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Notes from the Editor-in-Chief

I am happy to introduce Volume 31 Number 2 of Thailand TESOL Journal to you. This work contains three articles and one book review.

The first article is "Instruction Giving in EFL Classes from a Conversation Analysis Approach: A Case Study" by Nguyen Hong Lien. This work adds to the growing body of studies using conversational analysis by examining how instructors gave instructions in three university-level EFL classes in Vietnam. The findings showed both interactive and monologue styles. As the author states, much more research is needed in the area of classroom instruction.

"Teaching English Patterns in the Next Decade (2017-2027): Trends and Challenges" by Chaleomkiet Yemplech reports on a study that used the Ethnographic Delphi Futures Research (EDFR) technique with 17 Thai scholars to envision trends and challenges of English language teaching in the coming decade. The findings indicate a great amount of agreement that Thailand education will be affected by the declining birth rate, the aging population, and the need for flexible teaching approaches, such as blended learning.

The final article in this issue is "The Effect of Accent on Listening Comprehension: Chinese L2 Learners' Perceptions and Attitudes" by Zhiying Wang. Wang compared the listening proficiency of high and low-proficiency Chinese students using accents from Britain, Australia, and India and found that low-proficiency students had more difficulties with the Indian accent presented than high-proficiency students. Nevertheless, all of the Chinese participants preferred to be taught by teachers with British accents.

As the final entry in this volume, *Teaching English as an International Language: Implementing, Reviewing, and Re-Envisioning World Englishes in Language Education* by Roby Marlina was reviewed by Supanit Kulsiri. Marlina elaborates the strength of this book for closing the gap between research and practice in English as an International Language (EIL) and providing a guide for practitioners that is based on a case study with both teachers' and students' voices lending their lived experiences.

I hope you find these four entries useful to your own context. Together, they provide a wide variety of topics and research methods that contribute to the scholarship in our field. Enjoy your reading!

Professor Leslie Barratt

INSTRUCTION GIVING IN EFL CLASSES FROM
A CONVERSATION ANALYSIS APPROACH: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

This research is embedded in the context of tertiary education in Vietnam where the instruction giving stage is assessed. Drawing on a Conversation Analysis perspective, the study aims to reveal teachers' instructional patterns in three EFL classes of freshmen, thus not only maximizing the interactional structures that can enhance classroom communication but also minimizing the problems that can hinder teacher-student exchange. The findings show that two main instructional styles that can be classified from the inspected discourse namely, interactive instruction containing students' contribution and monologue-type instruction with little learners' involvement. Positive and negative aspects implied from the instruction giving phase that impact on classroom language are also enumerated prior to suggesting implications for educators to implement.

Keywords: instruction giving, Conversation Analysis, classroom interaction.

Background of the study

In a teaching and learning environment, there are many factors that can exert influences on classroom interaction, among which instruction giving is seemingly the pivotal element towards the success of a lesson (Scrivener, 2011). By mastering this skill, teachers are likely to regulate the classroom management effectively, thus improving the quality of the pedagogy in class. However, for non-native teachers, their English language proficiency can, to some extent, have impacts on their classroom language. Consequently, research into how foreign teachers deliver their classroom discourse in EFL settings, in particular with classroom instruction, would be of significant importance for both teachers' self-reflective practice and trainee teachers' application.

To examine how instruction is given in educational settings, Conversation Analysis (CA) has risen to be an effective tool in recent years. This approach is capable of explaining "social organization of natural language-in-use" (Button & Lee, 1987, p.2), which conversationalists interpret and follow. Using authentic language, CA has the ability to provide an understanding on how instruction giving is constructed in particular points of interaction via the speeches and actions of the participants, through which interpretations of these talks and actions can be made.

Currently, in tertiary education, specifically, investigating instruction giving in classroom interaction from Conversation Analysis has not obtained much attention from researchers in Vietnam contexts. Hence, this study not only offers scholars an overview into how non-native teachers, in this case – Vietnamese teachers, deliver instructions in EFL classes in Vietnam but also suggests implications for teachers to implement.

Accordingly, this study seeks answer to the following research questions:

1. How do non-native teachers give instructions in EFL classes of freshmen in a university in Vietnam?

2. How does the instruction giving of non-native teachers influence classroom interaction?

Literature review

Instruction giving in EFL classrooms

Concerning classroom interaction, instruction giving is among the methods to ensure the efficiency of a lesson. According to Margaretha (2015), giving instruction is necessary when a task is assigned for students; prior to working on the task, students need to fully understand what they are going to do; otherwise the activity will be a failure. Therefore, the ultimate goal of giving instruction is to inform students of what they need to do ahead of participating in an activity.

In order to deliver a good instruction, Sowell (2017) suggests teachers should follow three stages. In the first phase – preparation, when designing lesson plans, teachers can write out the instruction and practice giving it (Woodberry and Aldrich, 2000). The language for instruction should be simple such as "imperatives and short sentences" (Sowell, 2017, p.14) and below students' present level (Scrivener, 2012). In the next stage – delivery, it is advised that teachers should complete group arrangements (if any) and obtain students' attention

before giving in-class instruction (Sowell, 2017). According to Sowell (2017), while delivering, teachers are recommended to articulate clearly, demonstrate the instruction, use body language, facial expression or visuals to facilitate meaning, divide long instructions into shorter ones, ask concept-check questions and allocate short pauses to give students time to comprehend (Proctor, 2014; Scrivener, 2012). Finally, in the last stage, having delivered the instruction, it is the teacher's job to monitor students' activities to ensure the task is carried out as anticipated (Sowell, 2017). This study will focus on the delivery stage.

Conversation Analysis

CA, as a "research discipline" (Masats, 2017, p.323), investigates the data based on the following principles. Firstly, interaction is not as spontaneous as people might believe, but is "systematically organized, deeply ordered and methodic" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.14) in which conversation analysts are required to reveal how the conversation is structured and sequenced. Secondly, interaction, as it is "context-shaped" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.14), is put in a setting where the conversation takes place; therefore, it is impossible to remove the element of context out of the analysis. In addition, participants constantly add new exchanges to create a conversation, leading to the Seedhouse's idea (2014, p.14) that these contributions are "context-renewing". Thirdly, insignificant as the details might be namely silences, pauses, whispers and so on, transcripts must be made as accurately as possible (Masats, 2007). Lastly, no assumptions regarding the data should be made prior to the implementation of investigating the records. In other words, CA scholars "engage in unmotivated looking in data sessions" (Atkinson, 2011, p.124).

In Conversation Analysis, turn taking is apparently a key feature in which participants are aware of their role when to take the floor (Barraja-Rohan, 2011). Each conversation is a series of turns made up of units that are coined as turn constructional units (TCU). Liddicoat (2007, p.54) likens TCU to "grammatical units namely words, phrases, clauses and sentences". When a TCU is completed, it is likely to be followed by Transition Relevance Place (TRP) – points where a speaker's talk is complete and speaker change could be appropriate. This is when a turn takes place. The norms applied for TRPs can be illustrated as follows:

Table 1.

Norms applied during TRPs (Summarized based on Seedhouse, 2004, p.28)

Situation 1	Speaker A selects Speaker B	Speaker A stops	Speaker B starts	Note: In the TRP where Speaker A stops talking and selects the particular Speaker B to continue the conversation, Speaker B has the right and obligation to speak.
Situation 2	Speaker A selects no one	Speaker A stops	Speaker B, Speaker C, and so on can start	Note: In the TRP where Speaker A transfers the turn to the next speaker but no one is selected, whoever speaks first gains the right to speak.
Situation 3	Speaker A selects no one	Speaker A stops and no one continues	Speaker A may continue the turn	Note: In the TRP when Speaker A stops, no one is selected and no one actually continues, Speaker A may (but need not to) continue until others speak or the conversation comes to the end.

These principles are also applied in the giving instruction phase or what Seedhouse (2004, p.133) called "procedural context". In this context, the teacher aims to convey how the procedure of to-be-accomplished activities in classroom should be implemented, which puts the teacher "in little danger of being interrupted" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.133). There are also cases when students might signal that they wish to take a turn or in other settings where teachers hopes to transfer the exchange for students to continue. Examining how teachers handle these situations would be of paramount importance in order to suggest any positive implications in teaching and to minimize any problems that might obstruct learning activities.

Since the discourse of instruction giving potentially affects teaching and learning of languages, concerning how CA can contribute to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is worth discussing. Although CA has been criticized for its incapability of analyzing what happens in the mind of individuals because "CA is a behavioral discipline while SLA studies is a cognitive discipline" (Markee, 2000, p.30), researchers have increasingly considered "cognition as a socially distributed, not just as an individual phenomenon" (Markee & Kasper, 2004, p.496). This means how learners behave in classroom settings may be regarded as "a conversational process that observably occurs in the intersubjective space between participants" (Markee and Kasper, 2004, p.496). Hence, CA supporters can apply this approach, both to comprehend the features and structures of L2 interaction and to unearth characteristics of L2 participants through the microscopic investigation of their exchange (Cheng, 2016).

Application of Conversation Analysis into instruction giving

Researchers of CA would examine the transcribed data to "yield descriptions of recurrent structures and practices of social interaction" (Enyi, 2015, p.173) that are conversed by teachers and students. In other words, classroom conversation analysts need to decode how the teacher-student and student-student interaction is organized and sequenced (Masats, 2017). A merit of applying CA into classroom discourse can be highlighted in Xiao's paper in 2014 as this scholar states that the classroom context with a variety of interaction is considered as "dynamic and changing process" (2014, p.555), and CA is able to uncover details of classroom situations compared to other methods.

Despite the vast amount of research into classroom language, studies using CA to investigate teachers' instruction giving are still scarce among scholars. Margaretha (2015) conducts a study with elementary students using a descriptive method and lists such problems in classrooms as complex and long instruction, inappropriate word choice or not checking students' understanding. However, this study merely enumerates the problems without further analysis as it does not follow the CA approach. Satar and Wigham (2017) adopt a multi-modal framework to examine instruction giving via online language tutorials, where gaze, gesture and text chats to introduce key words are the focus of the study when the target language is French. Yet, the data in this research do not allow the author to fully cover these features.

Concerning the Vietnam context, very few scholars have conducted research in classroom using CA. Tran (2016) applies the principles of CA into classroom interaction; however, the research examines students' responsive turns in discussion tasks in the absence of teachers' role. A more proximal topic belongs to Le and Reynanda (2017)'s study in which the researchers investigate how teachers' English proficiency creates learning opportunities for learners. This study shows that even with certified high-level achievements, teachers still face problems while using language to support teaching and learning. Nonetheless, this article embraces general English rather than the instruction giving stage. In short, the few studies are inadequate to cover the Vietnam current educational situation and research into the specific phase of instruction giving has received little attention from conversational analysts; consequently, this study is implemented with a view to bridging this existing gap.

Methodology

The subject of the study involves three teachers (coded as X, Y and Z) and students in three classes of freshmen at a pedagogical university in Vietnam. There are approximately 30 students in each class. They are assumed to be at A2+ - B1 level as they have just passed the university entrance exam which is presumed to be at this level. The students are in the first semester of university, and they are experiencing a new environment of learning, which is relatively different from their high school, where the speaking skill received less practice than other skills. Furthermore, the teachers' description is outlined as in Table 2:

Table 2.

Demographic information of the teachers participating in this study

	Gender	Teaching experience	Language competence	Number of lessons recorded
Teacher X	Female	1 year	IELTS 7.0 in Speaking IELTS 7.0 overall	4 lessons
Teacher Y	Female	1 year	IELTS 7.0 in Speaking IELTS 8.0 overall	5 lessons
Teacher Z	Male	7 years	IELTS 7.0 in Speaking IELTS 8.0 overall	5 lessons

The teachers were chosen in terms of their language proficiency and the time of the exam – the IELTS tests were taken within a year of this research, so it can be ensured that the teachers have maintained their English competency as the results were relatively recent.

In order to collect the data, approximately 50 hours of 14 lessons are video recorded in total. The lessons cover language skills teaching with different classroom activities. At the same time, non-participatory observation by the researcher was implemented. Having been transcribed using the transcription conventions by Seedhouse (2004, p.267), the data were analyzed in-depth for repetitive and representative cases.

Though CA, an emic perspective, does not operate by interviewing research participants since analyzing the details of the interactions and how interlocutors offer to each other should be in focus (Markee & Kasper, 2004), interviews of five randomly-chosen students in each class are conducted to elicit more understanding of classroom activities and instruction-giving phases. These students were shown typical extracts of the corpus prior to sitting for the interview. Questions in the semi-structured interview include: (1) What are the good points of this instruction?, (2) What needs to improved in this instruction?, and (3) Does the teacher need to ask post-instruction questions to check students' understanding of this instruction?. Supplementary questions were asked when students' answers needed clarification.

Findings and discussions

Findings of Research question 1

Having investigated the data, the section will illustrate several typical extracts for further examination since the analysis of single fragments enables the depiction "a very high degree of complexity in talk" (Atkinson, 2011, p.124). There are two main instructional styles that can be identified from the discourse namely interactive instruction containing students' contribution and monologue-type instruction with little learner involvement.

Interactive instruction involving students' participation

In the first excerpt, teacher X introduces the instruction for a listening exercise.

Extract 1

1   TX: So today we are going to learn (.) how to make some request (.) >and first of all< you are
2   going to hear (.) five ((showing five fingers)) dialogues↓ and oh no open your book page one
3   hundred and six ah >one hundred and eight< (3.0) <one hundred and eight> (5.0) ((waiting for
4   students to open books))
5   TX: Yeah so you are going to <hear five dialogues↓> and try to match each dialogue with >a
6   picture from A to B< Do you understand↑ You're going to↑
7   SS: Listen =
8   TX: =Listen and then you (.) match↑=
9   SS: =match
10 TX: the dialogues with the (.) pictures. °Good work°

The instruction for this listening exercise is relatively simple as teacher X asks students to match the pictures with dialogues they will listen to. After giving the instruction though not very fluently in Line 2, teacher X forgets to mention where the exercise is, teacher X repeats the instruction and elicits responses from students. Teacher X raises voice at the end of incomplete sentences in Line 6 and Line 8 as a signal to transfer the next turn to students, to check students' understanding of what they need to do. Aware of the situation, students join in to finish the sentences, ensuring the teacher that they have comprehended the instruction.

In the next extract, teacher Y leads students in the new lesson after presenting some pictures.

Extract 2

1   TY: Can you guess from what the pictures >can you guess< what >the topic of the lesson<

2   to↑day↓?

3   SS: [Celebrities

4   TY: [Celebriti::es YEA::H I think we have (2.0) We are going to:: (.) find out some >interesting

5   information< about celebrities↑ culture↓. Alright↑ So:: (2.0) Now we're talking about (.) famous

6   stars. What are the common features↓ of famous stars? >What are the qualities< of famous stars?

7   (2.0) They must be:: ↑

8   SS: Beautiful

9   TY: >Ah BEAUtiful< yah↑

10   SS: Handsome

11   TY: Hand↑some↓. Right? (.) >What else↑<

12   SS: Talent

13   TY: TAlent↑ Talented↓. Right >What else↑< >in terms of< their appearance. The way:: they::

14   SS: Wear

15   TY: ah wear. >So they must be very↑<

16   SS: Fashionable

17   TY: <Fashionable>. Yeah so today to be more specific we are going to (.) ah find out some↑thing↓

18   about (.) the way that famous people DRESS. Alright↑ Ah. Okay so now (.) <I have>

19   TY: I would like you to work in groups of:: THREE. Okay↑ ah °work in group of 3° so >excuse

20   me< can you >one of you< move here (.) to join them? ((hand directing to a group)) One of you

21   only with this activity only. (3.0) ((one student moves to another group)) Yeah so please work in

22   group of three >and I::< will give you some pa↑per↓.< In this paper> , we <ha:ve a picture> with

23   <a lot of> >a lot of↑< ((showing the paper to students))

24   SS: Clothes

25   TY: Clothes yeah a lot of <clothing items↓> Alright↑ And what I would like you to do↑(.) IS:: to

26   (.) write down the name >to find out< the name of each item (.) and write them down in (.) a blank

27   paper like this ((showing a blank paper)). >Alright↑< <The first group> to finish↓ please say

28   Bingo. Okay↑ Are you clear↑.

29   SS: [Yeah

30   TY: [Yeah alright thank you↑

In this case, prior to giving instruction, teacher Y asks students a number of eliciting questions about the topic of celebrity culture, which stimulates students' contribution as can be seen in Line 3, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 24 with students adding words to teachers' intentionally incomplete sentences. This technique is similar to the one used by teacher X in Extract 1 since raising the voice is seen as an indication of next speaker selection These prompts serve as a context for students to understand the task they are going to do, which distinguishes this example from others. Teacher Y subsequently delivers the instruction, supported by stress and intonation to denote key words ("DRESS" in Line 18, "THREE" in Line 19, "pa↑per↓" in Line 22), slow articulation ("<ha:ve a picture>" in Line 22, "<clothing items↓>" in Line 25, "<The first group>" in Line 27), or example demonstration (hands pointing to one group, showing papers to students). The instruction seems fluent most of the time though a change of word flow can be recorded in Line 18 when teacher Y is likely to show something by saying "I have", followed by a substitution of topic to group work arrangement.

The third extract demonstrates an instruction for the group discussion activity in teacher Z's class as a while-speaking activity.

Extract 3

1   TZ: >Okay now< I have some (.) <other discussions> for you (.) and ah you did this (.) one
2   before↑ so please choose one color you love ↓ ((going to each desk to give students a set of
3   colorful sticks))
4   TZ: okay please choose the color you love (.) NO different color
5   (4.0) ((going to the next desk))
6   TZ: and:: (.) ((going to the next desk)) yes (3.0) so for people ((inaudible)) great↓ ye↓ llow↑ a::nd
7   this one ((going to the next desk))
8   TZ: excuse me work in group of four (5.0) ok you <u>must</u> be green ((going to the next desk))
9   TZ: excuse me please turn around ((pointing to two boys)) and work with these two girls↑ (4.0)
10   okay (.) now this one orange (.) okay so another one another one another one↓
11   TZ: ((coming back to teacher's desk)) wow OKAY NOW I have four questions >together↑< and
12   <u>if</u> (.) the screen (.) is orange↑ <the person with orange> has to answer↓
13   ((students nodding))
14   TZ: So if the screen is::: ((raising a green stick))
15   SS: [Green

16   TZ: [Green >who is going< to answer
17   TZ: The person with green
18   TZ: Raise your hand (.) raise your stick (.) okay so if the screen is this one↑
19   S1: Yellow
20   TZ: you have to answer okay↑ ((pointing to S1)) (.) So make sure you speak as if you were in the
21   exam <u>as long as possible</u>↑ (.) When you fi<u>nish</u> (2.0) <one member> in your group has to ask
22   (.) another question (.) I mean follow-up question (.) <u>Now</u> for example when ah you have
23   finished ((pointing to a student)) one (.) among you ((pointing to other group members)) has
24   to give another question (.) Understand me↑
25   SS: Yeah
26   TZ: Okay

In this example, teacher Z supposes students have done this activity before as shown in Line 1 and 2, so teacher Z immediately distributes color sticks prior to giving any instruction. However, students might not have recalled this activity; hence, while giving the sticks, teacher Z requested that each student in a group to take a different color or that students work in group as can be seen in Line 4, 8, 9 and 10. The first part of this instruction-giving phase is a monologue. Having completed the stick distribution, teacher Z continues giving the instruction with the structure "if". Teacher Z models the first "orange" example in Line 11

and 12 and delivers an interaction instruction by using body language (Line 14), repeating the same structure as an example (Line 14, 18), asking a question (Line 16) or requesting student's physical response (Line 18), all of which are signposts that the next exchange should be of the students. In the second phase of the instruction, teacher Z takes an example to ensure students understand what they are asked to do by pointing to some students to illustrate the instruction in Line 22 and 23. In this excerpt, the teacher involves students in the instruction giving by delivering incomplete sentences in Line 14 and 18, and inviting students to answer as in Line 15 and 19.

Monologue-type instruction with little students' participation

In addition to instruction including students' participation, monologue-type instruction was also recorded.

Extract 4 is an instruction from teacher X requesting students to do a pair work activity.

Extract 4

1   TX: And now I would like you (.) ((tsk)) to make uhm some notes for the prompts here ((pointing
2   to the exercise)). And try to describe your favorite (.) object and do not say what is that kind of
3   object (.) and let your friend guess it. >OK < now >first of all<, make some notes (.) okay,
4   then talk to the person (.) sitting next to you about it to see whether he or she can guess what is
5   that kind of object. OK ↑. Now do it. Make some notes first.
6   (9 .0) ((going around the class))
7   TX: <Favorite object>
8   (20.0) ((looking at a student's stuff))
9   TX: Make some notes.
10   (29.0) ((coming back to the teacher's desk))
11   TX: NOW, shhh, make some notes.
12   (27.0) ((sitting at the teacher's desk))
13   TX: And try to use the phrases you have just learnt↑ Okay↑ ((looking at students)) (2.0)
14   try to use the phrase you see in the paragraph. ((looking at the mobile screen))

In this example, teacher X asks students to make notes for a speaking activity. To illustrate the instruction, the teacher uses gesture (pointing as Line 1,2), employs phrases denoting order ("first of all" in Line 3, "then" in Line 4, "Now" in Line 5) or repeats important points (Line 7, 9, 11, 13, 14). However, it is noted that after the class-fronted instruction from Line 1 to Line 5, teacher X continues giving instruction while walking around the class (Line

6), looking at a student's material (Line 8), sitting at the teacher's desk, and looking at the mobile screen (Line 13,14). Embedded in a situation where students' attention is not guaranteed, if the teacher delivers information, it is difficult for students to follow as they are working on their own task. For example, in Line 11, teacher X says "now" in a loud voice, accompanied by "shhh" which signifies students are in the middle of talking, and they do not respond to what the teacher is saying. Remarkably, in Line 14, teacher X introduces new information suggesting students should use the language they have learnt previously while looking at teacher's mobile screen. This action, without calling for students' attention, does not propose any eye contact with students nor does it request students to pay attention to the teacher's instruction.

In the following extract, at the beginning of the lesson, teacher Y instructs students about what they will do that day – a video reflection. Students have been asked to make a video by themselves and send it to their peers prior to going to class.

Extract 5

1 TY: In the lesson today (.) we are going to do a kind of (.) video reflection↑ Ah you're gonna <u>work</u> in
2   group of four or five↑ as I mention before↑ And:: now ah in <u>each</u> group >you're gonna< work in
3   <u>pair</u> (.) or in group of three. >I think this group< you have to work in group of three ((pointing to a
4   group)). And other group you will >divide your group into two <u>pairs</u>< (.) and in each pair (.)
5   ((inaudible)) you use your electronic devices↑ ((picking up a smartphone)) to <u>listen</u> (.) to and
6   <u>watch</u> the video that your friend has sent to you↓ While <u>watching</u> (.) you should (.) give some
7   com<u>ment</u>s or some feedback on your friend's video↓ Are you clear↑
8 SS: Yes
9 TY: Yeah and re<u>mem</u>ber (.) to:: >may be< to note down your comments↑ just write some key words↑
10   (.) or something >so that< you can remember to comment for your friends↑ Okay↑ and <<u>after</u>>
11   you have finished <u>watching</u> (.) discuss (.) and give (.) the comment, tell your friends your
12   comment. Alright↑ (3.0) Okay so now let's start↑

It is apparent that there are two phases in this instruction. For the first stage, teacher Y delivers a relatively long instruction from Line 1 to Line 7. The teacher initially talks to the whole class then directs a group that needs a different seating arrangement when Line 3 and 4 shows teacher Y refers to some specific groups. Teacher Y continues the speech until Line 7 where the teacher poses a cliché question of "Are you clear?" to transfer the turn to the students. Responding to this question, students answer "Yes" while actually it is impossible

to realize whether they understand what they are going to do next. The subsequent stage also commences with a series of instruction. Noticeably, in this case, teacher Y allocates hardly any pauses or wait-time for students to picture the task given except for only one 3-second pause in Line 12 towards the end of the instruction. No concept-checking questions are asked. The utterance "Let's start" in Line 12 does not appear to given interaction for students as following teacher's request is their sole option.

In brief, two styles of giving instruction are recorded as illustrated in the examples above, namely solo teacher talk and interactive dialogue with students. It is apparent that the teacher is the initiator of the conversation, followed by either students' exchange or teacher's continuation. The nature of this classroom talk – instruction giving – offers limited chance for students to commence the conversation; however, with teacher's turn allocation, students' active participation can still be detected.

Findings of Research question 2

The recordings indicate that, classroom interaction might have been enhanced through some of the features. Initially, inviting students to contribute to teachers' instruction is one way to check leaners' comprehension without mandatorily allocating time to ask them concept-checking questions. By doing this, though, teachers retain their controlling role in teacher-student interaction, and it not only helps to preclude teachers from posing cliché questions such as "Are you clear?", "Do you understand?" or "Is it okay?" as can been seen in some above-illustrated examples but also more attentively draws leaners' responsiveness to the instruction. Secondly, teachers' simple language is another factor that helps students clearly grasp what will be done in the next stage. The majority of the examined discourse can be classified as simple sentences, compound sentences that are connected with simple linkers as "and", "so" or a series of utterances that are combined with sequential connectors namely "first of all", "then", "now" or "after". These structures considerably contribute to the simplicity of language, ensuring students' comprehensive understanding of the given task since learners have merely transferred into a community where listening and speaking skills receive more drill. Thirdly, a practice that is highly valued by investigated students can be linked to adding the lead-in context prior to delivering the instruction. Students might be eager to participate in the activity when they are introduced to the setting of the task, unlike other exercises when teachers present what students should do immediately. Having realized the purpose of the task, students can positively become involved in the classroom activity. Last

but not least, while giving instruction, teachers' paying attention to each group also obtains students' participation. That is, class-fronted instruction sometimes provides insufficient direction to a certain number of groups in classrooms, especially in mixed-level classes. Hence, teachers can allot time to explicate the rule to some specific groups that need further explication, from which students surely benefit. This quality can be seen in Extract 2 and 5 of teacher Y when this teacher personally shows some groups how to do the task.

On the other hand, there are factors in the data that impede classroom interaction. The first problem is teacher's long instruction with few or no pauses. For example, during the instruction giving phase of teacher Y, when it is a sequence of sentences, albeit simple ones, all of the interviewed students opine that the teacher should break it down and allocate wait time for them to understand step-by-step. Giving all the instruction at one time is not only hard for teachers to produce but also causes troubles for listeners when they cannot recognize some key points of the instruction. This finding connects with Margaretha's study (2015), which indicated that lengthy complex instruction is also an issue in EFL classrooms in Indonesia. Another problem recorded in this data is teacher's giving instruction while students' attention is not secured. As in extract of teacher X, having requested students to do the activity, teacher X carries on giving information, even new instructions to those who are busy doing their own task. This shows inefficiency as when asked, students concur that they cannot pay attention although they know the teacher is saying something. Since the teacher does not specifically call for a response, students are not urged to produce any interactive patterns with their teacher, which ultimately leads to failure in teacher-student communication. This situation supports Sowell's suggestion (2017) to gather students' attention prior to delivering any information. The next concern originates from post-instruction stage where it is advised that teachers should ask concept-checking questions (Proctor, 2014; Scrivener, 2012). Nevertheless, instances such as "Are you clear?" in Extract 2, "Understand me?" in Extract 3 or "Okay?" in Extract 4 fail to offer teachers any guarantee that their students fully understand the instruction. The students who were interviewed all agree teachers should ensure students know what the task requires them to do. Still, there is a case when some students say post-instruction questions are unnecessary when students have already participated in teachers' instruction. As in Extract 1 and Extract 3, teacher X and teacher Z engage students into the instruction phase as a method to check their understanding, and 93% of the students who were interviewed believe there is no need to ask checking questions.

Discussions and Implications

The subsequent discussion is devoted to some issues that emerged from the results, followed by some implications for further implementation.

First and foremost, it is noteworthy that all the teachers in this research are non-native speakers, so to some extent, they encounter a language barrier while delivering instruction to students. The phenomenon is uncommon; however, it can perhaps be most easily seen in Extract 3 where teacher X commits a grammatical mistake when saying "do not say what is that kind of object" and even repeats this twice. Hence, standardized qualifications of language do not guarantee whether teachers can produce effective classroom language or not. Although language errors in teachers' instruction exist, in the interviews students did not consider these as hindering their comprehension of the instruction since they could work out the meaning in these circumstances without many difficulties. Therefore, it can be said that, minor language inaccuracies may not impede the interaction between teachers and students during the instruction giving phase. However, this finding contrasts with Le and Renandya's (2017) research on the relationship between the teacher's command of English and classroom language use, in which they state students are likely to "have a more positive perception towards their more proficient teachers than the less proficient ones" (2017, p.79). In spite of this difference, it is vital for language teachers to master the target language to deliver the lesson with maximum efficacy, which is similarly concurred by Meng and Wang (2011) as they claim EFL teachers' language is important in the learner's acquisition. Non-native teachers are advised to expose themselves frequently to a standard English environment, in whichever way that might be suitable for them, in order to advance their language competency, thus limiting their possibility to make mistakes in classroom discourse.

In addition, teachers should have training in classroom language, particularly in instruction giving strategies. Breaking instruction into phases (Sowell, 2017), setting contexts for activities, involving students in the instruction stage as a method to check understanding are some of the techniques that teachers-to-be, students of pedagogical universities, or even teachers should develop. By dividing long instruction into shorter ones, teachers can ensure all of the students, even weak ones, are be able to understand their task. Using shorter instructions also enable teachers to control their language since they have more time to handle the language output. Additionally, providing contexts of the activity can also engage students

during the instruction giving stage. Students subsequently are aware of the purpose of the given task and are likely to take part in the task more enthusiastically.

Another technique to be introduced is allowing students to contribute to the instructional delivery, in which interactive language patterns can be used to strengthen both teacher-learner exchange and the students' understanding of the task. If teachers implement this act, post-checking questions might not be necessary, thus saving time for classroom activities. On a larger scale, in the curriculum of pedagogical studies, classroom language should be introduced to students prior to the teaching internship, and practiced intensively. In addition to verbal language, non-verbal signals as well as other techniques mentioned above should be familiar to teachers-to-be so that they can apply comprehensive strategies in the pivotal stage of instruction giving.

Conclusion

This case study applied the Conversation Analysis approach into classroom language, particularly instructional talk of teachers in a Vietnamese university. Distinctive extracts were thoroughly investigated in order to reveal a detailed view of different methods of delivering instruction and whether these practices promote or deter classroom communication. This topic needs more scholars to investigate as the current research merely elicited a small amount of data, which only concentrated on a certain subject of teachers' instructional language in EFL classes of freshmen. In sum, the correlation among teachers' language aptitude, teacher's teaching methodology and students' learning is a multifaceted aspect (Freeman et. al., 2015), in which each of these components needs to be addressed meticulously.

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TEACHING ENGLISH PATTERNS IN THE NEXT DECADE
(2017-2027): TRENDS AND CHALLENGES*

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Abstract

The purposes of this research were to investigate the trends and approaches of the English language teaching that may emerge in the next decade (2017-2027) in a number of dimensions. These include internal and external factors of education, teaching methods, contents, activities, teaching materials, recommendations, new bodies of knowledge and strategies in the optimistic-realistic scenario, pessimistic-realistic scenario and most-probable scenario in the context of Thailand. Ethnographic Delphi Futures Research (EDFR) technique was used on a total of 17 scholars from 17 higher education institutions from four regions of Thailand by purposive sampling. The tools used for data collection included (1) semi-structured interview using open-ended questions for In-depth interview, and (2) close-ended questionnaire with a 5-point rating scale. Data analyses were median (Med.) and interquartile range (IQR.) The results are as follows:

The scenarios of English language teaching during the next decade (2017-2027) were envisioned as a result of combining the English language with other sciences (Combined Degree). Under the work-integrated learning approach, learners have an opportunity to integrate academic learning with practical workplace experiences. An emphasis of this approach is to enable the learners to execute social transactions effectively through the communication and interaction both face-to-face and via technology, to have creative ideas, to create their works and careers by using the English language as a communication and interaction tool. Thailand must be prepared for teaching English online for lifelong learning in order to efficiently handle the country's aging society in the future.

Keywords: English language teaching, Future research, Lifelong learning, Next decade, Work-integrated Learning

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Introduction

English is a key skill of the 21st century, from scientific advancement and technology in a rapidly changing society. This skill impacts economics, politics, culture, and technology. There are innovations that give rise to new technological advances every day. As a result, new knowledge and old knowledge are changing at all times without borders (Romchat, 2005).

English is an important factor in a society that promotes human development around the world. English education needs to be modified in concept, patterns, processes, and teaching methods in line with the changing world we live in. Each organization responsible for educational management must adapt by accelerating educational reforms to keep pace with the changing world. We must have clear goals in Thailand to step into internationalism with English as our mediating tool because English is very influential in the education industry, especially as the critical aspect of the saying "Internationalization" (Phan Le Ha, 2013). In order to develop Thailand into an international country, universities need to develop English education.

The importance and necessity of the departments that teach English in the higher education institutions of Thailand need to coordinate their trends of Teaching English with suitability for future global social change. In the writing of the future (Scenarios), academics, administrators, instructors, staff, and all stakeholders, both internal and external, can apply the research results to guide the Teaching English pedagogy in the next decade. To be effective and in line with the changing 21st century and the true needs of the learners.

Research Objectives

The purpose of this research was to investigate the experts' opinions on the trends of Teaching English patterns in the next decade (2017-2027), on the following issues:

1.1) External and internal factors that influence the trends of English language teaching

1.2) Suitability/unsuitability and recommendations for improving English language teaching patterns

1.3) Recommendations and new additional strategies of English language teaching patterns

Definition of key terms

1) Teaching English Patterns mean the overall context of Thailand in the present with respect to teaching patterns and methods, textbook contents, instructional activities and teaching materials at the higher education level.

2) EDFR (Ethnographic Delphi Futures Research) means a future research technique that attempts to investigate future trends of a specific matter based on experts' opinions. EDFR consists of five steps as follows: (1) designation and preparation of experts; (2) in-depth interview; (3) analysis and synthesis of data obtained from the interview; (4) questionnaire development; (5) data collection; (6) determination of statistics for data analysis to reach a consensus (MacMillan, 1971; Poolpatarachewin, 2016) and (7) scenario writing.

3) Trends and Challenges mean the overall trends with respect to desired English teaching of higher education institutions in Thailand that are expected to occur in the next decade.

Literature Review

EDFR (Ethnographic Delphi Futures Research)

EDFR is a futures research technique based on a belief that future is a matter that can be studied systematically. People's beliefs influence their decision-making in the future so they can build the future. The objective of future research is not to predict accurately, but to survey the possibilities, both desired and undesired, in order to find out how to make the desired trends occur and eliminate or minimize the undesired ones. Therefore, future research is beneficial to policy development, planning, and decision-making to lead to creation of a desired future (Poolpatarachewin, 2005).

Textor (1990a) differentiates futures research from other methods that aim to study the future in a way that futures research does not involve "prediction" of future. Instead of making predictions, a futures research approach is a practice in the art of anticipation, which is defined as "the building of reasonable, plausible, conditional visions of the future. These take the form of projections, forecasts and scenarios" (p.40).

Futures research techniques

There are several futures research techniques, but this paper presents three of the most popular techniques as follows: (1) Delphi forecasting; (2) Ethnographic Future Research (EFR); and (3) Ethnographic Delphi Future Research (EDFR). Delphi forecasting technique

studies experts' opinions and collects data relating to future expectations from those regarded as experts in a particular field of study. The number of experts is mainly dependent upon characteristics of the group and an issue being studied. The Delphi method is an independent futures study to build a new future without having to take the past and present trends into consideration. Results of this kind of study will make it easier to make a decision since it can replace other alternative decisions. The Delphi is mostly used to make predictions in terms of educational technology and other fields (Bell, 1997, p. 272). With regard to Ethnographic Future Research (EFR), the scenario is obtained from one round of interview and the trend with the most consensus is selected. Ethnographic Delphi Future Research (EDFR) is a research methodology that make use of EFR in the first round, followed by the Delphi technique in the second and third rounds (Ieamvijarn, 2007, p. 93). This futures research technique has become more popular since it combines the strengths and eliminates the weaknesses of both Delphi and EFR (Poolpatarachewin, 2005).

Methodology

EDFR (Ethnographic Delphi Futures Research) was a future research technique that combines EFR (Ethnographic Futures Research) and Delphi methods (Poolpatarachewin, 2016). The procedural steps of EDFR, generally, were similar to those of the Delphi technique, but improvement has been made to make it a more flexible research technique. EDFR consists of five phases as follows:

Phase 1: designation and preparation of experts

Step 1.1 – Experts

It is essential to designate experts since the experts would provide reliable information. MacMillan (1971) found that if there are at least 17 experts or more, the error reduction rate will be minimal until it begins to be stable at 0.02. Therefore, in this research the number of experts is set at 17, provided that purposive sampling method is used to select the experts. Macmillan's study results are used as a guideline to determine the number of experts. Details of error reduction are shown below.

Experts	Error value	Discrepancies
1 - 5	1.20 - 0.70	0.5
5 - 9	0.70 - 0.58	0.12
9 - 13	0.58 - 0.54	0.04
13 - 17	0.54 - 0.50	0.04
17 - 21	0.50 - 0.48	0.02*
21 - 25	0.48 - 0.46	0.02*
25 - 29	0.46 - 0.44	0.02*

* ($<= 0.02$)

Qualifications of an eligible expert are as follows: (1) working as an English instructor at a higher education institution in the Faculty of Education, Arts, Humanities, Applied Arts, and Humanities and Social Sciences, divided into four regions as follows: (1.1) Central: Thammasat University, Silpakorn University, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, Kasetsart University; (1.2) Northern: Naresuan University, Chiang Mai University, Maejo University; (1.3) Southern: Prince of Songkla University, Rajamangala University of Technology Rattanakosin Wangkraikangwon Campus, Thaksin University, Prince of Songkla University, Suratthani Campus; (1.4) Northeastern: Buriram Rajabhat University, Suranaree University of Technology, Khon Kaen University, Ubon Ratchathani University; (2) having graduated with a master's or doctoral degree in English, Teaching English, Linguistics, English Literature, Applied Linguistics and/or other relevant fields; and (3) holding academic position, including assistant professor, associate professor or professor, having not less than 10 years of teaching experience either at the central, regional or campus level, and being well known in Thailand's academic community.

Phase 2: developing the instruments

Step 2.1 – Study the source of data

This step involved documentary research of reviewing related theories and human resource management from textbooks, websites, journals, and related research.

Step 2.2 – Semi-structured interview (EDFR 1st)

The semi-structured interview consisted of three parts of open-ended questions with a total of 10 questions. *Index of* item–objective congruence (IOC) was determined by three experts, apart from the 17 selected experts. The IOC of every question was higher than 0.50. However, recommendations were made for improving the wording of some questions to make them clearer and more suitable. The researcher made the modifications as recommended and

rechecked for correctness until a complete set of semi-structured interview questions undergoing reliability and validity testing was obtained and used for In-depth interviews. As suggested in the literature review, the interview (EDFR round 1) started with an optimistic but realistic scenario which was followed by a pessimistic realistic scenario and then a most probable scenario to obtain a diversity of answers, respectively. The interview was conducted in November – December 2017. Responses from interviewees were analyzed and synthesized in order to further develop English teaching trends for the questionnaire.

Step 2.3 – Questionnaire

The close-ended questionnaire was composed of three sections based on the research objectives, notes and transcribed protocol from in-depth interviews. Main points of the interviews were summarized, and repeated points were merged into a single statement with details beyond research framework removed. As a result, different points were obtained and used to develop questions. In writing the questions, one trend was used for each question. The questions were then analyzed/synthesized and re-categorized yielding. There are total of 134 questions. Their content validity and *index of* item–objective congruence (IOC) were determined by the same set of three experts. The IOC of every question was higher than 0.50, and there were no recommendations for improvement of wording. The questionnaire was administered to a total of 30 English instructors working in higher education institutions, not the group of 17 experts. Cronbach's alpha coefficient by item and the overall questionnaire was equal to 0.90. The questionnaire included five-point Likert scale and was developed in Google Form and administered between January and February 2018.

Phase 3: data collections *(EDFR 2nd)*

Before filling out the questionnaire, each expert received interview feedback from every person, which was information from the in-depth interviews from the first round of EDFR. This information was not arranged in order of the names of the scholars in each region to prevent bias in answering the questions. Information was sent by mail and the link of the complete questionnaire via email, and the researcher waited for responses from all persons. The interpretations of each section of the questionnaire are as follows:

5 means the strongly agree with the item or question asked;

4 means the agree with the item or question asked;

3 means the undecided with the item or question asked;

2 means the disagree with the item or question asked;

1 means the strongly disagree with the item or question asked;

(Poolpatarachewin, 2016; Textor, 1990; Waggoner et al., 2016).

Phase 4: data analysis and synthesis *(EDFR 2nd)*

In conducting EDFR round 2, data were analyzed by a statistical package in which the median (Med.) must be 3.50 or over and interquartile range (IQR.) must be equal to or lower than 1.5 for each item (Poolpatarachewin, 2016; Textor, 1990; Waggoner et al., 2016). The experts' index of consistency was considered to reach a consensus. When EDFR technique is used, results are obtained from the second round or the third round at most due to the fact that the research tool has undergone systematic development process from the beginning (Poolpatarachewin, 2016; Textor, 1990; Waggoner et al., 2016).

Phase 5: scenario writing

Step 5.1 – Trends and challenges

The scenario was considered from statistic values and procedures for conducting EDFR round 2. A report was written to comprise three scenarios, including the positive, the negative and the most probable one, based on consistency between the answers and criteria established.

Results

The analyzed data by order of purposes and experts' opinions on the second round of EDFR are presented as follows:

1. External and internal factors that influence the trends of teaching English language in higher educational institutions in Thailand are as follows:

1.1) External factors of education in the 21st century that influence English teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027) and which higher educational institutions in Thailand should realize and focus on are shown in Table 1:

Table 1: External factors of education

Item	External factors of education	Med.	IQR.
9	Economic condition and change in the global education policy	4.00	0.50

There were a total of 16 statements that were presented to the experts for Table 1. Of these, item 9 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration. The external factor that Thai higher education institutions should be aware of or put in the first priority when determining the pattern of English teaching in the next decade since it has a median of 4.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.50.

1.2) Internal factors of education in the 21st century that influence English teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027) and which the higher educational institutions in Thailand should realize and focus on are shown in Table 2:

Table 2: Internal factors of education

Item	Internal factors of education	Med.	IQR.
4	Exchanging learners in foreign countries in the context that support the use of English.	4.00	0.00

There were a total of 16 statements that were presented to the experts for Table 2. Of these, item 4 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration. The external factor that Thai higher education institutions should be aware of or put in the first priority since it has a median of 4.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.00, and is most consistent with the opinion of experts.

2. Suitability/unsuitability and recommendations for improving current English language teaching patterns in higher educational institutions in Thailand in overall aspects

2.1) English teaching patterns in higher educational institutions in Thailand are shown in Table 3-4.

Table 3: Suitability

Item	Supporting reasons	Med.	IQR.
1	Most higher educational institutions have introduced teaching patterns which focus on the communicative approach and have adapted the teaching patterns to practical experiences instead of practicing English with texts (bookish English).	4.00	1.00
2	Some sectors such as independent or private sectors have good educational management.	4.00	1.00
3	Teaching and learning English language via technology is suitable for learners who are responsible and have a good background in English.	4.00	1.00
4	A blended-learning approach emphasizes integrated learning, and evaluation emphasizes the practice of communication.	4.00	1.00

In Table 3, there are a total of four statements and experts agree that the reasons in all of the four statements support suitability with the pattern of English teaching of Thai higher education institutions today. All of the four statements have the same median of 4.00 and interquartile range of 1.00, which is lower than the established criterion.

Table 4: Unsuitability

Item	Unsuitability and recommendations for improvement	Med.	IQR.
3	The curriculums of language teaching in many educational institutions do not correlate with learners' interest, or too easy or too difficult for learners. Moreover, the number of professional instructors and good teaching materials is inadequate.	5.00	0.50

There were a total of 12 statements that were presented to the experts for Table 4. Of these, item 3 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration. The most since it has the lowest interquartile range of 0.50 and the highest median of 5.00.

2.2 Principles and concepts of teaching English language (Conceptual Design) that can solve problems and develop learners are shown in Tables 5-6.

Table 5: Suitability

Item	Supporting reasons	Med.	IQR.
3	The purpose is to solve problems that occur while teaching, to improve achievement and to enhance communication skills; however, it may take some time to integrate solutions into classroom contexts.	4.00	0.00

There were a total of eight statements that were presented to the experts for Table 5. Of these, item 3 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration and being the most suitable since it has a high median of 4.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.00.

Table 6: Unsuitability

Item	Unsuitability and recommendations for improvement	Med.	IQR.
2	The curriculums should focus on differences to create identity and creative ideas relating to community and institutions in each area. They should not focus on similarities that rely on central standard criteria as occurs at the present. The same curriculums do not create educational diversity and creativity.	4.00	0.00

There were a total of six statements that were presented to the experts for Table 6. Of these, item 2 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration. It has a high median of 4.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.00.

2.3 The content of current English teaching textbooks is shown in Tables 7-8.

Table 7: Suitability

Item	Supporting reasons	Med.	IQR.
2	The higher educational institutions are flexible and in accordance with the objectives of the curriculums and programs.	4.00	0.00
4	It depends on the use. Specially, various teaching materials and activities that allow learners to enhance listening skills should be chosen.	4.00	0.00

There were a total of eight statements that were presented to the experts for Table 7. Of these, item 2 and 4 were the recommendations to be taken into consideration. To promote suitability of contents of English textbooks today since they have a median of 4.00 and interquartile range of 0.00.

Table 8: Unsuitability

Item	Unsuitability and recommendations for improvement	Med.	IQR.
4	Each institution uses different textbooks, but they try to follow the guidelines of the Ministry of Education indicating that persons who graduate from the higher educational institutions must have English level at B2 or C1.	4.00	0.50

There were a total of five statements that were presented to the experts for Table 8. Of these, item 4 was the recommendations to be taken into consideration for improvement since it has a high median of 4.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.50.

2.4 Current English teaching activities are shown in Tables 9-10.

Table 9: Suitability

Item	Supporting reasons	Med.	IQR.
1	Learners have an opportunity to practice English with simulation techniques in real places.	4.00	0.50

There were a total of two statements, and experts agree with the suitability of statement 1, which has the median and interquartile range of 4.00 and 0.50, respectively.

Table 10: Unsuitability

Item	Unsuitability and recommendations for improvement	Med.	IQR.
7	There are various scenarios among the higher educational institutions so instructional activities chosen were different to fit the needs of the particular institutions. Students' achievement was regarded as the most important factor.	4.00	0.00

| 9 | CLT instructional activities need the variety of English in real conversations. The learners should have the right to deal with communication involving personal identity, accents, expression of ideas, use of idioms, and expression of cultural identity; therefore, it was regarded as the teaching of English as an international language. | 4.00 | 0.00 |

There are a total of 11 statements, and experts agree that all of the 11 statements should be taken into consideration for improvement. Statements 7 and 9 were the issues that should be considered the most since they have equal median and interquartile range of 4.00 and 0.00, respectively.

2.5 The current English language teaching materials are shown in Tables 11-12.

Table 11: Suitability

Item	Supporting reasons	Med.	IQR.
3	Currently, there are a number of good and effective teaching materials that support English teaching, so the teaching materials chosen by the instructors were different to fit the needs of particular skills.	4.00	1.00
5	Teaching materials are convenient to use, but with a high price, the government should support the production of effective teaching materials to reduce expenses for sourcing them.	4.00	1.00

There are a total of five statements with statements 3 and 5 supporting suitability and having the same median and interquartile range of 4.00 and 1.00, respectively.

Table 12: Unsuitability

Item	Unsuitability and recommendations for improvement	Med.	IQR.
1	Technology is not employed in every educational institution, depending on the situation and the condition of the institutions. The educational institutions should employ suitable teaching materials which enable learners to engage in learning via up-to-date technology.	4.00	0.50

There were a total of six statements with statement 1 being agreed upon by experts for the purpose of improvement and having the same median, and interquartile range of 4.00 and 0.50, respectively.

2.6 Factors that make English language teaching and learning in the higher educational institutions in Thailand unsuccessful are shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Factors of non-success

Item	Factors of non-success	Med.	IQR.
4	Government policy does not pay attention on the English language proficiency test when recruiting new officers while the language arts field does.	4.00	0.50
5	Executives and persons authorized to make decisions on turning the future wheels of the country do not understand the nature and learning of languages.	5.00	1.00
10	Learners are not interested in the development of English (No self-discipline of learning English), and basic knowledge of the learners does not reach the standard.	5.00	1.00
11	The learners do not pay attention to the importance of learning English and, lack motivation to learn the language and self-study.	5.00	1.00
12	The number of learners per class is too many for active learning.	5.00	1.00

There were a total of 17 statements, and the statements that experts agreed with the most were statements 4, 5, 10, 11 and 12, respectively.

3. Strategies of new bodies of knowledge in teaching English language in the 21st century

3.1 Core new bodies of knowledge in the 21st century (21st Century Skills) or recommendations and new additional strategies in Teaching English language are shown in Table 14.

Table 14: New bodies of knowledge in the 21st century (21st Century Skills) or recommendations

Item	New bodies of knowledge, recommendations and additional strategies	Med.	IQR.
1	21st Century Skills will focus on critical thinking, teamwork, and communication which balance the content and process.	5.00	0.50
9	Enforcing the Exit Exam for Master Degree and Doctoral Degree will be employed by raising the English proficiency score. A university's entrance exam should include a speaking test. The first-grade learners should be taught English that emphasizes variety, activities, leaning style of students by proficient instructors.	4.00	0.50

There were a total of 11 statements, and experts agreed that statement 1 was the most important strategy in the 21st century since it has the highest median of 5.00 and the lowest interquartile range of 0.50, followed by statement 9 respectively.

3.2 English teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027) are shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Trends of English teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027).

Item	Trends of English teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027)	Med.	IQR.
1	Combining English language with other sciences (Combined Degree) will be employed to raise awareness of the importance of English as a key communication tool in the next 10 years, during which the use of language will increase by more than 50%.	4.00	1.00
2	Teaching English online is for lifelong learning of people of all ages (Lifelong online learning).	5.00	1.50
4	English language teaching patterns in the next decade should focus on enabling the learners to integrate academic learning with practical workplace experiences. WIL (work-integrated learning) teaching pattern will be employed to raise their awareness and to be consistent with reality after their graduation.	4.00	1.00
7	An emphasis of English language teaching patterns in the next decade will enable the learners to execute social transactions effectively through the	4.00	1.00

communication and interaction both face-to-face and via technology, to have
creative ideas, to create their works and careers by using the English language
as a communication and interaction tool, and to build an identity, value,
reliability for themselves and their organizations properly via the global
communication network.

There were a total of seven statements, and experts agree with many issues, namely statements 1, 2, 4 and 7, all of which have the medians higher than the established criterion between 4.00 and 5.00 and the interquartile range of 1.50 – 1.00, respectively.

Conclusion and discussion

1. External and internal factors of education that influence the trends of English language teaching

1.1) External factors of education in the 21th century must be recognized or prioritized by higher educational institutions in Thailand in order to respond to changing situations such as an aging society, economic conditions, and the changes in world education policy.

Thailand will transition from an "aging" to "aged" society in 2020 with the population aged 65 or more equaling 10% of the total population or over 7 million people (United Nations, 2017) and a declining birth rate. Higher education institutions must be prepared since this circumstance signals that Thailand is about to face the effects of falling birthrates, which change the population structure. The declining birth rate will definitely affect educational institutions in the future, starting from schools to colleges and eventually universities. A university may not be able to open certain programs or it may be necessary to close some programs or even merge universities, which will result in universities seriously competing with each other to attract students. Thus, it raises a concern that universities may decrease their examination standards in order to get a desired number of students. The Office of the Education Council has conducted documentary research to study the situation and the trends of global education in the 21st century and found that, as a whole, the world tends to give importance to the right to education and good governance, food and water, energy, information and digital technology, and economy, provided that each aspect is connected with educational development. This means that education is involved with almost all aspects of social development, and if we think about a trend, which refers to a general direction, tendency or a

popular taste at a given time, the economic situation and changes in world's education policies have to be taken into account.

1.2) The internal factors of education consist of English teachers who are non-native English speakers. This is consistent with the study of Boriboon (2011) entitled "English Language Teaching in Thailand: A Paradigm Shift from English as a Foreign Language to English as an International Language", and also creates a variety of World Englishes as a second language.

Thailand must promote exchange students in foreign countries in the context that facilitates continuous and concrete use of English. Experts suggest that improvement should be made or PLC (Professional Learning Community) should be added to academic institutions, and learning and sharing should always be encouraged. Moreover, with regard to the economic and social development plan for Thailand 4.0 policy, importance should be given to English for the purpose of innovation creation, and the focus of programs should be put on enabling learners to think innovatively with assistance of other sciences. The goal of education management must be reviewed to ensure that it is in line with the changing society. Additionally, language measurement and evaluation systems should be more flexible, diverse, and original.

2. Suitability/unsuitability and recommendations for improving English language teaching patterns

2.1) English teaching patterns in higher educational institutions in Thailand as follows:

2.1.1) Maintaining Suitability: there are four aspects. Some sectors have good learning management systems; for example, many independent or private organizations and most universities have begun to adopt communication-centered instruction and adjust English language teaching to ensure that learners will be able to use the English language in their daily life, not only bookish English. Furthermore, universities have introduced technologies to facilitate language teaching and learning. However, this may limited to those students who have good knowledge and are responsible for using such technologies. Another solution that experts think fit is the instruction that focuses on blended-learning (Allen & Seaman, 2005; Bernath, 2012; Driscoll, 2002; Graham, 2012; Horn & Staker, 2011) in combination with measurement and evaluation of students' performance via an integration of computer

technology and ordinary learning and teaching to promote improvement of learning efficiency and effectiveness.

2.1.2) Maintaining Unsuitability: most experts agree that the current English language teaching styles of Thai higher education institutions are not quite appropriate, and they have made the following recommendations for improvement: (1) the government's policy is not in line with the actual approach; for example, the government needs universities to teach English for communication, but learners do not dare to speak. In this regard, teachers should revise their process or method to allow students to practice speaking in the classroom by focusing on using English for communication as much as possible. (2) regarding classroom management, the numbers are too high. According to Robelen (1998), the learning processes that are possible in small classes can maximize learning since teachers can devote more time to each student and many research studies (Anderson, 2000; Betts, et al., 1999; Blatchford, et al., 2003; Goldstein, et al., 1998; Slavin, 1989) have supported such idea; for example, advantages of a small classroom are that it increases students' participation in class activities, less students have deviated behavior, and teachers have more time to focus on each student and are able to concentrate their time on teaching rather than classroom management.

2.2) Principles and concepts of teaching English language (Conceptual Design) that can solve problems and develop learners as follows:

2.2.1) Suitability: Experts concur that principles and concepts play an important role. Objectives exist for the purpose of solving problems found with learning and teaching with emphases on improving achievement and promoting communication ability. However, it may take time to suitably apply those principles and concepts to classroom contexts. Good principles and concepts affect the efficiency of instructional design, such as learner analysis, SWOT analysis, objectives of learning management, learning materials, and other relevant factors.

2.2.2) Unsuitability: The curriculum should focus on differences to create identity (Norton, 1997; Seidlhofer, 2003; Widdowson, 1994) and creativity of the community and institutions in each area, not on similarities that rely on central standard criteria as occurs at the present. This is consistent with the similar curriculums which do not create educational diversity and creativity. New concepts begin to have influence on educational management, especially the current educational reform in Thailand because each learner is different and unique since Thailand has several regions with differences in terms of language, traditions,

customs and cultures. The experts stated that the same curriculum would not create diversity and educational creativity. Thus, the principles and concepts of educational management must be adjusted, and such aspects must be taken into consideration.

2.3) Regarding the content of current English teaching textbooks, the learners can gain knowledge from various sources, so the textbook should not be limited to just one book. The content relies on the needs of the learners.

2.3.1) Maintaining Suitability should be as follows: at the higher education level, it is quite flexible and must agree with objectives of programs and courses. Due to the fact that the current textbooks are diverse, they may be produced by the higher education institutions themselves or selected from various printing houses to meet the objectives of particular programs and courses. Some courses have unique content, so selection of textbooks must be flexible. Instructors have to keep in mind what to teach, who the target group or learners are, and how to use the textbooks to make students want to study and understand the content that instructors are trying to teach. In the future, textbooks may not be limited to the hard copy format, but may include other formats available today.

2.3.2) Unsuitability: Experts believe that the textbooks it should be taken into consideration, and recommendations for improvement were the following: Each institution uses different textbooks, but they try to follow the guidelines of the Ministry of Education indicating that persons who graduate from the higher educational institutions must have English level at B2 or C1. Each university can choose textbooks on its own, but it has to examine carefully what learners have to know and learn in order to use the language to communicate effectively in a number of contexts, including cultural contexts, in accordance with CEFR. The scale of language proficiency must be determined in different levels (A1-C2) to set clear goals for learners to improve themselves and to serve as criteria for learners to evaluate their achievement. Experts disagree with setting B2 or C1 as the achievement goal for students who graduate with a bachelor degree because the English language instruction reform in Thailand using CEFR as the foundation for this reform is a new and challenging attempt that gives hope to relevant parties, both to the policymaker, which is the Ministry of Education, and to operators, i.e. English teachers. What to keep an eye on next is to which direction and how far CEFR will move and what change it will make to the English language learning and teaching in Thailand.

2.4) Regarding current English teaching activities, the specialists still focus on teacher-centered activities. The activities should be adjusted to allow learners to participate in activity planning (Student-centered activities) and provide them opportunities to think, analyze, create, apply to real experiences, create practical leadership, and focus on active and interactive learning. The activities should also support the use of English language via project/problem-basted activities.

2.4.1) Suitability: Experts agree with only two aspects, indicating that universities' current instructional activities are not very appropriate.

2.4.2) Recommendations for improvement of the current English language instructional activities are as follows: due to the fact that certain aspects are related to abovementioned objectives, in Thailand, the classroom is usually too large to carry out some activities because of limited time and too many students, so the experts suggest that project-based learning be used, and there should be classroom presentation or discussion (depending on learners' levels). A task-based approach or peer evaluation and idea sharing encourages students to become more responsible and motivated to learn new things on their own (joy of discovery).

The experts also focused on the issue that instructors still emphasize activities that require them to think, plan or make all arrangements for the students. Ideally, students should be encouraged to take part in planning the activities and be provided with an opportunity to think, analyze, create, and apply what they see around them. In this regard, students should serve as leaders, and focus should be given on active and interactive learning activities that promote the use of English via projects or problems. Alternatively, there should be instructional activities both in and outside classroom with actual workplaces in the form of cooperative education. This approach will also enable students to understand and learn from doing, which will further encourage them to improve professional skills and eventually possess the skills that workplaces require the most with cooperative education serving as concrete cooperation mechanism between workplaces and universities in a manner that corresponds to the actual situation. Students will be proud to improve themselves, and both workplaces and universities can benefit each other.

Research findings also indicate that skills of the next decade should focus on communication activities that do not focus too much on accents. Such a finding is in line with previous research on English as an international language and the right to possession of the English language: Research findings indicate that students agree that British English and American English are international English. However, a diversity of the English language used

throughout the world and acceptance of Thai version of English must be taken into consideration as well (Kachamart, 2008; Rajagopalan, 2012). When students are worried too much about being able to communicate like native speakers, they are shy to speak or afraid of making a mistake. Most of the current learning activities focus on grammar and reading. Experts suggest the application of outcome-based education to guide the improvement of activities. However, measurement and evaluation of each skill in students' activities should comply with the criteria set forth for each level of CEFR, which should be diverse and flexible. They recommend that technological activities or flipped classroom (Aaron & Jonathan, 2012) should be adopted. A flipped classroom could be a new dimension of the 21st century. A virtual classroom that enables students to carry out activities is a solution recommended by experts to overcome certain limitations of doing activities in higher education institutions. A critical point that experts agree with the most is that instructors and students do not use relevant media and contents in learning the English language effectively or that the available media are not used to their best.

It can be concluded from the research findings that each university has diverse methods of selecting instructional activities based on suitability and learners' achievement. Experts agree the most on the issue that when adopting *communicative language teaching* (*CLT*), universities must be aware of a diversity of the English language in actual conversations, and students should have the right to communicate in their own unique ways, such as use of an accent, expression of ideas, use of idioms, and display of unique culture, so that it can be called the teaching of English as an international language in the next decade.

2.5) Regarding current English language teaching materials, the critical point that the experts have the same opinions on is that the instructors and students do not apply available teaching materials in teaching and learning English language to their full potential. Experts agree the most that instructors and students do not use relevant media and contents in learning English effectively or that the available media are not used to their best.

2.6) Factors that make English language teaching and learning in the higher educational institutions in Thailand unsuccessful are as follows:

2.6.1) Executives and persons authorized to make a decision on the future of the country do not understand the nature and learning of languages. Any change made to or any enforcement of policy must be correlated at all educational levels. For example, when there is

a new government or new Minister of Education, a new policy would be formulated, resulting in operators having to revise their paradigm or teaching direction to meet the new policy. As a result, there is interruption in education. Experts recommend promoting research on second/foreign language acquisition to lay a foundation for learning and teaching development since such research in the field in Thailand is not as developed as it should have been, causing difficulty in developing language teaching in Thailand.

2.6.2) The instructors still give priority to grammar, reading, translation, multiple-choice tests and evaluations emphasizing grammar and vocabulary (passive skill) over the use of English in everyday communication (active skill), so experts want teaching processes, methods, and activities to be changed to suit the changing situation because teaching the English language with a focus on grammar and translation does not foster language learning since it does not focus on listening and speaking. Memorizing a variety of rules is hard and boring for students. English should be treated in a way that it is not only a required course in which students only have to pass the exam.

2.6.3) Learners have no self-discipline of learning English, and basic English knowledge of the learners does not reach the standard, so they need continuous development. Apart from this, they do not pay attention on the importance of learning English, lack motivation to learn and study by themselves. This conclusion is consistent with the findings of Thepsiri, et al. (2012) that the attitude to learning English and identities are the factors that bring success or failure in learning. Thus, instructors should promote students' motivation and good attitude towards learning and expectation for successful language learning in the future.

3. Recommendations and additional strategies of English language teaching

3.1) Core new bodies of knowledge in the 21st century (21st Century Skills) or recommendations and new additional strategies in teaching English will focus on critical thinking, teamwork, and communication which balance the content and process by adjusting the paradigm to blend English into every subject. The instructors teaching other subjects need to be active in the use of English language for communication as a tool for self-study in all professions. That is, adjusting the paradigm and having the English language inserted into every course is needed. Instructors of other subjects have to be alert to the use of English for communication by stimulating the employment of language as a tool to search for knowledge in every program of study. Moreover, the government has the policies to encourage all Thai people to study English skills and to require inclusion of the English language to every course

in every level of the educational system (combined degrees). No matter what course an instructor teaches, he or she must encourage and support students to have improved English knowledge and skills. Relevant departments and organizations must determine how to include the English language into other courses. One approach recommended for use by instructors is to insert English into those courses for which they are responsible.

3.1.1) The application of English language teaching approaches and theories such as constructivism, classroom interaction strategy, CLT, blended learning, flipped classroom, basic digital literacy and media literacy of both instructors and learners should integrate English perception and English for specific purposes. Experts consider that family is a part of a community or society so if members of each family have good occupations and incomes and can expect progress in their careers, the result will be strengthened and independent community. If family members can earn a living for themselves and their families and the unemployment rate is reduced, this change will help the government solve social problems. When people in the society have a better living, and resources within a community are used effectively to generate income, the overall economic situation will be improved for family, community, society and the country in the future.

3.1.2) Application of suggestopedia to destroy and get rid of students' obstacles, especially their negative ideas, will encourage the students to dare to learn and overcome such obstacles. Further recommendations that experts agree with each other on are that exit exam be strictly enforced by increasing required English scores for Masters and Ph.D. students and that a speaking test be taken during the entrance examination for admission of bachelor's degree students to evaluate their English communication skills.

3.2) Regarding English language teaching patterns in the next decade (2017-2027), the results of the data analysis focus on learning together with practical experience in the context of working experience via WIL (Work-integrated Learning). This is consistent with the principles and concepts of integrated educational management and practical working experience proposed by Kramer et al. (2011). With regard to experiential learning management, experts agree that students must have an opportunity to apply their knowledge, work-related skills and specialized skills that are related to their profession, and learn about actual work life before graduation. There are four types of work integrated learning (WIL) in Thailand (Office of the Education Council, 2010, pp.108-115), namely (1) dual vocational; (2) cooperative; (3) apprentice; and (4) internship. The purpose of WIL is to link the academic

world with business and industry sectors in order to provide the country with human resources with higher capabilities through a variety of activities, such as problem-solving, administration, and use of research processes to promote cooperation in curriculum development with workplaces and the creation of new knowledge. The success factors and conditions are as follows: 1) students have direct experience from their apprenticeship in a workplace so that they have more understanding of the characteristics of their professions; 2) it is easy to find a workplace because the workplace understands the nature of apprenticeships; and 3) to get students well prepared for the job market and have increased opportunity to get a job in the future, which will be good for both the students and the academic institution. Experts point out another issue that they are worried about, which is aging society, and suggest that it is necessary to prepare for teaching English online for lifelong online learning or out of class learning where instructors may teach either in classroom or online in the same manner as online English tutoring. The courses developed should be based on learners' interests and needs and respond to the changing social conditions. The preparation of teaching English online for lifelong learning for people at all ages (Lifelong online learning) will help deal with the upcoming elderly population in Thailand.

Thailand has given importance to lifelong learning. This can be clearly seen from the vision of the National Education Plan 2017-2036 that, "All Thais must be able to receive a high quality of education and life-long learning. They must be able to lead a happy life in line with the principle of self-sufficiency economy and changes in the 21st century world" (p.78). Moreover, one of the development goals stated in the Twelfth National Economic and Social Development *Plan* (2017-2021) is that, "Thai people receive a high quality of education meeting international standards and are able to learn on their own continually" (The Twelfth National Economic and Social Development *Plan* (2017-2021), p.11). This goal is in accordance with Ueangchokchai et al. (2016). Rapid changes in various aspects of the world society encourage Thai youth, who are the key force in the development of the country in the future, to have the practice of lifelong learning.

Recommendations for further studies

1) Results of this study should be examined in further studies in order to define the direction of English language teaching patterns. The trends obtained from the study should be used to create a questionnaire for collecting data from practitioners and other stakeholders in order that the data are analyzed for possibility via Factor Analysis. The size of experts group

(n) used may be increased by at least 5-10 times (Field, 2005), or further studies could be conducted to analyze confirmatory factors (Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Steven, 2009). Furthermore, these opinions should also be disseminated to the practitioners.

   2) There should be further studies conducted to examine Learning Language Strategy (LLS) and anxiety in learning all four English skills, which have not been studied. This is to cover all aspects and to be useful for further planning and development.

   3) There should be further studies on the issue regarding conflicting opinions among the experts who have their own reasons to support their own opinions.

   4) There should be studies on the patterns or trends of teaching English language in particular aspects for specific development such as the teaching styles of the famous and popular tutorial centers in Thailand.

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THE EFFECT OF ACCENT ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION: CHINESE L2 LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES

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Abstract

This article investigates the effect of different accents on high- and low-proficiency second language (L2) learners. It begins with testing the English listening proficiency of Chinese students and then compares the influence of three accented English (a British accent, an Australian accent and an Indian accent) on their listening scores. Finally, the findings of this paper indicate that accent has a similar influence on high- and low-proficiency learners. The Indian accent could influence test takers' perceptions of intelligibility, and it influenced low-proficiency learners more. All learners preferred the British-accented English, but more high-proficiency learners accepted the Indian accent than low-proficiency ones. Apart from that, accent familiarity can influence listening comprehension and accent preference, but the effects were not strong in this study.

Keywords: listening comprehension, accent, second language, listening proficiency, perception, attitude.

Introduction

For the global diffusion of international communication, English is the most popular additional language, and it has been learned and spoken by over 700 million ESL users in different nations of the world. The emergence and acceptance of different English varieties as a lingua franca have divided English into three concentric circles, which present different features and acquisitions of English in global multicultural contexts. According to the most influential model of English proposed by Kachru (1988), World Englishes has three categories: the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle. Kachru's model of circles suggests that inner circle represents standard English norms, traditional English-speaking countries such as Britain, America, and Australia are categorized into this circle. The outer circle is developing their norms based on the standard norm for historical or colonial

reasons, which represents by countries like India and Singapore. The expanding circle has developing norms and English in this circle (e.g. China, Japan, and Russia) mainly serves as a lingua franca for business or education purposes rather than historic reasons.

As English has become a global language, the use of English appears to have more individual differences. In addition, accent always has been a controversial criterion in English variation, as there are no clearly norms deciding which accent is superior or inferior.

Large-scale academic English assessments such as IELTS, TOEFL, and PTE are widely accepted as authority means of assessing the English proficiency levels of candidates. These exams are currently adopted by many tertiary education institutions in the inner circle and even outer circle as a basic language entry requirement for outer and expanding circle students whose first language is not English. However, ESL international students in a multicultural English-speaking background may encounter tutors and international teaching assistants with non-native English varieties.

To achieve great authenticity, those tests have introduced a wide range of accents in their listening sections. In the IELTS task design, according to the handbook of IELTS (2007, p6), the accents in the listening recordings are chosen from various native English speakers to reflect contexts in a real-life setting. Accents ranging from Inner circle such as British and Australian to Outer circle such as Indian can be heard on the listening part of IELTS 1 assessments. However, the introduction of such a broad range of accents also brings some drawbacks related to fairness and test usefulness. Unfamiliar accent is an important variable that could hinder the comprehension process of test-takers. The familiarity of accent thus may threaten the fairness of the tests. Also, as Chan (2016) suggests, the attitudes and perceptions of ESL learners should not be neglected in further investigations of the relationship between accent and listening assessments.

In this paper, the author will investigate the listening scores of Chinese ESL learners by using the recordings of three different accented English. Participants from different English proficiency levels and study experiences were divided into several groups to compare the differences in their listening experiences. Also, questionnaires were followed by the listening tests to further examine participants' perception and attitudes toward accent varieties. Results were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

<center>**Literature Review**</center>

Some researchers investigated the effect of accent on listening comprehension of learners at different proficiency levels. Harding (2008) examined the performance of four groups of students with a combination of different proficiency levels. 44 students as participants in this study came from different territories, and hence they had several different L1s ranging from Spanish to Chinese and Japanese. Speakers from Australian English, Mandarin, Japanese and Bengali language backgrounds were chosen as test speakers. The author tested the performance of four groups having both high- and low-proficiency learners, and the result suggested that the four groups had no significant difference when it came to speakers with different accents.

Harding (2008) also examined the different proficiency learners' perceptions of accent and academic listening assessment. He focused on accent and its influence on learners' perceptions of listening tests. The results indicated that high-proficiency participants clearly noticed that accent played an important role in their listening tests, and they were not disturbed by other factors. However, low-proficiency learners paid attention on many distractors, such as speaking speed, accent, and so on. Chan (2016) also investigated three groups' (junior school, high school and university) perceptions of different accents. The perceptions three groups had resulted from their learning experiences, background knowledge or exposure to English. Although university students were more likely to have higher awareness of accents than other groups, their attitudes to strong accented English were mostly negative. Lev-Ari, van Heugten and Peperkamp (2017) considered the ability to comprehend different accents as a marker of L2 proficiency. They posited that accented speech needs more processing time than native speech, so both grammatical knowledge and enough exposure to L2 were necessary in L2 teaching.

Several studies have examined the effect of accent familiarity on listening comprehension. The studies of Moinzadeh, Rezaei, and Dezhara (2012) and Kang, Thomson and Moran (2018) both focused on the influence of mother tongue on listening comprehension. Moinzadeh, Rezaei, and Dezhara (2012) examined 44 Iranian EFL learners with American accented and Persian accented English. The results showed that these participants were more likely to perform better when they listened to a Persian accent. Therefore, accent familiarity

had an effect on listening comprehension. However, in contrast, the findings from Kang, Thomson and Moran (2018) were more complex. Although the listeners in this later study were more familiar with Indian accents, they obtained higher scores in tests with British and American accents. Additionally, the listeners performed better in the test with an Indian accent than in those with Mexican, Chinese or South African accents. The researchers hypothesized that this was because of the amount of listeners' exposure to those accents.

Similarly, the research of Ockey and French (2014) investigated the relationship among accent strength, familiarity and listening comprehension scores. TOFEL test takers from 148 countries were randomly selected in this study to complete listening tests in Australian and American English. For the learners who were familiar with Australian accent, their scores were higher when they listened to stronger Australian accented English. However, although familiarity with British accents might be an advantage in British accented listening tests, the learners obtained lower scores if the accent was strong. Therefore, familiarity with accent did affect listening comprehension, but accent strength was still an unresolved problem in this study.

Most recent studies on accents and listening have focused on the attitudes ESL learners have towards different accents (Kang, 2015; Chan, 2016; Sung, 2016; Roessel, Schoel & Stahlberg, 2018). In the investigations, most participants held negative attitudes to non-native accents. Roessel, Schoel, and Stahlberg (2018) have analyzed three case studies. They found that more participants reacted negatively to nonnative accents than to native accents. These biases were about trust, affect, or competence. Given this finding, the researchers suggested ESL learners be more open and accept different accents because we live in a real world with a large number of foreign accents. Similarly, Kang (2015) also pointed out that students preferred native accent instructions. He thought that English teaching should not only be concerned with teaching native speaker norms because a variety of World Englishes exist in the real world. Intelligibility is more crucial than accent, so it is necessary to introduce the concept of World Englishes in ESL classes.

These researchers focused on the influence of different English accents on ESL learners and most of them found accents had an effect on learners. Although in some cases students obtained similar scores in different tests with different accents, it turned out the processing time of them in different tests is different. Therefore, accents should be a research

and a teaching focus. This article will investigate three different accents and concentrate on their influence on Chinese students living in China and Australia. These learners' perceptions and attitudes towards different varieties of English will also be considered and analyzed.

This research attempted to answer four question:
1. Are lower-proficiency learners more affected by an Indian accent than higher-proficiency learners?
2. What is the difference between the perceptions of listening difficulty for higher-proficiency learners and lower-proficiency ones?
3. Does accent familiarity influence listening scores?
4. What is the difference between the attitudes of English learners living in Australia and learners living in China towards Australian-accented English?

Methodology

Participants

Speakers

The speeches of three speakers who have different nationalities have been recorded for the materials of the listening tests. One male speaks with a British-accent, and one female is from Australia, and the last one is a male from India. All the scripts they read aloud are materials of IELTS listening tests. They were asked to be in a quiet place for recording the scripts. These three speakers are studying at the University of Melbourne and they are all post-graduate students. They have the ability to read scripts fluently and accurately.

Listeners

The first language of all the listeners is Mandarin Chinese. The author collected the data from 35 participants, but the scores of some of them were too low to use for comparing the three accents. Therefore, the author selected 28 of them to analyze. Among these, 11 of 28 Chinese students have stayed in Australia for more than 1.5 years. These participants are all masters studying in University of Melbourne, and they think they are familiar with Australian accents. The others are post-graduate students studying at Chinese universities, and they have never encountered Australian-accented English. All of the listeners have learned English since they were at primary schools, and now they are about 25 years old. In the process of learning

English, all listeners are used to listening to British-accented and American-accented English. The learners in Australia have started to communicate with professors and classmates who speak Australian-accented English. In contrast, none of the participants are familiar with Indian-accented English.

Instruments

Speaking proficiency measure

IELTS (International English Language Testing System) has been used in this study to assess learners' English listening performance. The three scripts are the fourth sections of IELTS listening tests to avoid any ceiling effect. In addition, because of that, these listening tests are assumed to be at similar degrees of difficulty. All the listeners are graduate students, so they are able to handle academic listening tests. Voice memo app was used in this study to record the speeches of the three speakers. The recording of the British-accented script is 4' 51''; the Australian-accented script recording is 5' 54'', and the Indian-accented one is 4' 30''. The speaking speed of the three recordings is shown in Table 1. The British recording is the fastest one, and the Indian-accented recording is the slowest.

Table 1

Information of the recordings

	British accent	Australian accent	Indian accent
number of words	780	801	539
length of recording	5'54"	4'51"	4'30"
speaking speed (words/second)	2.68	2.26	2

The listening tests used in this research include only fill-in-the-blank items, which may over-represent the students' listening abilities as they may guess answers. However, although filling in blanks can reduce guessing, the tests can only assess listeners' ability to understand key vocabulary or important details rather than to make inferences or integrate information, so the use of these tests is a limitation of this study. This paper focuses on accent, so this limit is a minor one. Finally, the author has rated the answers of the listeners according to IELTS listening rubrics.

Perception & Attitude measurement

This study has employed the survey designed by Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard and Wu (2006) and added some background questions (see Appendix). This survey needed to be completed after listeners finished their listening tests. Some items of this survey are multiple choice, and some are short-answer questions. After finishing each test, every listener would evaluate the accent and their feelings. The participants needed to rate their perceptions of accents on a scale in which 1 indicates *disagree* and 4 indicates *agree*. When they completed the three tests, they answered a survey regarding their background information and self-assessment. In this survey, the perceptions and attitudes towards accents were also elicited.

Research procedure

The listening tests and the survey were sent to the listeners by Google drive and qq mails. The listeners were not informed that the recordings were from speakers with different accents. They could read listening questions in advance but could only listen to the recordings once. These tests were not supervised, and the participants also sent their answers by emails. The author needed to rate the answers from listeners. Every blank was counted as one point. 8 to 10 points were considered as high scores and 5 to 7 points were low scores. After the data were collected, the author selected appropriate data for this research. The British-accented English scores below 5 are referred to as too-low scores, and the test results of 7 of 35 students were deleted because the listening proficiency of these participants was too low to identify the difference among the three accents.

This study used quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze the data. As most materials of IELTS use speakers with British accents, the scores of the British-accented English test were considered as reflections of listening proficiency.

For the first research question, 28 listeners were categorized into two groups in terms of their scores of the British-accented test. The listeners with scores between 8 and 10 were identified as high-proficiency learners, and the others with scores 5 to 7 were considered the low-proficiency group. The Indian-accented recording was used to test these two groups again. Their scores of the Indian-accented listening test were compared with the scores of the British-accented test to determine whether lower-proficiency learners were more affected by an Indian

accent than higher-proficiency learners. Moreover, in order to investigate test takers' perceptions of accent-related difficulties in the two groups, their feelings about these accents were also analyzed, and the difference between the perceptions of listeners with different levels of proficiency were examined.

For the third research question, the test takers who obtained 8 to 10 points in the British-accented test were selected, and these high-proficiency learners were sorted into two groups in terms of their familiarity with an Australian accent. Then the Australian-accented recording was used for their scores in the Australian-accented listening test. Similar to the first question, these scores were also compared with the British-accented scores to find out whether accent familiarity could influence listening scores. After that, the attitudes of the listeners towards their own accent and their preference of accents was analyzed. The difference between the attitudes of learners in Australia and those in China is an additional focus in this article.

Data analysis

This study used quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze the data. All the statistical analysis procedures were conducted using SPSS version 23. The first research question can be answered by the results of comparing the score change of low-proficiency learners with high-proficiency ones. The mean scores and the standard deviations of the scores of the two groups was computed. In order to investigate whether there is a difference between the scores of the British-accented test and Indian-accented one, *t* test was utilized for each group. If there is a difference, the effect size will also be calculated. The effect sizes from two groups will also be compared to find out which group is affected more. In contrast, if there is no difference, it is not necessary to calculate the effect size of the difference between the two groups.

After the effect sizes were calculated, test takers' perceptions of accented difficulties were analyzed. They were asked about the intelligibility and speaking speeds of the recordings as well as their feelings about British and Indian accents. This multifaceted approach to data collection enabled the study to examine the perceptions of test takers with different levels of proficiency. The actual speaking speed has been shown above, so it was also analyzed to determine whether their perceptions of speaking speed was accurate. The number of

individuals in each group is different, so pie charts will be used to show the percentage of leaners with different perceptions.

The third question can be answered by the results of comparing the score fluctuation of high-proficiency learners living in Australia with the high-proficiency learners in China. Similar to the first question, means and standard deviations of scores were calculated and t test was used in the process. For each group, was then possible to calculate whether there was a difference between British-accented and Australian-accented scores. The effect sizes of score differences of the two groups were also compared. In addition, test takers' perceptions of an Australian accent were also compared with their perception of a British accent. Not only the perceptions of speaking speed, accent preference and intelligibility, but also the test takers' self-evaluation of their own accents were collected and analyzed. The number of individuals in each group is the same, so bar charts will be used to represent the difference of test takers' perceptions.

Results

The results of the first and third questions are computed by using SPSS and presented in tables for comparison of the scores which different groups obtained in different listening tests. The rest of the results are shown in pie charts and clustered columns. It is easy to analyze the difference among different groups' perceptions and attitudes towards three accents by using these graphs.

Research question 1

The descriptive statistics are shown below to analyze the effect of British and Indian accents on listening scores of the participants.

Table 2.1

Descriptive Statistics (high proficiency & low proficiency)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HB	18	8.00	10.00	8.9444	.80237
HI	18	2.00	8.00	4.8889	1.52966
LB	10	5.00	7.00	6.1000	.87560
LI	10	1.00	5.00	2.7000	1.15950
Valid N (listwise)	10				

Note. HB (high-proficiency test takers of British-accented test); BI (high-proficiency test takers of Indian-accented test); LB (low-proficiency test takers of British-accented test); LI (low-proficiency test takers of Indian-accented test).

Each high-proficiency and low-proficiency learner was tested twice. One time was for the British-accented listening test and the second time was for the Indian-accented test. As can be seen in Table 2.1, the scores of the Indian-accented test are much lower than the British-accented scores for not only low-proficiency but also high-proficiency participants. For the comparison of the influence of the British accent and the Indian accent, the scores of the British-accented test are regarded as a baseline. Therefore, compared with the British accent, the Indian accent is more likely to negatively influence the listening scores of these learners.

In addition, the standard deviations of both Indian-accented groups are quite high, so the range of Indian-accented scores is quite wide. In contrast, the range of British-accented scores is not as wide as that of the Indian-accented ones. Therefore, the effect of the Indian accent on each learner may not be the same. It is also unclear whether there is a difference between high and low proficiency with regard to the accent effect.

Table 2.2 Paired Samples Correlations

(high proficiency & low proficiency)

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	HB & HI	18	.570	.014
Pair 2	LB & LI	10	.580	.079

In Table 2.2, the scores of high-proficiency learners on the British-accented test and the Indian-accented test are moderately correlated to each other ($r=.570$, $N=18$, $p=.014$). Their scores are influenced by the students' proficiency. However, for low-proficiency students, the size of the data is not large enough to calculate a correlation between the British-accented and Indian-accented scores, for the significance level is $p >.05$ ($p=.079$).

Table 2.3 Paired Samples Test

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cohen's d
Pair 1 HB-HI	13.667	17	.000	.867
Pair 2 LB-LI	11.129	9	.000	.856

There is a significant difference between British-accented and Indian-accented scores of high-proficiency test takers t (17) =13.667, p <.001. For effect size, Cohen's d =.867. The effect size is so large. Similar to that, for low-proficiency learners, the British-accented scores is also highly different from the Indian-accented scores t (9) =11.129, p <.001. Additionally, the two effect sizes (d =.856) are so similar that Indian accent perhaps has a similar influence on high-proficiency and low-proficiency test takers.

Research question 2

The test takers' perceptions of listening difficulties are represented by their perceptions of intelligibility, speaking speed and accent preference.
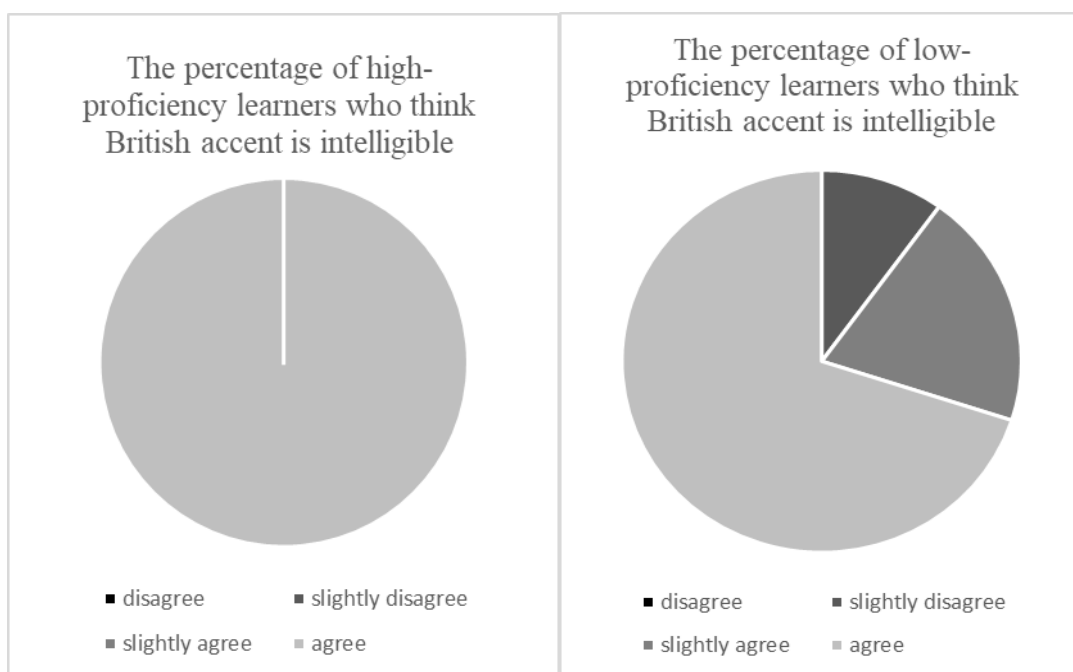

Figure 1.1.1 Intelligibility (High & British accent)   **Figure 1.1.2 Intelligibility (Low & British accent)**

According to Figures 1.1.1 and 1.1.2, all high-proficiency participants thought the British accent was intelligible while most low-proficiency ones thought it was understandable. In this case, their proficiency may have affected their perceptions of intelligibility.
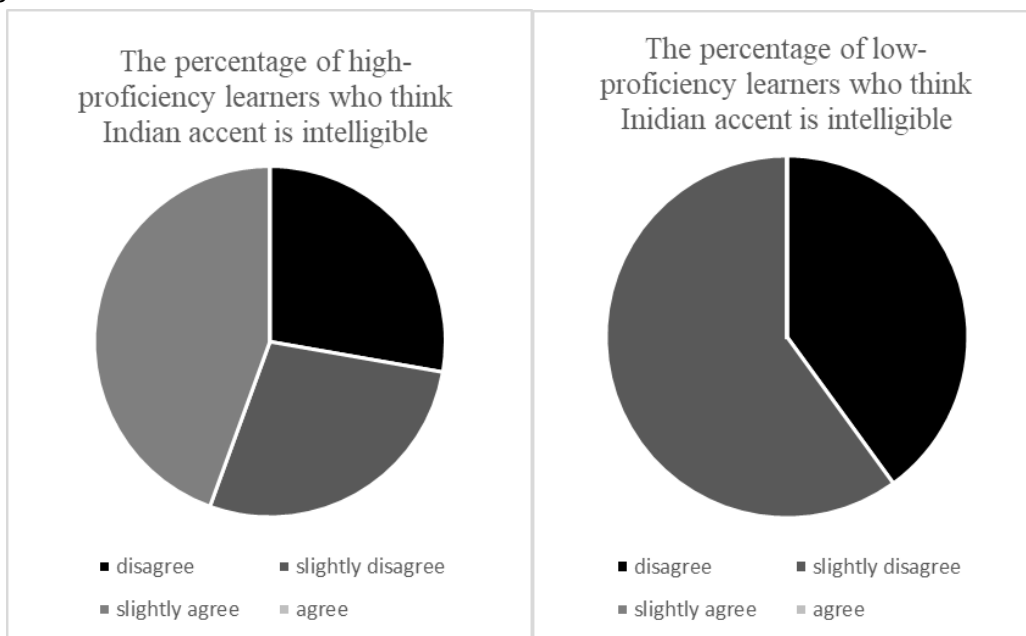
The percentage of high-proficiency learners who think Indian accent is intelligible

The percentage of low-proficiency learners who think Inidian accent is intelligible

- disagree   - slightly disagree
- slightly agree   - agree

- disagree   - slightly disagree
- slightly agree   - agree

Figure 1.1.3 Intelligibility (High & Indian accent)   **Figure 1.1.4 Intelligibility (Low & Indian accent)**

Unlike the results above, more than a half of high-proficiency learners thought the Indian accent was not understandable (see figure 1.1.3). Therefore, at least more than a half of them were significantly affected by the Indian accent. For low-proficiency test takers, the perception of the Indian-accented intelligibility was quite diverse compared with the perceptions of the British-accented intelligibility. They all considered the Indian accent as an incomprehensible accent (see Figure 1.1.4). According to these results, all test takers' perceptions of intelligibility were influenced by the Indian accent, but low-proficiency learners were affected more.
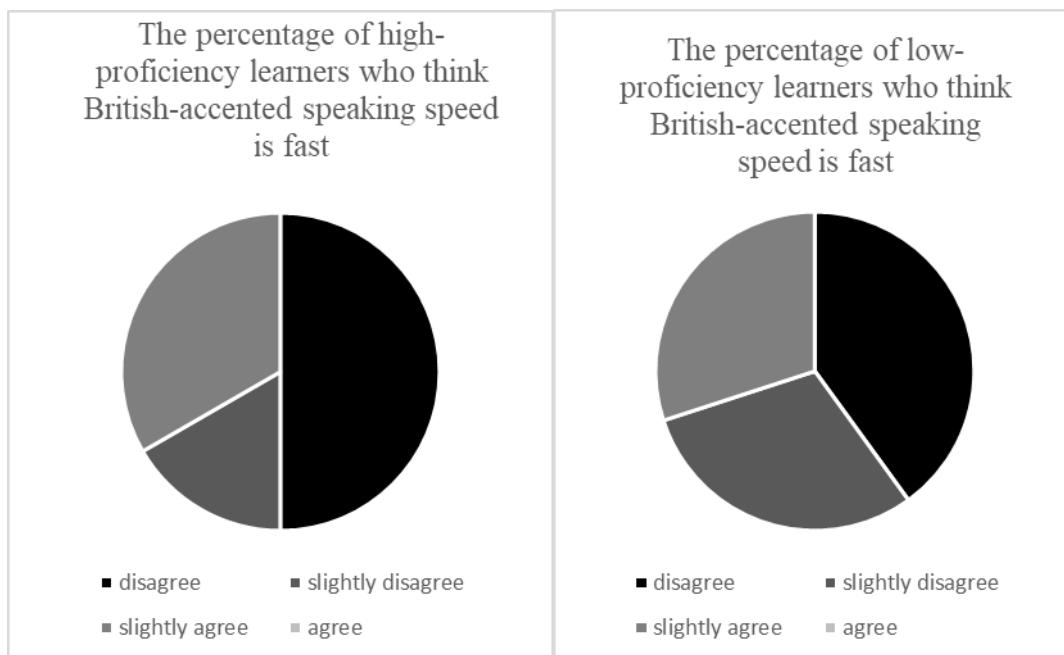
Figure 1.2.1 Speaking speed (High & British accent)

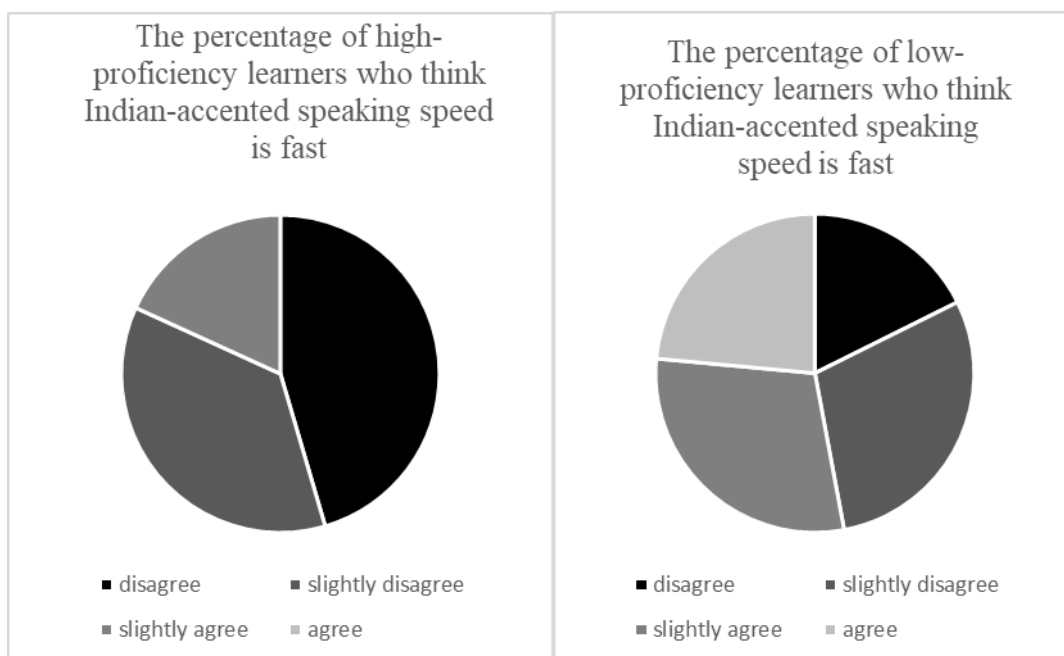Figure 1.2.2 Speaking speed (Low & British accent)

Figure 1.2.3 Speaking speed (High & Indian accent)

Figure 1.2.4 Speaking speed (Low & Indian accent)

The actual speaking speed of the British-accented recording was much faster than the Indian-accented recording (see Table 1).On this question, the estimate of high-proficiency learners was more accurate than that of low-proficiency ones because more high-proficiency test takers thought that the British-accented recording was fast than that of the Indian English (see figures 1.2.1, 1.2.3). However, , about a quarter of low-proficiency learners thought that the Indian

English was really fast (see figure 1.2.4), which was not the case. Meanwhile, no low-proficiency participants thought of the British-accented English as fast speech (see figure 1.2.2). Therefore, we might conclude that an Indian accent cannot influence high-proficiency learners' perceptions of speech rate, but this accent could affect the perceptions of low-proficiency learners.
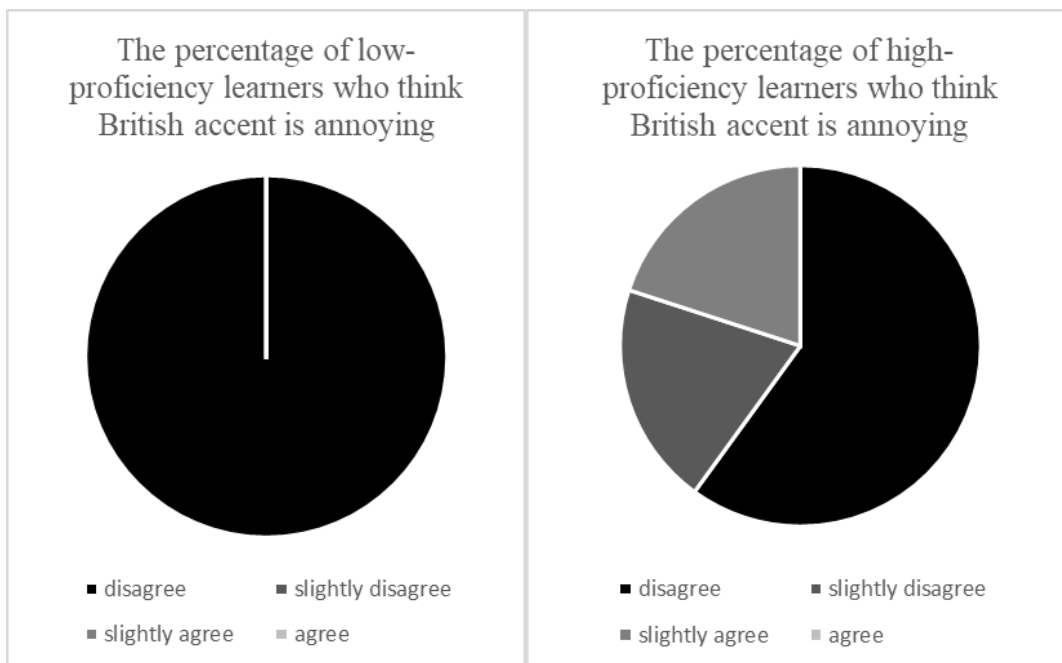

Figure1.3.1 Accent preference (High & British accent)   Figure1.3.2 Accent preference(Low &British accent)

As shown in Figures 1.3.1 and 1.3.2, all high-proficiency students considered the British accent not annoying while a few low-proficiency ones thought this accent was slightly annoying. Thus, it is possible that different levels of proficiency can influence feelings about accents.
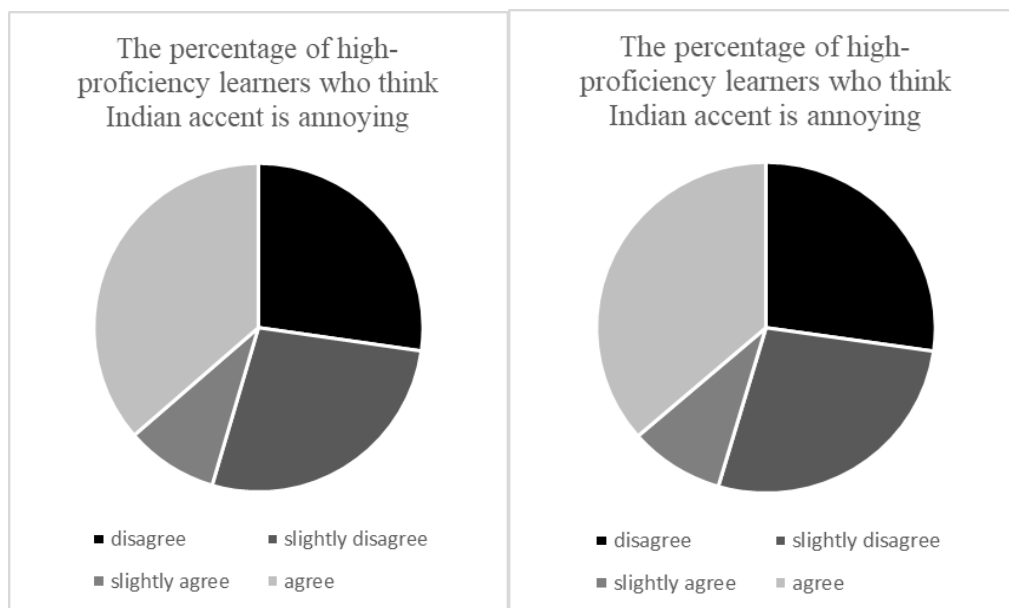
Figure 1.3.3 Accent preference (High & Indian accent) Figure 1.3.4 Accent preference (Low &Indian accent)

All test takers preferred the British accent to the Indian accent. Compared with high-proficiency learners, more low-proficiency ones thought the Indian accent was annoying (see Figures 1.3.3, 1.3.4). However, more high-proficiency participants accent than low-proficiency ones considered Indian accent as quite annoying. Therefore, more high-proficiency learners could accept the Indian accent. Their attitudes towards the Indian accent could have influenced their scores in the Indian-accented listening test.

Research question 3

Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AUA	9	7.00	10.00	8.6667	1.00000
AUB	9	8.00	10.00	9.2222	.83333
CNA	9	7.00	9.00	7.8889	.92796
CNB	9	8.00	10.00	8.6667	.70711
Valid N (listwise)	9				

Note. AUA (test takers of Australian-accented test in Australia); AUB (test takers of British-accented test in Australia); CNA (test takers of Australian-accented test in China); CNB (test takers of British-accented test in China).

As shown in Table 3.1, all test takers obtained higher scores on the British-accented test than on the Australian-accented test. Thus, it is likely that they were affected by the Australian accent, and the mean scores on the British accent test were also higher than those of the Australian accent test. The standard deviations of these four groups of scores are quite low, so the range of the scores is not wide.

An examination of where the students were living reveals that the mean scores of learners in Australia are higher than learners in China in both British-accented and Australian-accented listening tests. However, all test takers perform better in the British-accented test than in the Australian-accented test. The reason why the learners in Australia are able to get higher scores may be the more exposure to English in Australia and their higher listening proficiency. Although the learners in Australia have higher listening proficiency, they are still more accustomed to the British accent.

Table 3.2 Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	AUA & AUB	9	.400	.286
Pair 2	CNA & CNB	9	.508	.163

The correlation between the scores of the students living in Australia in the British-accented and Australian-accented tests is not significant at the .05 level(p=.286). Similarly, the score of students living in China are also not significantly different from each other (p=.163). The significance levels of two pairs are both above 5%, so the data are not representative.

Table 3.3 Paired Samples Test

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cohen's d
Pair 1 AUA-AUB	1.644	8	.139	***
Pair 2 CNA-CNB	2.800	8	.023	0.704

As shown in Table 3.3, there is no significant difference between the scores of students living in Australia obtained in the British-accented and Australian-accented listening tests t (8) =1.644, p=.139 (p>.05). Therefore, it is not necessary to compute Cohen's d for this pair. In contrast, the scores which the students living in China had in the British-accented test are significantly diverse from the Australian-accented scores t (8) =2.800, p=.023 (p<.05). The

effect size of this difference is $d = 0.704$. This size is not extremely large, but it is larger than medium effect size. Therefore, these students are affected by Australian accent more than the participants living in Australia. If learners are familiar with an Australian accent, they can obtain higher listening scores than those who have never encountered an Australian accent. However, the Australian listeners have not stayed in Australia for a long time, which might explain why they could not reach higher scores in the Australian-accented test than on the British test. Thus, accent familiarity may influence listening scores, but the effect is not strong in this study.
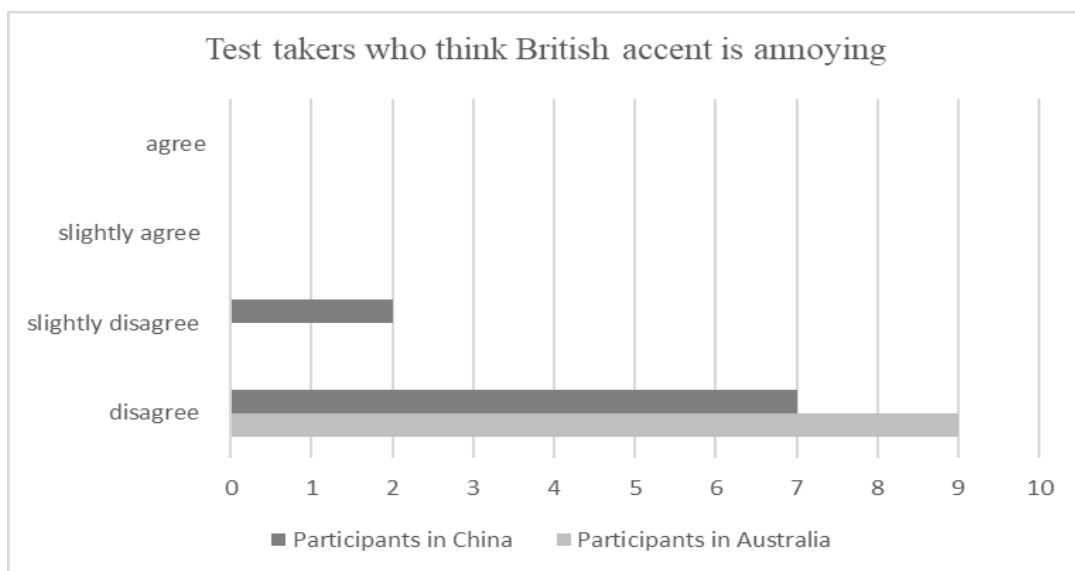
Research question 4

Figure 2.1.1 Accent attitudes (British accent)

As shown in Figure 2.1.1, the attitudes of participants in Australia towards British accent are better than the attitudes of those in China. The scores of listeners in Australia are also higher than those of the learners in China, but this is perhaps due to attitudes or to listening
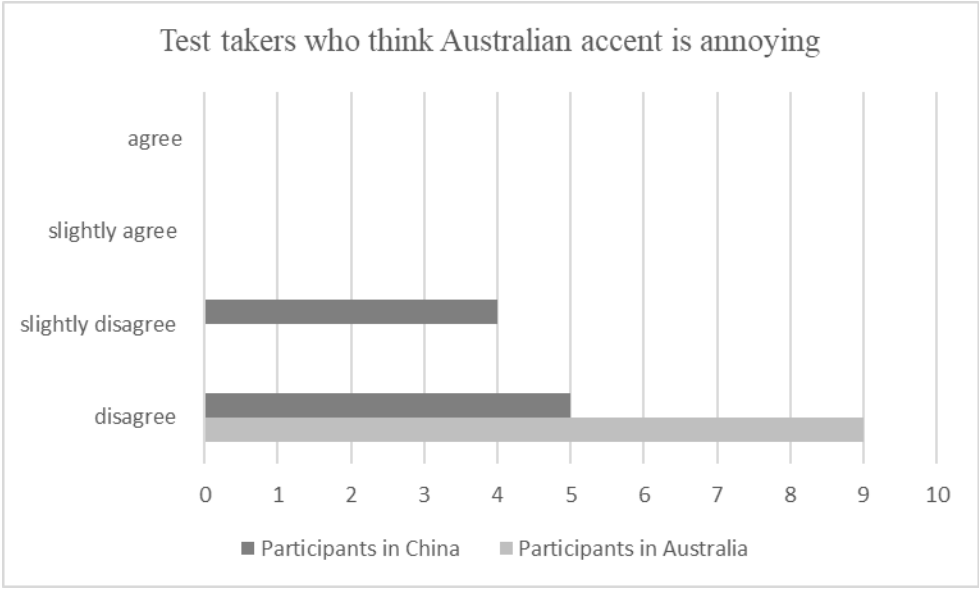
proficiency.

Figure 2.1.2 Accent attitudes (Australian accent)

Compared with the attitudes to a British accent, the attitudes of listeners in Australia towards an Australian accent are also better than the learners in China (see figure 2.1.2). However, 4 of 9 Chinese participants slightly disagreed that the Australian accent was annoying, but the attitudes do not vary a lot. Therefore, the attitudes towards the British and Australian accents do not appear to influence listeners' comprehension.
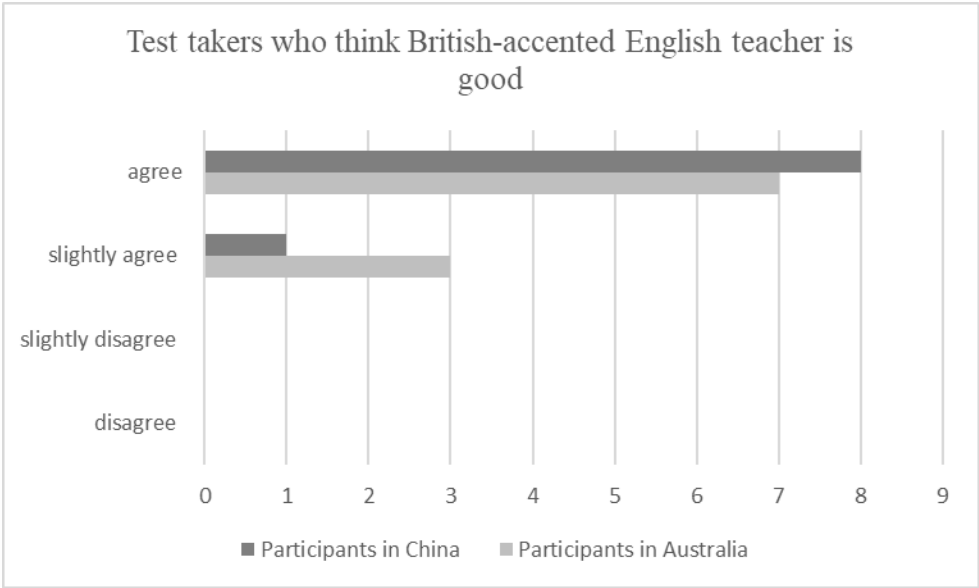

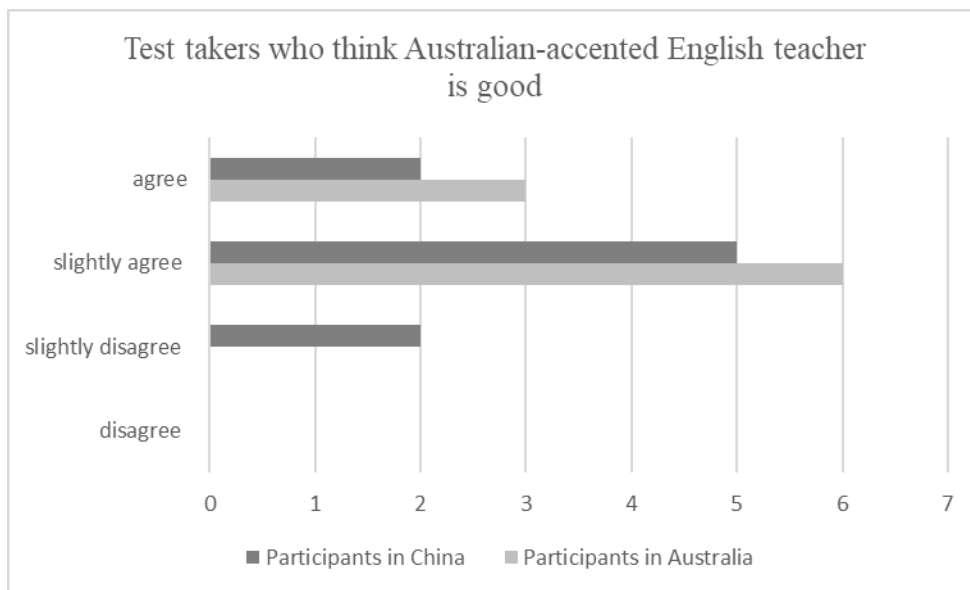**Figure 2.2.1 Accent preference (British accent)**

Figure 2.2.2 Accent preference (Australian accent)

We can see in the Figures 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 that more participants in Australia prefer Australian-accented English teachers than students in China, and some Chinese learners did not accept Australian-accented teachers. However, both Chinese participants and learners in Australia all prefer to be taught by British-accented English teachers instead of Australian English teachers. Therefore, accent familiarity may affect accent preference, or maybe the students in Australia prefer the Australian accent just because they chose to live and study in Australia, as well as integrating into the Australian society.

Discussion

The results from research question 1 suggest that the Indian accent has a similar influence on the scores of participants regardless of their proficiency levels. This finding supports the study of Harding (2008), although the scores are much lower than the scores from British accent test, and the data size is small.

When it comes to the perception of learners toward listening to different accents, the results of research question 2 shows that the Indian accent influenced test-takers' perceptions of intelligibility. High-proficiency learners were more likely to have a perception of intelligibility than low-proficiency learners. A number of participants with low-ability considered the British accent as unintelligible while all high-ability learners considered the

British accent as highly intelligible. The intelligibility of the Indian accent showed a similar pattern. That is, although most test-takers thought the Indian accent was difficult, low-proficiency learners' perceptions of intelligibility were more likely to be affected. As the speed of language can lead to comprehension difficulty, the analyses of the speed of British and Indian accent indicated that the actual speed of the British accented speaker was faster than the speaker with an Indian accent in the recordings. In this case, the questionnaires suggest that high-proficiency learners have an accurate perception of speech rate since a quarter of the low-proficiency learners believed that the recording including an Indian accent was faster than the British one. As in the study of Harding (2008), high-proficiency learners had a better perception of intelligibility of accent while low-proficiency learners may have been distracted and did not have an accurate perception of intelligibility.

As for the attitude toward accents, all test takers show a strong preference for British accent. This finding supports the previous research (Kang, 2015; Chan, 2016; Sung, 2016; Roessel, Schoel & Stahlberg, 2018) that students had a strong preference for British accents. A majority of high-ability learners can accept an Indian accent while some low-ability learners considering an Indian accent as an annoying accent. The negative attitude towards Indian accents could influence students' scores because test-takers are likely to think that an Indian English as a non-native accent and that it is difficult to complete test tasks under the non-native recording.

The results for question 3 shed light on the relationship between accent familiarity and listening scores. All test-takers obtained higher scores in the British-accented test than on the Australian-accented test. Even Chinese students who had study experience in Australia achieved higher scores from the British accent test than the Australian one. As test-takers living in Australia for a year or two, they had been more engaged with British English textbooks in previous English classes, and they may have more access to British drama and movies in China, so perhaps we can say that they are not familiar with the Australian accent to a high degree. Although accent familiarity does influence the listening scores in this study, the effect is not strong in the data. On the other hand, this finding supports the view of Moinzadeh, Rezaei, and Dezhara (2012), Ockey and French (2014) and Kang, Thomson, and Moran (2018) that L2 learners score higher when they listen to a familiar accent, and they score lower when listening to unfamiliar accents.

The results for question 4 suggest that test-takers living in Australia have a better attitude towards Australian accents and British accents compared with test-takers living in China. Although test-takers living in Australia have a better positive attitude towards Australian accents, all test-takers prefer to learn from British English accents in classes rather than Australian accented English. In this study, accent familiarity may have affected learners' preference of accent, but this familiarity does not lead test-takers living in Australia to prefer an Australian accent more than students living elsewhere. The British English accents are still popular as English models among Chinese ESL learners, which is perhaps not surprising given that schools in China are providing British accents for ESL learners as a standard sample.

The current study has many limitations. One limitation is that the size of data is relatively small. 35 participants cannot present a clear correlation in some aspects. More participants are required to provide more generalizable results. Secondly, the selection of the listening texts should be more careful. We assumed that all the listening scripts from the IELTS would have equal degrees of difficulty. Test-takers did several versions of listening recordings, and they responded to different test items, but their scores may be higher only because the difficulty level of one of the listening tests was lower than others. Thirdly, the students' proficiency level of listening is not uniform. We could only select test takers with similar proficiency levels for each group. In addition, the background of participants may affect their scores. In the feedback, some participants mentioned that they found one listening text particularly easy because it related to their jobs and majors. Besides, only one speaker from each of three countries was selected in this study, so they cannot be representatives of all different accented English speakers. Sex is also a factor which may influence intelligibility and preference, and this research did not consider this. Finally, the length of participants living in Australia was only 2-3 years, and most of them merely communicate with Australian people in academic environments rather than on a daily basis. To some extent, they are not extremely familiar with the Australian accent.

Conclusion

This research has investigated the effect of accent on listening comprehension and the perceptions and attitudes from L2 participants. In this study, the Indian accent had a similar influence on high- and low-proficiency students. All the scores were much lower when learners took the Indian-accented English test compared with the other tests. Therefore, the

effect of an Indian accent on listening comprehension of learners with different proficiency levels was similar. High and low proficiency learners perceive varieties differently when encountering accents. An Indian accent influences high-proficiency test takers' perception of intelligibility, but it affects low-proficiency ones more. Similarly, High-proficiency learners have a more accurate sense of speech rate than low-proficiency students. In addition, most participants hold positive attitudes towards inner-circle British English accents and view Indian English negatively. According to the scores they had, the attitude towards accent may affect their listening comprehension. Finally, accent familiarity has an effect on listening scores and accent preference, but this effect is not strong in the research.

However, there are lots of limitations in this research, such as the small data size, the assumption of similar proficiency, the number of speakers and the tests' degree of difficulty. Therefore, further large-scale research needs to be conducted to further analyze the relationship between accents and listening comprehension, as well as L2 learners' perceptions and attitudes to accents.

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Appendix:

Survey:

Background Information

Which is your opinion?

a) I want people to understand me easily. Native accent isn't important.

b) I want to speak like a native speaker.

What is your first language? How old are you?

How long have you studied English?

Who do you talk to in English with more? (Chinese people; international students; native speakers)

Reasons for speaking English in the future? (business; travel; study; live in Australia)

What English classes are you taking now?

Do you think accent could influence your listening scores?

Are you happy with your accent?

Have you been to English speaking countries? Which country

How long have you stayed in Australia?

Have you spent a lot of time with Australians? Like your professors, classmates

Do you think you are familiar with Australian accent? What about Indian accent?

(1=disagree; 2=slightly disagree; 3=slightly agree; 4=agree)

This speaker:
• is a native speaker
• speaks fluently
• is intelligible
• has bad pronunciation
• speaks too fast
• has a foreign accent
• is nice to listen to
• has an annoying/irritating accent
• would be a good English (ESOL) teacher
• sounds educated

What country do you think this speaker is from?

How easy was this person to understand? (very easy; easy; ok; difficult; very difficult)

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Book Review

Teaching English as an International Language: Implementing, Reviewing, and Re-Envisioning World Englishes in Language Education by Roby Marlina, New York, NY: Routledge, 2018 (pp. xi +285) ISBN 9780203341544 $102.71

Reviewed by Supanit Kulsiri

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This book is related to the paradigm shift in English language teaching and learning that acknowledges diversification of the English language as a result of the change in the sociolinguistic landscape of English around the globe. It is listed under the book series titled "Routledge Studies in World Englishes", edited by Ee-Ling Low, and contains details and discussions on the change in perspective on the new paradigm of English language teaching and learning across the disciplines of English language education, linguistics, applied linguistics and TESOL. As part of the series, the author criticizes the current state of teaching from the perspective of English as an International Language (EIL) by stating that "EIL still remains an abstract concept, and there have not been any attempts by EIL-inspired scholars to illustrate what an EIL curriculum/program/course may look like" (p.4). The author argues that the teaching of EIL can be realistic and practical, and its pedagogical practices require the consideration of engaging learners with the pluralized forms, users, and cultures of English, and its status as an international language. The author proposes that it is important to engage learners in exploring and discussing the nature of language variation by stating how differences in English can be conceptualized as sociolinguistically normal at the very first stage of the program.

The purpose of this book is to provide syllabus materials and advice on how to engage learners in learning about varieties of English, perceiving the varieties of English as equal and promoting intercultural communication among learners with different lingual or cultural backgrounds. Additionally, the author identifies a gap in EIL research, in that inadequate research has focused on feasibility and realistic application of EIL in classroom practice. The author claims that most of the research and studies in EIL have been carried out for the advancement of knowledge rather for than providing techniques, approaches and materials for actual classroom practice. This author aims to close this research gap by providing realistic

guidelines for organizing classes that promote EIL in the university context by using case study research to support the recommended practices for teaching EIL, which has not been proposed by the books in the EIL field before.

This book presents a case study carried out at Urban University, Australia. As Australia has become a multicultural country, the result of the increasing flow of tourists, migrants and refugees, international outsourcing workers and international students, the findings from research can be discussed under the concept of EIL. This is especially true in the context where attempts to instill the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed for effective communication in today's globalized world are the focus. The case study described lived experience of lecturers from the Bachelor of Arts program in EIL and voices of students who were enrolled in the program. The lived experience of lecturers makes this book a perfect practical guide for EIL teaching; it is an in-depth reflective practice that takes the reader on a journey of material development for EIL education. The students' voices make the research justified with regard to closing the gap in EIL research on the feasibility and practicality of EIL.

The book is well structured and flows seamlessly. It is divided into nine chapters. Starting in the first chapter with the concept of English as an International Language (EIL), which originated almost four decades ago, the author gives an overview of the book by laying the foundations of the theoretical background of the research project as well as the research questions that serve as the framework of the book. In each chapter, there is an opening section and a concluding section that tell readers what the overall theme of the chapter is and what follows next. The reader is taken on a journey through the changes in the sociolinguistic landscape which have resulted in the pluralization of English users and forms. The author shows the detailed progression of the English language movement by pointing out that the majority of English speakers are bi-/multilingual speakers of English. These groups are categorized as 'Outer Circle' and 'Expanding Circle' under Kachru's concept of the three circles of English speakers, which is used widely in differentiating English speakers in the world (Kirkpatrick, 2014). In Chapter 2, the EIL literature is critically analyzed and reviewed, with its focus on EIL curriculum and syllabus materials to support the author's research arguments and discussions, especially in Chapter 6 and 8, and the concluding chapter, Chapter 9. With regard to the quality of the exploration of the EIL scholars' views on pedagogical

principles, it is uniformly concise and at times provocative. The review of the EIL syllabus materials makes Chapter 2 an excellent chapter for the reader to build up their knowledge of the concept of teaching EIL.

The strength of this book is the real lived experience of EIL lecturers, and first and third year undergraduate students who experienced the EIL program. Chapter 4, 5 and 7 describes the lived experience of the author and his three colleagues, who were EIL lecturers, and students from culturally diverse backgrounds. The two groups reflected on their experience in the EIL program through anecdotes and interviews respectively. Chapter 4 presents the author's own reflective practice and experience in EIL curriculum development. As the author, Roby Marlina, is a proven language specialist and author specializing in language teacher education with an emphasis on teaching English as an International Language, his expertise and experience in EIL education makes the description very informative and practical, which allows it to contribute tremendously to the field of EIL education. Chapter 5 contains personal reflections on the teaching of EIL from EIL lecturers who are the author's colleagues and the development of materials and their implication for classroom practice. This section can provide useful materials for those who are designing an EIL classroom , such as authentic samples of English language variation collected from a wide range of sources in various Kachruvian circles. The sections on lecturers' lived experience contribute vastly to the practice of teaching EIL as they contain curriculum elements and useful teaching materials, online resources, and the invitation of "a live authoritative voice" (p.124) where a person who had expertise in varieties of English was invited to class to promote student exposure to varieties of English. The teaching techniques made in this book are novel and innovative suggestions not found in other resource books. Chapter 7 contains in-depth detail on the thoughts, ideas, attitudes, and perceptions of students after studying EIL, which is not found in other books. The tone of the book reflects students' appreciation for varieties of English, as illustrated in Chapter 7.

Chapters 6 and 8 are devoted to discussing the findings on lecturers' and students' voices, respectively. The author argues that EIL educators should emphasize the metacultural competence that involves the ability to demonstrate awareness of language variation, the ability to interpret and explain different concepts and the ability to seek clarification. His contributions tackle the central issues of EIL practice, arguing that a metacultural competence should be developed among EIL learners through the provision of scenario-based activities,

"where students are assigned to work with real-life scenarios or cases that consist of issues that have arisen from cultural and linguistic differences" (p.168). Chapter 9 is the conclusion of the book and the author's recommendations. The book strongly emphasizes the engagement of students in learning about sociopolitical issues, which is an unavoidable issue in EIL. It is very interesting to learn how the author and his colleagues adopted teaching methods for an EIL classroom that was a mix of so-called "native/non-native speakers" and how they dealt with tension among their students regarding resistance to varieties of English and the concept of diversity. The author describes how teachers or scholars may perceive this tension; some may perceive it as an obstacle to learning EIL. Tensions and conflicts can be resolved over time as resolving them is an organic process, according to the author. This section raises awareness on how to manage conflict in class and how to promote respect with regard to varieties of English. In this chapter, the concluding chapter, the author illustrates the way that theories are applied, by explaining findings and phenomena theoretically and practically. The author supplies an in-depth analysis of various aspects of EIL by providing recommendations and comprehensive advice on syllabus design and classroom practice of EIL. The appendices are concluded with a list of useful resources, such as the objectives of both the previous EIL program and the current one as well as a list of subjects offered on the EIL program at Urban University. The book is well referenced, and the author skillfully uses first-person sources.

Teaching English as an International Language: Implementing, Reviewing, and Re-Envisioning World Englishes in Language Education, by Roby Marlina, is a timely collection of topic and practice guides written by a person who has direct experience in providing EIL education. The author's enthusiasm for the demonstration of how the EIL concept is assimilated into the program and the feasibility of teaching EIL is obvious throughout the book. Timely and innovative teaching practices that teachers in the field of EIL education can benefit from are well presented. Thus, this book is an excellent resource for curriculum developers and university lecturers who are seeking advice on providing a learning environment that raises awareness of world Englishes, engages learners in learning how to communicate interculturally, and promotes an awareness of the lingual-cultural backgrounds of today's speakers of English. It is also suitable for EIL researchers who are planning to gain insights into real practice in EIL and use similar research methodology, as the research methodology of the project is described very well in Chapter 3. However, English language teachers at the school level may find it less beneficial than those at the tertiary level as the

book provides guidelines for content-based courses rather than English language proficiency courses. This means EIL is introduced as course content rather than a self-contained English language proficiency course where the development of language proficiency is the main focus.

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