this move towards integration, three ASEAN 'pillars' are being reinforced, namely: (i) the ASEAN political security community (APSC) (ii) the ASEAN economic community (AEC) (iii) the ASEAN socio-cultural community (ASCC) (Widiati and Hayati 2015:121).

English is an essential tool for this integration (Stroude and Kimura 2015). As the ASEAN Secretary General himself pointed out, 'Except for the level of Prime Minister, every other level of meetings doesn't allow interpreters…senior level official meetings are conducted completely in English' (cited in Dudzik and Nguyen 2015:42).

There is, however, a potentially serious contradiction inherent in the promotion of English on the one hand while establishing a 'socio-cultural community'. How can a focus on English lead to a socio-cultural community which respects the languages, religions and cultures of ASEAN? All the nations of ASEAN have a history of multilingual education. They all 'face many challenges in balancing the need for English as an international medium of communication with the advocacy and support for a politically strong national language...' (Hall 2015:149). In other words, how can English be promoted while at the same time ensuring that the respective national and local languages retain their place in the education system?

In this article I shall propose a way of doing this by suggesting a new 'lingua franca' approach to English language teaching and present six principles underpinning this new approach. One of the principles and perhaps the most important is that assessment must match the curriculum and needs of the learners.

ASEAN is of special interest in the context of English language teaching as it provides an international context which is both non Anglophone and non-Anglo-cultural but where English is routinely used. This post Anglophone post Anglo-cultural situation has been identified by Cambodian government officials in the following ways.

> *We need to know English so that we can defend our interests. You know, ASEAN is not some kissy-kissy brotherhood. The countries are fiercely competitive, and a strong knowledge of English will help us protect Cambodian interests* (Clayton 2006:230-1).
> *And, more succinctly, 'You know, when we use English, we don't think about the United States or England. We only think about the need to communicate'* (Clayton 2006:233).

To sum up this brief introduction, English plays an unusual, if not unique, role as a lingua franca in ASEAN. It has sole official status among a group of ten nations which are way beyond the so-called Anglo-sphere, and where first language speakers of English are, if not irrelevant, at least in a very small minority. It is against this background and within this context that the lingua franca approach to English language teaching is proposed (see also Kirkpatrick in press).

2 PRINCIPLES OF THE LINGUA FRANCA APPROACH

2.1 Principle #1: The native speaker of English is not the linguistic target. Mutual intelligibility is the goal.

The role of English as a lingua franca in ASEAN means that English is primarily used between multilinguals whose first languages comprise a variety of Asian languages and who have learned English as an additional language. There is no need for such people to approximate native speaker norms.

First, there is no need for such people to *sound* like native speakers of English (Walker 2010). Apart from the obvious point that there are many varieties of native speaker English, all of which are distinguished by different accents and pronunciation so that the notion of a native speaker pronunciation is fuzzy at best, the development of new varieties of English across the world has added to the range of pronunciation and accents. In addition to the Englishes of Britain and the United States, for example, we have the Englishes of the Indian sub-continent, and of many countries in Africa and Asia. The increasing role of English as an international lingua franca also means that more and more multilinguals who have learned English as an additional language are using English internationally. This inevitably means that the number of different accents and pronunciations of English are legion. In such circumstances, it is not sounding like a native speaker which is important, it is mutual intelligibility. Mutual intelligibility means that the interactants in any communicative activity are able to understand each other. And being a native speaker is no guarantee of mutual intelligibility. Indeed there is a growing body of research spanning several decades that indicates that speakers of new varieties of English can be more intelligible than native speakers of certain native speaker varieties (e.g., Smith and Rafiqzad 1979; Kirkpatrick, Deterding and Wong 2008). Pedagogically speaking,

the adoption of a 'lingua franca core' into the curriculum may be useful. As Jenkins has illustrated, the lingua franca core comprises phonological features which have been empirically shown to be important for intelligibility when English is being used as a lingua franca. Non-standard phonological features which do not cause problems of intelligibility are 'non-core' and do not therefore need to be an essential part of the curriculum. What the lingua franca core does is 'reduce the number of pronunciation features to be learnt' and this reduces 'the size of the task while increasing teachability' (Jenkins 2007:27). The lingua franca approach also includes the teaching of communicative strategies to negotiate meaning and help repair breakdowns in communication and thus enhance mutual intelligibility (Kirkpatrick 2007).

In the ASEAN context, what is therefore important for an ASEAN speaker is not to sound British or American when speaking English, but to be mutually intelligible when communicating with their ASEAN counterparts. There is an important identity dimension to this. In an oft quoted remark, the then Singaporean Ambassador to the United Nations said that he wanted the world to know that he was Singaporean when he spoke English. This is a crucial point. It seems unlikely that anyone from ASEAN and working within ASEAN would, for example, prefer to be mistaken for being Australian or American rather than from their own country. Indeed they can express their identity as Asian multilinguals in the way they speak English.

While the argument against demanding a native speaker pronunciation may be accepted, where does the lingua franca approach stand in relation to syntactic norms? I shall consider the distinction between spoken and written English below, and here will focus on spoken English. The first point to be stressed is that vernacular varieties of native speaker Englishes are characterised by the use of non-standard forms. As Britain has pointed out in his research on the vernacular varieties of British English, 'Every corner of the country demonstrates a wide range of grammatically non-standard forms, reminding us that such forms are the rule rather than the exception in spoken English English' (2010:53). That is to say, native speakers of English routinely use a wide range of non-standard forms when they speak English. It would appear odd, therefore, to demand that non-native speakers use only standard forms when they speak English.

A second point that Britain makes is of particular relevance. It is that 'research has shown that there appears to be a common core of non-standard elements found very widely across the country, alongside more local grammatical forms' (2010:53). That is to say, speakers of different vernacular varieties of British English share a number of non-standard forms. This is of particular relevance because similar findings are being reported in the use of English as a spoken lingua franca (Breiteneder 2009; Mauranen and Ranta 2009). Interestingly, many of the non-standard forms also occur in the vernaculars of British English. For example, non-standard marking of the present tense –s is common in vernaculars of British English, but here there is variation. Britain notes that 'perhaps the most commonly found non-standard variability in the present tense verbal system concerns the scope of –s marking' (2010:39), with some varieties applying the –s with plural subjects (we eats there most Saturdays) and some varieties dispensing with it altogether (She love going up the city) (2010:40).

In the Asian Corpus of English (ACE)[1] non-marking of -s is more common than the addition of–s to plural subjects, but, it should be stressed, is far less common than standard forms. Indeed, in a study of the marking or non-marking of tense by speakers of English whose first language was Malay, a language that does not mark for tense, non-marking was comparatively rare, especially in formal contexts (Kirkpatrick and Subhan 2014).

The presence of these shared non-standard syntactic forms across vernacular varieties of native speaker Englishes as well as in lingua franca English needs to be understood by all English language teachers. In spoken English, an insistence on standard forms needs to be replaced by an insistence on mutual intelligibility.

2.2 Principle #2: The native speaker's culture is not the cultural target. Intercultural competence in relevant cultures is the goal.

It stands to reason that, as the major role of English in the ASEAN context is as a lingua franca for speakers from ASEAN

1 The Asian Corpus of English (ACE) is a million word corpus of naturally occurring English when used as a lingua franca by Asian multilinguals. ACE was collected by teams across East and Southeast Asia under the leadership of Professor Kirkpatrick. It is now freely accessible at http://corpus.ied.edu.hk/ace/

countries, then the cultural components of the English language teaching curriculum needs to take this into account. In other words, the cultures traditionally associated with English, such as British and American 'Anglo' cultures, are not directly relevant to ASEAN users of English. Instead, the curriculum needs to focus on the cultures that comprise ASEAN and Asia (Honna 2008). This is all the more important as government schools in ASEAN typically do not offer courses in any of the national languages of the group, other than their own, of course. The common pattern is simply for students to learn their own national language and English (Kirkpatrick 2012b). The English curriculum therefore could provide these students with the opportunity of at least learning about the cultures of their region. The importance of this can be gauged by noting that ASEAN is culturally extremely diverse. Not only are the major religions of Buddhism (Thailand, for example), Islam (Indonesia for example), and Christianity (The Philippines, for example) worshipped across the group, there are also literally hundreds of ethnic groups represented within the nations of ASEAN. The ELT curriculum therefore provides an opportunity to develop ASEAN intercultural competence in the citizens of ASEAN countries.

The ASEAN cultural curriculum can be enhanced by including local literatures in English and popular culture. There is an abundance of ASEAN and Asian literature written in English. In ASEAN itself, there are numerous writers who have produced a wide range of literature in English. Examples include Catherine Lim, Edwin Thumboo and Gemino Abad. Reading these authors not only gives the reader an insight into local cultures, but also into ways in which English can be adapted to reflect local cultural values. In Asia more widely, there are a host of writers from the Indian sub-continent, many of whom are international figures. There are also many Chinese writers, such as the novelist Ha Jin, now writing in English about Chinese cultural experiences.

As will be shown below, Principle#4 supports the use of using the linguistic resources of the students and teachers in the English language classroom. This entails exploiting local popular culture, which often involves a hybrid mix of English and local languages (Lee and Moody 2012). Texts and performances which illustrate English being used in hybrid and multilingual / multicultural ways

are likely to be familiar to many students and can be used in the classroom to show how English and local languages can combine to reflect local and regional cultural experience.

The lingua franca curriculum can also include topics that might be considered as culture with a 'small c'. For example, it is evident from the Asian Corpus of English that, not surprisingly, the topics that Asian multilinguals discuss are primarily concerned with Asian events and phenomena. These topics are wide-ranging and include discussions about the refugee situation on the Thai-Myanmar border, the advantages and disadvantages of the public and private sectors in Asia, rules of Islamic finance, the qualities of different types of rice and discrimination against ethnic minorities (Kirkpatrick, Patkin and Wu 2013). Such topics could therefore provide materials for the ASEAN ELT lingua franca curriculum and we shall argue this point further below.

2.3 Principle #3: Local multilinguals who are suitably trained provide the most appropriate English language teachers.

There has been a long struggle to promote and validate the non-native speaker teacher of English. Many scholars, themselves non-native speakers of English, have argued that a prejudice against non-native speaker teachers of English exists (e.g., Braine 2010; Loussuand Lurda 2008). The lingua franca approach really *requires* non-native speaker teachers of English. Remembering that the language learning goal is not to approximate native speaker norms, but to be able to interact successfully with fellow Asian multilinguals, it follows that an Asian multilingual who is proficient in English and who has the relevant qualifications represents the most appropriate teacher. Being multilingual in at least one Asian language and English provides the teachers with obvious advantages as language teachers, especially if they also speak the language(s) of their students.

First, they will have successfully accomplished what they are setting out to teach and thus have empathy with and an understanding of the problems that their students face (Medgyes 2002). Second, being Asian multilinguals who are proficient in English and who come from the same or similar linguistic backgrounds to their students, they not only represent good role models for their students, they also provide the most appropriate linguistic models for their

students. The local multilingual teacher can provide the linguistic target for their students.

Second, local multilingual teachers with intercultural competence in the cultures of ASEAN can also offer cultural insights for their students. It has traditionally been assumed that a great advantage of the native speaker teacher is that s/he can offer students a guide to the target culture (cf. Moussu and Lurda 2008). But, as argued above, the cultures which the learners need to know are the cultures found within ASEAN. Thus the ASEAN English language teacher needs intercultural competence in regional cultures, coupled with the ability to transmit or instil this intercultural competence in the learners.

The third reason why the local multilingual is the most appropriate English language teacher for ASEAN is that s/he can use the language of the students to help them learn English. That is to say that a bi- or multilingual pedagogy can be applied in the classroom. In the ASEAN context, adopting a bi- or multilingual pedagogy can be more effective than adopting a strict monolingual pedagogy. It is hard to justify a monolingual pedagogy when the aim of all language learning is, by definition, to create multilinguals. It is therefore hard to justify denying students and teachers the right to make use of their shared linguistic resources in language learning. There are many ways in which the first language of the students can be exploited in the learning of the second language and these have been documented by several language teaching professionals and scholars (e.g., Littlewood and Yu 2009; Swain, Kirkpatrick and Cummins 2011). The fundamental principle to be adhered to is that the first language must be used in such a way as to help the student learn the second language.

The fourth reason why the local multilingual is the preferred English language teacher is that an obvious goal of language learning is to develop multilinguals. Multilinguals deserve respect and the multilingual teacher can instil this sense of respect for multilinguals and multilingualism in the classroom. It is important to establish a classroom philosophy through which the English language learner is not judged against native speaker norms and thus constantly evaluated as falling short of the mark, but is judged as a language learner who is developing multilingual proficiency. As Principle #1 above states,

the goal is not native speaker proficiency but mutual intelligibility. This can be reinforced by the teacher asserting the importance and value of multilingualism. The students are becoming linguistically sophisticated multilinguals. They are not failed or deficient native speakers.

2.4 Principle #4: Lingua franca environments provide excellent learning environments for lingua franca speakers

It is commonplace to assume that the best way to learn a language is to go to where the language is spoken as a native language. In many cases, this, of course, is true. However, in the contexts with which we are dealing in ASEAN, sending students to learn English in native speaking countries may not be the most effective way of developing English proficiency among the learners. Rather, sending them to countries where English is used as a lingua franca may be far more beneficial. An example may help make this clear. A tertiary institution in ASEAN has a relationship with a British university and routinely sends its third-year students there for ten weeks to develop their proficiency in English. The British university in question is in a part of England where the local variety of English is heavily accented and difficult to understand – even for English speakers from other parts of England. The ASEAN students are unlikely to make much progress in their English by communicating with the locals.

At the university itself, if placed in tutorial or seminar groups with native speaker students, they often find themselves unable to participate fully as they are not familiar with native speaker turn-taking and turn-stealing conventions (Rusdi 1999). They also feel awkward as they assume that their English will be evaluated against native speaker norms. This may well lead them to remain silent observers rather than active participants.

This type of situation is common. A finding of research into the experience of international students in Anglophone centres is that their multilingual backgrounds tend to be seen as a problem rather than a resource, and that they tend to mix more easily with fellow international students rather than with local students (Liddicoat, Eisenchlas and Trevaskes 2003; Preece 2011).

Instead, therefore, of sending students to Anglophone centres such as Great Britain or the United States with the aim of improving

their English proficiency, consideration should be given to sending them to places where English is naturally used as a lingua franca. Within ASEAN, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei and the Philippines provide examples of sites where English is regularly used as a lingua franca and as a language of inter-ethnic communication. The great advantage of such sites for ASEAN learners of English is that the native speaker is absent. English is being naturally used as a lingua franca between Asian multilinguals for whom English is an additional language. Students from ASEAN will find the linguistic environment less threatening and will feel more comfortable using English. At the same time, of course, they will develop greater understanding of the respective ASEAN cultures in which they are living. Not only, therefore, will their English language proficiency improve, so will their ASEAN intercultural proficiency.

2.5 Principle #5: Spoken is not the same as written

The principles enumerated above all apply to the teaching and learning of English as a spoken language. Principle #5 stresses that written language is not the same as spoken and that, therefore, a somewhat different argument needs to be presented.

First, written English has to be consciously learned by all, including native speakers. There are no 'native speakers' of written English. All learners, no matter their linguistic background, have to learn how to write. That is why many native speakers may remain illiterate all their lives.

Second, disciplines and genres set the rhetorical structures and styles. They set the norms. The norms are different for each discipline and genre. Writers of English need to learn these. As the differences between and among the disciplines and genres are vast, becoming an accomplished writer requires a great deal of practice and study. Consider, for example, the differences in styles between writing a 'tweet' and an engineering report, between writing a poem and an official document, between writing a love letter and a judicial judgement, between writing philosophy and writing science.

Third, different cultures play by different rhetorical rules and the level of the differences are often determined by discipline and genre. Thus, writing about science may be less influenced by local cultural influences than is writing about philosophy. In any event, it

is important to stress that intercultural competence requires an ability to write interculturally, as well as speak interculturally. In the ASEAN context, people may well have to complete writing tasks such as business correspondence and job applications, and the cultural norms for these may well differ across the different cultures of ASEAN. What, for example, represent culturally appropriate job application letters in the Philippines and in Indonesia and what differences exist between them?

The point is that there is much to learn for all of us who want to become proficient writers. What we want or need to write will determine how we learn. The standard norms are not determined by native speakers, but by tradition and convention; and these norms vary across discipline, genre and culture and are continually developing as new forms of writing and reasons for writing are created while older forms drop out of use. Most of us now write more personal messages with a machine and 'in the air', than with a pen and on paper, for example.

2.6 Principle #6: Assessment must be relevant to the ASEAN context

There is no point adopting the principles outlined above and then assessing the students against native speaker norms and cultures. Assessment must be closely aligned with what is being taught. This means that students need to be assessed on how successfully they can use English in ASEAN settings. This, in turn, means developing measures of functional proficiency – whether students are able to perform certain tasks in the language - as opposed to measuring how closely the students' English conforms to native speaker norms. For example, a pronunciation benchmark that only awards the top level to speakers whose accent betrays no first language influence is precisely the type of benchmark that needs to be discarded. Such benchmarks need to be replaced with criteria that measure how successfully students can get their messages across and perform certain linguistic tasks. While by no means a perfect set of measures, the European Common Framework of Reference offers a potential example of the type of functional assessment that could be adapted for the ASEAN context. It must be underlined, however, that it is important that ASEAN develop its own measures of assessment rather than rely on

those developed elsewhere. Only then can the assessment be properly linked to the aims of the English language teaching programmes.

One country within ASEAN that is working to establish its own assessment and teacher competency frameworks is Vietnam. Vietnam has its National Foreign Language 2020 project (FNL 2020), part of which is to introduce English at Grade 3 rather than at Grade 6 by 2018-9. FNL 2020 is also creating unified language proficiency benchmarks for students and teachers. These benchmarks are based on the Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR). The aim is for all primary and lower secondary English teachers be at the B2 level while upper secondary and university teachers should attain the C1 level (Dudzik and Nguyen 2015:47)

To those who are unfamiliar with these scales here is an overview of the B2 and C1 levels. The levels provide far greater degrees of detail than provided in this overview.

Those who have reached B2 (upper intermediate) are deemed to be able to perform the following tasks:

(a) Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization.
(b) Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party.
(c) Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

Those who have reached CI (advanced) are deemed to be able to perform the following tasks:

(a) Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning.
(d) Can express ideas fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions.
(e) Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes.
(f) Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

Vietnam's goal is to ensure that all its English teachers are at either B2 level (primary and lower secondary) and at C1 level (upper secondary and university). To what extent is this a realistic or achievable aim? The results of nationwide testing indicate that the aim is unrealistic in the extreme. For example, in 2011 testing of English language teachers, 97% of primary teachers and 93% of lower secondary teachers fell below the B2 level. 96% of upper secondary school teachers fell below the C1 level (Dudzik and Nguyen 2015: 48).

In further tests in 2013 testing 83% of primary school English teachers fell below the **B1** level, 87% of lower secondary ELTs were below the B2 level and 92% of upper secondary ELTs fell below the C1 level (Dudzik and Nguyen 2015:48).

Given these results it is not surprising to learn that the founding director of NFL 2020, Nguyen Ngoc Hung, has stated that the English language teaching targets cannot be met without international investment and cooperation. I shall return to this below.

Vietnam is also being innovative in its curriculum design. As suggested in the lingua franca approach, new courses have been introduced, not to schools' curricula, but to universities' curricula. These new courses include the Teaching of English as an International Language (TEIL), courses in World Englishes and in Southeast Asian cultures (Dudzik and Nguyen 2015:52).

As Dudzik and Nguyen (2015) argue, there is an overwhelming need for an overall ASEAN approach to these issues, particularly with regard the issues of teacher and student assessment. They call for ASEAN-wide proficiency benchmarks and ELT competency frameworks to be developed, which would include creating a 'common regional proficiency assessment framework (61) and 'regional English teacher competency assessment tools' (62). They also call for the development of relevant curricula (such as SE Asian cultures) and teach English 'no longer by teaching and assessing only NS varieties of English but also by introducing those spoken in neighbouring countries and by other regional multilingual speakers such as Singaporeans and Malaysians' (60).

The need for ASEAN-centred curricula is also recommended by Widiati and Hayati (2015).In their review of teacher professional education in Indonesia, including the one-year *Pendidikan Profesi*

Guru (PPG), they recommend that 'there needs to be more explicit integration of the ASEAN curriculum so that the PPG students have adequate knowledge and skills on how to educate their future students about ASEAN identity and ASEAN integration through their English classes' (2015: 138); and they recommend the ASEAN Curriculum Sourcebooks as providing examples of relevant materials.

To conclude Principle 6, therefore, it is suggested that any assessment tools of English language teachers and students are regionally developed. Similarly teacher competencies should be developed by a regional ASEAN-SEAMEO group. Assessment must also be matched to the curricula and it is recommended that new curricula be developed so that ASEAN students of English can develop knowledge about the cultures of ASEAN and intercultural competence in ASEAN cultures.

3 CONCLUSION

This article has proposed the lingua franca approach to the teaching of English and presented six principles upon which English language teaching in ASEAN could be based. In short, the argument is that, as English is used as a lingua franca in ASEAN, this is the role that should underpin the teaching of English in the region. The lingua franca approach provides a radical departure from the traditional methods and tenets of English language teaching. Most importantly, the approach takes into account that English is being used as a lingua franca in settings far removed from traditional Anglophone and Anglocultural centres. Consequently, native speakers of inner circle varieties of English are not major participants. The major participants are Asian multilinguals for whom English is an additional language. This means that the goal of English language learning is not to approximate native speaker norms, but to be able to communicate successfully with fellow Asian multilinguals. This also means that the cultures with which learners need to become familiar are not those associated with Anglo cultures, but those that shape the nations of ASEAN. It follows then, that the most appropriate teachers are not native speakers of inner circle varieties of English who represent Anglo cultures. The most appropriate teachers are suitably trained Asian multilinguals. Such teachers provide both role and *linguistic* models for the students and can act as guides to the cultures of

the region. By the same token, lingua franca environments within ASEAN are likely to provide more effective contexts for ASEAN learners of English to develop English proficiency than are native speaker environments such as Australia, Great Britain or the United States.

The lingua franca approach also stresses the *fundamental importance* that assessment must evaluate what is being taught and that summative assessments which are based on native speaker norms and cultures are not relevant for the lingua franca approach. Instead, assessment should be more formative, functional and measure the extent to which learners are able to communicate successfully and accomplish certain tasks. Finally, it is also considered essential that all assessment and measurement tools are developed within ASEAN itself, as currently being trialled by Vietnam. But, as noted by the Director of Vietnam's NFL 2020 programme, their goals cannot be met without international cooperation and investment. ASEAN should be the major provider of this international cooperation and investment.

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2 ENGLISH FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING: IMPROVING ORACY AND CLASSROOM TALK IN ELF CLASSROOMS

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1. INTRODUCTION

The English language is undeniably one of the most important languages, not only in terms of its status as a global language but also its ever-increasing number of speakers and learners across the globe. English is used as a language of communication at international meetings and conferences, a language of global business, a language of education and administration, as well as a language of science and technology.

There are three kinds of English speakers:

(a) Those who speak it as a first or native language;
(b) Those for whom it is a second or additional language; and
(c) Those who learn it as a foreign language (Kachru, 1985; Graddol, 2006)

Though it is not the language with the largest number of speakers (Mandarin Chinese is the language with the largest number of speakers), English will maintain and grow its dominance. Graddol (2006) in a British Council-commissioned report entitled "*English Next*", projected that between 2010-2015 there could be around 2 billion people over the globe learning English, with a large number of learners coming from China, India and other Asian countries where English has been promoted in primary schools.

Due to the vast and continuing spread of English worldwide, the number of ESL and EFL learners has far exceeded the number

of native or L1 speakers. Native speakers may feel that the language "belongs" to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future. Brutt-Griffler (1998:387) notes that as soon as a language reaches an international status, it ceases to be identified solely with its initial native speakers; and "its ownership in use extends to the world that uses it." Along with Kachru (2005), Graddol (2006:110) points out that the Inner Circle is "now better conceived of as the group of highly proficient speakers of English – those who have 'functional nativeness' regardless of how they learned or used the language".

With these new developments, it is getting more difficult to speak of one single native language as the standard type of English. What implications would this have on English language teaching and learning process? Graddol (2006:83) raised some pertinent questions:

(a) What variety of English is regarded as authoritative?
(b) Which language skills are most important (Reading? Speaking? Interpreting?)
(c) What is regarded as a suitable level of proficiency?
(d) What is the learning environment? (Classroom only? Family? Media? Community?)
(e) What are the appropriate content and materials for the learner?

Increasingly, English is used as a language of communication among people of different language groups. Most current learners of English in Asia are more likely to use English with fellow learners from their own country or people from the region than with "native speakers" from the Inner Circle. English as a *lingua franca* should serve the purpose of enabling people to communicate with each other. According to Seidlhofer (2004:212), *English as a lingua franca* (ELF) is a variety of the language that "has taken on a life of its own, independent to a considerable degree of the norms established by its native speaker (which) warrants recognition."

2. ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA, ENGLISH FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

There is no doubt that the ability to communicate effectively in English has become a key goal for ESL or EFL learners. It has

also become a necessary skill for many corporate and public sector employees who use English at their workplace and who need to communicate through a common language with people from a different cultural background. English for international understanding (EIU) is promoted through the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF). One key goal of embracing ELF is to ensure intelligibility among the speakers, rather than insisting on correctness. In fact, ELF for international understanding does not compel the speaker to have a perfect command of the language and the culture it expresses. What is important is to help speakers or learners develop interaction strategies that will promote understanding and foster friendly relations among speakers of other languages. English is used as a vehicular or bridging language to enable speakers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds to communicate effectively and achieve intelligibility, especially in inter-cultural communication contexts. It is not only the language skills that determine effective communication, it is the ability to demonstrate intercultural communicative competence. In other words, intercultural communicative competence is more important than linguistic competence per se.

The teaching of ELF is for learners who are learning English to mainly communicate with other non-native speakers. The priority for teaching learners using ELF is to achieve intelligibility with the people (likely to be other non-native speakers) they are communicating with.

3. SEAMEO RELC AND ITS CERTIFICATE COURSE IN EIU

The Regional Language Centre (RELC), which is located in Singapore, is one of the centres of excellence under the auspices of the Southeast Asian Ministers for Education Organization (SEAMEO). The Centre provides in-service language teacher training and education and promotes cooperation among language professionals in the Southeast Asian region and beyond.

As a language centre, it faces the challenge of staying relevant to the needs of Southeast Asian countries, which are characterized by a rich and wide diversity of languages and cultures. The Centre aims to help the region in communicating across social and linguistic frontiers to foster international understanding through cooperation in

language education (http://www.relc.org.sg).

RELC has positioned itself to be the leading SEAMEO centre in language education, in particular the teaching of English, which is a language that Southeast Asia cannot afford to ignore, due to its importance in facilitating economic development within the region and its being the common language within the ASEAN Community.

Among other regular and customized courses, the Centre offers ELT methodology courses to teachers from the region and beyond. One recent programme initiative is the Certificate Course in English for International Understanding (EIU), launched in 2013. It is a three-week residential programme held in Singapore for teachers of English from the Southeast Asian region. The key objectives of the course are as follows:

(a) To hone participants' pedagogical skills in the teaching of EIU and raise their language awareness of teaching EIU for inter-cultural communication;
(b) To enhance participants' language and communication skills for professional communication in cross-cultural contexts.

The course also provides opportunities for the teachers of English to enrich their inter-cultural knowledge and practice their inter-cultural communication skills through participation in interaction sessions with Japanese college students who are attending their own language immersion programmes at SEAMEO RELC. As part of the course requirements, the teachers of English are asked to plan and deliver EIU lessons in the immersion language classes of the Japanese college students. This is a new teaching experience for the teacher participants who are used to teaching their own students in their respective countries. The teachers of English are observed by the teacher trainer on how they teach and promote oracy activities and how they facilitate inter-cultural communication with the Japanese college students they teach.

The EIU course adopts an intercultural approach to the teaching of ELF. The features of this approach are as follows:

(a) Developing an ability to understand the social context in which the communication is made;
(c) Developing communicative competence (both communication and social skills) in order to make sense of the cultures of

people with whom one communicates in English and/or to meaningfully communicate orally in varied contexts;
(d) Developing an ability to adopt multiple perspectives to negotiate meanings in varied contexts; and
(e) Enabling the learners to observe and use the language that is appropriate to each community or culture.

3.1 EIU Course: Planning and Pedagogical Considerations

There are a number of questions that the EIU course participants are asked to consider as a language teacher in an ELF classroom:

(a) Is there a need to consider which variety of English to be selected as the instructional model?
(b) Who should be presented as a model English speaker? Or should there be just one?
(c) What pronunciation and language features are considered to be the core language items?
(d) Whose culture should be presented as an English speaking culture? Or should there be more than one?
(e) How to promote oracy and improve classroom talk?

The following considerations are pertinent to the planning and actual delivery of the EIU course:

(a) Expose course participants to different accents and varieties of English, especially those found in the region;
(f) Teach course participants the differences between the educated variety of the spoken English in the local context as opposed to the non-formal or colloquial variety;
(g) Expose course participants to the cultures of other speakers of English, not only BANA (British, Australian & North America);
(h) Teach course participants communication strategies which take into account culture and interaction styles of other language communities; and
(i) Teach course participants how to promote oracy and improve classroom talk.

All in all, the EIU course underscores the importance of culture in communication. Speaking good English is no longer

enough; achieving international (or regional) understanding among speakers of other languages is of the utmost importance, especially in contexts of workplace that cut across cultures. Teaching EFL is to equip learners with the wherewithal to be able to adapt, communicate and use English in a way that recognizes the differences in culture.
Course participants of the EIU course at RELC would have the opportunities to study the importance of intercultural communication and consider how they could best include elements of EIU into their English lessons. They would also be asked during the course to consider how relevant features of teaching ELF could be incorporated into their own teaching practice.

3.2 EIU Course 2013

The first run of the EIU courses began as a pilot programme in 2013 with 9 teachers of English. They came from Myanmar, Thailand, Brunei Darussalam and Vietnam. The course contents covered in this course are as follows:

(a) Introduction to the teaching of EIU
(b) EIU: developing intercultural skills – flexible thinking, cultural prejudice and cultural sensitivity
(c) EIU: communicating effectively – understanding differences in intercultural communication
(d) EIU: communicative competence versus linguistic competence
(e) EIU: communicative competence – pragmatics and conversational strategies
(f) EIU: issues of intelligibility and acceptability – pronunciation features; English as *a lingua franca* model
(g) Becoming a better listener – teaching of listening skills
(h) Becoming a better speaker – teaching of speaking skills
(i) Strategies for promoting oracy and improving classroom talk
(j) EIU lesson planning and delivery

During the EIU lesson observations, the teacher trainer noted that the 9 teachers of English on the course were not very competent in using strategies for promoting oracy and improving classroom talk, and the patterns of interaction in their EIU classroom were largely characterized by a lot of teacher talk. The teachers were familiar with

the elements of EIU and the teaching approach of ELF but when it came to actual delivery of their EIU lessons, as their teacher trainer I felt that they needed to work a lot harder in making their teaching more interactive and dialogic. In fact, this was my major takeaway after having conducted the first run of the EIU courses in 2013.

In the following year, the second run of the EIU courses was conducted in March 2014 with 9 teachers of English, three each from Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam. I decided to carry out classroom-based research into promoting oracy and improving classroom talk and into ways of helping these teachers of English in bringing about a higher level of dialogicity in classroom talk.

4. IMPROVING ORACY AND CLASSROOM TALK IN ELF CLASSROOMS

The teachers on the EIU programme come from EFL settings where the teaching of English is carried out mainly through teacher-dominated, monologic approaches, rather than dialogic approaches that promote oracy and improve classroom talk. Lyle (2008:227) pointed out two barriers to the use of dialogic teaching. One stumbling block was "the dominance of the teacher's voice at the expense of students' own meaning-making voices." The other barrier is that many teachers lack the skills required for planning effective whole class dialogue and they may not know how to tap the pedagogic potential of learning through dialogic talk in the classroom.

I was interested in drawing on my research into dialogic approaches to cooperative learning in small groups. I believe this is a more effective way of preparing the non-native English speaking teachers on the EIU programme for their teaching of ELF.

4.1 Literature Review

In the literature, a number of observational studies found that spoken interaction and dialogic talk took up a small proportion of instruction time in the classroom. Nystrand *et al.* (1997) found that dialogic discourse took up less than 15% of instruction time in over 100 middle and high school classes they observed. Myhill and Fisher (2005) found that students had little opportunity to question or explore ideas in classrooms.

Sticht (2003) underscored the importance of oral skills as

the base for literacy skills in a discussion of a number of studies that were carried out in the US on adults with reading difficulties. He argued for the need to improve adults' vocabulary and content knowledge through their oracy skills before they could make a lot of progress in reading. He drew the conclusion that oracy must come before literacy.

The importance of speaking and listening in the development of understanding is highlighted by Jones (2007). She proposed that dialogic teaching being an interactive approach to developing learning through talk could be explored as a way to counter the initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) that characterises much of the talk between teachers and children. Dialogic teaching underscores the importance of talk with peers and with a knowing adult (e.g. the teacher) wherein language is used as a tool for sense making or thinking together.

Mercer *et al.* (2009) looked at dialogue between teachers and pupils during primary school science lessons and considered the differing extent to which the two teachers in the study highlight for pupils the educational value of talk, and the extent to which they attempt to guide pupils' own effective use of talk for learning. Their findings support the view that better motivation and engagement are found amongst children whose views are sought and valued through dialogue. They proposed that teachers could be helped to develop a more dialogic pedagogy, to promote oracy and improve classroom talk.

4.2 Classroom-based Research on Dialogic Teaching

In the second run of the EIU courses, I decided to conduct classroom-based research on how I could best support the EIU course participants in promoting oracy and improving classroom talk. I wanted them to see how they could be helped in adopting dialogic approaches to the teaching of ELF.

First, I considered Mercer's work (1995 & 2000) on how teacher talk to pupils has helped us see what techniques teachers use to elicit pupil talk and how pupils participate in classroom talk. The following is extracted from Mercer (2000:52-56):

(a) Recapitulations: summarising and reviewing what has gone before;
(b) Elicitation: asking a question designed to stimulate recall;

(c) Repetition: repeating a pupil's answer, either to give it general prominence or to encourage an alternative;
(d) Reformulation: paraphrasing a pupil's response, to make it more accessible to the rest of the class or to improve the way it has been expressed;
(e) Exhortation: encouraging pupils to 'think' or 'remember' what has been said or done earlier.

All these can be made more dialogic if teachers take up pupil responses in their feedback. It is important that the teacher's feedback to the pupil response (the typical IRF exchanges in the classroom) can be used to clarify, exemplify, expand, explain or justify a student's response.

Alexander (2004) uses the term 'dialogic teaching' to describe how teachers and pupils work together to build on their own and each other's knowledge and ideas to develop coherent thinking. He identifies the essential features of the dialogic classroom as:

(a) Collective: teachers and students address learning tasks together, whether as a group or a class, rather than in isolation;
(f) Reciprocal: teacher and students listen to each other, share their ideas and consider a range of different viewpoints;
(g) Supportive: students articulate their ideas freely; they help each other to reach common understandings;
(h) Cumulative: teachers and students build on their own and each other's ideas;
(i) Purposeful: teachers plan and facilitate dialogic teaching with particular educational goals in view. (Alexander, 2004)

Alexander (2004:31) identifies two dialogic talk moves as having the "greatest cognitive potential" for supporting students' communication:

(a) Discussion: involves the class, teacher-group or student-student in the exchange of ideas or for the purpose of solving problems as a class/group;
(j) Dialogue: includes the class, groups, or individual pairs of students in the use of structured questioning and discussion.

The teacher plays an important meditational role in dialogic teaching. To promote and develop habits and practices of dialogic talk, the teacher needs to provide modelling of collaborative, responsive and reciprocal talk moves.

4.3 Social Constructivism and Dialogic Teaching

The relationship between social constructivism and dialogic teaching can be traced to the work of Vygotsky (1978). According to Vygotsky, social constructivism focuses on how knowledge is constructed in the social context of the classroom through language and other semiotic means. He argued that a more knowledgeable expert or adult has to provide the novice learner with access to the strategies or tools through instruction and modelling. As a result of Vygotsky's influence, a body of research emerged that supports the view that talk is the key to learning, particularly learners' talk in collaborative interaction with others, including teachers, in the classroom.

4.4 Classroom-based Research: Research Questions

In this classroom-based research, the following two research questions would be addressed:

1) What pattern of interaction for knowledge construction was evident in classroom talk before the intervention?
2) To what extent did the intervention bring about a higher level of dialogue in teacher-student talk?

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

This was a qualitative study based on non-participant observations and intervention. Video recordings of the EIU course participants were made when they were observed by me teaching the Japanese college students in the English class. Comparisons were made between teacher-student talk before and after the intervention using video recordings of classroom lessons. The participants of the study were a class of Japanese college students and two teachers of English, one from Vietnam and one from Myanmar.

There were 8 classroom observations (2 pre-intervention and 2 intervention lessons for each of the two teachers) over a period of 3 weeks. Pre-intervention observations provided data of the classroom

talk patterns, showing a general lack of teacher's attempt at co-construction of talk opportunities.

Each lesson was 45 minutes long and teacher interviews lasted 30 minutes per session. Classroom observations (from the video recordings) and teacher interviews were transcribed for analysis.

6. DATA ANALYSIS

The instrument used for analysing the data comprises a priori codes which represent features of classroom processes, including the types of teacher-student talk and student agency.

This study used 'episode' of a speech utterance (Wells & Arauz, 2006) to code the types of classroom talk and patterns of interaction for knowledge construction that were evident in the talk.

Excerpts of pre-intervention lessons and intervention lessons were analysed to consider the types of teacher-student talk and the resulting knowledge construction that were evident in the class. For the purpose of this paper, only three excerpts and their findings are presented and discussed.

6.1 Excerpt 1: First Lesson on Self-introduction

T: This lesson is about introducing yourself to someone who is from another culture. I'll call some of you and you should give a short introduction of yourself? Ok? Let's start with you. (Pointing to a male student seated right in front of the teacher) Tell me your name and which part of Japan you come from.

S1: I'm Takaya from Nagoya.

T: And you? (Pointing to a female student seated near the back door of the classroom)

S2: I'm a Japanese. My name is Fumiya.

T: Which part of Japan do you come from?

S2: I live in Nagoya but my hometown is…

T: (Interrupted) What about you (Pointing to S3) telling me which part of Japan you live and what do you like to do during your free time?

S3: Nagoya. Computer games.

T: What about you? (Pointing to S4)

S4: I like to exercise. I swim a lot because I …

T: Good. Exercise and swim. Now, I want you to tell me what is your favourite Japanese food.

S4: Tonkatsu and it is…

T: (Interjected before S4 could finish his sentence) Tonkatsu, that is pork cutlet, a popular Japanese dish. And what about you? (Pointing to S5)

This pre-intervention lesson segment showed the typical initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) genre that pervades many language classrooms. IRF sequences featured here were short and tightly controlled. The teacher essentially managed the entire turns-taking. There was hardly any dialogic talk, with no real contribution made from the students in the co-construction of meaning about topics discussed in the classroom. There were 'missed opportunities' for students to talk, elaborate or explain. The teacher was either too hasty or eager to explain student's response (e.g. what is tonkatsu… it is pork cutlet, a popular Japanese dish).

6.2 Excerpt 2: Teacher's comments after four group presentations on cultural differences

T: Having listened to the four group presentations, does anyone have any comments? No? (One or two seconds wait time) The first group presentation was rather short and did not provide enough examples of the differences between Japanese and Singapore Chinese cultures. Why didn't the group make references to the food culture of the Japanese and Singapore Chinese? They also didn't talk about the festivals celebrated by the people of the two cultures. Group 2 presentation was slightly better but they didn't elaborate much on the costumes worn by Singapore Indians when they were making a comparison with what the Japanese usually wear on formal occasions. The presentation lacks analysis when it comes to discussing the customary practices of the Japanese and Singapore Indian people. Group 3 presentation began with the line "We find all the foods of Singapore Malays and Indians very hot and spicy and not nice." Don't you think this is a sweeping statement? (.) It is an absolute statement that is not true and that people

> can argue with what you say…Of the four presentations, I must say Group 4 gave the best presentation, especially their power-point slides with nice images. But then Group 4 did not provide a strong conclusion. I've no idea what they're trying to say…our cultures are not the same and let be it. (.) What do you mean by 'let be it'? Anyway, these are my comments and now, I want you to do the next activity…

Though the teacher did ask students for comments on the group presentations, there was not much wait time for any student to respond. The teacher almost immediately gave her comments on each presentation and tended to highlight the weaknesses of most presentations. The teacher did not explain why Group 2 presentation was slightly better than Group 1 presentation but was fast enough to point out a weakness in Group 2 presentation.

The teacher asked the class, "Do you find this a sweeping statement?" This could have turned the lesson into a whole class discussion. Instead of making use of the opportunity to engage with and elicit responses from the students, the teacher went on to tell them the answer straightaway.

The teachers could have asked Group 4 to clarify their intended meaning of the statement, "Cultures are not the same and let be it…" The teacher could also have invited the rest of the class to contribute their views but she abruptly finished her comments and directed the class to move on to the next activity.

This excerpt showed a monologic style of discourse structure between teacher and students, which typically constitutes around 60% of the teaching/learning process (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). This is often referred to as the Recitation, which is understood well by teachers. It plays a central part in the direction and control of student learning. Such monologic talk enables teachers to stay in control of events and ideas in lessons. It only goes to emphasize the asymmetrical nature of power relationships between the teacher and students in the classroom. To promote oracy and improve classroom talk, a more dialogic approach has to compete against this dominant form of classroom interaction. It may not be easy to implement a change from the traditional classroom to one that values talk.

6.2.1 Knowledge Construction in the Class

The analysis of all the transcribed excerpts obtained from the pre-intervention lesson observations showed that the pattern of teacher-student interaction was dominated by whole class lecture, with some occasional IRF sequences. Students were not challenged to participate in discussions, either with the teacher (teacher-student interaction) or with each other (student-student interaction). Students therefore had little opportunity to practise oracy skills for engaging in the co-construction of meaning for topics discussed in the classroom.

Overall, there was extensive teacher talk with little evidence of student agency and voice. The classroom discourse came across as non-supportive. For example, in excerpt 2, the teacher focused on weaknesses of the group presentations. Student voice and identity did not seem to be recognized as the teacher did not provide the opportunity for students to explain themselves or to describe how they derived their ideas and the like.

6.2.2 The Intervention

I worked with the teachers concerned and planned an intervention aimed at increasing dialogicity between them and their students. I shared with them my analysis of the pre-intervention lesson observations and explained to them the importance of moving away from a monologic talk and teacher-dominated pattern of classroom interaction to more dialogic approaches in order to promote oracy and improve classroom talk and interaction.

We identified three learning goals for students to achieve in a dialogic classroom setting. There are as follows:

(a) Increase student talk time
(b) Invite students to support their view, to elaborate on or explain their ideas, etc.
(c) Build knowledge from one student to another student in a chain using questioning, responding, discussing and giving feedback.

6.3 Excerpt 3: Engaging Students in a Whole Class Discussion

T: Class, you have read Prof Tommy Koh's speech extract on Singapore's success in multiculturalism. What's your

impression of the speech? Do you agree or disagree with what it says about Singapore's success in multiculturalism?

S1: It is important to note that Singapore has had a multi-racial population since its beginnings. I like what the Prof says about racial harmony being a part of our cultural DNA.

S2: I don't understand what cultural DNA is.

T: Does anyone want to explain what cultural DNA means?

S1: I think it is something we learn and acquire and has become part of our lives. For example, Singapore people have been brought up from young that it is important to show respect and tolerance to one another living in a multi-racial society.

T: That's right. As you know, DNA contains the biological instructions that make us special, the cultural DNA contains instructions that tell us how to relate with one another in our culture. Now, if I were to ask you to give me an example of cultural DNA that you think Japanese people have acquired or inherited from their own culture, what would it be?

S1: I think for the Japanese people, bowing our head to great is very much part of our cultural DNA.

S3: That I agree. I want to add that eating sushi and sashimi is also part of our cultural DNA. But then I also see Singaporeans eat sushi and sashimi. Is eating sushi and sashimi part of Singaporean cultural DNA?

T: That's a good question. Does anyone have a response to this?

S4: Besides being a multicultural society, Singapore is a cosmopolitan city and there are many influences from other cultures. Maybe eating sushi and sashimi has become a common habit among Singaporeans and therefore they have this cultural DNA.

S5: This set me thinking that cultural DNA is not fixed but evolving. Am I correct? …

The classroom talk featured in this excerpt was dialogic. The pattern of interaction was not restricted to initiation-response-follow-up (IRF). Besides teacher-student talk, there was student-student talk

and interaction. The teacher did not dominate the classroom talk and turns-taking was observed. The teacher invited students to give their responses. The students had the opportunity to express agreement, to elaborate and to explain their ideas.

7. DISCUSSION

The pattern of interaction for knowledge construction that was evident in classroom talk before the intervention was largely confined to monologic talk and the typical IRF discourse structure. The monologic teacher remains firmly in control of the goals of talk and such monologic discourse is an approach to communication that is geared towards achieving the teacher's goals. The IRF provides the basis of teaching by direct instruction. The teacher directs the classroom talk, with not much or no real contribution from the students. The teacher asks questions either to test or stimulate recall on the part of the students. The teacher also asks a question to cue students to work out answers from clues in the question. The questions the teacher asks tend to be low level. Students usually provide answers which are three words or fewer, with students' exchanges lasting an average of five to seven seconds.

There were, however, changes in the pattern of interaction after the intervention. The teacher-student talk was dialogic. Intervention has led to an increased level of dialogicity in the pattern of interaction between teacher and students as well as between students and students. There was more student participation. Students were engaged in a deeper level of reasoning through collaborative and reciprocal teacher-student talk. Through dialogic teaching, the teacher could help students navigate meaning in learning.

In dialogic teaching, the key focus is on teacher questioning. Teacher questioning seeks to prompt and probe student thinking and to promote deep thinking through skillful scaffolding (Lyle, 2008). It is important to support teachers in their continuing professional development to acquire the knowledge and skills of promoting dialogic talk in the classrooms so as to break away from the traditional approach to having monologic talk and the IRF as the only pattern of classroom interaction.

8. EVALUATION OF 2014 EIU COURSE

At the end of the 2014 EIU course, the participants gave their written feedback on the course. Below is a summary of their written comments:

(a) The course offered us an opportunity to teach outside of our own country.
(b) I achieved a better understanding of intercultural communication and a good grasp of the strategies that I can use to promote oracy and improve classroom talk.
(c) I have never thought that integrating other cultures into lessons is useful. Now I have an idea on how to integrate them into my lessons to expose my students to other cultures.
(d) The trainer enabled me to see the differences in the pattern of classroom talk and interaction between the pre-intervention lesson and the post-intervention lesson.
(e) This course gave me some practical tips for making students participate more actively in classroom talk. It also gave me some ideas about promoting oracy and getting students to dialogue more with the teacher and with each other.

The Japanese college students were also asked to provide their feedback on the EIU lessons taught by the EIU course participants who were teachers of English from some Southeast Asian countries. Some of their written comments on the course are as follows:

(a) I now know more of EIU and am more confident in speaking in English with speakers from Singapore and other parts of Southeast Asia. This cultural awareness programme has boosted my speaking competence.
(f) At first I found it difficult to understand the teachers from Vietnam, Myanmar and Thailand as they all speak English with a different accent. But they were very nice and encouraging. Their lessons were interactive and we all had the opportunity to share our ideas with them.
(g) I'm happy to be able to speak in English with different people. We can still understand each other even though we speak somewhat differently. I learned a lot about the different cultures in Southeast Asia. The English teachers here made us discuss in groups.

The EIU course that was conducted in 2014 was well-received, judging from the written feedback by both the Japanese college students and the teachers of English. The latter were initially quite tensed up in teaching EIU lessons to the Japanese college students who tended to be reticent learners. The willingness to communicate (WTC) in English among Japanese college students is generally low, as documented in a number of studies (Yashima, 2002; Matsuoka, 2008). It was quite a challenge for the teachers of English to promote oracy and encourage the Japanese college students to speak in class. With intervention, the teachers of English were more adept in using strategies that promote oracy and enable students to participate actively in classroom talk.

9. CONCLUSION

To sum up, this paper discusses the principles underpinning the curriculum design and mode of delivery of a professional development programme that RELC conducts for a group of teachers of English from the region. This programme prepares non-native English-speaking teachers to promote oracy and improve classroom talk to teach English for International Understanding (EIU) through the *ELF* approach and the dialogic teaching approach. It also reports on a classroom-based study to show how classroom talk can be made more engaging and dialogic for students to be afforded with more talk opportunities to build up their oracy skills. With intervention and modelling by the teacher trainer on the strategies that promote oracy and improve classroom talk, the teachers of English on the EIU programme became more confident and adept in adopting dialogic teaching in the ELF classroom to raise the level of dialogicity and the willingness to communicate among the Japanese college students.

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3 USING THE GENRE-BASED APPROACH TO TEACH NARRATIVE WRITING IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

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1. INTRODUCTION

Although people are often exposed to Narrative, they do not necessarily thoroughly understand it. According to Knapp and Watkins (1994), Narrative is considered the least understood of all genres as people tend to believe that, due to its popularity, students can 'pick up' and write 'naturally'. In fact, Narrative is far from natural and many students cannot easily 'pick (it) up'. It should be explicitly taught to students because, unlike other genres, it may have more than one generic purpose. Further, it may consist of different kinds of genre, yet still is the dominant one (Knapp and Watkins, 1994). In Knapp and Watkins's view (2005: 220), Narrative writing skills are beneficial and should be encouraged because "Story-writing has been prominent as a means of naturally inducting students into the intricacies and idiosyncrasies of the English language".

Drawing on the Australian Genre-based Approach, this paper discusses how the teacher can help his/her students to succeed in Narrative writing. Through genre-analysis, students will be aware that each genre has its particular purpose to achieve. Accordingly, each has specific generic structure and language features. Students' genre awareness is essential for students' writing success because if "students are aware of the expectations of the context of communication" (Gee, 1997:39), they will be in a better position to exploit the conventions to achieve their social purposes.

2. THE AUSTRALIAN GENRE-BASED APPROACH

The Australian Genre-based Approach was initially developed by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) and their colleagues such as Christie (1984), Derewianka (1990), Hammond (1989) and Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot (1992). It draws on the Systematic Functional Linguistic theory developed by Halliday and Hasan (1985). According to the genre theorists, the meaning of any text can only be understood in relation to the context in which it is produced. This includes Context of Situation and Context of Culture.

Context of Situation refers to the social environment of text which consists of three variables (Hammond et al, 1992):

(a) Field refers to the topic or the subject-matter being talked about such as cooking, tourist attraction and economics.
(b) Tenor refers to the relationship between participants or the audience like writer and reader; speaker and listener.
(c) Mode concerns the channel of communication such as spoken and written.

Context of Culture refers to value and belief. As each culture has different value and belief, each has different ways to get things done (Hammond et al, 1992). This results in different kinds of texts or genres which have different social purposes to achieve. Consequently, each genre displays different generic structure (or textual organization) and language features (or typical language used to convey meaning like noun, pronoun, verbs and conjunction).

Generally, there are two major types of genre: factual and story. Factual genre aims to describe, explain, present particular thing, place or person (Martin, 1984). Some examples are Description and Report. On the other hand, story genre intends to entertain, inform and retell events (Martin, 1984). Two examples of story genre are Recount and Narrative.

To systematically and effectively implement the Genre-based Approach in the classroom, the Genre theorists had developed the Teaching Learning Cycle including four cyclical stages: Building Knowledge of Field, Modeling of Text, Modeling of Text, Joint Construction of Text and Independent Construction. While writing, students can go back to any stage they want until they are ready to write up their final draft (Hammond et al, 1992).

3. DEFINITION OF NARRATIVE AND ITS GENERIC STRUCTURE AND LANGUAGE FEATURES

According to Derewianka (1990: 40), the primary purpose of Narrative is to entertain the audience. To achieve this, it needs to keep the audience interested in the narrated story. Narrative, however, may also have other purposes, including teaching or informing, personifying the writer's reflections on experiences and perhaps more importantly, nourishing and extending the audience's imagination. Gerot (1995:19) added that …

> *the purpose of Narrative is to amuse, entertain and to deal with actual or vicarious experience in different ways. Narratives deal with problematic events which lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind, which in turn finds a solution.*

As mentioned above, genre is culturally specific text type which results from using language to achieve a particular social purpose. Because of this, each genre has specific generic structure and language features. In the case of Narrative, its generic structure and language features are as follows.

Typically, Narrative begins with an orientation followed by a complication and a resolution.

Orientation ^ Complication ^ Resolution

In an orientation section, the author introduces the main characters and setting (i.e. time and place) to the audience in an attempt to create the "possible world" of the story (Derewianka 1990; Knapp and Watkins, 1994). The story is then pushed along by a series of events, during which a complication or problem may arise. By bringing some sort of complexity or problem into play, the story appears to be more engaging and appealing to the audience (Derewianka 1990; Knapp and Watkins, 1994). Later, a resolution of the complication is provided. The complication may be resolved for better (e.g. the King and the girl he rescued got married and they lived together happily ever after), or for worse (e.g. the frog did not turn

In an orientation section, the author introduces the main characters and setting (i.e. time and place) to the audience in an attempt to create the "possible world" of the story (Derewianka

1990; Knapp and Watkins, 1994). The story is then pushed along by a series of events, during which a complication or problem may arise. As the introduced conflict or problem develops, the story becomes more engaging and appealing to the audience (Derewianka 1990; Knapp and Watkins, 1994). Later, a resolution of the complication is provided. The complication may be resolved for better (e.g. the King and the girl he rescued got married and they lived together happily ever after), or for worse (e.g. the frog did not turn into a handsome prince despite a kiss from the beautiful princess). However, it is rarely left completely unresolved, except in certain types of Narrative which the author wanted to arouse the audience's curiosity, leaving them to wonder "How did it end?" (Derewianka, 1990). Further, in some stories a major complication may not be resolved until the end, prior to which a number of minor complications are presented along the way. Derewianka (1990: 42) noted that "these complications are usually related to the major complication and serve to sustain the interest and suspense, leading to a crisis or climax."

Language features typical of Narrative are as follows (Derewianka, 1990: 42):

(a) Participants: To create the possible imaginative world, specific, particularly individual participants with distinct identities are often included. The majority may be human while others may be animals with human characteristics.

(b) Verbs: To create the characteristics of the real world, a variety of verbs are used. The predominant one is doing verbs which are verbs used to describe the characters' actions and the happenings taking place around them (e.g. *climb, walk* and *cry*). Other verbs like verbal and mental verbs are also used to describe how the human participants said, felt or thought, and talked. Examples of verbal verbs are *shout, announce* and *pray*; mental verbs are *love, hate* and *was scared*. Further, relational verbs or linking verbs, are used to relate one part of the clause to another (e.g. *is, was* and *became*). In addition, existential verbs like *have, own,* or *belong t*o may be found to indicate what the characters posses.

(c) Tense: As Narrative concerns retelling of past events, past tense is often used. Other tenses like future and present continuous tenses may be sometimes used to refer to particular events.

(d) Dialogue: In most folktales, dialogue is often used to make the characters realistic and importantly, the story interesting.
(e) Descriptive language: Descriptive language like adjective and adverb is commonly used to enhance and develop the story by creating images in the reader's mind.
(f) Pronouns: As the story evolves around specific individuals, it can be written in the first person (*I, we*) or third person (*he, she,* or *they*).

In short, the Narrative genre has its own distinctive generic structure and language features. Explicit analysis of these will enable students to understand how the text is structured and how language features (i.e. grammar and vocabulary) are employed to construct a narrative that successfully convey the authors' intended meanings. This will lead to the development of writing students' genre awareness (Lee, 2012). They can later apply what they have learned to read or to compose their own text appropriately.

4. THE NARRATIVE TEACHING UNIT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN THE CLASSROOM

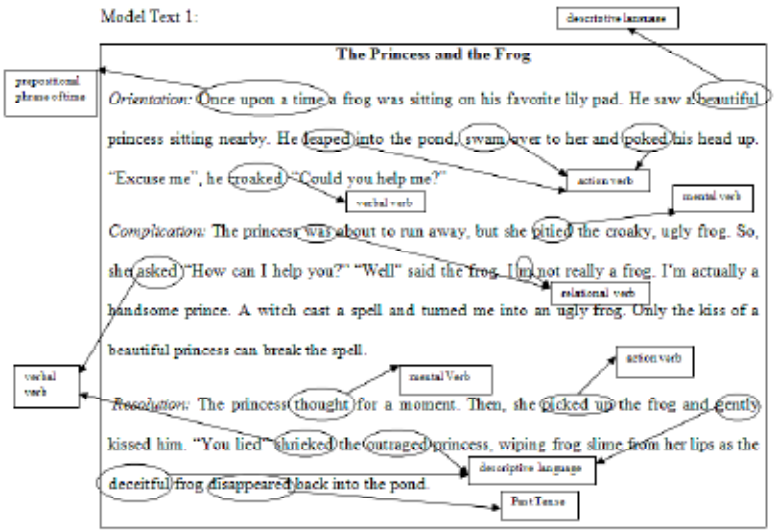
At Ubon Ratchathani University in the Northeast of Thailand, my workplace, the teaching of Narrative in the Essay Writing classroom for the second year English major students in the second semester of 2014 academic year, drew on the following two stages of the Teaching-Learning Cycle: Modeling of Text and Independent Construction.

During the Modeling of Text stage, students were asked to read and analyze the model texts so that they are aware of the generic structure and language features typical of the Narrative. To assist students' genre analysis, a set of guided questions are provided.

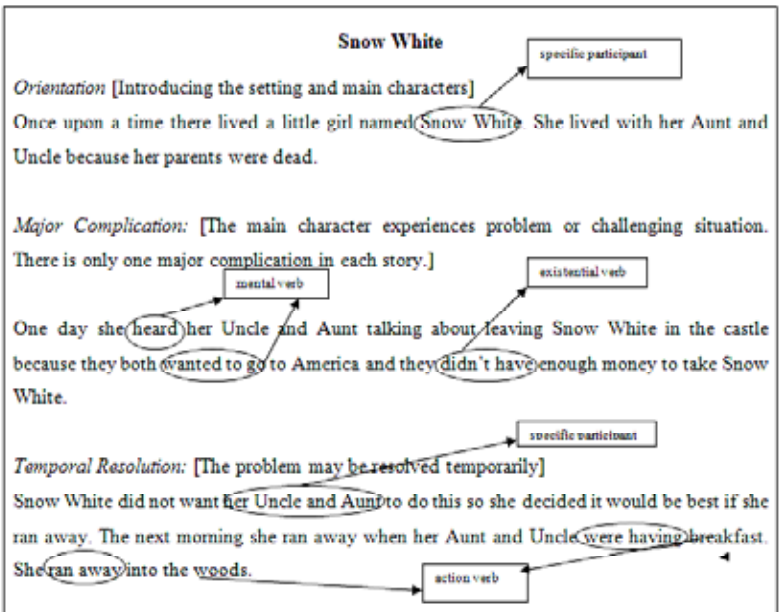
1) What is the purpose of each text?
2) How is each text organized? How did the writer begin and end the text?
3) What are significant language features found in each text?
   (i) Are the general or specific nouns used?
   (ii) What kind of tense is used (i.e. past, present or future)? Why?
   (iii) What kinds of verb are used (i.e. action (doing), being, having, saying or mental verbs)?

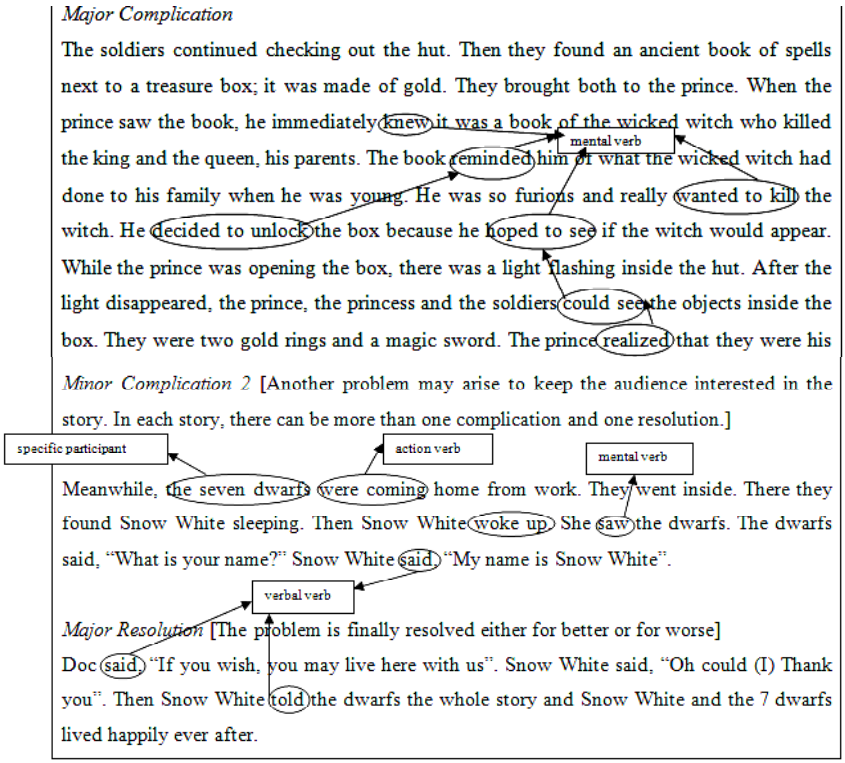
(iv) What kinds of conjunction are used?
(v) What kinds of prepositional phrase are used (i.e. prepositional phrase of place or time?

Model Text 1:



Model Text 2:





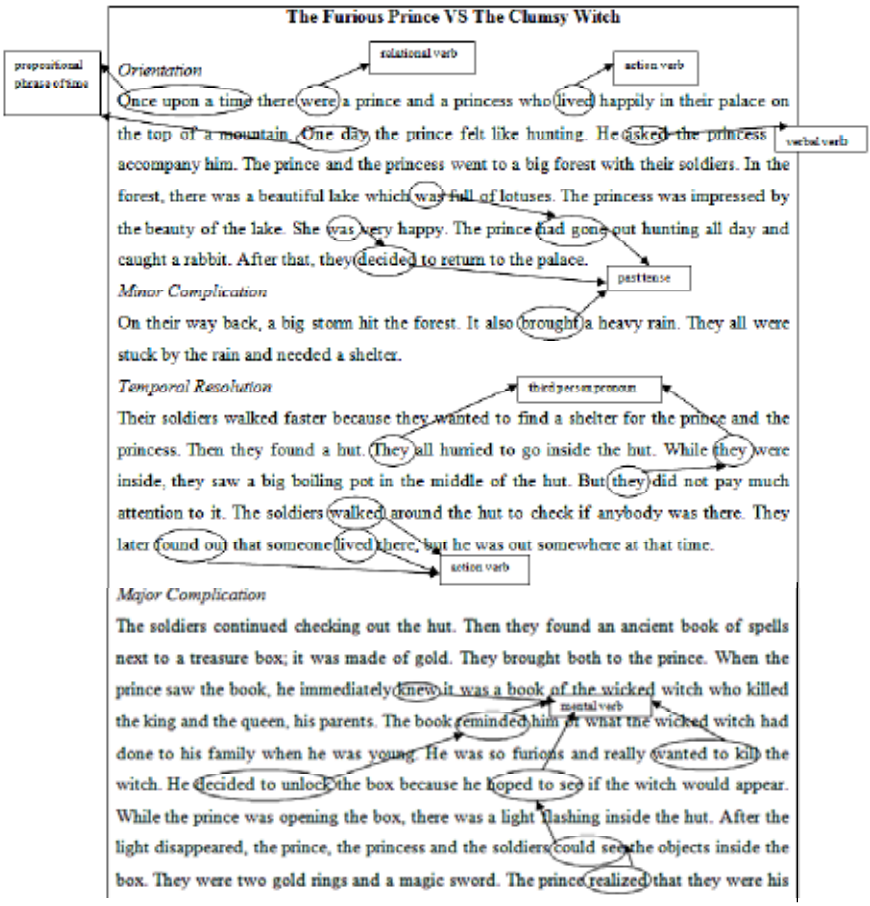
(Source: Gerot, 1995: 30-32)

As for the Independent Construction, students were asked to write up their own Narrative independently. To ensure the originality of their essays, they were asked to include twelve given words in their stories including a prince, a princess, a castle, a hut, a lake, a rabbit, a treasure box, a witch or wizard, a heavy rain or storm, two gold rings, and lotuses. They were allowed to write three drafts. For each draft, the teacher provided feedback concerning their control of generic structure and language features as well as their control of grammatical structure at sentence level. After they completed their third draft, they were asked to produce a picture book based on their story.

5. THE IMPACT OF THE GENRE-BASED APPROACH ON STUDENTS' NARRATIVE WRITING PERFORMANCE

The analysis of students' Narrative essays revealed that all students (19 of them) were able to write Narrative successfully.

Their texts exhibit competent control of generic structure containing Orientation, Complication and Resolution although a number of minor complication and temporal resolution vary from text to text. Moreover, they were able to employ language choices suitable for the genre (e.g. specific participants, a variety of voice, and tense) to compose intelligible and expressive narrative. One of the students' essays exemplifies this competency.



The Furious Prince VS The Clumsy Witch

prepositional phrase of time

relational verb

action verb

Orientation

Once upon a time there were a prince and a princess who lived happily in their palace on the top of a mountain. One day the prince felt like hunting. He asked the princess verbal verb accompany him. The prince and the princess went to a big forest with their soldiers. In the forest, there was a beautiful lake which was full of lotuses. The princess was impressed by the beauty of the lake. She was very happy. The prince had gone out hunting all day and caught a rabbit. After that, they decided to return to the palace.

past tense

Minor Complication

On their way back, a big storm hit the forest. It also brought a heavy rain. They all were stuck by the rain and needed a shelter.

Temporal Resolution

third person pronoun

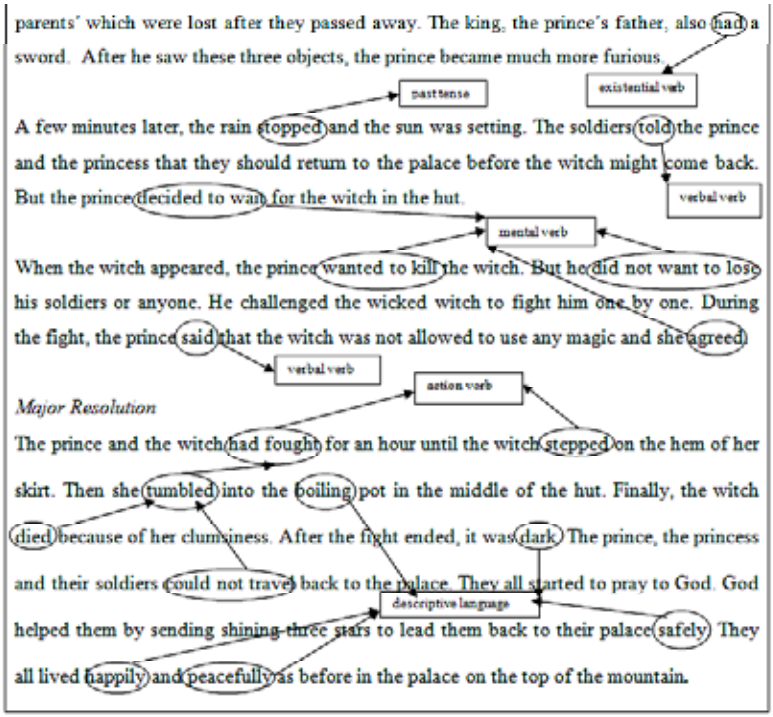
Their soldiers walked faster because they wanted to find a shelter for the prince and the princess. Then they found a hut. They all hurried to go inside the hut. While they were inside, they saw a big boiling pot in the middle of the hut. But they did not pay much attention to it. The soldiers walked around the hut to check if anybody was there. They later found out that someone lived there, but he was out somewhere at that time.

action verb

Major Complication

The soldiers continued checking out the hut. Then they found an ancient book of spells next to a treasure box; it was made of gold. They brought both to the prince. When the prince saw the book, he immediately knew it was a book of the wicked witch who killed the king and the queen, his parents. The book reminded him of what the wicked witch had done to his family when he was young. He was so furious and really wanted to kill the witch. He decided to unlock the box because he hoped to see if the witch would appear. While the prince was opening the box, there was a light flashing inside the hut. After the light disappeared, the prince, the princess and the soldiers could see the objects inside the box. They were two gold rings and a magic sword. The prince realized that they were his

mental verb



6. Conclusion

It was evident that the Genre-based Approach is viable alternative approach to teach Narrative writing to Thai students because it helps raise students' genre awareness. This provides them with a pre-established set of conventions determined by the intended purpose and audience of the text. Students will be able to make better predictions while reading. According to Lee (2012), students' knowledge and recognition of the genre contributes considerably to their understanding of the text.

In addition, the genre analysis offers s starting point to language teachers who want to teach their students to write a Narrative. It is considered a starting point because students' control of generic structure and language features alone would not guarantee their successful writing. As writing is a complex task, teachers would also need to provide their students with opportunities to practice writing as it is almost impossible, even for native speakers, to write a perfect Narrative from their first attempt.

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4 REDEFINING CONCEPTIONS OF GRAMMAR IN ENGLISH EDUCATION: A CASE OF AN EFL TEACHER

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1. INTRODUCTION

Increasingly English is becoming the lingua franca in international communication for social, economic, and academic purposes (Baker, 2009; Snow, Kamhi-Stain & Brinton, 2006). Its use can be identified from the way in which it has been the most preferred language used in both professional and international communication such as for commerce across the globe, global exchanges of information and economic enterprises (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Warschauer, 2000; Hasan & Akhand, 2010; James, 2008; Matsuda, 2003). In schools, English language instruction is shaped by the need for learners' heightened proficiency in gaining access to content knowledge and participating in a variety of communities of practice (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Warschauer, 2000; Hasan & Akhand, 2010; James, 2008; Matsuda, 2003; Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011). These demands have challenged the intelligibility and sensitivity of context dynamics. For example, it is important for learners to have awareness in using language for daily conversations and in schools to complete disciplinary assignments, by which learners gain access to social and political capital that comes from earning advanced degrees (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2007; Schleppegrell, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008).

The globalized use of English as the academic lingua franca has triggered an intensifying efforts among countries to provide support for learning English to communicate in and across the curricular subjects (e.g., Butler, 2004; Crystal, 2003; Hu, 2004;

Kirkgoz, 2008). Butler (2004), for example, describes how Japan, Taiwan, and Korea officially offer English in elementary school levels despite the unpreparedness of teachers to provide quality instruction. Similarly, Kirkgoz, (2008) discusses how the Turkish government has begun to push English instruction into younger and younger grades in the hopes of preparing K-12 students to participate in international communication, despite the lack of teacher readiness. Likewise, Hu (2004) describes how since 2000 China has added more hours for English instruction to support students in K-9 schools but has not attended to the professional development needs of English instructions, making more instruction not necessarily beneficial. Hu (2004) states:

> *A majority of the teachers (53% for the ordinary schools and 69% for the key schools) had never received any formal professional training. In general, the teachers had a weak grounding in pedagogy, lacked professional competence for the subject and knew very little about recent developments in foreign language education both at home and abroad.* (pp. 12 – 13)

Teacher unpreparedness for attending to academic literacy is more specifically related to the fact that EFL teachers often lack the linguistic and pedagogical knowledge of how academic texts work to construct meanings in specific disciplines and how to design effective teaching instruction accessible to all students (e.g., Butler, 2004; Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Cummings, 2003; Gebhard, Graham, Chen, & Gunawan, 2013; Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011; Yasuda, 2011). For example, Coxhead and Byrd (2007) write:

> *The place of language instruction in the writing classroom remains unclear for many teachers who want to teach composition skills while faced with evidence in student writing that many of their students have yet to develop the linguistic resources necessary for communicative competence as academic writers. Part of the lack of clarity about the status of language teaching in the composition class may result from limited access to information about language-in-use, the approach to language analysis used in many corpus-based and functional studies of grammar/ vocabulary where the focus is on ways that language is actually used for communication.* (p. 130)

This paper attempts to report a longitudinal ethnographic case study of how an EFL teacher, a Taiwanese teacher, makes sense of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and genre based pedagogy over the course in a MATESOL program in the United States and in her first year of teaching in a rural Taiwanese middle school. Some aspects of this study were published in Gebhard, Gunawan, and Chen (2014). However, this article focuses more on how the Taiwanese teacher, "Chenling," managed the challenges of her developed SFL based conception of grammar as she transitioned from her MATESOL program back to her teaching in a secondary school in Taiwan. The article then draws a conclusion on her developed concept of literacy based instruction and her actual teaching practice in Taiwan to investigate how she managed the challenges in practice.

2. SFL/GENRE BASED PEDAGOGY

SFL/genre-based pedagogy is a pedagogical concept which was initially developed in Australia at the University of Sydney to support academic writing development by providing explicit instruction of a text type and making visible linguistic resources of the text. SFL is the conceptual basis of genre development. SFL focuses on theory of language which is based on how people get things done with language and other semiotic systems within cultural contexts in which they interact and it focuses on how the use of language and other semiotic systems shape the development of cultural semiotic systems (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Two of the main constructs in SFL which reflect social contexts for people to get things done with language are systemic and functional. First, language being systemic means that involves users making functional semiotic choices that operate simultaneously at the phonological, lexical, syntactic, and discourse levels depending on the cultural context in which communication is negotiated (Halliday, 2009; Gebhard, Gunawan, Chen, 2013). Second, language is functional. Being functional means that language systems should be useful and purposeful to get things done in real life (Halliday, 2009). Christie (1999) and Martin (1997) refer to being functional in SFL as a system which provides purposeful and useful modeling of language.

The system of choice and function in SFL is reified through Halliday's trinocular conception of meaning, that is, ideational

resources for realizing reality, events, and experiences; interpersonal resources for realizing negotiations to accomplish social relations; and textual resources for managing the flow of information. These three conceptions of meanings are referred to language metafunctions, which are projected into register variables of field to construct ideas; tenor to enact relationships; and mode to organize the flow of information either through oral or written or media assisted channel of communication (Halliday, 2009). The register variables, in other words, instantiate the meaning potentials embedded in the three language metafunctions, which simultaneously operate in making meanings and serve as a basis for variations of language in relation to contexts. As the diagram below shows, the acts of meanings are illustrated as discourse semantics which is construed by the system of register or lexicogrammar (Halliday, 1994; Martin, 2009).

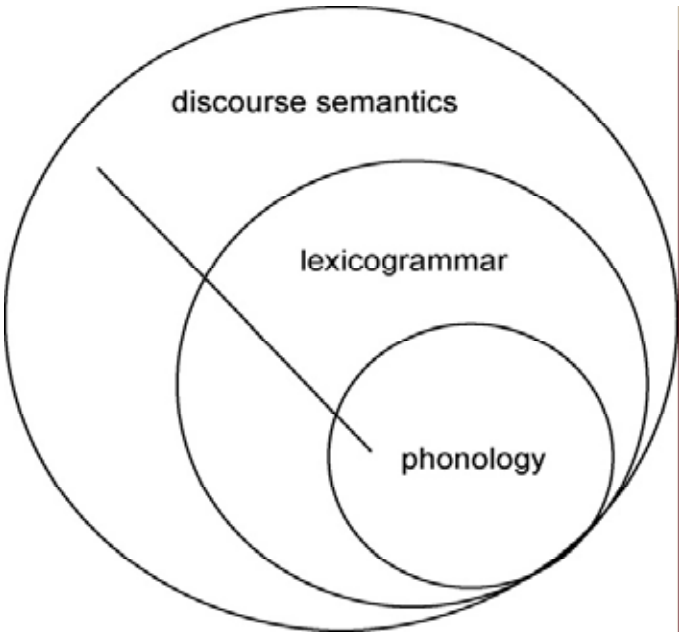

Figure 1: ***Model of Levels of Language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2009, p. 13)***

The discourse semantics of spoken and written communication, which represents the functional purposes of using language, is constructed by the strata of lexicogrammar and phonology. At the

level of lexicogrammar, a configuration of meanings is realized by the choice of field, tenor, and mode (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The configuration is also meaningful by the choice of phonological expressions in spoken communications. In particular, the three language metafunctions simultaneously participate in the meaning making processes instantiated through the choice of register variables. In this sense, first, the field is construed through experiential meanings, such as, the choice of participants and processes (realized by many kinds of verbs). Second, the tenor is construed through interpersonal meanings, such as, the choice of modality (e.g., can, will, perhaps), adjuncts (e.g., this year, at home), and adjectives (e.g. excited, glad). Third, the mode is construed through textual meanings, such as, the choice of sequencing device to make messages sound cohesive or through the channel of communication (e.g., written or spoken or mediated by technology). The context of situation "specified with respect to field, tenor, and mode, plays a significant role in determining the actual choices among the possibilities" (Halliday, 2009, p, 55). As illustrated in the model of language above, language use is construed by two main contexts: genre and register to respectively realize the context of culture and the context of situation (Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2008). Each of the register variables is projected through Halliday's metafunctions of language.

Genre theorists (e.g. Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2008) acknowledge variations that may happen to the field such as variations in subject matter, in the tenor such as in terms of formality, and in the mode such as abstraction. Such variations according to Martin can unfold in some instantiations of the same genre. Therefore, as shown in the model above, Martin illustrates how genre acts as a context to mobilize language use and as a context of culture which leads language choices at the level of register to achieve its social purposes. According to Martin (e.g., Martin, 1993; Martin, 2009), genre and register simultaneously construct the meaning making process instantiating and realizing the trinocular conception of language. This concept has been developed especially in response to school needs for literacy education by apprenticing students in learning to read and write academically. For example, Rose and Martin (2012) provide a map of how genre works for the production of text, which shows genre developments and variations in schools.

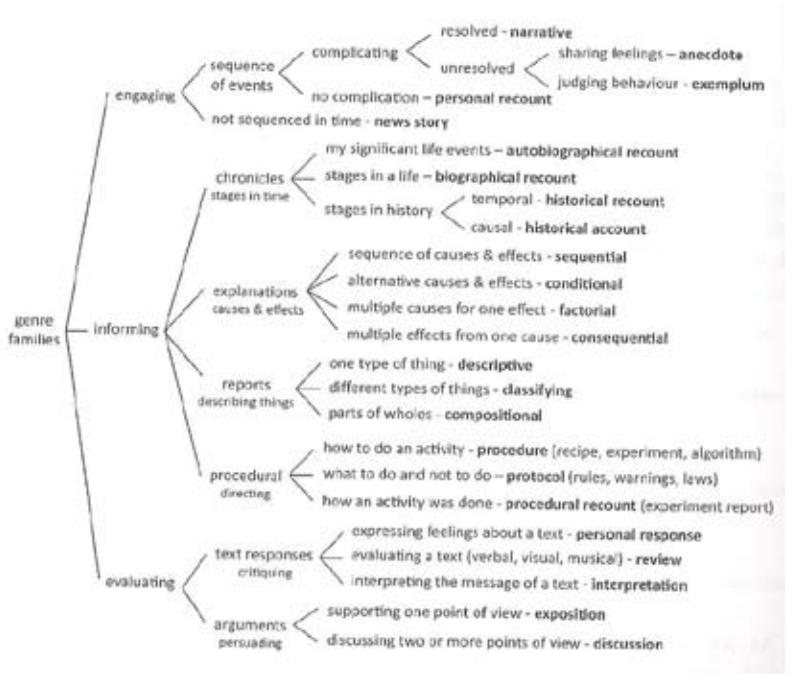

Figure 2: ***Map of Genre in School (Rose and Martin 2012, p. 128)***

The model shows what information should be present in certain genres and be distinctive from other genres of texts. The model also shows how information should be organized to meet the conventions of genres. The genres presented in the diagram may have been familiar to teachers but how to explicitly name them may not be familiar among teachers (Rose & Martin, 2012). Therefore, this diagram presents the some common purposes of constructing a text whether to engage, inform, or to evaluate. The purpose shapes staging in constructing a text. For example, if teachers teach students to construct meanings in a text to engage readers, they focus on how the authors commonly use language to engage readers. In response to the needs for applicable functional grammar in schools, Martin and colleagues follow Halliday's concern about providing students and teachers with resources in literacy learning and teaching. For this purpose, Martin defines genre in a more accessible characterization for literacy instruction as:

> *A staged goal-oriented social process: (i) staged: because it usually takes us more than one phase of meaning to work through a genre; (ii) goal-oriented: because unfolding phases are designed to accomplish something and we feel a sense of frustration or incompleteness if we are stopped; (iii) social: because we undertake genres interactively with others.* (Martin, 2009, p. 13)

Such a concept of genre, shows how a text achieves social purposes with more than one step. The concept also shows how genres differ and fit for certain purposes and local contexts (Martin & Rose, 2008).

3. A CASE STUDY: AN EFL TEACHER'S CONCEPTIONS OF GRAMMAR AND TEACHING PRACTICES

The context of this study is a MATESOL program in the United States that offers a 33-credit Master's Degree in Education. This program draws upon a sociocultural perspective of language and literacy development. This program also gives freedom to teacher candidates from both U.S. and international contexts in deciding genre of texts as to bring significant impacts on teaching language, literacy, and multiculturalism simultaneously. Additionally, the program provides learning of a critical and functional perspective of language and academic literacy development accessible and usable to EFL teachers from Asia. These teachers, many of whom were from China and Taiwan, were enrolled in this program with the goal of improving their English and returning to their home countries to teach EFL in a variety of contexts (e.g., elementary, secondary, and college levels) (see Gebhard, Gunawan, & Chen, 2014). In attempting to understand how Asian teachers make sense of SFL and genre based pedagogy this study was conducted in a longitudinal case study approach to investigating how Chenling's conception of grammar changed (or not) over the courses for which she participated in the degree program. The analysis is further focused on investigating how her teaching reflected or did not reflect SFL based pedagogy knowledge.

The methods used in this case study were qualitative in nature, relying on multiple sources of data, and were divided into three distinct phases of data collection and analysis between 2009 and 2011 (Gebhard, Chen, Graham, & Gunawan, 2013; Gunawan, 2014). Phase one focused on documenting Chenling's participation

in a 14-week introductory course in SFL and genre based pedagogy. Data collection and analysis included observational fieldnotes from seminar meetings, transcribed seminar discussions, formal and informal interviews and email exchanges with Chenling, and an analysis of Chenling's midterm and final course papers. Phase two consisted of documenting and analyzing Chenling's experience in all other courses in her MATESOL program. These courses included: Theory of Second Language Acquisition; L2 Reading and Writing Development; L2 Curriculum Development; ESL/EFL Methods; Critical Perspectives on Children's Literature; Multicultural Education; Assessment of L2 Language and Literacy Practices; Student Teaching Practicum; and a course on leadership in the profession. Phase three consisted of collecting and analyzing data regarding Chenling's teaching practices during her first year as a full time teacher in a middle school in rural Taiwan. Data collection and analysis focused on samples of curriculum materials and formal and informal email exchanges with Chenling.

There are several limitations to this methodology. First, during Phase three, I was unable to observe Chenling's classroom practices. Rather, I relied on an analysis of the curricular materials she used and her responses to formal and informal interviews conducted over email exchanges. Therefore, I have no first-hand accounts of her actual classroom practices during her first year of teaching in Taiwan. And finally, qualitative case study methods do not lend themselves to researchers making causal claims or claims that are generalizable to other contexts. Rather, these methods allow us to gain insider and outsider insights into how Chenling made sense of SFL as a way of adding to the growing empirical work regarding the knowledge base of L2 teacher education (Andrews, 2007; Borg, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 2005)

4 SHIFTING TOWARD A FUNCTIONAL CONCEPTION OF GRAMMAR THROUGH AN ANALYSIS OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND L2 WRITING

The data show that Chenling developed a more functional conception of grammar featuring the interconnection of lexico-grammatical features and discourse of texts. However, over 14 weeks of participation in the course in SFL/genre-based pedagogy,

Chenling went through some tipping points at which her schooling experiences, teaching experiences, and language learning policy of a future workplace shaped her whole conceptions of grammar. As reflected in her actual teaching, Chenling's functional conception of grammar is still anchored to some extent in a very structural behavioral sense.

Chenling began to show her understanding of grammar as certain constructs such as a rule, a form, meanings, or texts, but stated that she followed a textbook. Responding to the question of what grammar is, she stated,

> *Grammar as the easiest way to teach English language. When teaching, I usually follow a textbook. I teach English to second language learners, mostly teaching writing not speaking, the easiest way to teach English language. When teaching, I usually follow a textbook. I teach English to second language learners, mostly teaching writing not speaking.* (Field notes, 09/08/2009)

Her statements indicate that grammar is not integrated into meaningful texts in a variety of discourses, which may show more complexity. Chenling reinforced and was reinforced by other teachers participating in the course in conceptualizing grammar. The international EFL teachers and the United States born teachers showed a shared understanding of grammar as a rule. For example, one international EFL teacher stated that "grammar as a rule about how to use for writing and speaking, grammar is acquired through experience from being a teacher, and grammar is boring but effective tool to learn language" (Field notes, 09/08/2009). In the same way, another international EFL teacher echoed the conception of grammar as a rule. She spoke to the class that "I taught grammar a lot, grammar is boring, there are many rules in learning grammar, however, grammar is helpful for speaking, writing and reading, we can analyze sentence order for understanding reading" (Field notes, 09/08/2009). Similarly, one of the United States born teacher stated that "Grammar is defined as rules governing to speak/write, parts of speech, something related to conjugation and invitation (Field notes, 09/08/2009). Another one also stated that "Grammar is a correct rule, students learn grammar to know vocabulary, pronunciation and achieve certain vocabulary level" (Field notes, 09/08/2009). Both the United States born and international EFL teachers shared their

understanding of grammar which was dominantly informed by the traditional or behaviorist perspective.

The repeated conception of grammar as a formula shows the significant influence of the behaviorist perspective on a conception of grammar. Like other teachers, Chenling came with a perspective which was in opposition to a sociocultural perspective of language, within which SFL and genre based pedagogy, that is, the content of the course is situated. For example, when Chenling participated in a small group discussion to share her readings on the assigned chapters of Knapp and Watkins' (2005) *Genre, text, and grammar: Technologies for teaching and assessing writing and* Schleppegrell's (2004) *The language of schooling,* Chenling showed a conflicting perspective with the readings. Chenling looked prepared with papers and notes, then she opened a conversation.

Chenling	:	About grammar, yes Schleppegrell or Knap and Watkins? so: :
Wawan	:	yes, so did you have a chance to read the book?
Chenling	:	((Hesitating)) -----I just checked the book ((Hesitating)) ----- culture ((Hesitating)) ----- genre based
Wawan	:	that 's right they are in the book, yes I know the title is grammar.
Chenling	:	yeah, ((smile)) I just checked ((hesitating)) -----the book all the content is genre but the title is grammar.
Wawan	:	right/right/right
An ESL US born teacher (EUS)	:	mmhhh yes I am looking at it and I (unaudible) that the book is working language grammar from genre perspective (inaudible), So we learn the grammar of language and then we can apply it in ((hestitating)) ----- writing.
Chenling	:	((hesitating)) ----- I see it is about writing, so what is it connected as genre as ((hesitating)) ----- I feel hard to connect ---- Writing and genre based ----
Wawan	:	right ----- that' ----- (inaudible)
EUS	:	yes, if you look at the ----- (inaudible)
Chenling	:	yeaaah ((excited)) That's right, it is hard to connect it, I always think that grammar is verb, noun -----
EUS	:	That's right/right/ and I think she's always thinking in ….
Chenling	:	right/right/right/ ((laugh)) ----- ((everyone laughed))
EUS	:	I think this is to support teacher and students literacy through the genre based -----
Chenling	:	yes/yes/ ((hesitating)) -----I just noticed about the name (referring to genre)

Wawan	:	ok . So what is your understanding about grammar from the book?
Chenling	:	yeah I think it's very hard to think of genre as part of grammar ---
EUS	:	It was …. (inaudible)

(Field notes, 9/29/09)

In this conception, grammar is related to the concepts of lexical and grammatical choices that simultaneously construe social relationships and experiences of the world, different kinds of meanings and social contexts, and texts of different types. However, Chenling held back her belief in SFL and read the book from a different perspective of understanding grammar. For example, she proposed a question of grammar in relation to the term "genre" as she believed that grammar was a separate entity from a text (a genre of texts).

In following weeks, class activities consisted of learning to analyse texts. Through a textual analysis, Chenling's conception of grammar shifted toward wrapping up the concept of grammar at the level of lexicogrammatical and discourse semantics. This movement began when Chenling chose to analyze a narrative *In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson* by Bette Bao Lord. It is a well known text narrating a young girl who emigrated to San Fransisco from China in the 1950s. She was convinced that a narrative text was an important genre that students needed to learn even in the EFL contexts although it was not officially enforced in a middle school curriculum in Taiwan. Chenling said "a narrative text is common and the text that students should know" (Interview, 30/11/2009).

Through the analysis of the narrative text, Chenling noticed the genre moves and register choices typically found in narratives. At the genre level, Chenling noticed that a model of a narrative text had genre moves similar to other narratives and to what experts had identified. In this sense, a narrative consists of "orientation, complication, evaluation, and resolution" (Midterm Paper, 10/17/2009, pp. 11 – 12). At the register level, Chenling also found how appraisal and modality were used to express varying degrees of attitude and emotion due to "the author's personal experience being an immigrant in America" (Midterm Paper, 10/17/2009, p. 14), and how circumstances, pronouns, conjunction developed thematization

of the text. For example, in noticing the use of circumstances, Chenling underlined the dominant use of "circumstances to connect the relative details into one clause that is the way to indicate writing skills and to create readers' imagination" (p. 14) and the prominent use of details to support the theme of the story. She also reported that tracking participants would help trace the relations of other characters to the main character. This tracking activity involved lexical chaining from which she would teach pronoun referencing which could help students understand the trajectory of the main character. Reflecting on her analysis, Chenling was assured that noticing "the features of the narrative genre which teachers are familiar with will improve teaching in a more efficient way" (p. 22). Therefore, she argued that "using genre based pedagogy to teach writing may be more reasonable approach for students to realize how to write" (p. 22).

Having identified the genre and register features of an expert text, Chenling extended to an analysis of a student text for the purpose of providing feedback for the student's writing improvement. In this activity, Chenling and her group members focused on an expository text written by a seventh grade student named "Adam", an ESL student from Malaysia. For this course, Chenling and her group observed Adam in class, collected curricular materials and samples of his writing, and interviewed him as well as his teacher. The analysis was focused on a unit of study that required Adam to read a novel: *A Step from Heaven* by An Na and to write a reflection on the experiences of immigrants in America as depicted in the novel. In the time of data collection, Adam who had been in the United States for five years was transitioned from an ESL pull out/bilingual program to the inclusion program with ELL support and the Special Ed for reading/writing. It was reported that Adam had a better command of English than Chinese.

In analyzing Adam's text, Chenling conducted a genre analysis by comparing common moves in an expository genre and Adam's expository genre moves. Her competent analysis is evidenced in showing the differences of genre moves in a table from which she could describe Adam's expository text. Then she reported:

> *His writing strategy is straight forward and prefers to report the fact to describe, who was involved and, what did they do, which is hard for readers to realize his position, not to mention the function of his*

> *essay, appealing to readers' thought to further convince of his words.* (Final Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 15)

While explicating the use of modality in constructing an authoritative stance, Chenling related this point to the genre of Adam's text. She convincingly described that Adam's text:

> *Used language as one way to only tell a summary of story, his example and his points, but he is not good at using modality to explain reasonable relations among these. When I read Adam's text, it is better for me to regard it as a narrative essay and not an expository to embed his thinking to keep his position.* (Final Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 16)

Chenling's argument was coupled with her analysis in which she noticed that Adam followed the template for a "five paragraph essay" that the teacher showed the class to use.

At the level of register analysis, Chenling showed her knowledge of SFL concept of analyzing texts. For example, she could identify participant, process, and circumstance types and quantitatively displayed the distribution of the registers. She noted a clear thesis in Adam's text, that is, *nothing is impossible, if you stick to it* and some quotes as stipulated by his teacher to support his claims as stated in the thesis statement. Drawing on a description of Adam's text, Chenling analytically commented on Adam's text. First, Adam used the quotes to "narrate facts objectively from the book" rather than taking "a position" and "showing his critical thinking." Second, Adam dominantly used "concrete participants" (e.g., the mother, the father, the daughter, the book, I, An Na) rather than "abstract participants" to relate to the issues of immigrants. Third, she found that Adam's text was not built on good theme/rhyme patterns using nominalizations, echoing her previous finding that the text lacked abstract participants. Referencing to Schleppegrell (2004), she argued:

> *Adam did not build his arguments from clause to clause, increasingly re-packaging and re-presenting information as nominalized participants in the ensuing clauses. Instead, he often remains focused on the same participant, especially concrete participants as theme, in a way that is more typical of narrative than expository writing.* (Final Semester Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 20)

Based on her analytical findings in Adam's text, Chenling proposed an action plan to develop literacy practices of students in secondary English classes. Chenling recommended comparing the model text to less successful texts in term of genre structures by identifying the differences between narrating a story and persuading readers in writing; clarifying the function of each genre move in different model texts; and providing support for students in noticing nouns/noun phrases and nominalization and in turning nouns into abstract participants or nominalization process.

Table 1: The Use of SFL and Genre Based Approach to Design Literacy Instruction

Teacher	**Reading Material**	**Use of SFL/genre theory in designing reading instruction**	**Student writing sample**	**Use of SFL/genre theory in designing writing instruction**
Chenling	Narrative *In the* Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson by Bette Bao Lord	Analyze genre moves to support comprehension Support students in tracking participants and creating lexical chains to assist students in following the pathway of the main character	Response to literature produced by 8th-grade ELL in mainstream English class	Model/compare genre moves associated with narrating verses making an argument Highlight the difference between using concrete participants in narrating a story versus abstract ones in making an argument Teach nominalization as a way to support the building of an argument

(Adapted from Gebhard, Graham, Chen, & Gunawan, 2013)

Chenling maintained a conception of grammar based on a more functional conception of language and language learning as shown over the final assignments of the courses in a transition to actual teaching (see Table 1).

5 A Conception of Grammar in an Actual Teaching Situation: Dominant Roles of a Textbook

Upon completing her MATESOL, Chenling returned to

Taiwan. In September 2011, she began teaching in the same middle school in Matsu Taiwan as she taught before she was admitted in the MATESOL program in the United States. She had been familiar with the institution and the teachers working in the school. After a month of teaching, she confirmed that she did not teach academic writing (Email exchanges, 10/12/2011). The following information gave me more assurance about how she conducted an EFL instruction in Taiwan:

> *I follow the textbook in terms of warm-up, vocabulary, dialogue, focus sentence pattern (oral practice), reading, listening exercise. I will prepare assessments in terms of vocabulary, recite the dialogue and reading, and one general examination of the whole unit. I have to finish the textbook at the end of the semester. For each semester, we will have three term examinations of each subject. They are kinds of major assessments in our school which are similar to other schools in Taiwan. (Email exchange, 10/12/2011)*

The choice of a textbook drove her to reemploy her behaviorist conception of language and language learning. There are two main crucial ensuing instructional practices in her one year teaching experience as a result of taking up a collegially agreed textbook. First, the textbook guided her to make a decision about what and how to teach. As she reported, the selected textbook became the main curriculum that informed the chapter-based lessons she had to cover in 21 weeks including textbook-based content assessments. Second, in addition to a whole instruction in one year of her actual teaching, the selected textbook shaped how she positioned herself with regard to her MATESOL-based pedagogical knowledge in part informed by a more functional perspective of grammar to support academic literacy learning and development. Chenling chose the book for grade 7 based on her colleagues' decision about which textbook was considered the best to use. She informed that the textbook will not be changed unless there is a big argument among the teachers in the school (Email exchange, 3/10/2010). For grade 7, the teachers chose "iEnglish for 7th grade". She informed that "at the end of each semester, my colleagues and I will have a meeting to decide which version of textbooks to use in the following semester … we would share our experiences on different textbooks, and do the best choice for incoming students" (Email exchange, 8//2012). Although

the school gave teachers flexibility on the approach to instructional practices (Email exchange, 8//2012), the textbook, which was selected on the basis of a consensus among the teachers in the school brought significant impacts on how Chenling prepared and implemented EFL instruction.

Chenling took a positioning with regard to EFL teaching practices based on what her colleagues and institutions needed to improve students' English. The message from the institution and colleagues was manifested in the choice of the textbook as a consensus determined before the semester began. The decision mainly shaped her classroom practices which addressed a tiny little writing instruction at a sentence level. This practice has set aside her functional perspective of language and language learning, which focuses on writing at a discourse level.

In an interview through email exchanges, Chenling explained her teaching practice briefly by responding to each of my proposed questions. She provided the answers below my questions in replying to my email.

Wawan : Do your students use English for academic writing? If yes, can you give examples of what they learn? Do they learn to write a story, for a text, or for a particular subject matter (e.g., writing for science)?

Chenling : Sorry for the part. The answer is no.

Wawan : If your students don't use English for writing, what are they learning English for?

Chenling : pass exams and involve them in the culture of English such as English songs, reading a comic book, short stories to introduce cultural differences, watching and listening videos and audios for listening and also introducing some signs which I took from Toronto such as "yard sale". "50% off". "Mother sale"..... to help them have more understanding and knowledge of "English speaking" culture, and I will want them to have a role play in English at the end of the semester. Reading is a big part in my lesson plan. I don't want them to learn English in a small piece, like word by word or sentence by sentence, but I prefer to teach them to have an understanding of contexts.

(Email exchange, 3/10/2012)

Academic literacy learning such as reading and writing across the curricular subjects is not included in her instructional design and practices. Despite her enthusiasm to teach reading by including

contexts which may include contexts at a textual level, she had no intention to teach writing. The main objectives of her teaching are related to an effort to have students pass exams and improve their speaking skills by recognizing how people in English speaking countries manage their spoken communications.

The influence of the textbook appeared to have changed her developed functional conception of language and language learning. The choice of the textbook represented the content of EFL teaching and learning which was considered urgent for students in the school. The most urgent needs for the students in grades 7 and 8, as Chenling described, were for reading and listening. From my perspective and observation with regard to the way in which she developed a more functional perspective of language and language learning, she could have used SFL/genre based pedagogy for analyzing a reading text and teaching reading comprehension because she had experience in analyzing a text over the courses in the MATESOL program. However, as the textbook was framed in the format of learning of word and grammar part at the level of recognition, she followed phases of learning based on the textbook. For example, as guided by the textbook, she taught reading sentence by sentence and facilitated the students with repetitive reading aloud practices to enhance the students' reading and listening skills (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). With regard to teaching of speaking, she could also have explored the conception of genre and language from a functional perspective because what she had developed was useful to analyze a spoken communication in a particular context.

6 CONCLUSIONS

As the findings of the study reveal, the teacher shows a shifting conception of grammar from the behaviorist to a more functional perspective of language and language learning in the teacher education program. Further, the shifting conception of grammar into the behaviorist framework of language and language learning was not considered problematic especially when she shifted her conception of grammar from the functional into the behaviorist perspective in her actual teaching. The blissful shift from the functional perspective of grammar to the traditional perspective one is caused by the excitement to be able to respond to the institutional

and local demands of language learning, that is, for the sake of discrete grammar assessment. The shift is not due to her disability to understand SFL/genre based pedagogy as a language teaching approach which attends to text and context dynamics or lack of her ability to design a more contextual and functional curriculum design but it is due more to the influences of assessment driven curriculum (as stated in Gebhard, et. al, 2013).

The portrait of Chenling in making sense of and implementing a more functional perspective of grammar, in responding to the challenges of the implementation in the local context of teaching, and in positioning herself with regard to L2 writing in EFL contexts supports a theorization which explains that teacher learning is personal, prolonged, and situated by a sociocultural context. This study case instantiates how teachers manage interacting factors such as the contexts after, before, and during teaching, which affect their pedagogical knowledge development. Chenling had to deal with the conflict of incorporating her thoughts, beliefs, and knowledge into the teaching and learning design. The impact of the conflict was manifested in how she showed vacillation at some points. For example, she oscillated between a more functional approach to academic literacy learning and development and a more structural perspective of teaching; a robust scaffolding and a rush to train learners to be good test takers; including the teaching of writing as a meaning making and making it as only a vehicle to understand aspects of grammar.

The implications relate to a current trend in a teacher education program, research into SFL/genre-based conception of grammar in EFL contexts, and necessary attention to students' need for academic literacy practices. In a more specific connection to this case study is the way teachers develop their SFL/based conception of grammar. This field could be explored more to contribute to the body of the research in EFL contexts which are currently limited. As sociocultural changes in a local context continuously unfold, research on teachers' education and learning in a longitudinal way to provide an in depth portrait of how teachers develop SFL/genre-based conception of grammar and actualize it in teaching situations could be explored to have more descriptions of teacher knowledge development across contexts.

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5 READING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: WHAT ELSE IS IMPORTANT BESIDES SKILLS AND STRATEGIES?

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1. INTRODUCTION

For the past few decades, L2 reading pedagogy has been heavily influenced by findings from research into reading strategies, so much so that teaching L2 reading is often considered synonymous with teaching a set of reading strategies. Reading strategies such as skimming, scanning, predicting, activating prior knowledge, guessing new words from textual and contextual clues are particularly popular with L2 teachers. Thus it is not uncommon to see a reading lesson where the teacher spends most of the classroom time explaining and showing students how these strategies could be used to help them comprehend a reading passage. Often so much time is spent on teaching these strategies that one wonders whether students actually do any meaningful reading practice in the reading lesson. As Field (2002) rightly pointed out, L2 students are often asked to do many reading-related activities that may not contribute directly to the development of their reading ability. She further points out that what students need most in a reading class is not just learning how to use reading skills and strategies, but to actually be engaged in frequent and meaningful reading of text, where students focus their attention on the most important thing about reading, i.e., understanding and appreciating what the author of the reading passage is trying to convey to the readers.

The purpose of this paper is to examine two major approaches to teaching reading: a strategy-based and text-based approaches. The

former views reading strategies as a critical factor that influences students' reading development; the latter on the other hand considers the text as the focal point of learning, i.e., the text itself provides a major source of students' reading development. While both views are supported by research, I would argue that for many students for whom English is a foreign language and who generally have not acquired sufficient proficiency in the language, the text-based approach (e.g., via extensive reading) might be more useful for this group of learners than the strategy-based approach.

2. WHAT DOES RESEARCH TELL US ABOUT READING STRATEGIES?

I should state from the outset that reading strategies are not without values, and that judicious teaching of strategies can indeed make a difference in enhancing students' comprehension. However, we need to be mindful of what research actually tells us about the usefulness of reading strategies in L2 reading. Below is a brief summary of research into reading strategy instruction:

(a) Strategy instruction can improve students' comprehension. In general, research has shown that students can benefit from reading strategy instruction. Teaching students to make predictions before reading, ask questions during reading, and summarize key points during and after reading and monitor their comprehension, for example, has been shown to increase students' comprehension of the text (Cotterall, 1990; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Png, 2010).

(b) While strategy instruction can be useful, there is no strong evidence that **all** reading strategies are equally effective in helping students read with better comprehension. Dilingham (2006/7) did a review on reading strategy instruction and concluded that only a handful of reading strategies consistently produced positive results. Included in the list of empirically supported reading strategies are those that enable students to check and monitor their comprehension, and a group of strategies intended to help students connect ideas between sentences in a text (e.g., summarizing, graphic organizers and story structure).

(c) The impact of strategy instruction varies widely. In a small

number of studies, the effect size of the strategy instruction is substantial (Palincsar & Brown, 1984), but in others (e.g., Dabarera, Renandya & Zhang, 2014), the effect size is quite negligible, that is, the improvement that students made following strategy instruction is not that educationally meaningful.

(d) Research shows that good readers differ from poor readers in terms of the number of strategies they have and, more importantly, in terms of how effectively they use these strategies in reading. The general conclusion is that compared to poor readers, good readers have a larger number of strategies and can use them singly or in combination more effectively to enhance their reading experience and improve their comprehension. However, the relationship between strategy use and reading ability is not always straightforward. Are good readers good because they possess a larger number of strategies and use these effectively while poor readers are poor because they don't? While some researchers seem to think so (see Cohen & Macaro, 2007), others have different views (e.g., Skehan, 1989). The latter group of researchers maintain that good readers are normally linguistically proficient and the strategies they use when they read are simply the result of their high proficiency in the language. Skehan (1989) for example notes that: "... learner strategies do not determine proficiency, *but are permitted by it*" (p. 97, emphasis in original).

(e) Not all students can benefit from strategy instruction. There are two things to note here. First, some students may already be using certain strategies in their reading quite efficiently, so teaching them strategies that they are already familiar with may not be useful or may in fact confuse them. Secondly, for L2 learners whose proficiency in the language is still at the lower end of the scale, strategy instruction may not be effective. When students have not fully developed automaticity in lower level processes (e.g., word recognition and sentence parsing), they may not be able to build a text model of comprehension, much less a situation model of comprehension which requires higher level processes (Grabe, 2009).

(f) Brief, rather than long and intensive, instruction on strategies.

As pointed out by Willingham (2006/7), brief instruction on reading strategies can be as effective as that which requires more extended instruction and practice. He further pointed out that comprehension strategy is '… easy to learn and use, and the only difficulty is to consistently remember to apply it" (p. 44). Thus, extended teaching and practice of strategies may not be the most productive ways of using classroom time.

3. THE TRANSFER HYPOTHESIS

Some thirty years ago, Alderson (1984) wrote a thought-provoking chapter entitled "Reading in a foreign language: A reading problem or language problem?" The question he posed was as relevant back then as it is today. This is because the answer to this question would have important pedagogical implications. If reading in a foreign language is indeed a reading problem, then one would design a reading course that gives a heavy emphasis on the teaching of reading skills and strategies. The course might be organized around the notion of skills and strategies, which as was pointed out in the earlier section of this paper, seems to be the major approach adopted by most contemporary L2 reading courses. But on the other hand, if reading in a foreign language is in fact a language problem, then the approach to teaching L2 reading would be quite different as L2 reading teachers would focus more on developing their students' language skills rather than their reading skills.

Research is not conclusive but my sense is that reading in a foreign language is more of a language problem than a reading problem. Skills and strategies that L2 readers have acquired and used in their first language are largely transferable. Some reading skills or strategies such as skimming and scanning should be readily transferable across different languages. So if students are good at skimming and scanning when reading a newspaper in their L1, they should be able to do the same when doing it in their L2. When students fail to do skimming and scanning in the L2, one should not jump to conclusion and say that these L2 students lack skimming and scanning skills. It is highly possible that they in fact have the strategies but are unable to apply them because they are too busy trying to figure out the meanings of numerous unfamiliar words in the text. It's also possible that because they lack experience reading in a foreign language, they are exhibiting

reading behaviours of early readers who tend to read word by word with a rather slow reading rate.

Some L2 reading researchers (e.g., Clark, 1980) have suggested that L2 readers will need to reach a certain threshold of proficiency before they can transfer their L1 reading skills and strategies into their L2 reading. This threshold level probably lies in the intermediate range (Renandya, 2012). Based on my experience and observation, students need to reach at least a B2 level on the CEFR Scale before they can seamlessly transfer their L1 reading skills and strategies into their L2 reading. More research in this area is needed as understanding the nature of this threshold can help inform both L2 reading theory and practice.

There is some preliminary data from the L2 listening literature that seems to support the existence of this threshold level. Zhang (2005) investigated two different modes of instruction by dividing up her middle school (secondary) students into two groups. The first group, the listening strategy group, received training on listening strategies, and the second group, the extensive listening group, received extensive exposure to listening materials via teacher read alouds (see Renandya & Farrell, 2011, for more details). At the end of the six-week long experiment (approximately 42 hours of listening sessions), Zhang's extensive listening students performed significantly better in the cloze and recall listening tests than the strategy-based students. Of interest here is that while the students in the listening strategy group seemed to have learned the strategies taught, they seemed to have difficulty applying these strategies! What one student in the strategy group says about the strategy training is telling (Zhang, 2005, cited in Renandya & Farrell, 2011, p. 57):

I've hardly had the chance to use the strategies I've been taught because I have great difficulty in recognizing the words in the sentences. I always try to catch the words when I listen, but it is so hard for me. The strategies may be good, but they are not so useful for me. I mean it doesn't really help me when I listen. I feel that it is impossible for me to balance these two things well at the same time. I think I first need to attend to the most important thing for me . . . " If the threshold really exists and that students can in fact transfer their L1 reading skills and strategies into their L2 reading, then perhaps it is wise not to invest too much time of teaching

reading skills and strategies in our L2 reading lessons. Some SLA experts (e.g., Krashen, 2011) have in fact suggested some popular strategies such as predicting and inferencing are probably "innate", and therefore, "don't need to be taught" (p. 388). Krashen (2011) contends that we make predictions and inferences all the time. We use these "strategies" when we listen or read in our first language and when we do other things in life. And we do this quite naturally. The only time we stop predicting or making inference is when we are baffled or when we experience 'temporary processing overload' (Swan, 2008, p. 267).

What Swan refers to as 'temporary processing overload', unfortunately, happens all too often in many L2 classrooms, in particular when students struggle with a reading text that is several levels beyond their current linguistic competence. When students have to read a frustratingly demanding text, they are likely to be bewildered and experience a cognitive overload, resulting in their not being able to use the reading strategies that they already know and use in their L1 reading. Thus, teaching strategies that learners already possess and use does not seem like the most productive way of using classroom instructional time.

4. TEXT-BASED APPROACH: EXTENSIVE READING

I am using this term "Text-based Approach" to refer to a range of approaches (e.g., shared book reading, interactive reading, extensive reading, repeated reading, pleasure reading etc.) that put the text as the focal point of learning. In these approaches, students are encouraged to read the whole text for comprehension and enjoyment, first with the help of the teachers and later, after they have become more linguistically confident, on their own with minimal or no help from their teachers.

One approach that has gained popularity with L2 reading researchers and practitioners is extensive reading (ER). The theory behind ER can be traced back to the work of Stephen Krashen and his comprehensible input theory. Put simply, the comprehensible input theory states that we learn language by understanding messages, that is, when we understand what people say to us and when we comprehend what we read (Krashen, 2004). The hypothesis states that the following conditions are needed for language learning to

take place:

- the input is abundant and regularly available
- the input is comprehensible
- the input contains language that is slightly above students' current level of competence.

The three conditions above are likely to be met (though not fully) when students are engaged in ER, i.e., when read large amounts of comprehensible and interesting texts regularly over a period of time, focusing on the overall meaning of the texts (and not so much on the language elements such as words, phrases, complex grammatical constructions etc.). Many scholars (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998; Maley, 2005; Nuttall, 2005) have suggested that ER is a great way to improve not only L2 readers' reading ability but also the other areas of language skills. Summarizing years of research on the benefits of extensive reading (ER), Bamford & Day (2004, p.1) conclude:

Good things happen to students who read a great deal in the foreign language. Research studies show they become better and more confident readers, they write better, their listening and speaking abilities improve, and their vocabularies become richer. In addition, they develop positive attitudes toward and increased motivation to study the new language.

The empirical support for ER has now been document by extensive reading scholars. More than 500 works on extensive reading from various sources e.g., journal articles, book chapters, books, graduate theses and dissertations have now been catalogued and annotated (see http://erfoundation.org/wordpress/er-bibliography/). New evidence keeps emerging, including a recent meta-analysis research extensive reading by Nakanishi (2015) which provides compelling evidence for extensive reading. Her analysis shows that extensive reading is generally associated with substantial language learning gains, especially when it is implemented over a longer period of time.

4.1 Benefits of ER

There are numerous benefits associated with ER (Extensive Reading Foundation, 2011; Jacobs & Farrell, 2012). When students read extensively over a period of time, their reading fluency improves and their ability to comprehend texts also increases. Discussed below

are more specific benefits students can get from ER (Renandya, Hu & Yu, in press; Renandya & Jacobs, forthcoming; Renandya & Jacobs, 2002).

(a) ER helps L2 learners to read at a faster rate (Day & Bamford, 1998). Faster reading speed is important for fluent reading. When students read too slowly, they will not have enough cognitive resources to comprehend the overall message of the text. ER can help them develop their word recognition skills, enabling them to move over words in meaningful chunks with sufficient speed, with ease and with greater comprehension.

(b) Students who do ER develop a better 'feel' of the grammar of the target language. In formal classroom settings, students are introduced to grammar rules and conventions, which, while useful, may be of limited value. They know the rules but often find that they cannot use them for real communication. In ER, students repeatedly encounter a variety of grammatical patterns in contexts that allow them to develop a better sense of how these grammatical constructions are used to communicate meaningful messages. Not surprisingly, students who read a great deal develop a deeper sense of how grammar works in context, which in turn enable them to use this grammar for real communication (Ellis, 2005).

(c) ER can increase and deepen students' vocabulary knowledge. When students read in quantity, they have multiple meaningful encounters with words and word patterns. Over time, their vocabulary size tends to increase and they also develop a deeper understanding of the words. Words learned in this way can be more readily incorporated into students' speech and writing (Nation, 2007).

(d) Students' knowledge base also increases. As students read a variety of reading material as part of ER, they become more knowledgeable about many different topics. Research suggests that successful reading requires both language and content knowledge. ER not only helps students develop language skills, but also expands their knowledge base. They know more about different subjects and how these are presented in different text types (e.g., recounts, expositions, and narratives). With increased knowledge base, students are

able to read a diverse range of topics more fluently and with greater comprehension.

(e) ER can boost students' confidence and motivation. L2 students, especially those with low proficiency, often find learning English a frustrating experience. They often have to deal with reading passages that are several levels beyond their current proficiency level. These students often report that their confidence and motivation level becomes lower and lower as time goes by and they finally lose their interest in learning English. When they read materials that are within (or sometimes slightly below) their competence, they can read with greater enjoyment and comprehension, thus helping them become more confident and motivated readers.

(f) ER helps students develop more positive attitudes towards reading. Students who read in quantity and enjoy what they read often report having more positive attitudes towards reading and becoming more eager to go beyond their comfort zone and explore a wider variety of texts, including more challenging texts. Their positive attitudes often have positive influences on the other skill areas of language learning, such as listening, speaking, and writing. They become more confident listeners, speakers, and writers.

(g) Finally, there is a good chance that, with time, students can develop a healthy reading habit. A good reading habit is the ultimate goal of a reading programme. Students who can read with confidence and a great sense of enjoyment are likely to develop a healthy reading habit. Once they have developed this habit, they are more likely to continue to read extensively on their own without the need for the teacher to continually encourage them to do their reading.

4.2 Issues and concerns

However, despite strong empirical evidence demonstrating the benefits of ER and recommendations by ELT experts that ER be made an important part of a language programme, it has not always been fully embraced by teachers. While many acknowledge the importance of ER, there are some practical concerns that often hinder the full adoption of ER in the classroom. Some of these

concerns are summarised below (Brown, 2009; Day & Bamford, 2002; Renandya, 2007; Renandya, Hu & Yu, in press; Renandya & Jacobs, forthcoming). Note however that while these concerns are valid, and we need to continue to find ways to deal with them, they are not a criticism of the theoretical underpinnings of ER. As was discussed in the previous sections, the theory behind ER is sound, and the empirical evidence for ER is quite strong. Many classroom practitioners seem to be aware of this too; it's just that they have not found the most effective ways of implementing ER in their already packed L2 curriculum.

(a) Many teachers say that they are keen to implement ER, but they often run into difficulties as schools often have limited resources to purchase reading materials. Lack of funding is often cited as a key reason for the lack of suitable reading and listening materials. For the more well-resourced schools, the administrators may not be fully informed about the salutary benefits of ER and are therefore reluctant to allocate sufficient resources for the programme. Of course, teachers can turn to online reading materials, which are widely and freely available, but lack of Internet access and their busy schedules prevent them from allocating time to compile suitable materials for ER.

(b) The effect of ER is often delayed, not immediate. Students don't make noticeable improvements in the first few months. In fact, it may take up to one year to see tangible effects on learners' language development (Renandya, Hu & Yu, in press). Since teachers are often under pressure to produce tangible results of their teaching (e.g., students doing better on tests and examinations), many tend to avoid projects that require a big investment of time but its effect on learning is not immediately observable. Not surprisingly, some prefer to invest their time and effort on the more traditional approaches to teaching such as intensive reading, which focuses more on skills and strategies and which teachers have found to yield more immediate effects on students' reading performance on examinations.

(c) ER is often implemented as an out-of-class or extracurricular activity where students are expected to self-select their reading and listening materials and read them in their free time. While

there have been reports of successful large scale ER projects (e.g., Davis, 1995; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Robb & Kano, 2013), smaller-scale, teacher initiated ER programmes are not as successful. What often happens is that after the initial enthusiasm, teachers may begin to feel overwhelmed by the amount of work related to the running of the programme. As Brown (2009) notes, "The main practical concerns regarding ER are to do with cost, lack of time, monitoring students' reading, managing the library of books, guiding students to choose appropriate books, and getting students engaged in reading " (p. 240).

(d) To get students started on ER, teachers often use curriculum time to provide students with opportunities to do silent reading and/or listening for a period of time. In the case of ER, during a USSR (Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading) session in the classroom, some teachers may feel awkward because they often view teaching as involving talking to and interacting with students, asking questions, explaining language points, arranging students to get students to do individual or group tasks. Day and Bamford (1998) make an excellent point when they say that when teachers walk into the classroom, they like to verbally engage the students in various teacher-guided activities; thus, being silent during a reading and listening lesson is something teachers (and students) do not normally associate with good teaching practice.

(e) Finally, a key concern that teachers and administrators share about ER relates to the issue of legitimacy. Students doing independent silent reading in class with the teachers silently observing them (or reading along with them) are often "not perceived as a class learning, let alone being taught, both by the students themselves and the school administration" (Prowse, 2002, p 144). Not surprisingly, ER is often seen optional extra, an activity that teachers use 'juts to keep students busy' when they don't have other important things to do.

5. CONCLUSION

It should be clear from the discussion here that while brief instruction on carefully selected comprehension skills and strategies

can be justified in L2 reading classrooms, the bulk of classroom instruction should be devoted to providing students with meaningful reading experiences, where they read a variety of highly interesting texts that fall within their linguistic competence. Pleasant and successful reading experience in the classroom may gradually lead to more independent reading outside the classroom, where students can be expected to regularly read much larger amounts of both print and non-print texts for information and enjoyment.

Marilyn Jager Adams, a renowned reading scholar, reminded us some 15 years ago that "Reading is best learned though reading" (Adams, 1998, p. 73). This may sound like simple advice that is simply too good to be true. Yet this simple, commonsensical way of learning to read in a foreign language has now received consistently strong empirical support. So compelling is the evidence that it's inconceivable for us to not try to apply Adams' principle in the reading classroom. The ER approach discussed in this paper is one excellent way in which students can develop higher and more sophisticated comprehension skills.

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6 THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER AS CHANGE-AGENT

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1. INTRODUCTION

The paper aims to discuss the roles of teachers as change-agents. Teachers have to become skilled at managing the change. They must have a commitment to change to exist after the learning process. Since teaching and learning processes involve teachers and learners, how learning and teaching interact should therefore be understood properly. A search for the terms learning and teaching in contemporary dictionaries reveals that learning is "acquiring or getting of knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction". A more specialized definition reads as follows: "Learning, is a relatively permanent change in behavioral tendency and is the result of reinforced practice". And teaching is defined as "showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something, providing with knowledge, causing to know or understand". If the above definitions are broken down, the components of learning definition can be extracted as follows.

1) Learning is acquiring or "getting."
2) Learning is retention of information or skill.
3) Retention implies storage systems, memory, cognitive organization.
4) Learning involves active, conscious, focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
5) Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
6) Learning is a change in behaviour.

It should be noted that teaching cannot be defined apart from learning. As stated by Gagne (1965:269), "to satisfy the practical demands of education, theories of learning must be "stood on their head so as to yield theories of teaching". Teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, and setting the conditions for learning. According to Skinner, learning is a process of operant conditioning through a carefully paced program of reinforcement, and teachers will teach accordingly. If second language teaching is viewed basically as a deductive rather than as an inductive process, copious rules and paradigms will be probably chosen for students rather than let them "discover" those rules inductively.

According to Harrison C and Joellen Killion (2007:74), there are ten roles of teachers including: (1) resource provider, (2) instructional specialist, (3) curriculum specialist, (4) classroom supporter, (5) learning facilitator, 6. mentor, (7) school leader, (8) data coach, (9) catalyst for change, and (10) learner. Based on these, it appears that teachers also exhibit leadership in multiple, and sometimes overlapping. Teachers shape the culture of the school because they improve student learning, and influence practice among their peers. The most important question that needs to be understood after mastering the roles of teachers is why teachers are considered as change-agents.

Teachers should become change-agents for they have to propose ways of understanding to support school and student success so that they can build the entire school's capacity to improve. This paper will discuss the change-agent process (which includes framing the problems, selecting an intervention point, selecting a strategy, and change-oriented activity) and, complemented by methods of language teaching particularly second language teaching. It is based on a library research followed by a descriptive qualitative analysis, which involves the process of inspecting, transforming, and modeling the data qualitatively with the goal of highlighting useful information, drawing conclusions, and supporting decision making of the study.

2. DISCUSSION

The discussion to follow begins with the concept of change-agent. Dalin (1973:36) states that 'change' and 'innovation' are often regarded as synonyms, they are defined as 'a deliberate attempt

either to improve practice in relation to certain existing objectives, or to introduce policies or functions related to new objectives'. The change-agent in innovation process may be defined by the number of roles he/she expected to fulfil, e.g. trainers, consultant, counselor, etc. (Chin and Benne, 1976). However, Bennis, (1976) states that the change-agent may be simply as 'the helper, the person or group who is attempting to effect change. It is interesting to note that a typical list of roles for the change-agent engaged in a process of educational innovation could be conveyor, consultant, trainer, leader, innovator, knowledge builder, practitioner, and user (Bolam, 1975). These roles appear overlapping and any change-agent may play several roles at one time. In this paper, the concept of change-agent developed by Bennis, (1976) is used.

The change-agent process consisting of framing the problems, selecting an intervention point, selecting a strategy, and change-oriented activity, and method in language teaching particularly second language teaching will be described in details below.

2.1 The Change- Agent Process

The task of a teacher is to bring about the desired change residing chiefly in his or her expertise in the professional discipline or technical discipline of the school which is targeted for change. The change-agent process can take place when the desired change brought about by transfer of professional discipline knowledge and skills are realized. That is to say, the level of the school at which the teacher is requested to intervene is the individual (e.g. behavioral system of individual staff assigned to this task), and the interventions at higher or wider levels of the organization (school), particularly the head master. The policy of the school is ready for this change so that the school has power to effect the change.

It is very common that in teaching a foreign language, teachers are bound to bring about a change if they have good qualifications and standing in their academic discipline as change-agents. The contribution of professional teachers will be determined by their ability as strategists or change-agents. A change that only takes place at the level of teachers may be necessary, but not sufficient yet to bring the desired change. Therefore, changes must also be necessary at higher levels or the organization, e.g. work group, parent

organization, and school or event at the level of school's environment, e.g. government department, ministry or relevant policy-determining parent institution. Both teachers and the organization systems must have commitment as change-agents.

It is interesting to note that what are needed to be assessed at the planning stage as an adequate commitment and power to bring about the change may prove inadequate to the scope of change actually identified as necessary at the implementation stage. It seems that the desire to change is sometimes inevitable, the key point of a change-agent is knowing how to overcome the resistance. An effective change-agent must be a strategist, i.e. he or she must have a capability of devising strategies for harnessing the power to bring about objectives. Teachers must also have the role of change-agent to their repertoire, i.e. experienced teachers. Change-agents are made not born, but they can be trained.

The Restructuring Committee of the University of Toronto (1992b) have completed a pilot project and proposed that every teacher should be committed to, and skilled in:

1) working with all students in an equitable, effective, and caring manner by respecting diversity in relation to ethnicity, race, gender, and special needs of each learner;
2) being active learner who continuously seek, assess, apply, and communicate knowledge as reflective practitioners throughout their careers;
3) developing and applying knowledge of curriculum, instruction, principles of learning, and evaluation needed to implement and monitor effective and evolving programs for all learners;
4) initiating, valuing, and practicing collaboration and partnerships with students, colleagues, parents, community, government, and social and business agencies;
5) appreciating and practicing the principles, ethics, and legal responsibilities of teaching as a profession;
6) developing a personal philosophy of teaching which is formed by and contributes to the organizational, community, societal, and global contexts of education.

The framework of how a change-agent takes place will be presented below.

2.1.1 Framing the problems

Teachers have really important roles to frame the problems faced by students since the ability of the students is varied. According to Gardner and Smythe, P. C., (1983), every student has his or her own intelligence that will be different from one to another, including:

1) verbal/linguistic intelligence
2) musical intelligence
3) logical/mathematical intelligence
4) spatial/visual intelligence
5) bodily kinesthetic intelligence
6) interpersonal intelligence
7) intrapersonal intelligence

In this context, the role of teachers as a change-agent is really important because change-agent bring with them corresponding requirements for particular skills, e.g. identifying and isolating problems and tasks, setting priorities, deciding appropriate methods, encouraging, motivating, praising, recognizing, providing time for discussion, counselling, consulting, changing from the bottom-up, etc. (Adair, 1973). To be successful a change-agent needs a range of leadership, facilitator, and communication skills as mentioned by Adair (1973). As a facilitator, a teacher needs to understand how to design and develop the materials for teaching. The materials for teaching must be in accordance with the levels of the students; the given materials are not too hard or too easy. If the materials are too difficult, the students can get frustrated easily, or if they are too easy the students will get bored. Therefore, the teachers have to design challenging materials. It is not good to blame students if they have problems in learning a language, and the teacher should frame the problems.

2.1.2 Selecting an intervention point

The main source of the resentence is from the bottom to the middle level manager (vice school head master). It seems that the school head master, for known personal reasons is unable to control the subordinate. The cooperation of school headmaster is important because he or she can control key resources and has organizational power to translate the purpose into action. The assistant's cooperation

is irrelevant for future purposes since he or she does not control the resources or does not have the power to make decisions, and this can resolute jealous hostility to the work team. The point of intervention is therefore top management who have the necessary commitment and power to school to enforce change.

It seems that the schools are facing a dilemma because on the one hand, schools are expected to engage in continuous improvement, and change expectation is not successful. On the other hand, the way how the teachers are trained, the schools are organized, the educational hierarchy operates, and the way how political decision makers treat educators result in a system that is more likely to retain the status quo. In order to avoid this resistance, a new conception of teacher professionalism that integrates moral purpose and change a gentry must be created, i.e. everyone must work simultaneously for institution development.

2.1.3 Selecting a strategy

School headmaster should be able to choose a strategy to create certain enabling conditions for change. The best strategy is to harness the power of the headmaster as a leader to vanquish the resistance by getting immediate action at the top level. Leaders usually make new rules and must uphold organizational values, particularly those such as loyalty and respect for hierarchical position which are important for legitimating their own authority. Thus, a strategy should be developed whereby invoking traditional values result in leaders enforcing the changed recruitment procedure.

The professional teachers must become a career-long learner of more sophisticated pedagogies and technologies and be able to form and reform productive collaborations with colleagues, parents, community agencies, and others. The teacher of the future must be equally at home in the classroom and working with others to endeavour for continuous improvement. It should be noted that systems do not change by themselves, but the action of individuals and small group working on new conceptions interact to produce breakthroughs (Fullan, 1993). New conceptions become new paradigms, therefore, the new paradigm for teacher professionalism synthesizes the forces of moral purpose and change-agent. Thus, teachers as change-agents are career-long learners, without which they would not be able to

stimulate students to be continuous learners.

2.1.4 Change-oriented activity

Selecting an appropriate change-oriented activity is to implement a strategy. Persuasion is the most appropriate communication styles. The attempt to persuade must link inextricably the appeal to reason with an appeal to the unconscious. Since the feeling components of the latter is the likeliest source of resistance to change the two must not be allowed to come into opposition.

Team teaching must have commitment to begin the task so that cooperation is sustainable. The ability to collaborate on both small and large scales becomes the most important point. However, personal strength, and open minded, hand-in-hand with effective collaboration in fact are forms and they are as important as the content. Personal mastery and group mastery thrive on each other in learning organization. Therefore, according to Fullan (1993) the moral purpose of teaching must be reconceptualized as change theme. Moral purpose without change-agent is martyrdom; and change-agent without moral purpose is change for the sake of change. In combination, not only are they effective in getting things done, but they are good at getting the right thing done. The implication for teacher education and for redesigning schools is profound. Ways of how teachers implement the change will be discussed below.

Fullan (1991) states that teachers need to be able to see how change benefits their students. He has proposed ways of implementing changes as follows:

1) Teachers should make observations and recorded the number of conflicts in certain places (if exist) after the changes have taken place in order the teacher can really see the difference;
2) The principal should ask the teachers to conduct small group activities, e.g. during the staff meeting, the principal encourages, praises the teacher for consistently doing small group activities. This indicates that the teachers need a lot of encouragement praises, and this is very important;
3) The principal should work together with the teachers to achieve the goals. It is realized that it is quite difficult to influence those who are senior, but if the approach and communication are good, the whole school got going well.

4) The principal and the teachers should work with the parents and have the parents convince the management.

Agent-change is implemented by using knowledge on learning to educate students and involved parents in the change process. In addition, the use of skills in observation or work together with teachers and principals are needed to implement changes.

The change-agent needs a realistic understanding because everything will not go very well, and failure may be the result of other factors. Thus change-agent has to learn how to manage the demands and stresses. Warmington (1975) proposes sources of stress which include:

1) problems of developing a new role as change-agent, including handling new concepts, the uncertainty of the new role, changed perception of the school or college as an organization, change reference, communication problems;
2) the outsider within the school or college: a change-agent may feel expose and isolated with the school and college or prestige to effect change, change-agent may feel stress because the change itself lacks credibility within the school or college, a change-agent may feel stress from having at the same time to play other roles within the school or college, and a change-agent has to take risks to implement change because this may backfire within the school or college and affect future prospects;
3) uncertainty about the actual task, consisting of both agent and the head department/principle will have unclear expectation about the task in hand, the boundaries of the task will be probably vague, criteria for successful performance of the task will be unclear, the stimulation of change in an uncertain task in itself, the credit for successful change may be claimed by others: the blame for difficulties and uncertainties may be attached to change-agent, the change/innovation itself may challenge existing values, policies, practices, and management styles in the school and college, and the legitimacy of the change/innovation may be attached.

2.2 Methods in Language Teaching

The discussion above on how change-agent process takes place is complemented with methods in language teaching, i.e. how people use sentences: use refers to receptive and productive activities or skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. Speaking and writing belong to active skills, while reading and listening are the passive ones. Jerome Bruner (1966b:40-71) notes that a theory of instruction should specify the following features.

1) The experiences which most effectively implant in the individual a predisposition toward learning,
2) The ways in which a body of knowledge should be structured so that it can be most readily grasped by learner
3) The most effective sequences in which to present the material to be learned
4) The nature and pacing of rewards and punishments in the process of learning and teaching

The purpose of teaching certain skills is to analyze the selection of strategies to teach the language, including:

(i) The ability to change the purposes
This is important because a school headmaster must have the inspiration to reevaluate the missions of the school. As a school manager, he or she must have the ability to translate the purpose into the program, and the students must have commitment to securing purposes.

(ii) The ability to acquire and mobilize resources
Resources such as books, equipment, etc. must be adequate for the purposes, and must be well allocated by the schools. The resources must be well-deployed and distributed to the students.

(iii) The ability to relate resources to ends effectively
Students must have or be able to acquire the basic knowledge acquired for the purposes. A school headmaster must ensure the right information arrives to the right students at the right time. Each student must be able to use information to make appropriate decisions.

(iv) The ability to sustain cooperation with students
Every student must have peace of mind to be effective in his or her class, in order to achieve this there must be a minimum of conflict between students and teachers. In addition, there must also be a minimum conflict between school organization and teachers. In teaching communication skill, the most appropriate method should be chosen because there are many methods in language teaching, below it will be presented a communicative method in teaching the language.

There are many methods in language teaching, but no research in this area indicates that one method is better than another so that teachers as change-agents must choose or combine techniques in language teaching. Four methods in language teaching are developed, they are inductive, deductive, functional, and affective. These methods will be described below.

2.2.1 Inductive Method

In learning a foreign language, some strategies need to be understood so that someone can master the language as well as his or her first language. The characteristic of this method in teaching a second or foreign language is not focusing on memory and grammar but on the use of the same strategies as the first language acquisition, and it is called inductive method. The inductive method is further divided into: (1) direct method, (2) intensive method, (3) contrasting teaching method, and (4) audio lingual method.

First, direct method refers to the use of a foreign language directly without referring to the first language. The characteristics of this method are the teacher must be a native speaker of the language because he or she uses the language as medium instruction. This is due to the situation that needs to be made as natural as possible, as if the learners learn their first language. At first, the students appear to be in the silent period, but gradually they are able to repeat words they heard in the class. The skills, i.e. listening and speaking are taught orally, and using audio visual aid, pictures, body language so that misunderstanding and mistakes can be avoided. Skills, e.g. writing and reading are taught after the students are able to

communicate or to use the target language. Second, the intensive method develops in the United States Army Specialized Training Program. This method combines natural aspect in language teaching and descriptive procedure of structural linguistics. In the learning process two teachers are involved i.e. one supposes to be a linguist, and another one is a tutor who will help the students to do exercises and oral practices. The activities consist of repetition, reinforcement, etc. Third, in the year of 1960's the contrastive teaching method was developed. This method gives explanation showing materials (problems) which are categorized as difficult, after that, the problems will be solved from the less difficult to the most difficult ones. Fourth, in audiolingual method, the use of a foreign language is only allowed in the learning process, but translation is not allowed occur in the learning process. The students will be taught beginning from small unit, i.e. phoneme, then how to form words (morphology), and finally compose sentences based on the sequences.

2.2.2 Deductive Method

Deductive method was first appeared in the year of 1970's. This method is also known as cognitive method, because it uses cognitive principles. This method does not only focus on sentences but also on the content of translation. The deductive method is also known as grammar translation. Grammar translation has two principles: (1) teaching the roles of the language and vocabulary, (2) translation practice. According to Chastain (1971:60), the characteristic of this method is the use of language roles, the use of dictionaries in translation process, i.e. from source language to the target one. This method emphasizes the equivalence of the source language. For practice, the students should master the grammar of the target language using the given vocabulary, then the students use their language competence to translate the source language to the target language or vice versa.

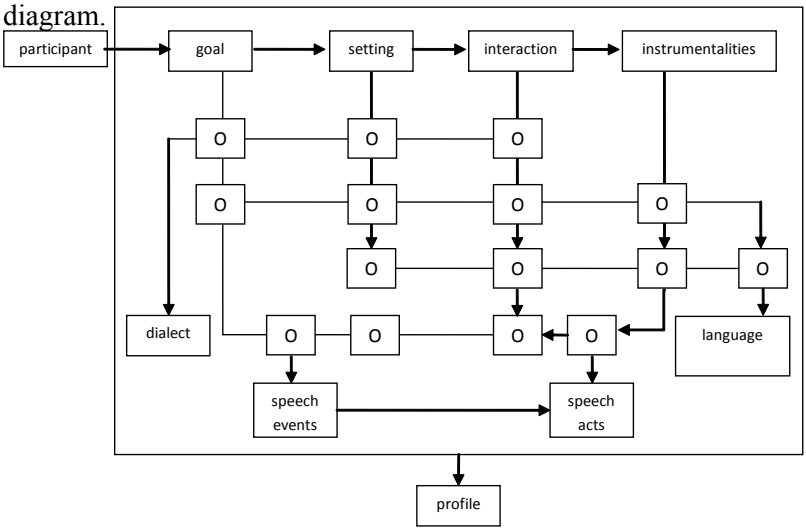
2.2.3 Functional Method

Inductive and deductive method generally focus on forms of the language, while functional method emphasizes the use of the language (language in use). The use of the target language to achieve certain goal, e.g. greeting, inviting, introducing, complaining,

agreeing, apologizing, etc. Lexical and grammatical patterns must be according to the communicative goal. The characteristics of this method are:

1) to make communication, at least there are two participants,
2) form and language content cannot be predicted,
3) communication can take place in a contact of situation which has variables such as roles, speech event, speech acts,
4) communication has goal,
5) communication has sociolinguistic characteristic to indicate speech levels,
6) communication uses ethnography of speaking,
7) communication uses logical thought,
8) communication has tendency.

The presentation of functional method is in the following diagram.



Mckay (1980) illustrates seven strategies for this method, including:

1) identification of the goal of the expression,
2) substitution, the students are asked to choose expressions that might be used for certain function,
3) completion of the dialogue, the students are asked to complete the missing words in the dialogue.
4) short answers, this strategy is to give short answer in written

language based on certain emotional context,

5) choose of substituted forms, the students are invited to choose the most appropriate forms based on social context,
6) role playing, this situation gives chance to make interaction among students in real setting,
7) field work task, the students who belong to advance level try to obtain particular function from the native speaker and record what they heard.

2.2.4 Affective method

There are six variables that can influence the language teaching, they are age, cognitive, native language, input, affective domain, and education background. Based on the experience as a consultant at a bilingual school, it appears that none of the approach is considered as the best. Therefore, a language teacher should apply the methods eclectically, i.e. the combination of methods. This should be underlined that eclectic method in language teaching becomes the basis of affective method. For example, before the lesson or course begins, students need assessments of the profile.

The learning process and the acquisition of the language will be effective if students and teachers can cooperate together and the teachers can make the students feel comfortable. The teachers must use the target language in the learning process. This can make the students psychologically away from the burden and have good and correct respond from the beginning. In addition, this method is useful for the psychological understanding in the process of language production.

3 CONCLUSIONS

The roles required of the teachers as change-agents are both demanding and varied, entailing a set of leadership, facilitator, and communicator skills which would impress any management consultant. Teachers should bring about the change if they have good qualification and standing in their academic discipline as change-agents (strategists). Change-agents are made not born, and the frameworks of how change-agents occur consist of framing the problems, selecting an intervention point, selecting a strategy, and changing-oriented activity.

Teachers as change-agents need to master strategies to teach the language, including: the ability to change the purposes, the ability to acquire and mobilize resources, the ability to relate resources to ends effectively, and the ability to sustain cooperation with students. In addition, teachers should apply the methods in teaching the language, i.e. inductive, deductive, functional, and affective methods. There is no research in this area indicates that one method is better than another so that these methods can be applied eclectically (i.e. by combining the appropriate methods) based on the students profiles. Teachers have roles of change-agents to their repertoire, i.e. experienced teachers.

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7 INCORPORATING OUT-OF CLASS ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN PRE-SERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION

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1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the much talked about issues with regards differences between Acquisition and Learning the emphasis on foreign language learning at school remains focused on just getting people to learn and within classrooms. The education system is naturally still dependant on this emphasis on learning, specifically classroom learning because of constraints. It is economically not viable for acquisition to be the core agenda when developing curriculum, simply because of the limitations on time and of course costs (as increased time on teaching would mean the hiring of more teachers). For acquisition to be core within the agenda of curriculum development, the hours spent on indulgence in English must be a lot more than the approximately 4 hours spent on English per week (this on the assumption that there are 6 periods of 40 minutes per week). There are some alternatives to this and they are in the form of immersion programmes like those in Canada. The political considerations of such a move in countries like Malaysia make this an impossibility as national pride overrides all other options. There was a move to change the medium of instruction of mathematics and science into English but this was soon hastily abandoned due to political pressure.

When forced to accept classroom learning as the dominant influence in English language Teaching (ELT), there are influences external (but connected to) the classroom environment. The major

external connection to classroom learning-teaching is testing. In modern day life testing is a given as it is a way in which people decide who is good, average or bad (not always in these broad bands). Tests also decide upward or downward movement in a person's life; academic or employment. It discriminates like most things in life. Little do people know about the harsh realities of tests on life itself: It destroys lives. It favours those who have distinct advantage like people from good economic and social backgrounds (who have the wealth to support language study outside regular classrooms and who probably have parents who are proficient in the language to allow some sort of immersion into the foreign language at home). So what do the have-nots do? They are victims of a system that relates teaching to tests (Teach to test). They will fail because the system decides they are not proficient in the foreign language (and may not enjoy the same success as those who have good proficiency), when in reality they were not given a real chance, the chance that learners have in their first language (the time for risk taking and the nurturing support of the environment)

The teach-test phenomenon of classroom teaching is indeed interesting, mainly because it is much like the "control" within experimentation. In order to impose efficiency, the system controls the learner, the teacher and classroom procedures. Teaching is controlled via a rigid curriculum which needs to be strictly adhered to (because the test reflects the curriculum). This of course in turn influences teaching materials and classroom procedure. In due course, while curriculums can be objective with the stipulated outcomes (learner behavioral outcomes), the intuition of the teacher can be a stronger influence on learning-teaching. When teachers realize that what they have learnt (with regards the theories that concern language learning, the methodologies and good practice) is a misfit within the stifling restrictions and constraints existing within classroom learning-teaching environments, their intuitions take over and trouble-shooting becomes key to survival. They see tests as domineering and as a result find quick solutions to make teaching become practice for test-taking. Their jobs become easier as textbook developers have also engineered textbook development to help learners with test-taking.

The discussion now moves to the implications of all this on classroom procedure: Teachers prescribe learning, learners follow.

Textbooks help the teacher to lead learners, through constant "controlled practice" which experts now believe only lead learners to practice and benefit from short-term memory retention (something expected from a short-cut!). While short-term memory can assist learners probably perform in examinations, they usually do not help with building proficiency of learners.

The emphasis on "teaching to tests" classrooms is usually on grammar (which is obvious taking into consideration grammar dominates most tests) while oral communication usually gets very little focus. Since most approaches to the learning and teaching of oral communication skills are related to time-tested methodologies like the Audio-Lingual Approach or the Communicative Approach to Language Learning which require investment in time, oral communication is usually abandoned. While some form of listening tasks can be carried out in classrooms via use of audio material, the listening-speaking or oral communication aspect in ELT are usually never in focus.

2 MY WORK WITH TEACHER TRAINEES IN THE B.ED TESL PROGRAMME

I believe that the best way to help with the rehabilitation of misled teaching and the education system is to start with people who haven't started work as teachers. So I work with my undergraduate students in the B.Ed TESL programme hoping to impress upon them the fact that short-term gain is only temporary and that classrooms are confined and expansion of their roles is needed. While the courses that I teach cover theories and principles about language learning, methodologies, issues in learning-teaching and best practices, I want to impress learners and future teachers that the logistical constraints that come with classrooms need to be addressed. They needed to be convinced about the relevance of out-of-class language development and how out-of-class complements classroom teaching. And so the journey began and after three years involving different batches of undergraduates they seemed convinced of two things: 1) Language development works faster when out-of-class learning complements classroom learning; and (2) Teaching is HARD WORK!

My English Language Teaching Materials (ELTM) course, known by the course code LHE 3206 is one of the courses in which

I impress on students the importance of out-of-class English. It is a 3 credit course with two hour lectures and 3 hour tutorials. I realigned the tutorial load to serve as "service learning episodes" where students have to carry out practice in actual school situations. Because of the kind support given to us by administrators of the MARA Junior Science Colleges (also known as MRSMs), my students were allowed to work in these schools, which were boarding schools and students had plenty of "preparatory studies" hours in the afternoons and nights for out-of-class English.

Out-of class English is best seen not mimicking classroom English and so these undergraduates worked on learning about PBL (Project Based Learning) first. I introduced them to various projects which they had to work on by themselves as individuals or in groups. The short-film project was one of these. The reason why they had to work on the project first is to convince them of the joy and the fun it brings to learners working on such activity (and they certainly enjoyed the activity and had fun). The next phase (service learning) would then answer the next question (or doubt) in their minds: Will this work in real school situations and on young learners in secondary schools?

Project based learning (PBL) has all the features of non-examination preparation, non-classroom based learning. The emphasis first of all was on process rather than product. Learning was not dependant on meeting behavioral objectives by the hour (each project took up to 2 days, or approximately 12 hours), rather on the formative and developmental aspects of learning. Projects, most of all allowed the learners to enjoy tasks in extended time, allowed for risks and errors (the emphasis unlike in classrooms was not on accuracy but fluency) and gave learners a sense of achievement – projects end with wholesome products which are usually published!

3 WHAT MY UNDERGRADUATES DID DURING THE SERVICE LEARNING EPISODES

The undergraduate students worked on short film with the MRSM students (Form 4, average age 16). The school students (each class was managed by two undergraduate facilitators) went through the stages of the development of the film like my undergraduates in their Materials class:

1. Input sessions
2. Brainstorm sessions for basic story idea and title
3. Storyboarding
4. Casting
5. Selection of film locations
6. Filming
7. Editing
8. Review and critique

The input sessions require my undergraduates to discuss the limitations of the short film (mainly due to it's short length). To convince students it is possible they were showed advertisements and even short films which last 90 seconds to 3 minutes.

The students were then provided the theme and brainstorm sessions were carried out to determine potential storyline and title. Storyboarding then started after which students worked on casting (choosing the actors/actresses) and then they worked on selecting locations for filming. The filming and editing began after this. The students were allowed to use normal digital cameras (with video making features) for filming. For editing they downloaded free software like Moviemaker from the internet.

The undergraduate facilitators than sat with the students and reviewed the films produced. Changes recommended were then acted on until the group felt they were satisfied.

4 WHAT MY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS SAID ABOUT THEIR ENCOUNTERS WITH REAL LEARNERS IN SCHOOL DURING SERVICE LEARNING EPISODES

The undergraduates and school students were positive in their comments in online blogs (which they were told to initiate and write in). The main themes were summarized as follows:

1. The undergraduates commented that service learning definitely made them more confident (as undergraduates who will be future teachers). They also felt that what they learnt in lectures and tutorials worked in the school situation. The school students on the other hand commented that working with university undergraduates made them feel more at ease.

They commented that the age difference (the undergraduates were 21 and they were 16) was close and they felt like they were working with a friend.

2. The school students commented that working on "fun" projects like the short film made them enjoy English. They preferred this to learning in classrooms.
3. The undergraduates commented that the students used English extensively, from brainstorming to filming/editing and review. They felt these students used "real" English, not English produced that was a result of teacher or textbook prompt.
4. The undergraduates also commented that technology (use of cameras for filming and use of software for editing were least of the challenges that students faced. All the main challenges were in idea generation and story building as this took more time. The students spent 60 per cent of their time in idea generation and storyboarding and 30 percent on filming editing. The remaining 10 percent was spent in review and revision.
5. The students felt that the biggest satisfaction came when they realized that their undergraduate facilitators had uploaded their films on YouTube!

5 CONCLUSION

I believe that my students and I are learning and re-learning every day, thanks to our exposure to service learning. The challenges that we face in real learning-teaching situations are nothing compared to what goes on in the university. I also believe that we believe that effective learning takes place when learners are more relaxed, invest more in their own learning (the undergraduates in this project mainly facilitated) and are appreciated (they were stunned to see their products on YouTube!).

One of the rewards of service learning programmes is that they assist students in schools and eventually overall student test performances become much better (Mukundan, J., Mahvelati, E. H., & Nimehchisalem, V., 2012). The writing performance of students was also investigated and the results showed that there was also marked improvement in performance (Mukundan, J., Mahvelati, E.

H., Mohd Amin Din, & Nimehchisalem, V., 2013)

We believe that PBL can lead to things which are bigger. Real communication takes place during PBL and out-of-class learning situations. More important is the tolerance on errors which is really good because learners are encouraged to take risks. When they do this they challenge themselves more often.

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8 ASSESSING CULTURE LEARNING

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1. INTRODUCTION

Accomplished language teachers consider that it is important for their students to be able to demonstrate an intercultural orientation (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013) as a result of language and culture learning. This intercultural orientation is supposed to describe when a language learner (Moran, 2001, linked to Byram's *savoirs* from 1997) – knows *about*, knows *how*, knows *why*, and knows *self* – as a result of this language and culture learning process. Kramsch (1993) had conceived of language teachers and learners working in a "third place" – neither the "place" exclusive to the first language, nor the "place" where we find the second or target language, rather working to develop these knowings in a "third place": the "intercultural" space where a language user of two or more languages negotiates suitable language use. Knowing *how* and *why* to use a language in a competent manner and to guide their learners to do the same plus learning something about *themselves* and their own language and culture as well, is what accomplished (AFMLTA, 2005) language teachers need to be able to do.

Yet teaching is a complex "craft" (Eble, 1976), and language teaching has its own complexities. In language classrooms we find teachers and students working *in and through* two or more languages and *in and through* spoken and written modes. Language teachers make decisions regarding curriculum delivered and curriculum received (curriculum delivered can interestingly be different to

curriculum received). Language teachers' work is very much about helping language learners to understand that an ultimate goal for learning a language is "meaning-making" and speakers have to learn to make choices as they construct language to convey their intended meaning (Coulmas, 2013).

Somewhere in the complex process of curriculum decision-making, teachers make linguistic choices about "what" their students will learn, and also other strategic choices and decisions about "how" the students will best learn. The "what" will include the grammars, vocabulary and structures, the texts, the modes, and also the cultural considerations. The vocabulary lists, grammars and structures, texts and so on, are relatively simple to list as part of the curriculum. However listing notions of culture proves much more difficult. Many language teachers grappling with their curriculum decision-making have asked "what culture do I teach"?

This paper begins first with a discussion of the notion of culture. The paper then traces the idea of accomplished teaching of languages and cultures, the key concept of assessment and especially assessing languages learning. The paper posits that if language teachers believe that culture learning is the ultimate aim of language learning, then certain pedagogical concerns will need to be considered, and this in turn is related to assessment. Finally there will be some suggestions as to how to teach and assess culture learning in a potentially engaging and exciting way.

2. THE COMPLEX NOTION OF CULTURE

There are both simple and more complex definitions or descriptions of the term "culture". To some, the term "culture" can mean a reference to a person's habits, values and customs. To others culture can be a reference to artistic achievements or aesthetic preferences. The term 'culture' is used in a number of disciplinary discourses: in history, biological sciences, creative, performing and visual arts, literature and many more. Those disciplines require a term to cover a multitude of notions relating to the essence of life. Linguists use the term culture as well, for example, Langacker (1999, p. 16) notes that language is "an essential instrument and component of culture, whose reflection in linguistic structure is pervasive and quite significant". Palmer and Sharifian (2007, p. 1) state that

"language is a cultural activity and, at the same time, an instrument for organizing other cultural domains". In fact most language teachers would acknowledge the close link between language and culture.

Culture is described as "visible" (Lo Bianco & Crozet, 2003) referring to how we might be able to see "observable/visible" evidence of cultural practice (for example, the way people use hand gestures to indicate specific meaning). At the same time, culture is described as "invisible", indicating existence of the belief that other cultural practice is not observable/visible (for example, the language choice made when speaking to the elderly, often impacted by values and constructs which are cognitive – and not observable – choices). Culture is no longer the 'static' culture idea that was to be found in foreign language textbooks in years gone by. Culture is now considered a 'dynamic' notion, and certainly culture-in-language is as dynamic as the many changes occurring in a language each moment. Language teachers teaching students about culture-in-language need to be able to undertake different steps to accomplish this teaching, and this completely relies on different kinds of decision-making. This is what is known as accomplished teaching of languages and cultures: teaching visible and invisible culture to prepare students to be able to use language for meaning-making.

3. ACCOMPLISHED TEACHING OF LANGUAGES AND CULTURES

An 'intercultural' orientation to the teaching of languages and cultures is considered nowadays to be 'best practice'. Over the past 20 years or so (see Kramsch, 1993), what has guided the learning of additional languages is a new thinking about languages education, a new understanding of the relationship between language and culture in languages education. By building on the essence of communicative language teaching, there has been a move for teachers to assess broader student learning outcomes than purely learning the structures and some facts about the peoples (as might have been the case in the past teaching of languages). The key notion is possibly that every time we speak, every time we use language, we perform a cultural act (Moran, 2001): we learn to make meaning inside our own culture, and between our culture(s). In this process the language user undergoes wider learning about themselves, deeper learning about

acknowledging others' perspectives, and more extensive learning about language per sé.

Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler (2003, pp. 47 - 51) outline a set of principles that should guide accomplished teaching of languages and cultures. They propose the first principle, that through an "active construction" pedagogy, teachers can encourage their students to be task-oriented, focused on interpreting, noticing, recognising, analysing and comparing, and oriented towards highlighting particular linguistic and sociocultural considerations. Their second principle is a "making connections" pedagogy, which sees teachers build on their students' previous knowledge, combining learning of language and culture with learning across the curriculum, across texts and contexts, and encouraging learners to explain, integrate and inquire.

Via a "social interaction" pedagogy, Liddicoat et al. (2003) state, teachers facilitate language interactions (peer-to-peer and learner(s)-to-teacher) which promote intercultural communication and new, productive connections between their own ideas and those of others. Scaffolding extends the intercultural connections individual learners are making, and allows learners to draw on multiple examples from different contexts, exploring more than one culture, conceptual systems, sets of values and recognised mutual responsibility to uphold moral and ethical respect for the cultures and cultural practices involved. Teachers scaffold learners to build accuracy, fluency and complexity in their language and culture knowledge.

Through a focus on "reflection" within a teacher's pedagogy, Liddicoat et al (2003) believe that teachers guide learners to critically reflect on their own attitudes, beliefs and values that come to light during the language learning process. There is much comparing, analysing and synthesising aspects of language and culture. Through a "responsibility" pedagogy learners are encouraged to self-monitor and be responsible for the ethical uses of their newfound knowledge of the target culture (Liddicoat, 2008; Liddicoat et al., 2003).

Language teachers work with their students to hone an intercultural literacy, an ability (also considered a negotiation and placement in-and-between the cultures and languages involved) to be able to accept the validity of different perspectives; to understand the nature of culture and of cultural identity; to see connections between

language, culture, communication, experience and perspectives; to be interested in different experiences and ways of thinking and being in the world, and to develop awareness in relation to the self as well as to the 'other' (Harbon, 2013).

Other scholars describe intercultural literacy as "successfully identifying, interpreting, integrating and navigating . . . parallel or layered cultural worlds" (Heyward, 2004, p. 26) or demonstrating "understandings, competencies, attitudes, language proficiencies, participation and identities which enable effective participation in a cross-cultural setting" (Heyward, 2004, p. 45). Such an intercultural literacy may be seen as a way to effectively 'read' the second/target culture: "to interpret its symbols and negotiate its meanings in a practical day-to-day context" (Heyward, 2004, p. 51). Then after the teaching is complete and teachers evaluate student learning, language teachers require a varied set of skills and understandings to be able to assess the learning of, and knowledge about, culture-in-language as demonstrated by their learners.

4. ASSESSING LANGUAGE LEARNING: LANGUAGE TEACHERS' SKILLS/UNDERSTANDINGS

Language teachers' professional development needs (both pre-service/trainee and in-service) involve the continued focus on an ever-growing lists of required competencies, knowledge and skills. With the accountability aspect of language teachers' positions increasing – for example accountability to report on learners' language levels as a result of participation in sustained language learning programs, or to append a grade or result to a final demonstration of learning – the crucial matter of "teacher judgement" comes to the fore.

As language teachers' tasks increase in their complexity, with research studies reflecting this complexity, a continued focus on assessing language learning must remain. The skills required for language teachers to be able to "judge" language learning involve an ability to understand the complex set of processes inherent. What is involved in language teachers' assessment of language learning is noted in Scarino and Liddicoat's (2009, p. 71) model: the skills of, and understandings about, conceptualising, eliciting, judging and validating. Figure 1 summarises the ways Scarino (2006, cited in Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009) understands the process of assessment.

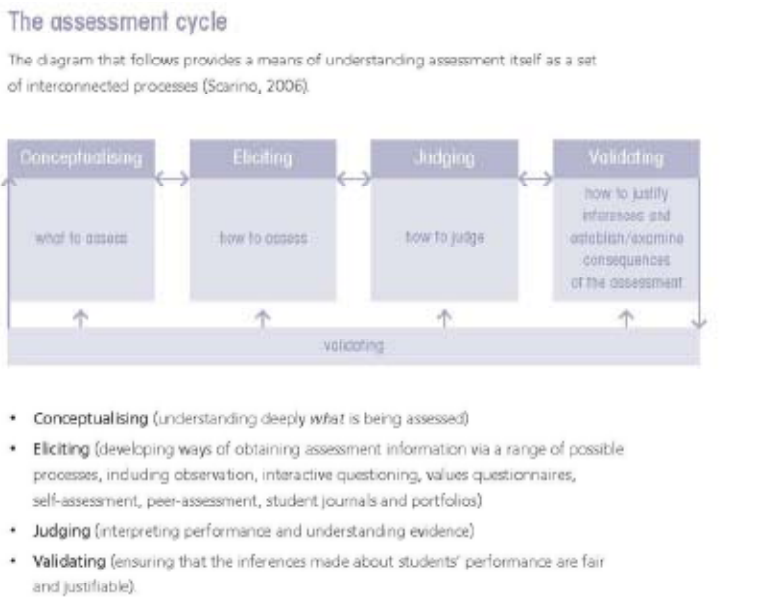

Figure 1: Assessment (source: Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 71)

Language teachers need to know their curricular aims in detail as they consider (conceptualise) *what* to assess, undertake observation, and design questions to judge the culture-in-language learning to then interpret the data they collect about student learning. The skills and understandings are complex in the Scarino (2006) frame, yet may allow language teachers to ignite engagement or excitement for learning.

An alternative frame for examining the process of language learning and assessment indicates a "stepped" process. For example, according to the scholars in the Center for Instructional Innovation and Assessment at Western Washington University in the USA (2015), assessment involves this four-step cycle:

1) defining learning objectives
2) defining measurable outcomes as evidence of learning
3) comparing the outcomes in relation to the objectives
4) using the evidence from the comparison to redesign another assessment cycle

No matter which frame or model is considered suitable to guide the assessing of languages teaching and learning, what is crucial is that the teacher assesses the language skills, knowledge, and also the *culture-in-language*.

5. ASSESSING CULTURE LEARNING

With the focus of this paper about assessment of student learning outcomes firmly in mind, it is timely to consider a number of key issues conceived by scholars that relate to assessment, especially the idea of assessing culture learning. If we heed Hargreaves' words (2005, p. 292): "teachers decisions are largely shaped by their relationships with students, their feelings about what would excite and engage them emotionally and their feelings about what would excite and engage them as teachers too" there is an urgency to highlight clear aims for language teaching.

The teaching of languages is different from teaching other subjects. As previously claimed, when we teach languages, says Moran (2001), what we are actually doing is allowing students to learn culture and learn about the culture. A simple conceptualisation of this might be to consider that "languaging", using the technology of the language we know, is our "vehicle" for transmitting our message. Language allows us to be. Language teachers are teaching people how to be! We are not so much teaching language, says Moran (2001), rather learning culture.

It is no longer suitable to think of a languages program benchmarked by the native-speaker norm. That is, languages programs no longer feel the pressure to produce native-speaker-like student competence. Students bring *at least* one language learning experience to the experience of learning an additional language. Languages learning in classrooms today can have intercultural orientations embedded in order to produce an enriching and engaging culture-in-language experience for students.

6 KEEPING CULTURE LEARNING ENGAGING AND EXCITING: WHICH CULTURE DO WE TEACH?

As for any learning environment, a supportive and positive languages classroom learning environment is essential for solid learning and teaching. Establishing and maintaining a supportive

classroom language learning environment fosters positivity, creativity and innovation for both teachers and language learners. Believing in social constructivist principles– the idea that learners learn best when working in, and supported by, social groupings (Beck & Kosnik, 2006) – teachers can scaffold student learning for solid language learning outcomes.

However, to engage and excite language learners to learn *about* language(s) and language processes, learn *how* languages allow meaning-making, learn *why* it can be critical to develop skills, understandings and orientations about language(s), and most importantly about *themselves* and their own language requirements, is not always the aim of a language learning programme. On the contrary, some systems prioritise a focus on high-stakes testing (Wall, 2000), where deep intercultural learning of the culture-in-language may be a secondary aim, or simply not an aim at all.

Language-rich classrooms, where learners have access to reading, listening and viewing materials, are classrooms which will assist language learning and development in students of an intercultural stance, and the intercultural aspect here is that students are learning *about* how language works, about vocabulary, structures, and meaning-making. A teaching-learning context that can be labelled as 'fun' also fosters positivity, creativity and innovation.

Language teachers in any context may consider intercultural learning through language games. Games can promote a focus on literacy strategies (decoding and re-coding language within literacy-style games is considered an intercultural – or "between" languages aspect) and are enjoyable, situate language in real situations, and assist in encouraging learner confidence and fluency (Sharpe, 2001, p. 146). Games can be motivational in themselves, and learners engage with games very easily. Teachers of languages and cultures can plan for vocabulary consolidation, reading practice and focus on structures that "hide" inside games. Nowadays thousands of resources exist at the end of the student's fingertips on their personal electronic devices (tablets, smart phones).

Class timetables include many opportunities for language teachers to fill those 'between-times' with challenges for students' consolidation and revision activities in the target language and the common language of the classroom. Teachers and their students

should never forget the important relationships between all languages in the classroom. Competitions or challenges between individual students and groups of students can allow the teacher and students to "play" with language sounds, structures and meanings (Harbon, 2013). Decoding/deconstructing and re-coding/reconstructing language is evidence that students are learning *about* language and *how* it works – an intercultural orientation.

Teachers' choice of teaching and learning resources and materials for the additional language can contribute to positive and supportive strategies of encouraging intercultural literacy development. Recommended is a rich mix of texts. Examples of these rich texts include literature sourced from the target culture, magazines and cartoon series, social media online sites and so on. Native-speaker visitors – live or virtual - to a language classroom are an important source of authentic culture-rich spoken texts. Native-speakers can visit from the local community in person. Similarly friends-from-a-distance such as e-pals can be contacted via video-conference, Facetime, Viber or Skype sessions.

These examples above are not new to accomplished teachers of languages and cultures. Yet it is the language teacher's chosen pedagogy – relying on strategies to develop a student's intercultural orientation, such as encouragement of pausing and noticing, posing as many questions as delivering answers, and making comparisons between languages – that will encourage both teachers and students to celebrate the critical intercultural stance they are taking, ensuring deep learning.

Teachers' mindsets may undergo a change: if the notion is that culture-in-language is dynamic and changeable, then they will guide their students away from the idea of learning about a specific 'static' culture idea. Culture is more than the 'high culture of the literature and arts' of a society, thus foreign language classrooms revolve around the negotiation of understandings, between one or more languages and cultures that are apparent in the learner group. The question "which language do we teach" or "which culture do I learn" needs to be critiqued as a first step. Intercultural, the adjective, needs to replace culture, the noun. Through pausing, noticing, comparing, questioning, language teachers can guide their learners to make meaning in context, understanding that context and time are

temporal, and will need to be questioned over and over. 'Culture-in-language' and 'intercultural' replace previous notions inherent in the term 'culture'.

7. ENGAGING AND EXCITING CULTURE LEARNING

The suggestions above about keeping language learning exciting and engaging for our learners, prioritise an intercultural stance to allow culture learning. A language teacher can excite and engage (Hargreaves, 2005) his/her language learners easily by prioritising culture learning. The bottom line is that language learners are not only completing the language learning itself, but also participating in learning *about* language and culture. Language teachers can embed this concept in their teaching pedagogies. In the intercultural space there is the room to negotiate meaning, acknowledging a place for understandings in first and second language/culture. Assessing culture learning as one part of that complex process is crucial for empowering language learners for their use of language in the real world.

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9 ASSESSING THE QUALITY OF LARGE-SCALE ASSESSMENTS: THE CASE FOR A FAIRNESS AND JUSTICE APPROACH

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1. INTRODUCTION

Large-scale language assessments are most often used in school contexts for entrance or exit purposes and to monitor student progress through standardized development, administration, scoring and reporting. Large-scale language tests are also used to collect uniform baseline information from a large group of students, provide diagnostic information to all stakeholders (e.g., teachers, students, parents, and school administrators), and ensure state-level accountability. As varied as their purposes, large-scale assessments typically:

1) use standardized formats (similar tasks, administration, scoring, and reporting),
2) have a norm-referenced approach (test takers are rank-ordered based on the performance of test taker cohort),
3) use selected response exclusively (such as multiple-choice, true-false, fill in the blank type response formats),
4) have high volumes in terms of test takers (the test is administered to hundreds or thousands or more), and
5) are high-stakes (decision-making is based on test scores and the resulting career or life paths are not easily reversed).

These defining characteristics determine that there are certain challenges that need to be addressed if the quality of large-scale assessment is to be safeguarded. To begin with, the high-stakes

nature of large-scale assessment requires that rigorous and thorough research studies are needed to ensure that assessments are fair and just to all test-takers, especially minority test takers. Moreover, the fact that large-scale assessments are used for making important decisions means that it is essential that such tests lead to beneficial consequences for all stake-holders. These challenges must be tackled empirically.

2 A FAIRNESS AND JUSTICE FRAMEWORK

A fairness and justice framework is necessary for the evaluation of language assessments. The purpose of the framework is to first provide a system for the evaluation keeping in mind a value-system that involves fairness and justice, and second, along with the first purpose, to ensure a high quality in assessment.

2.1 Preliminaries

There are four fundamental factors that are central and obligatory to the concepts of fairness and justice in assessments. They are *transparency, equity, impartiality* and *uniformity.*

Transparency is the first fundamental factor in fairness. In the assessment context, all test takers (and other stakeholders) ought to know what the content, procedures, and processes of an assessment are about, how the scoring is going to be done, and how score reports and decisions are going to be made. Absent such information, for example, test takers would be vulnerable to assessors who could 'move the goal posts' whenever they want to for whatever reason. Such a situation would be ripe for discrimination against test takers and would undermine the very purpose of assessment. If, on the other hand, the assessment content, procedures, and processes are all transparent to all test takers, there would be less likelihood of unfairness.

Equity is the second fundamental factor in fairness. In the assessment context, equity could be described as receiving credit or equal share of appropriate claims. For example, test takers with identical abilities (based on scores) should receive identical or equitable treatment in decision making (receiving high credit, pass or fail grades) irrespective of family background, gender, the color of their skin, or the region they come from, etc.

Impartiality is the third fundamental factor in fairness. During the Chinese Civil Service Examination the reported practice of impartiality was in place through the process of anonymizing responses to questions. This was done by examination officials who recopied test takers' answers before they were rated by examiners so that the examiners would not be able to identify test takers (Miyazaki, 1976). In modern times, similar anonymity has been achieved through the use of examination registration numbers used exclusively for the purpose so that examiners are unable to identify test takers. Other examples include the use of topics in test materials that are familiar to test takers, use of varied test response formats; checks regarding whether test takers have had the opportunity to acquire the knowledge or skills prior to the assessment, and the use of appropriate and transparent and defensible standard setting for decision-making. Thus, in assessments today, when an assessment is impartial, we could say it does not favor any test takers.

Uniformity in assessment is the fourth fundamental factor. This factor ensures that all test takers have the same opportunity to demonstrate their abilities. This means that in terms of tasks, administrative procedures, scoring, reporting and decision-making, there is no difference in how test takers are treated. Without uniformity, assessments cannot be fair to test takers. For example, if an assessment is administered with 30 items in reading, all test takers should be given the 30 items; giving more or less items than 30 items to some test takers would mean the assessment is not uniform (unless the test is a computer-adaptive test and administering less or more items is supported by research). Or, if a grammar and spell check program is permitted in a computer-based writing task, it should be available and enabled for all test takers; or the rubrics or standards used to judge an essay or a speech should be the same for all test takers, decision-making cut off scores for pass-fail, or high-low grade should be used in the same way for all test takers. Or, if immigration law requires a particular level of language ability for a pass, this law should be uniformly enforced. Thus, when an assessment practice or policy is uniform, we could say that it does not favor any test takers.

2.2 Basic questions

These fundamental factors when combined are embodied in the very concept of the public examination (or assessment) as they include notions of fairness and justice. This can be seen as the main goal of examinations, which is to bring about a level playing field so that benefits can be awarded based on the assessment of desired abilities and not based on privilege and patronage. Examples of this approach was could be seen in the main goal of the civil service selection process in China centuries ago, and in U.K. (including colonial British India in the 18th to mid-20th centuries), and later in France and Germany. With this background, a few preliminary questions can be articulated:

1) Does every test taker have the right to a fair assessment? Is this rule inviolable? Are rights of test takers to a fair assessment universal or only applicable in states that provide equal rights?
2) Is it adequate that most test takers are assessed fairly while a few are not? Would it be appropriate to use a cost–benefit analysis to evaluate whether assessments should be improved or not? And, if harm is done to test takers, does such harm need to be compensated?
3) Would the rights of test takers to a fair assessment be supported in authoritarian states that do not provide for equal rights? Would institutions in such states feel less compelled to provide a fair assessment?
4) Should assessment developers and users be required to offer public justification or reasoning? Should they present their justifications for assessments backed by research findings in appropriate forums?
5) Should assessment institutions be just in their approach?
6) Should an assessment be beneficial to the society in which it is used?

2.3 Scope

It is necessary to discuss several issues related to the scope and reach of the framework. This is essential in the formulation of principles of fairness and justice.

2.3.1 Utilitarian-based or Duty-based?

One way to understand the concept of fairness and justice is to step back from its current theory, and revisit the concept of normative ethics. The main theoretical perspectives and proponents in normative ethics are utilitarianism (Bentham, Mill) and social contract/deontology (Kant, Rawls).

The dominant western philosophical doctrine for many centuries until Rawls' work appeared was that of *utilitarianism* advanced by Bentham and Mill. Its thinking is that the highest principle of morality is to maximize utility and to balance pleasure over pain. It promotes the notion of the greatest happiness of the greatest number of people. As a result, *the utility principle trumps individual rights*. Related to this concept, the most important aspect of utilitarianism is *consequentialist* thinking in which outcomes of an event are used as tools to evaluate an institution. Implementing utilitarianism in the assessment context would mean that decisions about an assessment would be made solely on the basis of utility and consequences. For example, if an assessment has some known defects (such as a few poor quality test items) but is expensive to fix, the decision may be taken that it is not cost-effective to fix the poor quality items as long as the consequences for most are satisfactory.

On the other hand, contract deontologists or duty-based theorists like Kant and Rawls argue that there are fundamental duties and responsibilities of institutions and that there are rights of persons who have individual rights. These *duties and rights would trump utilitarian and consequentialist thinking*. For example, if an assessment has some known defects (as in the example above), the obligation of the institution would be to provide an assessment that is without flaws so that no test taker is affected by poor quality test items. Further, the concept of consequences does not play a direct role in duty-based thinking in contrast to utilitarian thinking.

2.3.2 Fact-independent or dependent?

A related issue is whether principles should be formulated without interest in the facts on the ground; that is, should they be fact-independent? If this approach is followed, the argument would be that principles would be free from facts and would be pure and not suffer any distortion or contamination. On the other hand, the opposing

view would be that principles should be fact-dependent. This line of argument would mean that basic principles are necessarily based on facts as we are already filled with facts and cannot claim to formulate pure principles without any reference to empirical facts. But if this approach is followed, there would be the danger that facts could distort principles, especially when different facts exist in different situations. This approach could then lead principles to be ideological not philosophical.

Here is an example: should principles in a school assessment context be based on pure thought (such as principles of fairness) without any knowledge or dependence on facts that may exist (for example, girls who have blonde hair or boys with extra weight are generally discriminated against)? Or, would it be better for the school authorities to devise principles of fairness knowing that these two groups of students are being discriminated against? Would the available information blind school authorities from writing principles of fairness in such a way that others who may be discriminated in different ways or in the future may not be covered or ignored? These questions are pertinent for school teachers and administrators to discuss and debate before writing principles of fairness.

2.3.3 Universal or contextual?

Another major issue is whether principles are universal and can be applied universally or whether they are contextual and therefore have limited or no applicability across contexts (along the educational ladder from primary school to university, or public government-funded school to private or parochial school, or from province/state to province/state within a country, or across countries). Universalists would like to argue that we should be able to write fundamental principles of fairness that can govern all our actions in all circumstances, and that such basic principles should be invariant across contexts. On the other hand, contextualists would like to argue that principles are context-specific as principles connect to contexts in unique ways and therefore principles should be written for local contexts.

In other words, should fairness and justice have boundaries? Is it not an appealing idea, to quote Sen (2009), “that every person anywhere in the world, irrespective of citizenship, residence, race,

class, cast or community, has some basic rights which others should respect…from resisting torture, arbitrary incarceration and racial discrimination to demanding an end to hunger and starvation, and to medical neglect across the globe" (p. 355).

Translating this idea to language assessment, should principles of fairness be written by an eminent group of scholars for all school contexts across the world with no consideration for context? Or, should principles and standards for educational assessment proposed by AERA, APA, and NCME's *Standards* (1999, 2014) and *Code of Ethics* proposed by ILTA (2000) be applicable to all contexts across the world? Or, should each context, community, or country propose their own principles and standards keeping in mind their own strengths and constraints?

Of course, there will always be exceptions to the strong positions in all these approaches and weaker options may be more suitable. Thus, it may be a practical necessity to craft a mixed deontological (duty-based) system in which some general principles are written as duty-based and others as outcomes-based (particularly in business matters), and there are universal principles (that are guiding principles) and specific principles that are locally developed for different contexts.

Examples of such mixed approaches in language assessment could include the following: writing a principle that requires reliable ratings of essays but allowing for either single or double rating (as most school contexts will not have double ratings), or a principle allowing for human ratings or automated computer-generated ratings (as most contexts will not have automated computer-generated ratings) or a principle requiring opportunity to write an essay (either by keying-in of essays on a computer or to write by hand). But, what about, a single topic for writing or speaking (although the topic may be biased against different test taker group)? Or, what would do about different types of interlocutors in a group oral test (where male and female, introverts and extroverts, higher proficiency and lower proficiency interlocutors are all mixed in)?

3 TOWARDS PRINCIPLES

Drawing on insights from duty-based ethicists, ideas and arguments can be applied to language assessment. First, individual

rights and inequalities in test takers' life prospects have to be the central focus of the application. The main idea is that assessments ought to be fair and assessment institutions ought to be just to all test takers. Second, the idea of public justification and public reasoning have to be part of this application.

Two general Principles of Fairness and Justice Based on Rawls and Sen and sub-principles of fairness and justice are proposed:

1) **Principle 1**—*the principle of fairness*: An assessment *ought* to be fair to all test takers, that is, there is a presumption of treating every test taker with equal respect.
   - **Sub-principle 1**: An assessment *ought* to provide adequate opportunity to acquire the knowledge, abilities, or skills to be assessed for all test takers.
   - **Sub-principle 2**: An assessment *ought* to be consistent and meaningful in terms of its test score interpretation for all test takers.
   - **Sub-principle 3**: An assessment *ought* to be free of bias against all test takers, in particular by avoiding the assessment of construct-irrelevant matters.
   - **Sub-principle 4**: An assessment *ought* to use appropriate access, administration, and standard-setting procedures so that decision making is equitable for all test takers.
2) **Principle 2**—*the principle of justice*: An assessment institution *ought* to be just and bring about benefits in society and advance justice through public reasoning.
   - **Sub-principle 1**: An assessment institution *ought* to be beneficial consequences to the test taking community.
   - **Sub-principle 2**: An assessment institution *ought* to advance justice through public reasoning of their assessment.

A few remarks regarding the principles are necessary here. To begin with, the first principle, the principle of fairness, is prior to the second, the principle of justice, because if the first principle is not satisfied, then the second principle cannot be satisfied. In other words, if the presumption that treating every test taker with equal respect in an assessment is not satisfied, then the assessment will not succeed in being beneficial to society and bring justice to society.

In terms of the relationship between the general principles

and the sub-principles, the respective sub-principles provide the framings for the two general principles, and therefore. the sub-principles have to be individually satisfied in order for the general principle to be satisfied. Second, the principles and sub-principles are written as obligations (obligatory actions signalled with the use of *ought*) and not as categorical or unconditional imperatives, but the assumption is that there will be universal application. As argued earlier, justice should be non-parochial and impartial beyond one's society as everyone should be treated in the same manner. This is particularly true of current globalized assessment institutions that operate in numerous countries. It does not seem defensible to propose otherwise, despite the objection of being imperialist as to how there could be different approaches to fairness and justice.

3.1 The Principle of Fairness: Grounds and Objections

It is necessary to explicitly make a general case for this principle by articulating the grounds and rejecting some common objections. First, the principle states that an assessment ought to be fair to all test takers, which includes a presumption of treating every test taker with equal respect. This emphasis on the test taker rather than an assessment or its scores should be sufficient to reject the argument that validity of an assessment (or valid score interpretations or validity arguments) guarantees that all test takers will be treated with equal respect. The focus of validity concerns has either been on the assessment itself or at most on various aspects of assessment practice; the focus has never been on the individual test taker.

Second, the sub-principles provide guidance for detailed investigations of assessments so that a number of grounds for the compliance or noncompliance with the principle can be arrived at. Researchers could conduct investigations relevant to the sub-principles to build arguments regarding the general principle of fairness. The sub-principles focus on the test takers' opportunity to learn, the meaningfulness of the assessment to the test taker, and whether the assessment is free of bias and standard setting has been conducted in an equitable manner. These matters are relevant to the individual test taker and affect the test taker positively or adversely depending on the qualities of the assessment. Thus, they are essential components of the general first principle.

3.2 The Principle of Justice: Grounds and Objections

This principle follows the first principle but it is a necessary component. First, the principle states that an assessment ought to bring about benefits to society and that such institutions promote just institutions. The overall benefit to society should be the primary motivation to build any assessment in society; that is, if the motivation to build an assessment is not to resolve some difficulties and bring about benefits to society, one could conclude that there may not be a need for the assessment. This is particularly the case if an assessment is likely to cause adverse effects on test takers and society.

Second, the institution of assessment is not any different from institutions like banks or universities. But assessment institutions have a higher responsibility in society than the Department for Beautiful Gardens as assessment institutions are responsible for awarding benefits to test takers that can alter their life prospects. If such institutions bring benefits and just institutions, then the principle of justice is satisfied.10 *Designing Evaluations* Finally, while it is possible that assessment institutions may have different ways of defending their assessments, it is essential that there is public reasoning of assessments. This can be offered through public forums such as conferences or research reports available to the public.

3.3 Operationalizing the principles

A new way of evaluating an assessment is to build an argument in support of an assessment's claims. This type of approach has been promoted by Kane, Mislevy, Bachman and Palmer. All of them use Toulmin's (1958) pioneering work on argumentation as to how to build arguments. In my approach, the two principles influenced by philosophical arguments are value-based: fairness and justice. Thus, the claims and associated warrants developed directly lead to value-based argumentation. Such argumentation from the outset articulate and examine claims that are related to fairness and justice.

Toulmin's model of argumentation includes four elements: claims, grounds, warrants, and backing. According to this approach, *claims* are assertions that could be a destination in an argument; *grounds* are the foundation on which claims that can be accepted rest; *warrants* are elaborations of claims that bridge grounds with claims; and *backing* is considered the underlying basis for a warrant.

Collectively, these elements form an argument that can be accepted as a sound argument.

One way to build the fairness and justice argument is to articulate and map possible claims and sub-claims based on articulated principles and sub-principles that may be made by an assessment agency regarding their assessment. These principles and sub-principles may in turn be based on both philosophical and theoretical bases of fairness and justice that are held by the assessment agency.

The principles presented were developed based on philosophical arguments of fairness and justice. Thus, Principle 1 of fairness with four sub-principles has one general claim and four sub-claims (if the assessment agency decides to have such claims). Principle 2 of justice with two sub-principles has one general claim and two sub-claims. The claims and sub-claims mapped onto the principles and sub-principles are presented below. These claims in turn have to be supported by grounds, or a variety of grounds such as data. Grounds may be based on assessment-related documents such as the assessment mandate (provide by a government agency

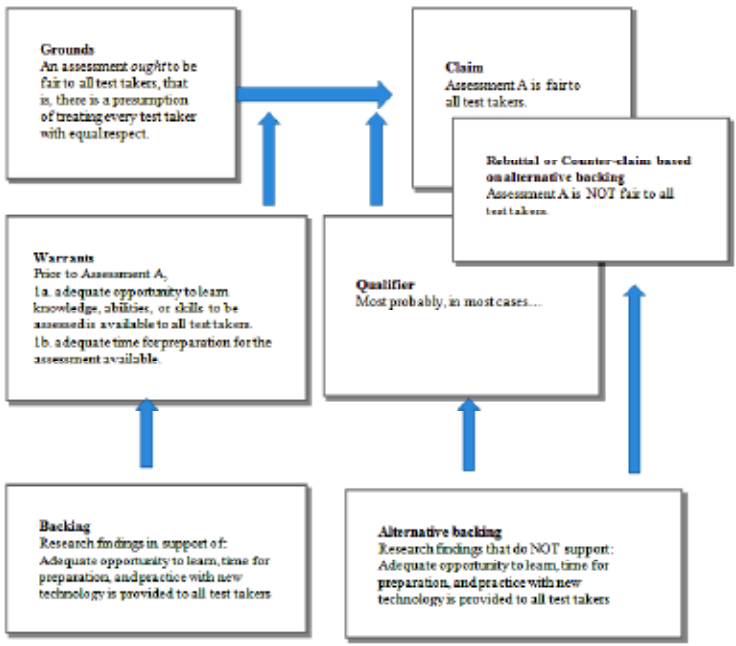

Figure 1: Grounds, Warrants, and Backing for Principle 1 Fairness Sub-Principle 1

or university admissions office or a specific employer), assessment specifications, public policy (through regulations, statutes or laws), prior findings (based on research reports) and public discourse. Thus, diagrammatically the representation of grounds, claims, warrants, and backing would be as in Figure 1. Assessment A is a fictitious assessment.

3.4 Principles, claims and sub-claims

1) ***Principle 1 – The Principle of Fairness:*** An assessment *ought* to be fair to all test takers, that is, there is a presumption of treating every test taker with equal respect.
   General Claim: *Assessment A is fair to all test takers.*
   - *Sub-principle 1:* An assessment *ought* to provide adequate opportunity to acquire the knowledge, abilities, or skills to be assessed for all test takers.
     Sub-claim 1a: Prior to Assessment A, *adequate opportunity to learn* is provided.
     Sub-claim 1b: Prior to Assessment A, *adequate time for preparation* for the assessment is available.
     Sub-claim 1c: Prior to Assessment A, *adequate practice with new technology* is available.

2) ***Principle 2 – The Principle of Justice:*** An assessment institution *ought* to be just and bring about benefits in society and advance justice through public reasoning.
   General Claim: The assessment institution that runs Assessment A is a just institution as the assessment is beneficial to society and the institution advances justice.
   - *Sub-principle 1*: An assessment institution *ought* to bring benefits to society by making a positive social impact.
     Sub-claim 1: Assessment A is beneficial to society.

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10 NATIONAL EXAM IN INDONESIA AND ITS WASHBACK EFFECTS

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1. INTRODUCTION

A study on washback effects of high-stake tests has always been very interesting. A meta-synthesis study done by Au (2007) involving 49 research studies on high-stake testing and curricular control indicates that high-stake tests have predominant effects on curriculum implementation. They tend to narrow down curricular contents into fragmented bits and pieces of knowledge to be learned for the sake of the tests themselves. Therefore, teachers are compelled to use more lecture-based teacher-centered pedagogies.

The National Exam, or *Ujian Nasional*, implemented in Indonesia in the last ten years has invited controversies among different parties due to its status as a high-stake exam related to graduations of junior and senior high school students. People against the National Exam (Saukah, 2013) argue that (1) using the results of the National Exam as a basis for making decisions about student graduations is not fair because the schools throughout Indonesia are still very heterogeneous in terms of the quality and, therefore, the failure of the students in passing the exam may not be due to the students' factors. It may be due to the lack of teachers' professionalism and other weaknesses attached to the schools, (2) as a high-stakes testing, the National Exam may have negative effects on the implementation of the curriculum leading to its reduction to test-coaching or teaching to the test, and (3) as a high-stakes testing involving all schools throughout Indonesia at the same time, requiring

a very complex management, the integrity of the test takers and the other stake-holders may be ignored.

On the other hand, people in favor of the National Exam (Saukah, 2013) argue that (1) without implementing the National Exam, students will not be motivated to study seriously because they know that they will eventually graduate from their schools regardless of whether they study seriously or not, (2) the results of the National Exam can be used to compare the competencies of all students in Indonesia against the national standard of competencies so that the quality of education of all schools in Indonesia can be mapped out, and (3) leaving to school personnel to make the decisions about the student graduation will lead to letting all students graduate regardless of whether they have achieved the required competencies to graduate.

This paper is trying to examine the implementation of the National Exam and its effects on different aspects of education in Indonesia, especially when policies of the Ministry of Education and Culture have changed from time to time. Some suggestions on how to maximize the positive effects of the National Exam and minimize the negative effects will be proposed. To give a better understanding about the current National Exam, some historical aspects of the National Exam will also be described.

2. THE NATIONAL EXAM FROM TIME TO TIME

The final exam (as a generic term) as a graduation-related exam has been implemented in Indonesia since 1965 in different labels with the same purpose: for making decisions about student graduations at schools. The different labels attached to the final exam are due to the administration of the tests. The Educational Evaluation Center of the Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesia (Balitbang Kemendikbud, 2013), categorizes the managerial aspects of the final exam into seven periods in terms of the standards as the reference, the test development, and the test administration: periods of 1950-1964, 1965-1971, 1972-1979, 1980-2002, 2003-2004, 2005-2010, and 2011-2014.

In the period of 1950-64, the final exam was labelled as *Ujian Penghabisan* or Final Exam. It was developed based on some national reference by the Ministry of Education, Instruction, and Culture (or

Departemen Pendidikan, Pengajaran, dan Kebudayaan), consisting of essay types of tests, administered and scored by some regional centers.

In the period of 1965-71, labelled as Government Exam, or *Ujian Negara*, it was developed for making decisions about graduations to continue to higher levels of education in the government schools or universities. Those who did not pass the exam could still be granted a diploma (or a certificate of attendance) but could only continue to study at private schools or universities.

In the period of 1972-1979, the final exam was developed and administered at the school levels and it was, therefore, labelled as School Exam, or *Ujian Sekolah*. The decisions about graduations of the students were merely made by the school personnel on the basis of the results of the School Exam. The Government only provided the schools with a general guideline about educational evaluations, but the criteria of graduation were based on the judgment of the school personnel without any control or supervision from the Government. Every student completing required residence at the schools and took the School Exam could graduate and obtain a diploma considered as a certificate of attendance or *Tanda Tamat Belajar*.

In the period of 1980-2002, a combination of national exam and school exam was implemented to replace the School Exam, due to the fact that the result of the school exam,implemented in the period of 1972-79, could not be used to compare scores obtained by students coming from different schools and to compare performances of schools from different regions in the nation to map out the quality of education across the nation. The national exam was labelled as the Nationally Administered Final Exam or *Evaluasi Belajar Tahap Akhir Nasional* (abbreviated as *EBTANAS*) and the school exam was labelled as the Final Exam at the School Level or *Evaluasi Belajar Tahap Akhir* (abbreviated as *EBTA*). The two types of exams covered different subjects resulting in different score reports of the same diploma called Certificate of School Completion or Attendance. The graduation decisions were made on the basis of the results of the national exam controlled nationally combined with those from the school exam organized at the school levels. Therefore, school personnel had the potential to make up the results of the school exam to maximize the rate of the graduation at the schools. Based on this

fact, every student could pass the exam which was assumed to affect negatively the motivation of the students to study.

In the period of 2003-04, the final exam was labelled as the National Final Exam, or *Ujian Akhir Nasional* (*UAN*). It covered three subjects: Mathematics, *Bahasa Indonesia*, and English. The test items were developed by a national team of test development organized by the Center for Educational Evaluation, the Ministry of Education and Culture. The other subjects were measured by the Final School Exam, or *Ujian Akhir Sekolah* (*UAS*) the test items of which were developed at the school level. The decisions for students graduations were based on some criteria set by the Ministry of Education and Culture combining the results of the National Final Exam and the School Final Exam with some tighter control of the minimal passing scores. Based on the criteria of passing sores for graduations, not every student could graduate so that it was claimed that the students were motivated to study seriously.

Prior to the implementation of the next version of the final exam, a study by Mardapi et al. (2004) was conducted to investigate the effects of the National Final Exam (UAN). The study was triggered by the controversies around the advantages and disadvantages of implementing the National Final Exam (UAN) as indicated by those who were in favor of and against its implementations. The results of the study indicate that the positive effects of the implementation of the National Final Exam outperform its negative effects. Therefore, the Ministry of Education decided to continue implementing the national exam system with some modifications which was then labelled as the National Exam, or *Ujian Nasional* (*UN*), to be implemented in the period of 2005-2014.

The results of the National Exam were used to (1) make the decisions about student graduations, (2) map out the quality of education at the national level, and (3) select students for higher levels of education. All the test items were developed at the national level organized by the Center for Educational Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture. A newly established Board for the National Standards of Education, or *Badan Standard Nasional Pendidikan* (*BSNP*) was responsible for the implementation of the National Exam technically operated by the Center for Educational Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

According to the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 about the National Standards of Education, the decisions about student graduations were in fact based on four criteria: (1) attending all the instructional programs, (2) obtaining adequate scores on all the following subjects: religion, ethics, citizenship, personality, aesthetics, and physical education, (3) passing the school exam, and (4) passing the National Exam. Obviously, according to the regulation, passing the National Exam was not the only criteria to make the decisions about student graduations, but the reality indicates that the other three criteria were not strictly applied and the regulation was not tightly controlled. Therefore, the impression of the public was not totally wrong that the result of the National Exam was the only factor to consider to make the decisions about student graduations. This has increased the worries of students, parents, school personnel, and even local government leaders about the student graduations. This has led to a lot of criticisms against the implementation of the National Exam which reached its peak when a group of non-government organizations appealed to the Supreme Courts to abolish its implementations because it was claimed to violate the children's right to continue their education. The Supreme Courts finally decided that the National Exam could only be implemented after all the schools have met the eight national standards of education.

In response to the Supreme Court decision, the Ministry of Education and Culture decided to continue implementing the National Exam while trying to improve the quality of the exam and its aspects and improve the quality of schools in terms of the fulfilment of the eight national standards of education. The latter is beyond the scope of the topic discussed in this paper.

Apparently, in response to the Supreme Court decision and the criticisms put forwards by a large number of people concerned in the negative effects of the implementation of the National Exam, the Ministry of Education and Culture tried to modify its policy in the implementation of the National Exam by proposing some significant changes in the regulations. The first was on the change of some parts of the Government Regulation No. 19 in the Year 2005 on the National Standards of Education by launching a complementary Government Regulation No. 32 in the Year 2013 on the National Standards of Education, which was followed by launching another complementary

Government Regulation No. 13 in 2015. Both complementary Government Regulations have led to the implementation of the National Exam starting in the year 2015.

The current policy of the National Exam implemented beginning in the year 2015 is significantly different from the previous one. The most significant difference is in the function of the result of the National Exam; it is not used any more as the criteria to make any decisions about the student graduations. The result of the National Exam is used as a basis to (1) map out the quality of education of instructional programs and/or schools throughout the nation, (2) consider selection purposes for the next levels of education, and (3) plan some corrective actions and funding schemes to support the improvement of the quality of education at schools and district levels.

3. THE LEGAL ASPECTS OF THE CURRENT NATIONAL EXAM

The implementation of the newly revised version of the National Exam is based on four legal documents: (1) the National System of Education Act No. 20/2003, (2) the National Standards of Education Government Regulation No. 19/2005; revised by the National Standards of Education Government Regulation No. 32/2013, and finally revised again by the National Standards of Education Government Regulation No. 13/2015, (3) the Ministry of Education and Culture Decree No. 5/2015 on the Criteria of Student Graduations, Implementation of the National and School Exams, and (4) the Board for National Standards of Education Regulation No. 0031/P/BSNP/III/2015 on Standard Operating Procedures of the Implementation of the 2015 National Exam.

The first legal basis of the implementation of the National Exam, the National System of Education Act No. 20/2003, mandates the government to carry out evaluations on the students' and the schools achievements on the national standards of education as the accountability of the schools in carrying out their instructional programs (Article 57 Items #1 and #2; Article 58 Item #2). The Act is elaborated in greater detail by the current version of the National Standards of Education Regulation No. 13/2015 focusing

on the functions of the National Exam and the criteria for making the decisions about student graduation. This current version of the Government regulation states that the result of the National Exam is used as the basis to (1) map out the quality of schools and programs, (2) select candidates for higher levels of education, and (3) plan some correction actions and provide schools with financial supports to improve the quality of their education (Article 68). In addition, the criteria of student graduation is also set in Article 72 of the Government Regulation which says that the students can graduate after they (1) attend all the instructional programs, (2) obtain an adequate score on their attitudes and behaviors, and (3) pass the school exam.

The third legal document used as a basis to implement the current version of the National Exam is the Ministry of Education and Culture Decree No. 5/2015 on the Criteria of Student Graduations, Implementation of the National and School Exams. This Decree elaborates more technically the Government Regulation in greater detail. The criteria of student graduation, for instance, are elaborated as follows. The students of the junior high schools can graduate after they attend all the instructional programs from Grades 7 through 9, and students of the senior high schools can graduate after they attend all the instructional programs from Grades 10 through 12, which are actually obvious.

The fourth or the last legal document is the Board for National Standards of Education Regulation No. 0031/P/BSNP/III/2015 containing Standard Operating Procedures of the implementation of the 2015 National Exam in greater detail. The regulation elaborates every technical procedure about (1) the personnel in charge at the national, provincial, municipal, and school levels, (2) the test takers, (3) materials covered in the exam, (4) the administration of the paper-based and computer-based tests, (5) the scoring of the tests, (6) the decisions about student graduations, and (7) other details about actions taken if problems of the test administration arise. The regulation elaborated in the Standard Operating Procedures apparently indicates that the Ministry of Education and Culture has anticipated all possible operations in detail in implementing the 2015 National Exam.

4. THE EFFECTS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL EXAM

Based on the first three legal documents above, the Ministry of Education and Culture has very strong legal supports to implement the National Exam. The most significant revision applied in the implementation of the 2015 National Exam is the change of its function: not a factor to consider for student graduations anymore, different from the regulations in the last 12 years. People who were against the previous implementations of the National Exam argued that the National Exam had serious negative effects on a lot of things because it was a high-stake test. It was considered a high-stake test because it was used as a basis to make decisions about student graduations. Then, the question to be raised would be: is it still considered to be a high-stake test when it is not used as a basis to pass or fail students for their graduation at schools? This question can be answered by investigating whether the negative effects of the implementation of the 2015 version of the National Exam remain the same as before. Do the negative effects still exist? If so, why do they still exist and how can they be reduced or even eliminated?

This part of the paper will discuss the effects of the National Exam on (1) the integrity of the test takers in taking the test and other stake-holders in preparing and administering the test, (2) the curriculum implementation; how the National Exam affects the instructional activities in the classes, and (3) the implementation of the School Exam measuring others not covered in the National Exam.

4.1 The Effects of the National Exam on the Integrity of the Test Takers and Other Stake-Holders

The most serious negative effect of the National Exam as a high-stake test is on the integrity of the test-takers, especially detected from the patterns of responding to the test items. The Center for Education Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture has a collection of data showing that, from year to year in the last 10 years, the degree of integrity has been very disappointing with some fluctuation from time to time. There is no tendency to have anincreasing or decreasing trend, even when the result of the National Exam was not used for making decisions about student graduations

this year. When it was still used as the basis to make decisions about student graduations, the dishonest behaviors were assumed to be due to the function. The students were worried about failing in the exam if they were not really substantially prepared for it. However, when there was no such a risk anymore, why did they still cheat in the test?

Apparently, although the result of the current National Exam is not used as a basis to make decisions about student graduations, students and other stake-holders are still worried about two things related to the other functions of the exam: the students (and perhaps their parents) are worried that they will not be accepted in the higher levels education of high quality, and the school personnel, the personnel of the offices of the education and the personnel of the municipality or regency offices are worried that their schools will be recognized by public to have low achievements. Those may have made the current National Exam to remain a high-stake test when the data of the results of the 2015 National Exam describe the relationship between the scores of the test takers and their Integrity Index of taking the National Exam (abbreviated as IINE, or *Indeks Integritas Ujian Nasional* abbreviated as *IIUN*).

The data of the results of the 2015 National Exam have been analyzed by the Center for Educational Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture (2015a; 2015b) showing the relationship between scores obtained and the IINE based on the following categories: (1) Senior High School Natural Science Programs, or *IPA*, (2) Senior High School Social Science Programs, or *IPS*, (3) Vocational High Schools, (4) schools from different geographical locations, (5) Junior High Schools, (6) private and government schools, and (7) Islamic Schools (or *Madrasah*). The analysis results in the categorization of all test takers from all kinds of groups into four quadrants: (1) high NE scores and high integrity index in NE (IINE), (2) low NE scores but high IINE, (3) low NE scores and low IINE, and (4) high NE scores but low IINE.

In terms of the interpretation, quadrant-1 can be considered the best: high integrity, high degree of honesty, and yet results in high scores in the National Exam. Quadrant-2 can be tolerated and useful because this can be used to identify which groups of the students in which schools should be given priority for corrective actions and

providing financial supports to improve their quality.Quadrant-3 may be considered the worst of the situation: their integrity is low, having low degree of honesty and yet their scores in the National Exam are low. However, quadrant-4 should be considered to create the most serious problem because the situation may create the distrust of the public on the results of the National Exam in general.

The results of all the analyses indicate that (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2015a and 2015b): (1) about 11% of all the schools have high NE average scores and high IINE, (2) about 17% have low NE average scores but high IINE, (3) about 22% have low NE average scores and low IINE, and (4) about 50% have high NE average scores but low IINE. In terms of the index of integrity, ideally it is expected that most test takers would be in either quadrant-1 or quadrant-2; whereas in terms of competency measured, ideally it is expected that most test takers would be in quadrant-1: performing well in the test with high integrity. Unfortunately, most of the schools (about 50%) were in quadrant-4, which would create the most serious problem: distrust of the public on the result of the National Exam. It is worth noting that the dishonest behaviors observed at schools indicated by the low IINE vary in terms of its intensity (number of individuals involved) and its kinds (e.g. students cheating in the class, teachers helping students, and seating arrangement by the school personnel to allow students to cheat).

The results are discouraging. They indicate that the negative effects of the National Exam in terms of the integrity, the honesty in doing the test, remain a serious problem. There was no change in the trends of the index of integrity from time to time, even after the policy of the Ministry of Education and Culture has been significantly changed. Even after the result of the National Exam is not used as a basis to make decisions about student graduations, the negative effects of the National Exam on the integrity of the test takers do not change. According to the Head of the Center for Educational Evaluation, the Ministry of Education and Culture (2015), the trends in the results of the National Exam in the last 10 years were consistent. However, to put a blame on the National Exam for the low IINE may be considered a hasty conclusion. A study investigating the real cause of the low index of integrity observed in the behaviors during the implementation of the National Exam should be conducted to come

to such a conclusion.

Therefore, all efforts of the Ministry of Education and Culture must be given to maximize the index of integrity in the National Exam in the next administration so that the results of the National Exam will be trusted and useful for a lot of purposes. Such embarrassing data have been kept confidential to the public so that now it is time to be revealed. The public has the right to know which schools or school districts have low index of integrity so that some corrective actions can be done to improve their integrity in the next administration of the National Exam.

4.2 The Effects of the National Exam on the Curriculum Implementation

In addition to the negative effects of the National Exam on the integrity in doing and administering the test, educators should also be concerned with the effects of the National Exam on the implementation of the curriculum. According to a qualitative meta-synthesis done by Au (2007) as previously mentioned, high-stake testing can lead to narrowing down teaching to only focus on what is measured in the test, and, therefore, teachers will tend to use teacher-centered instructional approach.

The National Exam in Indonesia as a high-stake testing has similar effects on the implementation of the English curriculum. A study by Furaidah (2012) investigating what is really going on in the teaching of English in the class, indicates that teachers tend to teach to the tests if they are not confident about their students' competencies; tendencies to teach to the tests were also found at low-achieving schools.

In line with Furaidah's study, a research study by Saukah and Cahyono (2015) investigating the implications of the policy change of the Ministry of Education and Culture indicates that teachers at high-achieving schools do not change the way they teach English in spite of the fact that the National Exam is not used anymore as a basis to make decisions about student graduations. They teach English according to the curriculum in their regular classes and prepare the students, who are still highly motivated to study, for the National Exam in their extra-curricular activities. The result of his study also indicates that, on the other hand, the teachers at lower-achieving

schools do not prepare their students for the National Exam because their students are not motivated anymore to study seriously. Their students think that the National Exam is not a high-stakes testing anymore.

4.3 The Effects of the National Exam on the Implementation of the School Exam Measuring Those not Covered in the National Exam

According to the previous policy as mandated by the previous regulations, before the implementation of the 2015 National Exam, the result of the National Exam was only one of the bases to make decisions about student graduations. The other three bases include attending all the instructional programs, obtaining adequate scores on all subjects other than those covered in the National Exam, and passing the School Exam. Therefore, in addition to the scores obtained from the classroom-based assessment and the National Exam, scores from the School Exam should be a very important basis to make decisions about student graduations. In reality, the result of the National Exam was the predominant factor to make decisions about student graduations. It was rarely found that students failed to graduate because of the other three factors as long as they passed the National Exam. It was rarely heard that students passing the National Exam failed to graduate because they failed to meet the criteria for the other three factors.

In addition, for the English curriculum, the School Exam should serve a very important role in making a valid decision about the students' achievements in English. The school curriculum for English subjects contains all the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The English Section of the National Exam, for practical reasons, can only include receptive skills: reading and listening. Therefore, in terms of validity, the result of the English test of the National Exam could not be used to make decisions about the achievements of the students in English as required by the curriculum. The result of the English Test of the National Exam can only indicate the students' achievements in listening and reading, but not in speaking and writing.

In response to the lack of data about the implementation of the School Exam in relation to its role in making the decisions about

student graduation in Indonesia, a study was conducted by Ginting (2014) investigating how schools implemented the School Exam, especially in measuring writing ability of the students as one of the skills required in the curriculum but not covered in the National Exam. The result of the study indicates that the schools implementing the School Exam can be categorized into three groups: among 22 schools involved in this study (1) 48% of the schools partially implemented the School Exam, (2) 42% of the schools moderately implemented the School Exam, and (3) only 10% of the schools fully implemented the School Exam. The result of the study suggests that measuring the language skills which were not covered in the National Exam was not considered important leading to the conclusion that the National Exam, being the predominant factor in making the decisions about the student graduation, has affected the curriculum control negatively.

5. RELATIONSHIPS AMONG DIFFERENT FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL EXAM

Factors involved in the implementation of the National Exam may include: the quality of schools, the quality of the teachers, how to prepare students for the National Exam, the integrity of the students and other stake-holders, and the scores obtained from the National Exam. Based on the analyses described above and the analyses reported by the personnel of the Center for Education Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the following sets of relationship can be proposed:

1) For the group of schools with high index of integrity, there is a positive correlation between integrity index and test performance: the higher the integrity index the higher the performance the students, the lower the integrity index the lower the performance of the students in the National Exam.
2) For the group of schools with high index of integrity, schools with higher quality of education, in terms of the fulfillment of the national standards, tend to have higher integrity index.
3) For the group of schools with high index of integrity, there is also tendency that the more professional the teachers the higher their integrity index which leads to higher performance of their students in the National Exam.

4) For the group of schools with low index of integrity, there is no relationship between integrity index and performance of the students in the National Exam; but in some cases, there is also a tendency of negative relationship between the two factors: the lower the integrity index the higher the performance of the students in the National Exam, which may lead to a confirmation about the existence of suspected mal-practices at schools during the implementation of the National Exam: students were provided with answer keys to do the National Exam or with the opportunity to cheat during the test administration.
5) The teachers at schoolsof higher quality tend to prepare their students for the National Exam without sacrificing the development of the language skills required by the curriculum.
6) The teachers at schools of lower quality tend to prepare their students for the National Exam focusing only on the language skills covered in the National Exam: listening and reading, neglecting the language skills not covered in the National Exam (speaking and writing).
7) Schools of higher quality tend to implement the School Exam fully because the teachers of English realize that measuring the productive skills not measured in the National Exam would improve the validity of the decisions made about their student graduations.

6. THE FUTURE PLANS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL EXAM

According to the Head of the Center for Educational Evaluation, the Ministry of Education and Culture, the current policy of the National Exam, that its result will not be used as a basis to make decisions about student graduations, will be continued. In addition, the focus on improving the integrity of the students and all the stake-holders of the National Exam will be taken as the priority to create full trust of the public on the result of the National Exam. To improve the quality of the test administration of the National Exam, Computer-based Testing, which was introduced the first time in the

2015 implementation the National Exam adopted in some selected schools, will be expanded and developed to replace the paper-based testing whenever possible.

The most promising plan for better testing in the National Exam is their plan to improve the quality of the test items to increase the validity of the test to measure what it should measure so that at the same time it will reduce the negative effects of the National Exam: drilling, test coaching, and, more seriously spreading the answer keys. This is in line with the result of the study by Au which indicates that the effects of a high-stake testing may depend on the quality of the test items. High quality of test items may affect the implementation of the curriculum positively: "curricular content expansion, the integration of knowledge, and more student centered, cooperative pedagogies" (2007).

For the English Section of the National Exam, with the breakthrough of the information technology and sophistication of computer application, it is possible to measure all the four skills required in the curriculum to be measured directly as has been developed by the Educational Testing Service in their iBT TOEFL. This long-term future planning may also solve the low index of integrity in the National Exam. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education and Culture has to execute some serious actions about the low index of integrity as indicated not only in the last 10 years of the National Exam but also in the 2015 implementation of the National Exam in spite of the change of its function not as a basis to make decisions about student graduation anymore. The data of low integrity index should not be kept confidential anymore. It should be revealed to the public because the public has the right to know what has been going on at schools in educating their children.

Only if the integrity index of the implementation of the National Exam is high, the results of the National Exam can be used, as mandated by the existing regulations, a basis (1) to map out the quality of education in Indonesia, (2) to consider selection purposes at higher levels of education, and (3) to plan some corrective actions to improve the quality of low-achieving schools and provide them with adequate financial supports.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The implementation of the final exam in Indonesia has changed from time to time, and efforts have been given to improve the quality of the exam to maximize its positive effects and minimize the negative effects on many aspects of education in Indonesia. The negative effects were thought to be due to the status of the National Exam as a high-stake testing when its result was used as a basis to make decisions about student graduations. Apparently, with the change of its function, not as a basis to make decisions about student graduations, the National Exam is still considered to be a high-stakes testing because the result will still be used as a basis to map out the quality of education and to select students at higher levels of education. However, the root of the problems related to the negative effects of the National Exam needs to be investigated further.

In addition to improving the quality of the test items in the National Exam, the Ministry of Education and Culture is also confronted with integrity in the implementation. All the stake-holders of education at schools should be made more aware that the low integrity in the implementation may lead to the distrust of the public on the result of the National Exam. The result of the National Exam can be used, as mandated by the existing regulations, to map out the quality of education and to select students for higher levels of education, only if the index of integrity in doing the National Exam is high.

The consistency of the Ministry of Education and Culture in committing to the quality of education in Indonesia is really required. The quality of the National Exam and its implementation will surely contribute significantly to the success of the Ministry of Education and Culture in improving the quality of education in Indonesia. The future plans of the Center for the Educational Evaluation of the Ministry of Education and Culture put a promising future of the National Exam implemented with high integrity.

To help improve the validity of the decisions about the students' achievement in the English subject, more authentic assessments integrated in the classroom activities and developed for the school exam should be utilized. To do that, teachers of English at schools should be empowered by providing them with trainings, supervisions, and encouragement on how to develop authentic assessments to measure all the competencies required by the curriculum.

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11 NAVIGATING THE GLOBAL AND THE LOCAL IN WRITING ASSESSMENT

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1. INTRODUCTION

> *It is critical to remember that the way we assess our students speaks volumes, identifying our purposes and articulating our principles more clearly than any mission statement ever could.*
> *– Deborah Crusan, author, Assessment in the Second Language Writing Classroom*

The terms *local* and *global* in the title of this paper hold double meanings for writing and writing assessment. On the one hand, they can refer to types of assessments and where they take place. A *local* assessment of writing refers mainly to the classroom, where instructors, either individually or as part of a program or department, evaluate the students whom they have taught. Comparably, *global* refers to assessments on a larger scale, for example national and international evaluations of writing. On the other hand, in the lexicon of writing studies, *global* refers to features of an entire text such as organization, main message or argument, overall support for the main idea and tone of the text. *Local* refers to sentence-level features, correctness, citations, punctuations and other micro-features of a text. These multiple meanings begin to illustrate the complexity of assessing writing, particularly for instructors of writing, who negotiate these levels constantly: guiding students to understand how their global writing choices affects the message in their writing, attending to local issues of correctness in a text, developing class writing assignments and preparing students to take

large-scale exams.

Assessing writing can be vexing to instructors. Locally, reading hundreds of paragraphs and pages of student prose is a daunting task. Making decisions such as what feedback is most useful, what grade is most accurate and appropriate, and how consistent these evaluations are across those hundreds of texts can seem overwhelming. Beyond the classroom, instructors can become frustrated in the face of large-scale student assessment over which they feel little control; Crusan (2010) writes that in these situations "teachers often feel themselves outside the realm of assessment, blocked by the language of testing professionals, stymied by quantification, and confused by rhetoric from the standardized testing community" (2010, p. 113).

Yet this complex, vexing work of writing assessment has important consequences for students and their instructors, such that understanding how writing assessment works and preparing students for them is of the utmost importance.Assessments of student writing is used in order to make placement determinations, to diagnose writing needs at the beginning of a class or program, to determine aptitude, to evaluate achievement or progress in a program or class, and even to reflect the quality of a writing class or program (Crusan, 2010). The effects of writing assessment go beyond the walls of a school, for results can determine people's access to a wider range of socioeconomic activities. Hamp-Lyons (2014) summarizes the link between writing assessments and life opportunities:

> *As migration has steadily increased in all developed countries, English language tests have become a critical component of decision-making about the movement of people from less-developed countries to countries where they can gain greater educational opportunity. English proficiency is one of the essential keys to unlock the door of educational opportunity, with all that promises for an individual's future. Whatever one's own position on the ethics of testing, it must be acknowledged that English tests—including their writing assessment components—have great sociopolitical weight and economic implications.* (p. 355)

Even without physically relocating, writing assessment can be used to access opportunities for working with international colleagues, project funding, and other opportunities.

At the same time, writing assessments illustrate beliefs about

good writing, and preparing for those evaluations thus shapes writers ideas of what writing is and what it can do. Writing is a skill for life, and a narrow preparation focused tightly on a form of writing to pass a single, timed, static product to the exclusion of the larger context of writing will ill-prepare students to write in other contexts.

In an attempt to disentangle some of the complications explained above and to introduce sound parameters for assessing writing at local and global levels, this paper will discuss what writing is, examine means of and issues in assessing writing, present principles and practices of writing assessment in courses, and finally discuss large-scale writing assessments: what we know of what they do, how they do it, and how to work with students who deal with them.

2. WRITING

The ways in which writing is assessed reflects ideas and beliefs of what writing is, and that definition is neither simple nor stable. One way to define writing is as symbols, such as letters, on a page or a screen. This is perhaps the simplest way to regard writing, as a static object, a product of previous work. Another way to conceive of writing is as an activity, the action of putting pen to paper, fingers to keyboard, thumbs to screen, etc. In this view, writing is an activity, not a product. These definitions are the ones found in almost any English dictionary. One might also include the various other actions involved in the process of writing: brainstorming, organizing, revising, editing. Yet another way to look at writing is to take into consideration what provoked the text, what the writing is based on, and who reads it. In this view, writing involves a network of social communications in which the author responds to actions and other texts, considering readers and their positions, making choices about content and form, revising those choices, etc. Extending these definitions even further, writing is knowledge creation, a particularly important consideration in academic contexts whether one is an accomplished scholar or a novice. Writing clarifies, focuses – and even changes or obscures – a person's thinking about the subject she is writing about. Writing is not a case of "speech written down." Even in cases of causal writing like a shopping list or writing that blends forms of conversation and writing such as texting, there are organization and orthographic

features that distinguish these from speech.

At its center, writing is a rhetorical, humanist activity. It is contextualized, purposeful, and communicative. It is physical, learned, and teachable. In this view, writing is a socioliterate activity based in constructivist approaches to language (Ferris & Hedgcock 2005).As a humanist activity, writing is done by humans for humans to read. This point appears simple, but as tools for machine-scoring of essays - and even machine-writing of reports – become more able and debates about them rage, the place of the human in writing is worth remembering when considering what writing is, what writers do, and how writing is assessed.

The readers, or audience, constitute one part of the *rhetorical situation* in which any act of communication takes place, including written communication. The other components are the author, his or her purpose for writing, the context (time and place), and the text of the communication itself. Examining writing in a rhetorical situation shows how each instance of writing – from a humorous social media comment to a friend to an undergraduate English thesis – shows how writers make choices to communicate to an audience to achieve a particular purpose.[1]For example, in an original research article for a journal such as *TESOL Quarterly* or *TEFLIN Journal*, the readers (audience) expect an abstract at the beginning, and a certain order of elements from research questions through future implications. If the author wants to disseminate her research in one of these journals (purpose), she will make writing decisions (author) with those expectations in mind. While a text such as "Hey, I found this cool article about language learning. Check it out!" would not suit the rhetorical situation noted above, it might be appropriate for a student post on a social media site on which students are brainstorming ideas for a paper in an introductory level course.

As authors write to a particular audience with a particular purpose in mind, they use their understanding of the rhetorical situation to compose, conform, and adapt their text to the expectations of the

1 For further overviews of the concept of rhetorical situation, see the Conference on College Composition and Communication's (2010)*Rhetorical situation*. Retrieved http://www.ncte.org/library/NCTEFiles/Resources/Journals/CCC/0613-feb2010/CCC0613Poster.pdf as well as the Purdue Online Writing Lab's (2010) *Elements of rhetorical situations* and *Understanding writing: The rhetorical situation* athttps://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/625/02/

audience. If a writer wants to discomfort or alienate his audience (purpose), he might deliberately violate conventions of a genre and thus make writing choices as an author that he knows will conflict with his readers' assumptions. Less experienced or less skillful writers may make ineffective writing choices in different contexts based on knowledge and skills they are still acquiring. However, "[scholars] agree that effective writers use the concept of the rhetorical situation throughout their composing processes. They use it as a way to frame a writing task, for example. And they use it as they compose, to be sure that their writing keeps its intended focus" (College Composition, 2010).

Treating writing as a situated, socioliterate activity holds implications for teaching and assessing students. For teaching, composition research over the last century has revealed that"[l] earning to write better involves engaging in the processes of drafting, reading, and revising; in dialogue, reflections, and formative feedback with peers and teachers; and in formal instruction and imitative activities" (National Council). For assessing, while composition scholars argue that a single textual product, such as a timed essay, cannot demonstrate a writer's full range of skills, constraints such as resources and measurement technologies also enter to affect the kinds of writing assessments students and instructors take part in.

2.1 Writing Assessment

Assessment, including writing assessment, comes in multiple forms. There are large-scale, formal, national and international exams that have writing components, and there are everyday assessments in local classroom settings. Weigle (2007) describes the myriad assessments that instructors perform regularly:

> *Assessment is a broad term that encompasses all sorts of activities that teachers engage in to evaluate their students' progress, learning needs, and achievements. ... [T]eachers are constantly evaluating their students in informal ways, and these informal evaluations are an important part of assessment, just as more formal tests are. Informal assessments include such things as clarification checks to make sure students understand particular teaching points, eliciting responses to questions on style and usage from students, or circulating among students doing peer response work to ensure that they are on task. ... For a writing class, formal assessments may include traditional*

> *writing tests, for example, an exercise in which students are required to generate one or more pieces of connected discourse in a limited time period, which are then scored on some sort of numerical scale, and other activities, in particular, response to and evaluation of artifacts such as portfolios, homework assignments, or out – class writing assignments.* (p. 195)

While end of semester papers and timed writing on exams may be some of the more obvious forms of writing assessment, all of the informal and formal assessments noted above have a place in instructors' practices. And, as with all assessment instruments, they should be evaluated in terms of reliability and validity, they should be free of bias,[2] and should be scored appropriately.

Writing experts agree that assessment of writing should not rely on one score of one type of writing to draw conclusions about a writer's overall ability (Crusan, 2010; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2013; Hamp-Lyons 1996/2009). In the US National Council of Teachers of English and the professional association of Writing Program Administrators stated this point in a policy paper thus: "Writing assessment should use multiple measures and engage multiple perspectives to make decisions that improve teaching and learning. These multiple measures and perspectives can include the use of several readers and the perspectives they bring to student texts" (National Council). As noted earlier, writing is contextual and skilled writers employ different skills and features of writing based on features of the rhetorical situation such as audience expectations and purpose for writing. If a writer only wrote 5-paragraph essays, he would fail in many writing contexts, so in order to assess writing skills and ability, evaluators need to examine more than one example.

As evaluators assess student writing, ideally multiple types, one goal remains constant in the activity: The goal of writing assessment is to improve student writing skills. As Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) note, this activity goes beyond giving a score on a single text:

> *As a formative and inherently pedagogical endeavor, therefore, the assessment of students' writing processes and products is a central responsibility that should be tightly linked to syllabus design, lesson*

2 Crusan (2010), Ferris & Hedgcock (2014), and Weigle (2014) offer valuable and accessible summaries and discussions of reliability, validity, and bias in writing assessment.

> *planning, task and assignment development, and feedback processes. Writing assessment is pedagogical in that, when reliable and valid, its outcomes inform writers in ways that directly and indirectly promote their progress as independent writers. Scores, grades, and evaluative feedback should consistently contribute to writers' learning processes and to the improvement of their measurable writing skills. (p. 300)*

This aim is perhaps most observable in classroom settings where formative writing assessment occurs. However, even summative assessment, when linked to an assignment with clear goals and components and especially with summary evaluation comments, can show a student what they are doing well and where they can continue to improve. Ideally, even admission and placement assessments can further this goal. A placement test of writing helps determine a student is placed into a class at an optimum level to learn and advance. A score on an admission test should be indexed to descriptors so a student can again understand where they are succeeding and where they can improve.

2.2 Local Writing Assessment

As noted in the introduction to this paper, one interpretation of the "local" in writing assessment refers to the assessments that take place in a classroom. Pedagogically sound assessment does not appear only at the end of instruction, but rather assessment needs to be a consideration in setting course goals, assignments, and activities (Crusan, 2010; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014; Weigle 2014). Instructors examine the goals and roles related to writing in their courses, develop writing assignments that reflect those writing goals, design lesson plans that help students achieve those goals, and use appropriate assessment instruments that are meaningful to students so they can understand their progress. In this process, instructors choose foci for the assessment, not trying to evaluate all aspects of writing at once. Throughout these activities, instructors dedicate attention to writing strategies and cognitive operations involved in creating a meaningful, coherent piece of discourse resulting from "writers' purposeful interactions with print, with fellow readers and writers, and with literate communities of practice" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005, p.31). These pedagogical assessment practices treat writing not as a

static example of print on a page, but rather as rhetorically situated, socioliterate practice.

Most importantly, the goals and means of assessment should be explicit for those affected by the assessment. As the NCTE/WPA policy paper on this topic asserts, "Writing assessment should articulate and communicate clearly its values and expectations to all stakeholders, especially students." Crusan (2010) calls this *transparent assessment*, in which students know the assessment criteria and the scoring mechanism for the assignment. Both NCTE and Crusan state explicitly that assessment should not be hidden: "…to make assessment in every class I teach completely and utterly transparent, there are no secrets" (Crusan, 2010, p. 33); "Assessment should not be invisible, mysterious, or elusive to any stakeholders" (National Council). While syllabi and writing assignments are two places to explain these features, *rubrics* are one of the common and useful ways to make assessment explicit for student writers.

Rubrics can be classified according to whether they assign a single score to a piece of writing as holistic rubric, or give points to different aspects of the writing such as organization and use of vocabulary as an analytic rubric. They also vary according to how general or specific they are, in other words, whether a general rubric is used for multiple assignments or whether specific rubrics are generated for each particular assignment. In comparing the different types, Weigle (2014) notes that "while arguments can be made for either type of scoring, research suggests that, while holistic scales are faster and more efficient, analytic scales tend to be somewhat more reliable than holistic scales, and certainly provide more useful feedback to students, as scores on different aspects of writing can tell students where their respective strengths and weaknesses are" (p. 204). In particular, multiple-trait rubrics use descriptions of writing features involved in a specific type of writing. They are "grounded in the context of their use…developed on-ste for a specific purpose, for a specific group of writers, and with the involvement of the readers who will make judgments in that context" (Hamp-Lyons, 1996/2006, p. 349). Thus multiple-trait rubrics need to be individualized for each assignment, which can be a daunting task. However, instructors need not create each rubric from scratch: many rubrics are available online and in texts about teaching writing and writing assessment. A sound

local assessment practice is to "adopt and adapt" (Crusan, 2010, p. 72), to take rubrics that already exist and make changes to them to fit a particular assignment (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014, Weigle, 2014).

Two situations instructors commonly face make the types of assessments discussed above appear unrealistic if not completely impossible. One situation occurs when instructors do not have control of the syllabus, assignments, and/or writing assessments that they teach. In some programs, these documents are standardized for use across all iterations of a course, and they may reflect sound connections between explicitly stated writing goals, activities, and assessment - or they may not. In these situations, the instructor can still practice some degree of transparent assessment. For example, if the instructor is going to assess writing, he can show the students the qualities he will assess. If he is not going to be the assessor, he may practice the strategies described below for handling large-scale assessments.

Another situation that can be an obstacle to implementing ideal forms of writing assessment are large classes. Pedagogical assessment of writing involves many steps and much feedback. The result of this work has been shown to increase student learning about content as well as develop sound writing skills generally, which can serve students in future tasks from writing business memos to undergraduate theses. However, for the instructors of these courses "the idea of adding writing to their courses is daunting: writing takes time in courses where there is already too much content to cover. And many faculty feel they have too little expertise in teaching and grading writing" (Using writing, 2006, p.1).Strategies for working with large classes – which are also applicable to smaller ones – include developing and using rubrics as well as teaching students how to use them for peer assessments and for self-editing of their own papers. Instructors can also provide good models of writing that illustrate the qualities highlighted in the rubric. While in smaller classes, instructors may have the resources to give feedback on multiple drafts, in large classes students can be shown how to use the rubrics, models, and peer feedback to improve their drafts before the instructor reads them.[3]

3 The Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) Clearinghouse lists more techniques for using writing in large classes.

2.3 National/International Writing Assessment

One of the most high-stakes assessments students and their instructors must deal with are large-scale assessments at the national and international level. In many national education systems around the world, students take exams – often in or about English and often featuring some assessment of writing – in order to move from one educational level to the next, to determine effectiveness of a school or program or instructor, and to graduate with a degree. Students take IELTS to gain entry to a university in another country. Academics report TOEFL scores as part of their credentials for promotion. Students take national exams to graduate from particular programs in universities.

While concepts about what writing involves, how to teach it, and how to assess it have transformed over the past century (Crusan, 2010; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005, 2014) "the great majority of writing tests have not evolved very much" although their scoring and reporting procedures have shown some changes (Hamp-Lyons, 2014, p. 354). Exams may use indirect methods of assessing writing, for example, multiple-choice vocabulary questions; or they may ask for students to produce a timed essay on a broad, general topic without indication of the hypothetical purpose or audience for the students' writing. With these kinds of conservative writing assessments, it may seem that despite instructors' best efforts to implement sound writing instruction and assessment practices locally, that work is inconsequential or irrelevant to the writing students do for these exams. Of if instructors spend what instruction time they can give to writing tightly focusing on the types of texts these tests often elicit – timed, seemingly-contextless, static essays – that they ignore long-term, beyond-school writing skills.

However, framing large-scale assessment of writing as a rhetorical situation (one of many writing situations, not the one most important and ideal way or type of writing), being informed about the tests in terms of how they evaluate writing, and making that information explicit for the students are all actions instructors can take with their students to minimize some of the frustrations and complications outlined above.

As discussed before, all writing is contextualized and takes place within a rhetorical situation, and skilled writers take the

components of that situation into account when composing texts. A timed-essay on a large-scale test is a rhetorical situation for writing: there is a purpose for writing, an audience, constraints, and choices authors can make in their writing. As with classroom writing, the student may be composing in both a real situation and a hypothetical one, depending on the writing prompt: if the prompt asks the writer to imagine he is a manager at a company and must write a reply to a given email message from his employee, then there is an imagined audience (employee) and context (business email) at the same time a real audience (test rater) and context (exam). Understanding exam writing through rhetorical situation may help erode the danger of treating exam writing as the one, important, good way of writing.

As noted above for situations in which instructors have little or no control over the design of writing assessments for their courses, instructors can take steps to learn about the assessments and make that information explicit for their students in ways that prepare them not only to write in that situation but also to understand the results in ways that can, ideally, give them information about how to improve.

Crusan (2010) clearly summarizes steps instructors can take to become knowledgeable about tests:

> *First, be educated about tests. Obtain access to disclosed copies of the test. Then deconstruct the test to find out what kinds of vocabulary and terms students need. Deconstruct the test design – make lists of key word often used. Look at how the test is written…Next, create test-savvy students. Share with your students the information you uncovered in your test deconstruction….[C]reate writing-savvy students. Instruct them in the kinds of writing that a standardized test requires (usually the four- or five-paragraph essay). Teach them how to write for the text, carefully pointing out that the kind of writing required on the test is rarely the kind of writing done in real life (emphasis mine). Then practice.* (p. 133-4)

For example, instructors can get information about IELTS, TOEFL, and TOEIC, three major international English exams that contain direct measures of writing assessment, from their websites. ETS, the company that develops and administers the latter two tests, describes two kinds of writing tasks examinees need to accomplish: an integrated writing task in which the writing is based on a reading and a lecture, and an independent writing task in which the examinees

give an opinion on a topic. Example prompts are available as well as models of responses to them.

Instructors can also benefit from investigating how the examinee writing is assessed. For example, the three tests above make versions of their *rubrics* available to the public. The TOEFL and IELTS rubrics show specific attention to addressing a topic or task, development of ideas including details and organization, coherence and cohesion, vocabulary, and sentence-level accuracy.

They – or other people writing about the tests – may give information about the *raters*. TOEFLiBT notes that it has two ETS-trained writers read the test. They typically read quickly, looking for the features on the rubric and assigning a holistic score; if the scores differ, a third reader will look at the writing. Instructors may decide on ways to present information about the rubrics and the raters to help students envision the audience for the exam writing and that audience's expectations.

Another potential reader of large-scale assessments worth mentioning here are machines. Automatic essay scoring instruments are currently being developed and generally with more input from technology and psychometric professionals than writing experts (Crusan, 2010). As with all technology, these instruments have strengths and weaknesses and should be evaluated by instructors and not adopted or accepted blindly (Crusan, 2010). Even with this automated readership, writers can use a rhetorical framework to approach the task. A machine "audience" is "reading" with particular expectations in mine; it is looking for certain kinds of features. For example, if research has shown that a machine uses lexical complexity as part of its rating (in other words, it has audience expectations about vocabulary), then instructors might investigate information about how the machine measures lexical complexity and decide how to use it with students.

Assessment companies such as ETS also gives information about the test's *scoring system* – what does a score look like, what does it reflect, and how does it relate to the rubric; some may use multiple-trait scoring or give descriptors that match a holistic score. Some even include *advice for improving writing* based on the score an examinee receives. For example, if an examines receives a middling score on the independent TOEFLiBT exam, the ETS website gives

advice such as "Pay attention to how you organize ideas and think about how a reader who isn't familiar with your topic is going to be able to follow the information you want to present" and follows that advice with example activities to undertake, such as "Have a friend or a teacher outline your essay so that you can see if others can recognize your method of organization." However, there are many pieces of advice ranging from task adherence to grammar and an examinee may not know in which areas she needs to improve the most. This issue reflects one of the main weaknesses of a single-score system: "when a writer has generally sound writing skills but a weakness in just one area, a single-number score will almost certainly fail to reflect the extremely marked aspect of the writing performance, whereas multiple trait scores will achieve it" (Hamp-Lyons, 1996/2009).

Giving explicit attention to the ways in which instructors and students can examine the components, measures, and rhetorical situation of large-scale writing assessments places these assessments in a larger picture of writing in the world, as one situation and one type of writing that an author will do across her lifetime.

3. CONCLUSION

A topic as complex as writing assessment, made even more intricate by the dimensions of language assessment, provides the basis for a lifetime of work much less a single paper or talk. The task of assessing writing can feel at times impossibly detailed on one end or unreasonably at reliant on a small set of features at the other. However, five themes from the points establish focus and flexibility in evaluating writing.

- Understand the contextual nature of writing: both instructors and students should know how the rhetorical situation shapes the choices a writer makes.
- Treat writing assessments as contextual: for example, teachers can show how understanding of the rhetorical context shapes a writer's choices in a national language text that features a written section: what does the *audience* – the reader/rater – expect and look for in the exam and how can the *author* – the student - make writing choices to fulfil that expectation if the *purpose* is to achieve a high mark viewing writing situations

in light of rhetorical situation is not a simple fix to improve student writing, but it is a way to avoid treating every writing situation as unique and detached. It is a way of seeing how all writing is made of choices, serves a purpose, and affects an audience. Whether a published newspaper editorial, a scholarly research paper in a prestigious international linguistics journal, or a TOEFL essay.

- Be knowledgeable about writing assessment instruments: when creating classroom or program assessments, instructors and administrators should be aware of what aspects of writing they need to assess and how to assess them; for assessments they do not create themselves, they should learn *how* the instrument is assessing writing, *who* is doing the assessment, and *how* the results are used
- Be explicit about writing assessment: on writing assignments they create, instructors should clearly state the writing goals and explain how they will assess student achievement of those goals; for assessments instructors do not create themselves, they should inform the student as much as they can in terms of what is being assessed and who is assessing it.
- Use assessment to improve student writing.

From informal writing assessments in classrooms to timed essays in test centers, from considerations of argument and support to important word choices and correct grammar, writing assessment engages students and instructors in activities spanning the global and the local. Hamp-Lyons (2014) observes that this action of "assessment is often about measuring past learning, but its effects are about future opportunity" (p. 360). As informed professionals who are engaged in principled assessment activities aimed at improving writing, instructors help their students access those opportunities.

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12 PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT AND METACOGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT IN EFL CLASSROOMS

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1. INTRODUCTION

The fast growing of the global era nowadays involves changing and development in many life aspects including education. UNESCO's *The Four Pillars of Education* (Delors *et al*, 1996) conceptualize how the 21th century world education has to be designed to keep up with the challenges of the era. Since the publication of the research-based report, the school curriculum has been directed to what is so called the competency-based curriculum.

In the case of Indonesian school curriculum, the 2013 curriculum which is currently implemented in many piloting schools is a competency-based curriculum. Considered as an affective-based curriculum, the new curriculum has four core competencies in which the first two are affective, non cognitive namely spiritual attitude and social attitude. The third core competency is cognitive or knowledge oriented, and the fourth is psychomotor or skills oriented, respectively.

This new orientation of the Indonesia curriculum, especially the attitudinal core competencies, has become a major attention. Traditionally, attitudinal, non-cognitive aspects were considered as hidden curriculum which effects in students as nurturant effects of learning. Being hidden (or not explicit in the curriculum), attitudinal aspects were gradually left far behind the emphasis of learning which were at that time very much knowledge-based. Classroom practice now has to insert attitudinal aspects in the teaching and learning

process. Unlike the traditional practice where attitudinal aspects were incidentally inserted and not clearly assessed, the 2013 curriculum requires explicit planning, implementation, and assessment of the attitudinal aspects along with the cognitive and psychomotor aspects. This now becomes a major challenge for most teachers, including English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers.

A study reported that EFL teachers in junior high school in Bali were struggling with difficulties in doing assessment on attitudinal competencies, for some reasons (Marhaeni and Artini, 2015). *First*, explicit assessment to attitudinal competencies requires assessment on process while traditionally the teachers were very product-oriented. For instance, in Writing lessons, normally the practice includes the teacher gives an introduction of the genre being learned by explaining the generic structure of the genre, sometimes with an example. Later, the students are asked to find a topic which is appropriate to be written in the particular genre. Then, the writing process mostly happens with only little intervention and supervision by the teacher. The students eventually finish a piece of writing, say a paragraph, at home and would submit it in the next English lesson. *Second*, teachers are not so far yet familiar with strategies and instruments of doing assessment on attitudinal aspects. *Third*, some technical aspects also of a serious challenge, including very big class size and minimum learning facilities in most schools. The results of the study above indicate that assessment in EFL learning has to include attitudinal aspects likely to be done through on-going process of assessment.

Assessment in process requires use of authentic assessment. Authentic assessment attempts to measure all the competencies including attitude, skill and cognitive based on the process and product. Especially in language learning, authenticity plays an important role as it is a social and cultural practice. Language is integral to culture and cultural process. Learning to read and write makes it possible for children to reflect on language in the process of their learning. Paris and Ayres (1994) state that in an integrated language arts classroom, children seek and construct meaning as they read, write, and discuss ideas in authentic contexts. Authentic language assessment tasks are, by definition, meaningful and represent the complexity of real-life problem (Nitko, 2001). In an authentic assessment students are

required to construct unique responses rather than to select responses from pre-existing options. Engaging students in such tasks will help them to develop critical thinking, ability to solve problems, ability to work collaboratively, creativity, and be reflective.

To see how the teaching learning process is going in the classroom, authentic assessment is said to be the best tool for it. Authentic assessment or assessment for learning is a type of assessment that provide students with the opportunities to judge their own work and learning progress based on feedback to various kinds of teacher-made tests and performance tasks such as student portfolios. This means that authentic assessment facilitates more meaningful learning. A shift in focus from rote learning and the memorization of the content of core subjects to the mastery of higher order thinking skills as well as self-directed skills such as learning how to learn, is also driven by the need for 21st century skills, knowledge and competencies (Song & Koh, 2010). Using authentic assessment in language classroom is considered good for monitoring students' growth in the four core competencies instituted in the new 2013 curriculum. Seeing the problems EFL teachers in Bali have in regard to the orientation of the curriculum, research-based information and intervention are needed to help the teachers improve their practice, especially in using authentic assessment to assess attitudinal aspects of learning.

However, many assessment practices focus on testing. Instead of enhancing learning, these practices diminish students' excitement on learning, and trigger anxiety. Clark (2012) states that testing trivializes learning and threatens the internal states like confidence, interest, and others which are required for the self-regulation of learning. In Indonesia, conventional testing method is still a very common practice among schools. Even though the current curriculum requires a change in educational assessment, many classroom practices still relied on quantitative, objective types of testing. These types of tests do not allow for feedback and reflection because process and progress are rarely described but scored. Moreover, objective tests, if well contructed, can only be effective to assess cognitive aspects of learning, thus, this practice has failed to develop metacognitive aspects which are crucial for success in the global era. Then, the argument is, testing is no longer an adequate measure of students' learning nor a sufficient reason for

students to invest effort in schoolwork. New methods of assessment that provide multidimensional and longitudinal portraits of students' strengths and weaknesses are required to provide developmental benchmarks of learning. These new forms of assessment provide longitudinal evidence and personal stories of individuals' learning and development, not just snapshots of test scores, grades, and comments on report cards (Paris and Ayres, 1994).

In order to provide longitudinal evidence of students' development, an authentic assessment is needed. It allows students to participate actively in their own learning. Engaging students in their assessment will motivate them to learn. It empowers students with the understanding of where they need to go as learners and how to get there. It builds independence, critical thinking skills, perseverance, and self-reflective understanding (Berger, Rugen, and Woodfin, 2014). When students are engaged in their learning, they will have the opportunity to reflect on their own learning and progress, make meaning of the learning process, and finally able to assess themselves and find out the best strategies to achieve their learning goals. In this way, students own their own learning.

In EFL context in Indonesian schools, not many research on language assessment yet found, especially regarding authentic assessment. In other words, more studies on the use of authentic assessment are needed to support the implementation of the 2013 curriculum. Marhaeni *et al* (2014) conducted an R&D on developing portfolio assessment procedures and instruments for English Writing Exercises which involved linguistic and linguistic contents. Recently, the English Portfolio Assessment Package for Grade Seven of Junior High School was used as the treatment in an experimental studies. The purposes of the experiments were to investigate the effect of the package upon students' writing competency and metacognitive development. Regarding the focus of this paper, discussion will be done on the metacognitive development only, namely learner autonomy, risk taking, and learning ownership.

In the 2013 curriculum context, the three metacognitive aspects belong to core competency number two, that is, the social attitude. As has been argued earlier, not many research in language learning yet dealing with such development, while a major part of one's success in life depends on how she or he can manage life problems with her or

his knowledge along with metacognitive abilities. Focusing on other learning aspects, hence, some metacognitive variables in language learning setting, this paper also wants to show that not only language development which need to be enhanced in language classrooms, but also the nurturant effects that count; especially in regard to the use of authentic assessment like portfolio assessment.

Studies on metacognitive development, then, becomes an important need. Savignon (1983) says that metacognitive ability is *when you know what you know, and you know what you don't know*. It is a knowledge beyond your knowledge, it is a knowledge of using your knowledge in an effective and efficient way to solve problems.

Among many aspects of metacognitive ability, learner autonomy, risk taking, and learning ownership are aspects which are rarely studied in EFL context, especially in Indonesian setting. Therefore, a study on these aspects can be significant to Indonesian EFL practices. Learner autonomy is the students' ability in being responsible on his learning (Little, 1991). Students who are autonomous will be able to achieve more in their development of skills and knowledge since they hold full responsibility on their own learning. Learner autonomy within a student directs the way the student plans what to study, monitors own progress, and evaluate own progress. it is important for the students to firstly know why they need to learn a specific lesson, what they are learning about, and how they can be good at that lesson. Those meta-cognitive strategies is an extremely important strategy for autonomous learner (Tassinari, 2012).

While learner autonomy is largely personal, learning environment at formal school can affect the learners' freedom in making their own choices in learning. Hence, it is important to build a supportive learning environment that can help the learner to maintain students' natural ability in becoming autonomous learner.

A rarely studied aspect of metacognitive aspect developed along with language lessons is risk-taking. Shojaee (2013) defines risk-taking as the willingness to venture into the unknown. It is eagerness to try something new and different without putting the primary focus on success or failure.

Risk taking is essential to innovation: anyone developing a new product, service or idea risks the possibility that it will not work, that someone else will get there first or it will be met with disinterest

(Rolfe, 2010). Risk taking is a challenging skill. The students need to be brave to get out on the safe track. It means that in doing a project, they need to explore more. The students need to take risk and involve complex decision making to find the solution. This is a challenge for the students that can help them to evaluate alternative courses of action and can help to build their confidence. Further, Rolfe stated that taking risk within curriculum subjects can enhance learning by enabling young people to make more decision and to experiment with different ideas and approaches. It is indicated as important factor that can improve the students in learning. Risk taking can help the students to be innovative, adaptable and capable of making good decisions. The teacher can concern to improve students' risk taking that can improve personal learning and thinking skills.

In making decision, the students cannot avoid a failure. A risk taker is close with a failure. A failure is not a negative thing in learning. The students need to able to learn how to cope with failure in learning. It is important that lessons are learnt from failure to inform future decisions, and that failure is seen as a learning experience rather than a bad mistake. The student will have deeper understanding when they learn from their mistake and experience. Therefore, risk taking is crucial interactive process to learn a language in the ESL/EFL classroom.

Also significant to growth in learning is learning ownership. A comparably rare variable around, learning ownership is rooted to the constructivism perspective of learning. Learning ownership stresses the real actions of choice and control by the learners on their own learning. According to Milner-Bolotin (2001), ownership of learning involves three interacting components, namely finding a personal value (i. e. understanding how the knowledge and the skills developed in a learning process might be useful in other situations, outside the original learning environment); feeling in control (i. e. learner has an active role in making decisions); taking responsibility (i. e. learner is accountable for the process of learning as well as for its results). When all the three components overlap, learner reaches the highest levels of ownership. Further, Lakin (2007) emphasizes that, in order for knowledge to be meaningful and useful, learners need to take ownership of learning. Learning ownership fosters learners to be independent who can reflect upon their learning and identify

their emerging learning needs. Learning ownership is important in terms of motivation to learn and is essential in the development of metacognitive and critical thinking skills.

There are four major features of learning ownership. *First*, it fosters independence in learning, *second*, it encourages reflection of the learning process, *third*, it shows students ability to identify their own learning needs or goals, and *fourth*, it shows students' active participation in the learning process.

Learning ownership is crucial in one's language learning process and progress. Paris and Ayres (1994) state that ownership engenders feelings of pride, responsibility, and dedication. Citing Covington and De Charms, Paris and Ayres (1994) state that from a motivational perspective, students adopt mastery goals and intrinsic standards when they feel ownership over their own learning.

Seeing the characteristics of those metacognitive aspects above and how they may develop and affect learning, it seems that they relate to portfolio assessment, especially in EFL contexts. Portfolio assessment in language learning is assessment which is done to a collection of a student's works which demonstrate the student's learning process and progress. Portfolio assessment has a prospect as an assessment tool to develop metacognitive aspects because it is individualized, student-centered which enables assessment on strengths and weaknesses of a student without comparison to other students. Portfolio assessment is also unstructured and open-ended which allows feedback through self-assessment and reflection from time to time. Portfolio assessment is a process assessment because it is on-going, integrated in the teaching and learning process. Mulligan (2008) states that portfolio assessment allows teachers to witness students' achievements in ways that standardized or state testing often cannot, such as the development of skills and strategies, and the cognitive process.

Some research on the use of portfolio assessment in EFL learning in Indonesia have been done. However, most of them focused on its effect on students' growth in language skills, especially writing and reading skills development. For this reason, it is scientifically important to know its effect on metacognitive development of students in learning English.

2. METHODS

This paper was based on three experimental studies conducted under a collaborative research funded by The Directorate of Research and Community Service of The Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education. The study involved 168 students of three different junior high schools in Bali. The setting of the research was English as A Foreign Language (EFL) classes where English Writing Skills were taught. It was a posttest-only control group design. sample was taken through random selection of homogeneous intact groups of students.

There were three experiments in the study. All experiments used portfolio assessment as the treatment, independent variable. Portfolio assessment with process approach to writing was implemented in the experimental groups, while process approach and conventional, product-oriented assessment was implemented in the control groups.

The dependent variables involved writing competency in all the three experiments; and three metacognitive variables namely learner autonomy, risk taking, and learning ownership, each of which is in one experiment. In this paper, however, only the three metacognitive changes are reported and discussed. Data were collected using questionnaires.

Questionnaire on learner autonomy was based on Tassinari's (2012) four components of Learner Autonomy. The cognitive and metacognitive components has four descriptors namely: awareness of belief and learning style, awareness on the subject learned, awareness on the goal setting, monitoring progress, evaluating activities, organizing time and resources. The affective and motivation component has two descriptors namely: handling feelings and emotions, and motivation. Action oriented component has the realization of method and strategies. The social component has two indicators namely: cooperating with other and negotiate with others.

Questionnaire of risk-taking takes Lombardo's (2013) five components of risk-taking in student learning. The heightened expectation has two descriptors namely: feel confident in learning and work hard in learning. The constant learning has three descriptors namely eager to try something new, researching information, and testing the information. The Embrace change component has two

descriptors namely trying for improvement and looking forward for a flux of information. The trust instinct has two descriptors namely make decision based on intelligence, and make decision based on abstract thinking. And the gambler component has two descriptors namely brave in learning and never worry with a failure.

Questionnaire of learning ownership in this study used combination of Lakin's (2007), Enghag and Niedderer's (2007), and Milner-Bolotin's (2001) conceptualization of learning ownership which contains four aspects including independent, Reflective, Able to Identify needs, and Participate in learning Process. The aspect independent has five indicators namely: use language in unrehearsed situation, use a range of sources to get linguistic and factual information, plan work either alone or with a partner, choose the topic or aspect to be studied, and take decisions about the task and how it is going to be implemented and fulfilled. The aspect Reflective has four indicators namely: able to listen to others, ready to listen to different or contrary thought (see things from different perspectives), willing to admit previously held belief may in fact be wrong, and find a personal value as the result of learning which is important for the present and future life. The aspect Able to identify learning needs has four indicators which are able to identify learning goals, learning problems, solutions for problems, and the best learning strategy to achieve the learning goal. The aspect participate actively in learning process has two indicators namely: participate in group/ class discussion and respond on what is happening in the class.

The questionnaires were validated before use. The Learner Autonomy questionnaire contains 46 items with the reliability coefficient of .997. The risk-taking questionnaire contains 40 items with the reliability coefficient of .954. And the learning ownership questionnaire contains 76 items with the reliability coefficient of .924. Data were collected in a posttest after twelve meetings of Writing sessions. The data were then analyzed using one-way ANOVA assisted by *SPSS 20.0 for Windows*.

3 FINDING AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The Effect of Portfolio Assessment on Learner Autonomy

The result of hypothesis testing shows that portfolio assessment which was implemented in Writing lessons affects significantly

development of learner autonomy (F= 19.141; p=.000); where the average score of learner autonomy of students who were treated in Writing lessons using portfolio assessment was 148.27 while the average score of those treated using conventional assessment was 141.53, respectively. This means that portfolio assessment integrated in the process of writing affects development of learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy is something dealing with situations in which a student is responsible for all the decisions concerned with learning and the implementation of those decision. An autonomous learner has insights, positive attitude, and capacity for reflection, and a readiness to be proactive in self-management and interaction with others (Little, 1991). An autonomous learner learns efficiently and effectively. For this kind of students, the language knowledge and skills acquired in the classroom can be applied in situations that arise outside classroom. Portfolio assessment has been empirically proven effective to develop these capacities of an autonomous learner because along the writing process, portfolio assessment allows for individual student to decide what to do and how to do it. Every student takes responsibility to complete the writing task in his or her own way, including speed and strategy. This exercise along with writing process gradually grows autonomy in the students, as they become conscious of their own learning.

3.2 The Effect of Portfolio Assessment on Student's Risk Taking

The result of hypothesis testing shows that portfolio assessment which was implemented in Writing lessons affects significantly development of students' risk taking (F= 5.421; p=.022); where the average score of students' risk taking who were treated in Writing lessons using portfolio assessment was 156.95 while the average score of those treated using conventional assessment was 149.73, respectively.

This result shows that students' risk-taking in EFL learning can be fostered by the implementation of portfolio assessment. Risk taking is a willingness to venture into the unknown. There are some capacities of a learner associated with risk taking on which language learning assisted with portfolio assessment has positive effects. Portfolio assessment requires students to work on a series of

language tasks and produce a collection of works over a relatively long period of time. To complete the tasks, every student may take different strategy. To respond to an open-ended task, for instance, in a writing task a teacher asks students to write a short essay in a, say, descriptive genre. The teacher gives only the theme, and let every student to invent and choose his/her own topic to write about. For students, tasks like this force them to be creative and innovative, trying something new. This involves complex decision making to find solution by experimenting with different ideas and approaches. The students risk a failure. This possibility is high, but there is no other choice, the task must be completed. A continuous exercise like this will make students accustomed to take a risk and eventually become independent. Portfolio assessment facilitates the development of risk taking because it provides in-process assessment and reflection, which allow students to get feedback and do better before the task is submitted.

3.3 The Effect of Portfolio Assessment on Student's Learning Ownership

The result of hypothesis testing shows that portfolio assessment which was implemented in Writing lessons affects significantly development of students' learning ownership (F= 350.30; p=.000); where the average score of students' learning ownership who were treated in Writing lessons using portfolio assessment was 309.76 while the average score of those treated using conventional assessment was 285.37, respectively. Similar the the previous findings, this result means that development of students' learning ownership can be facilitated by implementation of portfolio assessment in EFL learning.

A student with learning ownership is independent and reflective. He or she is also able to identify own learning need and goals, and an active participant in the learning process (Lakin, 2007). Feeling that the language task or exercise given by the teacher is his or hers, not his or her teacher's, a feeling of belonging of the learning. To develop this metacognitive ability, portfolio assessment provides opportunity for the students through self-assessment during working on a language task. O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) emphasize that self assessment is the key to portfolio. This is because portfolio

assessment is an on-going assessment integrated in the teaching and learning process. Therefore, the students can have direct feedback and then do reflection for a better learning.

Reflection is crucial in developing learning ownership. Reflecting on own strengths and weaknesses – knowing what you know, and knowing what you do not know – through learning experience is a good way to make meaning of the learning and be benefitted through the experience. AS Boud *et al* (in Loughran, 1996) state that through reflection, people recapture their experience, think about it, mull it over, and evaluate it. The capacity to reflect may differ from one another, and this ability characterizes those who learn effectively from experience. This implies that, reflection is the major component of learning ownership, and this can be widely and effectively facilitated by portfolio assessment.

Continuous exercises on self assessing own work along the portfolio assessment process gradually fosters the feeling of belonging the task, hence, the learning. With this ownership, a student will find it important and a need to participate in discussion, make choice, take responsibility, and make decision. It stresses the real choice and control of learning by the learner (Enghag and Neidderer, 2007).

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The results of the study described and discussed above show that metacognitive development in general, is strongly related to the implementation of authentic assessment, in this case, portfolio assessment in language classrooms especially in EFL context. The study also shows that among the metacognitive aspects, learner autonomy, risk taking, and learning ownership have been proven effective to be developed through implementation of portfolio assessment. While most teachers are not ready yet to implement portfolio assessment in their classrooms (Marhaeni, et al., 2013) due to some reasons including class size and complexity of the assessment compared with the objective type tests, efforts to establish meaningful EFL classrooms through authentic assessment implementation have to be continually made.

The results of the study also strengthen beliefs on portfolio assessment as a comprehensive assessment tool in language learning. Using the three variables to be tested in three different experiments

has been an effort to prove that multiple aspects of metacognitive ability can be developed along with language skills development. It is important to note that the three aspects of metacognition share some characteristics, but, testing them individually can provide deeper insights for further research.

This study also implies for EFL classrooms to be more student-centered and aware of multiple dimensions of students' growth which can be targeted including cognitive, non-cognitive, and psychomotor. For optimal and meaningful learning to take place in EFL classrooms, this study suggests EFL teachers to implement portfolio assessment, if possible in a systematic way including planning, execution, and reporting.

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13 THE DISCOURSES OF PROPER 'ASSESSMENTS' IN ELT: HOW CAN TEACHERS DEAL WITH THEM CRITICALLY?[1]

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1. INTRODUCTION

This paper will present an analysis of prevailing discourses concerning the issues of assessment in English language teaching in Japan, and suggest ELT practitioners how to deal with them critically.

In the past few years, policy makers have issued various reform plans in ELT at different levels, many of which include descriptions on 'proper' assessments. The use of 'standardized tests' have been recommended in many occasions, while the rubrics, particularly the lists of CAN-DO descriptors adopted from CEFR (The Common European Framework of Reference for languages) are rapidly gained their popularity. Schools and universities have to accommodate the recommendations by policy makers, however, it is often the case that they accepts the recommendation without any criticism.

In this paper, I will, therefore, critically analyze the roles of 'standardized' tests and other alternative means of assessments appeared in recently proposed ELT reform plans in Japan, focusing on the two key issues. The relevance of 'standardized' tests as a means of assessments in Asian context, as the set of norms used for assessments is still the native speaker norms in most of the cases (see Lowenberg 2012).

Second, the relevance of CEFR (The Common European

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Framework of Reference for languages) was introduced to ELT in Japan will be discussed. Attempts have been made to adopt its CAN-DO descriptors as a reference for evaluation. While it has given an additional dimension to the foreign language teaching profession, we often see that some institutions have developed their own CAN-DO lists specifically designed for their programs. In other words, the lists are used a checklist to find fault with the students' performance and penalize them.

The presenter will conclude the paper stressing that a critical analysis of the policies is still possible at different levels even though policies are rather strictly enforced. Teachers should keep their critical eyes in order to help their students.

2. ELT AND ASSESSMENTS IN JAPAN AT A GLANCE

In August 2015, the Central Council for Education announced a basic principle for the next revision of *Course of Study*, the national curriculum guideline issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) which will take place in 2020 (see NHK). Among several proposals, those related to English are the highlights of primary school curriculum revisions. At present, English is taught as a subject from 7th grade. Although it is 'Foreign language' which is a required subject, English is a de-facto required language at most of the secondary schools (see Oda 2009, Terasawa 2014, 2015). In primary schools, English is introduced through 'foreign language activities'. In 'foreign language activities', the students are not given formal assessments. This is partly because that English has not been included in primary school teacher training programs at universities, and thus technically, there is no teacher who can give grades to the students if English (or other foreign languages) were offered as a subject. In other words, schools have to include 'foreign language activities' in their curriculum but their instructors do not have to be licensed teachers.

Now that English is likely to become a subject at primary schools, we need teachers who are qualified to teach it, and consequently, some forms of formal assessments will be necessary. While this may not be a conventional way to account a diachronic development of ELT and assessment, I will start my discussion with the potential problems the proposals would create, and then trace

back the history of ELT and assessment at Japanese schools. In this way, I would hope to critically analyze what is about to happen, and provide suggestions for how ELT professionals would deal with the changes. I would also like to add, though the cases I will present in this paper is mostly from Japan, they would certainly be relevant to various contexts in Asia including Indonesia where English is not a primary language of the communities. Therefore, teachers are supposed to assess whether or not their students have been able to achieve the given performance objectives each year.

Going back to the proposed changes mentioned above, we are going to have to give formal grades to our pupils at primary schools who take English as a subject. Therefore we need to decide what to assess. Although it has not been completed, primary schools will be given the revised *Course of Study* in which performance objectives must be defined as with the case of existing secondary school versions.

The *Course of Study* is revised almost every ten years. Each time it has been revised, those people who are concerned with school education have to figure out what to assess as outcome of their classes, and consequently, how they should do in order to assess what they are supposed to assess. The guideline states a list of performance objectives for the students to achieve by the end of a particular grade; however, it has not specific section on assessment. In other words, it tells teachers what they have to make their students able to do, but it does not say anything as to how they can determine that the objectives have been achieved. While I understand that the policy makers cannot and should not determine every detail, the interpretations for *Course of Study* are totally dependent on individual teacher. In addition, if a teacher had little experience, they would have to rely on the dominant discourses of ELT which do not necessarily reflect what we actually need (Oda 2007, 2012).

In many introductory books on language testing, discrete point tests and integrative tests are considered as two major types of testing. The former refers to those "which measure the small bits and pieces of a language as in a multiple-choice test made up of questions constructed to measure students' knowledge of different structures" (Brown 2005: 25), the latter corresponds with those "designed to use several skills at one time" (Ibid.).

Some primary schools, particularly private ones, will probably incline to discrete point tests reflecting washback from entrance examinations from private lower secondary schools. Washback here refers to "how assessment instruments affect educational practices and beliefs" (Cohen 1994:41). Since English becomes a subject at primary schools, English exams can be given for admission purposes at private (and some national) lower secondary schools.

Moreover, discrete point tests which mainly focus on structural or lexical items are likely to become popular as it was a case of washback from upper secondary schools to lower secondary schools, or universities to upper secondary schools. Until we develop more comprehensive methods of assessment using integrate tests, many schools will try to stay safe and concentrate on the results of entrance exams as 'visible' outcomes to legitimate the effectiveness of their programs, regardless of whether or not their ideas of teaching English matches with the assessments.

This is a potential danger which is somewhat chronic. English has been considered a foreign language. Therefore not many Japanese students of English have encountered a situation in which they have to use English. In addition, some of them assumed that they would never be able to use English and thus they have never sought an opportunities to use English themselves. This corresponds with my previous study on learner beliefs (Oda 2014). In the study, a majority of the participants of the interviews responded that they were not sure why they were learning English. It is, therefore, apparent that the assessments are not quite matched with what the programs are supposed to provide with the students.

The brief description of the current state of ELT and assessment at Japan above has revealed several key problems of ELT. While the main topic of this paper is the issues of assessment, I would like to discuss the issues in relation with the discourses of ELT, shared by the general public, with two specific examples.

3. STANDARDIZED TESTS, EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND SOCIETY

When a new educational policy is implemented, we are required to review if it is working. As far as English (and other foreign) language programs are concerned, the students' attainments serve as

an indicator to show whether or not the new policy is working. In order to measure the attainments, different kinds of tests are used.

In the context of Japan, the language tests with the greatest impact on many peoples' lives are entrance examinations for upper secondary schools and higher education institutions, and various language tests administered at the end of the courses at different levels. In many of the entrance examinations, both upper secondary schools and universities, English is mandatory regardless of one's intended major. Needless to say, the outcomes of the tests have powerful detrimental effects for those who take the tests, as the tests "can create winners and losers, success and failures, rejections and acceptance" (Shohamy 2001: 15).

For many years, these entrance exams have been produced by each institution with an exception of the tests administered by National Center for University Entrance Examinations, in which most national and public universities and some private universities are participating. In the case of upper secondary schools, the boards of education of each prefecture and big cities are responsible for the exams for their schools, while private schools have their own exams. These entrance examinations have been criticized both by many ELT professionals and by the general public mainly for their negative washback effects on school curricula (see. Bachman & Palmer 1996: 30-31). While we understand that some instruments for selecting students for admission are necessary, English examinations have been used for this purpose without sufficient justification. The tests are to decide which applicants to admit and thus are only supposed to create 'High' and 'Low' groups in term of scores, according to the nature of each program. Therefore, these tests are not designed to measure the students' (applicants') general level of proficiency not the amount of learning that they have achieved (Brown 2005).

Despite of much criticism, universities as well as upper secondary schools have not been able to eliminate the format of the entrance exams discussed above. Consequently, many upper secondary school curricula are negatively affected; and their English classes have to be designed assuming that many of their students will have to pass these examinations. The same thing can also be said of the case of the entrance examinations for upper secondary schools and their impact on curriculum at lower secondary schools. Needless to

say, a priority will be given to the preparation for these examinations over the students' general proficiency of English, within a limited amount of class hours.

Recently, policy makers have started to respond to the public criticism on the current entrance examinations and initiated various projects. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) issued it "English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization" (Mext 2014) in which it recommended the use of external 'standardized' tests in place of English examinations currently used by institutions. Mext says in its summary of the plan publicized on their website as follows;

> *"Examine student's English abilities by utilizing external language exams and expand the utilization of such exams which measure all four skills for university entrance including the Test in Practical English Proficiency and TOEFL* (2014, n.p.)*".*

No specific implication has been released yet, at the time of writing. However, the statement has already created a significant impact on universities (and perhaps upper secondary schools) and subsequently the students. The statement above is just an excerpt of a plan presented by MEXT, the policy maker. As a matter of fact, various issues are being discussed at several committees including 'Expert council' and no official statement has been released as to what we need to do. Yet, it already has significant impact on both universities and upper secondary schools in the following ways.

First, the statement comes from MEXT, and thus the institutions would have to assume that it is likely to affect the new policies. Therefore, they would have to make the best guess not to get lost from the mainstream as well as the general public in order to maintain a "good standing" in the society. Therefore, the institutions are likely inclined to adopt 'standardized' test particularly TOEFL without considering its appropriateness as an admission test.

Using standardized tests is also "interpreted by the public as a sign of a serious and meaningful attitude towards education and as evidence of action on the part of government (Shohamy 2001: 39)". As a matter of fact, standardized tests have been considered well designed, unbiased materials to measure the learners' proficiency for many years. When one needs to show a proof of his/her proficiency

in English, it is usually the case that s/he needs to submit a score report of one of the recognized standardized English tests which is popular at that time, regardless of whether the test is the most appropriate option for the purpose, or not. I would also like to add that, TOEFL will be a dominant test, as it was mentioned as an 'example' in MEXT's document cited above. As a matter of fact, EIKEN STEP test has been the most popular 'standardized' test for general public in Japan (http://www.eiken.or.jp/eiken/en/) which has several different grades. It is primarily a paper based test with speaking (interview) tests administered in higher grades. Then Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (http://www.toeic.or.jp/english.html) which has listening and reading components primarily designed for business communication, though a separate speaking and writing test is also available now. The difference between the two tests is not only their intended targets, but also the scoring systems. The results of STEP tests are given on pass or fail basis, while TOEIC scores are given in three digits and no pass or fail will be given. Therefore, it is apparent that two popular standardized tests are designed to measure something different. Then MEXT has given a 'special' status to TOEFL which is designed to measure if one's proficiency in English is good enough to attend a North American university to study. It seems that the policy maker's primary objective of using these standardized tests is not to measure the students' proficiency but to "make and impose policy" (Shohamy 2001: 25). In the "English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization", MEXT refers to TOEFL as an example. In other words, the Ministry has not 'endorsed' the test as an alternative to the English tests at university entrance examinations. Nevertheless, the move is strong enough to convince the general public as "evidence obtained from [the tests] serves as proof for a whole range of arguments" (Ibid.: 40) and thus appears to be the most reliable option available for them.

Shohamy (Ibid.) also points out a potential danger of the tests being used inappropriately. She says;

> *"There is also a realization that while testers are busy creating 'the perfect' tests, these tests are often used for purposes other than those for which they were intended* (Ibid.: 5)*".*

As I have discussed in this section, 'standardized' tests have power to control educational policies. The voice of the Ministry is so influential that is often strong enough to create a discourse which would potentially become a 'common knowledge' shared by the general public (Shimizu et al. 2002, Oda 2007). The current state in Japan, in which the policy maker recommend particular standardized tests including without carefully assess the appropriateness of the tests for admission purposes has a potential danger as Shohamy (2001) pointed out above; The tests would not work as they were originally intended they would be.

If we, ELT professionals made a mistake at this stage by accepting what the policy makers 'seems to' believe it works without criticism, it would cause a negative washback on school curricula, subsequently, it would affect the students. Although the examples presented above are from Japan, they would help similar situations which might exist in other countries in Asia.

4. CAN-DO OR CAN'T-DO?

While the standardized tests developed based on psychometric properties still have a strong impact on educational policies, the policy maker has also begun to follow the current trend of ELT and talk about more subjective procedures for assessments such as portfolios, self-assessment, reflective teaching/learning and rubrics. For example, MEXT issued a guideline for using CAN-DO lists to measure the students' performance at foreign language classes in lower and upper secondary schools nationwide (MEXT 2013). It seems that the policy maker, i.e., MEXT, has brought the idea of CAN-DO lists from Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001), therefore CEFR has also become a 'buzz word' in ELT, even though the general public as well as many ELT professionals seem to forget what 'E' in CEFR means. There is a large scale project to adopt CEFR to the Japanese context (Tono and Negishi 2012 for a brief description, also see Tono ed. 2013). Some universities as well as private secondary schools refer to CEFR and CAN-DO lists specifically designed for their programs. However, we often see the cases in which institutions are unconditionally 'adopting' the descriptors of CEFR rather than 'adapting' them to the contexts of

ELT in Japan (see Pitzl 2015).

As with the cases of the standardized tests discussed earlier, there are several problems for unconditionally adopting CEFR to the Japanese contexts without critically analyzing their relevance. First of all, CEFR is a framework which "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe" (Council of Europe 2001: 1). It is not a synonym of CAN-DO lists. In addition, the framework is designed for Europe, considering its political and educational context. In order to adopt its 'so-called' CAN-DO lists to Japan or any non-European contexts, the policy makers must reanalyze the specific needs of the learners as well as the society they are in, in order to make them work optimally.

I am sure that large scale projects, for example, CEFR-J (Tono ed. 2013) are taking these issues in consideration. However, MEXT's guideline issued in 2013 does not talk about its relationship with CEFR. MEXT formed a special panel of 'experts' for developing CAN-Do lists at different levels, and held meetings for 11 times between August 2012 and March 2014 and it seems that lots of CEFR related materials have been presented and discussed. Nevertheless, the final report has not been published yet at the time of writing. (see http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/shotou/092/ index.htm for materials distributed at meetings and the minutes for the first two meetings). As the committee was still in a process of discussion when the guideline was published, I am not sure if there was any coordination within the Ministry. In addition, I am not certain if the committee plans to do anything further.

Second, the whole discussion of CAN-DO lists has been going on with a strong assumption that English is 'the' foreign language, even though MEXT keeps using the term 'foreign language' in official documents as it is the name of the subject. In reality, however, the discourse that English is 'the' foreign language is prevailed not only among the general public (see Oda 2007) but also among ELT professionals and policy makers.

Even though we accept the fact that English is the only consideration at this point, there is a further problem. When we consider what the students need to acquire through English classes at secondary schools, for example, 'native-speakerism' is prevailed.

This is happening even though MEXT itself says uses the subtitle "Society-wide Efforts toward Developing Japanese Proficiency in English as Lingua Franca" in the introductory part of its report titled "Five Proposals and Specific Measures for Developing Proficiency in English for International Communication" (MEXT 2011) to indicate that the objective of English classes is the development of proficiency in English as a lingua franca (ELF).

If we try to adopt CEFR descriptors, then, we need to be cautious because some of the descriptors refer to 'native speaker' as the model to be achieved. Pitzl (Ibid.) goes on;

> *"Among the issues that most noticeably demand our attention are the explicit native speaker orientation in some CEFR descriptors and the near-native ideals associated with the highest reference level C2 called Mastery" (98).*

In the same manner, McNamara (2012) also states that the descriptors used in CEFR assume 'native speaker' competence and "the responsibility for successful communication is held to lie entirely with the non-native speaker" (200, also see Lowenberg 2012). Unfortunately, the description 'native speaker' still remains in CEFR-J (Tono, ed. 2013) as a benchmark especially at higher levels. Therefore, a constant evaluation of the framework itself is necessary, in order to make it more appropriate to the particular contexts of teaching. Furthermore, we need to be cautious for not making a CAN'T DO list. That is, a checklist to find fault with the students' performance and penalize them for someone who has not attained 'native speaker' competence.

5. CONCLUSION

Teachers and Program administrators are often asked to refer to standardized test scores, and more recently, CEFR framework as a referent point in order to describe the learners' proficiency, yet we still need to fine tune the existing framework for describing language proficiency in order it to be used for specific contexts. When we adopt some elements of CEFR to our context, a continuous fine tuning is needed as I have pointed out above. However, it does not mean that we should aim at producing a perfect descriptor. Holiday (2005), in his discussion of the issues of 'learner-centeredness' and 'autonomy'

argues that the notion of *skills* in Western TESOL has become "a breaking up of the student herself into discrete skills which facilitate the accountable management of learning" (67). If we attempt to come up with perfect descriptors, and try to make everything measurable by discrete point tests, the students will just become 'language learning machines', which Holiday (Ibid.) also points out as follows;

> *"...the 'learner' at the center of learner-centeredness is no longer a full person, but a product of measurable educational technology. This connects with the control of 'learning' through planned tasks" (67).*

I have discussed the issues of assessments in ELT in relation with the discourses of ELT, shared by the general public, with two specific examples from Japan. As I have repeatedly pointed out, I would like to stress that it is a responsibility for each of us who are involved in the ELT profession to constantly evaluate the policies implemented at different levels. A critical analysis of the policies is still possible at any levels even though some of them are rather strictly enforced. Researchers, administrators and teachers should all keep their critical eyes in order to help their students.

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