國立交通大學
英語教學研究所碩士論文

A Master Thesis
Presented to
Institute of TESOL,
National Chiao Tung University
In Partial fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of
Master of Arts

學術報告: 八位 EFL 外語教學研究生的言談社會化經驗

Oral Academic Presentations: Discourse Socialization Experiences of
Eight EFL Graduate Students in TESOL

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中 華 民 國 九十九 年 八月
August, 2010

論文名稱：學術報告:八位EFL外語教學研究生的言談社會化經驗
校所組別：國立交通大學英語教學研究所
畢業時間：九十九學年度第一學期
指導教授：孫于智教授
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中文摘要

　　本研究探討八位台灣英語教學研究生,透過學術論文報告的課堂活動所發展的言談社會化經驗,在許多台灣的英語教學研究所課程中,學生的課堂學術論文報告是一個普遍的口語活動,然而,過去對於此口語活動的本質與其在教學上如何幫助學生的發展學科社會化探討有限,因此,本研究透過觀察學生的學術論文報告,旨在調查學生如何習得學術技能(即:吸收與傳播知識),此外,更討論學生在參與學術論文報告的過程中,如何建構本身的身分(identity)與參與的形式,本文針對台灣當地文化的資訊,將延伸目前文獻的探討至非英語系國家卻同時需要以英文讀、寫、說、和做研究的學生,研究問題包含: (1)學術論文報告如何幫助學生發展學科中知識吸收與傳播的技能? (2)學生如何在學術論文報告活動中協商自身的身分與參與方式?

　　以「語言社會化觀點」為基礎,研究數據的收集為期一個學期 (總共18週),包含課堂觀察、學生課堂學術論文錄影、訪談、學生作業與相關課堂文件,結果顯示學生在經由不斷地學術論文報告活動中,發展了對於學科言談與學術技能(吸收與傳播知識)的了解,但是,透過分析學生與授課教師的數據資料,發現雙方對於學生身分與參與方式議題上的差異,老師期待學生能在學術報告中保有反思與批判的表達並有研究者的思考,但是學生認為,身為研究生,要評估資料或者提出有力的評論還不夠成熟,根據結果,在教學上建議授課教師應該有效溝通並示範所期待的論文報告行為,並且清楚告知學術訓練的意涵,最後,我點出本研究的諸多限制,並且提出後續未來研究方向之建議。

ABSTRACT

The present study explores discourse socialization experiences of eight Taiwanese TESOL graduates through their participating in one routine coursework, oral academic presentations (OAPs). The student presentation is a pervasive oral event applied in TESOL courses across institutions in Taiwan. However, there is limited discussion concerning the nature of the event or reflections on how it's pedagogically beneficial to students' disciplinary socialization. Taking OAPs the major lens, the present study intends to investigate students' academic literacy development (ie., knowledge consumption and dissemination) while they compose PowerPoint presentations. In addition, students' identity construction and their participation pattern in doing OAPs are discussed. Information about the local culture will extend current understanding to include cases outside English-speaking environments where students yet must read, write, speak, and do research in English. Specific research questions to be addresses included: (1) How do oral academic presentations facilitate the focal students to develop disciplinary expertise in knowledge consumption and dissemination? (2) How do the focal students negotiate their identities and participation in giving oral academic presentations?

Taking language socialization perspective, data were collected for a whole academic term (18 weeks in total), mainly from classroom observations, video recordings of OAPs, interviews, written reports and relevant documents. Findings suggest that students are socialized into disciplinary discourse and literacy skills (i.e., knowledge consumption and dissemination) through repeated participation in this activity. However, qualitative analysis of both student and teacher participants' perspectives on the issue of identity and participation reveals a discrepancy. The instructor anticipated students to develop reflective and critical voice and think as researchers, while the focal students considered it immature for them – as graduate

students – to evaluate the sources or have solid comments. Based on the findings, pedagogical implications suggest the need for the instructors (1) to communicate and model expected behaviors in doing OAPs, and (2) to address clearly the meaning of certain aspects of training. Finally, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are provided.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

During this "bittersweet" process of thesis writing, there are many people to whom I owe my deepest appreciation.

First, my gratitude goes foremost to Professor Yu-Chih Sun, my advisor. Because of her insightful guidance and comments, I am able to probe into the core of this topic and several issues. Without her consistent instruction and encouragement, this thesis could not have reached its present form. She is also the best "socialization model" throughout all the stages of my graduate study. I can easily identify many important qualities of an experienced researcher from her, such as passion, efficiency, and commitment to excellence.

Second, I would like to express my appreciation to Professor Chien Chou, and Professor Yu-Jung Chang for their guidance in my thesis proposal and oral defense. I am also grateful to the professors and teachers at the Department of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL): Professor Chih-Hua Kuo, Professor Wei-Yu Chen, Professor Ching-Fen Chang, Professor Lu-Chun Lin, and Professor Wei-jung Cheng, who have instructed and helped me a lot in the past three years.
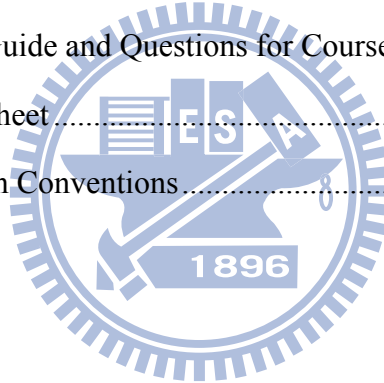
Third, I am indebted to all the participants in this study for their patience and time. This research is not possible without their willingness to participate. Last, my thanks would go to my beloved family. Their confidence in me and their unconditional love, support and consideration are my happiness-sustaining mental food. I also owe my sincere gratitude to my friends and my fellow classmates who share and allow me to share every bitter and sweet in the past three years.

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CHAPTER 1   INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Rationale

The aim of this study is to examine what non-native novice graduate students undergo as they compose routine oral academic presentations (OAP) in a Taiwan TESOL program. The steadily growing studies in the English for academic purposes (EAP) subfield seem to recognize graduate training as a distinctive process. As Braine (2002) puts it, second language (L2) graduate students must "adapt smoothly to the linguistic and social milieu of their host environment and to the culture of their academic departments and institutions" (p. 60). A group of EAP specialists initially pay heed to linguistic keys for academic success in writing (Swales, 1990, Swales & Feak, 1994), in understanding lectures (Thompson, 1994a, 2003) and in conference presentations (Rowley-Jovilet, 2005). In addition to linguistic adaptation, this study extends to students' social adaptation experiences by examining how they succeed with academic demands and participate in academic practices.

While students enter a graduate program, it is like they are joining in a new world which is usually characterized as a "(academic) discourse community" (Berkenkotter et al, 1991; Bizzell, 1982; Blanton, 1994; Casanave, 1995). Graduates gain professional knowledge through many ways, such as formal schooling, apprenticeship, or learning-by-doing. No matter in which path, graduate schools differ from other levels of schooling in many ways. First, the training intends to equip learners with disciplinary knowledge, values and expertise so that they may contribute to their fields. Students no longer take marginal positions in relation to texts, arguments and knowledge (Casanave, 1992). Each individual has the potential to be a resource for the community. Hence, the supreme objective, also the most distinctive feature, of graduate study is the replacement of pure consumers of knowledge with developers and producers.

Second, language plays multiple roles in framing this specialized academic discourse. For example, the most well-known Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000) demonstrates experienced members' use of language in academic communication. Graduate students must follow experts' approaches to "ways with words" (Heath, 1983, cited in Morita, 2000) so as to be recognized as an insider. According to Casanave (1992), researchers logically present ideas and arguments depend not only on what language says but also on what it does. He claims that language in graduate context is used as "a tool of reflective and analytical thought" (p.154). This function of language pushes learners to reflect on accumulated knowledge of others and develop their own. In other words, the central notions of academic discourse are: "the giving of reasons and evidence," "being clear about claims and assertions," and "getting thinking to stand on its two feet" (Elbow, 1991).

To acquire these specialized terminology, conventions and modes of communications are suggested to be a socialization process. The term "socialization" is used with an assumption that "learning and development occur as people participate in the sociocultural activities of their community" (Rogoff, 1994, p.209). Schieffelin and Ochs (1986a, 1986b; Ochs, 1986, 1990, 1993, 1996; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984, 2008; Schieffelin, 1990) who proposed the theoretical framework of "language socialization" refer to language and literacy learning as a process in "which a child or other novice acquire the knowledge, orientations and practices that enable him or her to participate effectively and appropriately in the social life of a particular community" (Garett & Baquedano-López, 2002, p.339; see also Bronson &Watson-Gegeo, 2008; Duff, 2007; Duff & Hornberger, 2008; Kulick & Schieffelin, 2004; Leung, 2005; Ochs & Schieffelin, 2008; Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003; Zuengler & Cole, 2005, for overview) This notion inspires second language (L2) applied linguists to conduct ethnographic studies on ways second language learners

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participate in situated social activities where learning occurs (Duff, 1995, 1996, 2001, 2002; Leki, 2001; Leki & Carson, 1997; Ohta, 1999; Paugh, 1999; Willett, 1995). Their work implied that to function within a community "is not merely a matter of being *aware* of these rules, values, and behavioral patterns" – in short, the culture (Zappa-Hollman, 2001, p.1). Rather, being socialized to a community and recognized as a member requires ones to live and act according to the community's expectations.

Taking on this sociocultural view, researchers foregrounded the link between the "event structure of academic work," "participants' perspectives (their evolving interpretations and goals)," (Prior, 1998, p. 64) and formation of activities (i.e., trajectories of personal, interpersonal, institutional and sociolcultural histories of participants (Morita, 2000). Contextual aspects of learning (i.e., surroundings, local interactions, identity negotiation and learner agency) are highlighted (Morita & Kobayashi, 2008). This trend has also shown its impact on the development of EAP studies. A line of product-oriented research, like most of traditional second language acquisition (SLA) studies, viewed learning as a "uni-directional image of acquisition" (Bronson & Watson-Gegeo, 2008, p. 49). Numerous genre-based or needs analysis literature introduced students to the discrete and fixed norms toward gaining membership. However, these quantitative results may risk overlooking the influences of dynamic contextual factors on learning situations. Since the mid-1990s, increasing research interests heed the call to investigate activities and context settings rather than characteristics of successful and failed learners. According to Norton and Toohey (2001), recent inquiry not only focuses on examining learners' characteristics, strategies or linguistic output but asks questions like "how L2 learners are situated in specific social, historical and cultural contexts and how learners resist or accept the positions those contexts offer them" (p.310).

Given the call for context-sensitive approach, several compatible theories have

helped elucidate contextual aspects of learning. One pervasively adopted model is the notion of "community of practice" (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Lave and Wenger (1991) proposed that learning is a socially situated process. Newcomers would gradually move from peripheral to fuller participation in community's activities by interacting with more competent community members. To this end, activity serves to be basic unit of analysis (Prior, 1998, p.31; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002) in a wide range of L2 learning situations, such as group projects (Leki, 2001), academic writing tasks (Casanave, 1992, 1995; Prior, 1998), advisor and advisee relationship (Krase, 2007), feedback practices on writing texts (Séror, 2008) and in-class group discussion (Ho, 2007; Morita, 2002). Studies taking this orientation usually employ qualitative or ethnographic methods, drawing thick descriptions of participants' experiences (Casanave, 1994, 1995, 1998; Johanson, 2001; Kobayashi, 2004; Krase, 2003; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008; Prior, 1998; Scott, 2000; Séror, 2008; Spack, 1997). Insights from their findings suggest (a) each classroom yields a complex environment. Learning experiences varied due to ways how task expectations were negotiated, performed and perceived (Prior, 1998), (b) the process is never a one-way transmission. Students take on active roles shaping their own learning paths with personal motif and goals (Zamel & Spack, 1998).

Reviewing the research of ESL graduate students' academic literacy development in particular, Braine (2002) comments that "a fundamental shortcoming of most is their focus on writing tasks alone" (p. 63). There is a lack of sufficient studies on learning opportunities generated from oral academic communications (Duff & Hornberger, 2008; Morita, 2002; Kobayashi, 2004; Ho, 2007). Within institutional contexts, numerous oral activities, such as class presentations, discussions, seminar presentations and thesis oral defenses constitute a large proportion of academic requirements. Still oral language proficiency is not the only challenge for L2 learners;

students need to comprehend subject matter and acquire knowledge about relevant discoursal forms and "processes" of production (Dressen-Hammouda, 2008) which are valued according to their disciplines and institutional context. For example, conference presentation is one of the most common channels for researchers to share research findings and to make knowledge claims. English is the lingua franca used in many fields for presenting one's research especially in international conferences (Nunan, 2003). Therefore, it is crucial for students to learn appropriate ways to participate and present orally in English. In other words, it is important to learn not only write but also to speak academically in higher education (Braine, 2002).

Despite a few dissertations and published articles conducted in North America have given attention to oral academic tasks, such as oral academic presentations (Kobayashi, 2003, 2004; Morita, 2000; Zappa-Hollman, 2001, 2007), class discussions (Ho, 2007; Morita, 2002,), their experiences were not necessarily as transferable to other contexts. Based on their findings, perceived difficulties and strategies developed by L2 students inspired the present study to document cases situated in non-English-speaking surroundings. The focal participants are all non-native English learners, fulfilling a master's TESOL program in Taiwan. Therefore, there will not be issues concerning impacts of the cultural shift and the co-presence of native and non-native peers as in previous research. Instead, this study aims to describe an EFL learning culture and to investigate the focal EFL students' on-site reflections on their professional growth through giving oral presentations. I chose oral presentations as the unit of analysis and the reasons are threefold. First, it is pervasive, even routine, in each course provided by the institution in question. Second, there is a lack of comprehensive understanding of how OAPs are enacted to facilitate learners' expertise. Third, literature featuring oral practices addressed extra challenges faced by non-native speakers (NNSs). The demanding part, in addition to linguistic

proficiency, lies in the content of talks which is largely based on written texts (Morita, 2000, 2002). Thus, this study was designed to gain more holistic picture on how OAPs are composed, perceived, and performed by TESOL graduates at one university in Taiwan.

1.2 Statement of Problems

Within this decade, research into oral academic socialization has highlighted several dimensions of NNSs' experiences. First, these studies highlighted ways international students participate in American classrooms. Focal L2 students carried L1 cultural backgrounds and schooling histories which they are forced to somehow integrate with the new culture. Second, previous studies identified various sources leading to NNSs' learning difficulties. Characteristics of good OAPs were also discussed. Current literature reveals certain dimensions of the processes of students' presentations; however, not much has been revealed about how students put together content in PowerPoint presentations. To date, researchers are still focused on the ideas of challenges encountered by NNSs in terms of linguistic deficiency to speak and to comprehend research articles. In the present study, I would like to look more closely at how students communicate and transfer their understandings of written texts onto PowerPoint display.

According to personal experiences in a domestic TESOL program, instructors assign OAPs as major course work at the first course meeting. Starting from the second week, students are pushed to the podium to give a talk on research articles. There are usually no explicit instructions, modeling and evaluation criteria to follow. Widely accepted views on what makes an effective academic presentation, as Zareva (2009) puts it, "well planned, logically organized, effectively handled, and convincingly delivered" (p. 55), become abstract standards, requirements and even

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difficulties for NNS graduate students. Lists of recommended features for OAPs on syllabi may just turn into prescriptive expectations, irrelevant to students' actual performances. Accordingly, the need to scrutinize the whole preparation process, including reading, text interpreting, information selections, and combination of verbal and visual modes of representations, become pressing. The major focus is no longer on listing features of good OAPs or challenges to speak orally in English. Current understanding is in short concerning how graduate students, non-natives in particular, struggle to give academic talks that are logical, coherent, critical, and organized. It is hoped that EFL context such as Taiwan where learners did not experience much oral academic genre in previous schooling would benefits from the insights generated in the present study.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to address the gap in the literature specifically in academic oral discourse socialization in a EFL context. Through a qualitative and ethnographic research design, the present study focuses on the disciplinary socialization process of graduate students in the TESOL program at one Taiwanese university. However, it is not the intent to examine students' specific outcomes, including linguistic developments over time. Instead, the process of negotiating identities and competence in the TESOL program will be outlined, and pedagogical implications will be discussed.

Following academic socialization premises, discourse socialization is viewed as a dynamic, hybrid and locally situated learning process (Ho, 2007). Thus, the primary focus will be on exploring how Taiwanese MA-TESOL students are inducted into disciplinary spoken practices through PowerPoint presentations, one of the most common instructional activities across courses. This study will discuss two types of

data. Macro-analysis data shows contextual aspects of the learning (e.g., institutional and course backgrounds, students' and instructors' perceptions). Micro-analysis observation and records were conducted to determine students' engagement in associated preparation and strategies. Major inquiry focuses on how students read, process, and present knowledge through PowerPoint presentations. In addition to the examination of students' approaches to disciplinary knowledge, the present study also looks at their negotiation of identities in a situated course. The research questions are as follows:

1. How do oral academic presentations (OAP) facilitate the focal students to develop disciplinary expertise in knowledge consumption and dissemination?

2. How do the focal students negotiate their identities and participation in giving oral academic presentations?
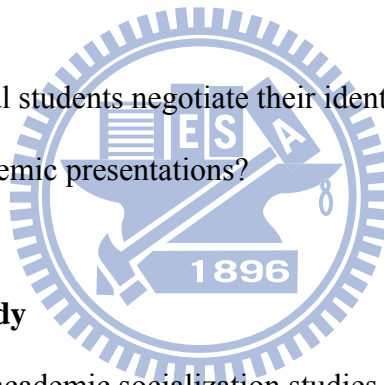
1.4 Significance of the study

As stated earlier, oral academic socialization studies have investigated the interrelationship of contextual factors and academic practices by analyzing language activities (Séror, 2008). Their case descriptions of international students in the U.S. higher education generated valuable discussions and suggestions that can better facilitate ESL students' academic oracy. Inspired by this line of research, the present study adopts context-sensitive and process-oriented approaches to describe Taiwanese MA-TESOL graduates' experiences in doing OAPs. This program officially maintains English as the major medium for communication and a great deal of opportunities for academic socialization takes place through speaking – via class discussions, lectures, as well as local and international conferences. Particular interest is placed on focal participants' negotiation of academic demands and their identitiess in response to the

contextual aspects of given courses (e.g., institutional and pedagogical goals). Such an examination may lead to a better understanding of EFL learners' socialization processes, perspectives and struggles during their academic learning of spoken discourse.

This study will contribute to the literature on oral academic socialization by extending the discussions and understandings to date toward context outside English-speaking settings. Because of the very different cultural, social and institutional backgrounds of the present study, more insights or comparisons with previous research could be generated from the findings. To the researcher's knowledge, this study may also be the very initiative reflections and examinations on a domestic TESOL program. Information from close investigation of student's attitudes and preparation for OAPs may shed lights on its pedagogical implications for graduate training. Findings though cannot be generalized to other learning contexts, it is hoped that results may provide insights for individuals experiencing similar practices.

More importantly, seeing formal oral academic presentations resembled "spoken written academic discourse (e.g., making heavy use of the passive voice and foramulaic expressions)" (Zappa-Hollman, 2007, p.468), its formation involves other literacy skills, such as reading, summarizing, interpreting, synthesizing, and critical thinking. In order to look at how focal participants are socialized to these *literacy events* (Heath, 1983; cited in Morita, 2000) through giving PowerPoint presentations, students' preparation and strategies of processing information will be discussed. It is hoped that process-centered data about individual's decision-making would supplement existing knowledge. Furthermore, implications gained from this study would serve as sources for incorporating OAPs as socialization opportunities to content learning and academic communicative competence.

1.5 Defining key terms

Disciplinary socialization – signifies that students actively shape their processes of gaining membership and expertise by acquiring peculiar ways of speaking, knowing and interacting expected in the target academic community (Krase, 2003). The learning process is a complex combination of factors including acquisition of content knowledge, "field-specific value systems and definitions as well as the reading and writing strategies associated with professional discourse" (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999, p. 491). Several terms from previous literature were used to describe the process of what novice learners or newcomers undergo in different academic communities. These terms include "disciplinary enculturation' (Casanave, 2001; Prior, 1998), 'academic socialization," "academic discourse socialization" (Morita, 2000, 2002, 2004), "academic apprenticeship" (Mulvancy, 1994, cited in Ho, 2007). Informed by language socialization theory, I consider using "academic (discourse) socialization" and "disciplinary socialization" more suitable terms to address the holistic, locally situated interaction and experiences of focal participants. When using these two terms interchangeably in this study, it is intended not to distinguish if literacy events involve general or disciplinary-specific academic conventions. Both are used to refer to the "local and immediate web of interactions and relations that can either construct or support learners' academic participation" (Krase, 2003, p.38). The term "socialization" is purposely selected in place of "enculturation" since Kulick and Schieffelin (2004) cautioned that 'enculturation' implied no "participation or agency on the part of [novice learners]" (p.349).

Knowledge consumption – referred to all activities students do or resources they search and utilize to acquire knowledge from reading materials, including the theories, terminology, research methodology or academic written discourse. According to Legutke and Thomas (1991), "the presentation itself is an event of short duration, but

it is perceived by a preparatory process of collective decision making, data recognition, and skill acquisition" (p.179). Reading research papers is one crucial mean to promote different aspects of knowing in academic socialization process.

Knowledge dissemination – contrasts with knowledge consumption defined above. The term refers to the outputs when students give prepared talk on research articles. This is the major part in which they display pre-set combination of written texts and visual aids on PowerPoint slides. How the focal students manage their oral delivery will also be discussed.

Identity – can be understood as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world" and "how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton, 2000, p. 5). According to Norton (1997), identity is a complex and multifaceted concept which "must be understood with larger social processes" (p. 419). Therefore, in the present study, identity construction is conceptualized as being constantly negotiated by the participants within a given community. I will also use different terms, such as role, status, stance, position and membership, in an attempt to depict participants' situated responses and reflection (Morita, 2002) .

Academic activity/ task – is used as an umbrella term to include a wide range of academic work, such as writing a research paper, writing reaction papers on course readings, teaching demonstrations in courses, participating in group and class discussions, giving oral presentations on assigned readings or personal studies, to name a few (Kobayashi, 2004). These tasks have pedagogical implications and are mostly performed successfully by acquiring knowledge of the subject matter as well as the linguistic and communicative competence. While using these two terms, it is noted that participants have their own perceptions and objectives while implementing any task assigned in courses (Coughlan & Duff, 1994).

CHAPTER 2   LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Changing roles of discourse community

Scholars tend to identify (academic) discourse community a useful metaphor while referring to academic disciplines. The community, even though does not physically exist (Berkenkotter et al, 1991), is an entity with "collective of individuals (teachers, researchers, scholars, students) dispersed in time and space" (Blanton, 1994, p.220). Members of same discourse community share a specialized ways of talking, writing, thinking, interests and language use – simply put, discourse.

Taking on this view, scholars seem agree upon and emphasize the social dimension of language in the discourse community; however, there is lack of consensus on what roles the metaphor plays during individual's socialization processes. Swales (1990), for example, focused on textual analysis of published articles and defined discourse community "a sociorhetorical networks that form in order to work towards sets of common goals" (p. 9). His conceptions of discourse community are characterized in six features: (1) a broadly agreed upon set of goals, (2) mechanisms for intercommunications among community members, (3) established procedures for providing feedback to individuals, (4) one or more accepted communicative "genres," (5) a specified lexis, and (6) a threshold level of members each with a suitable degree of expertise. Such a definition puts great emphasis on familiarizing students with "a set of rhetorical features and conventions of texts recognized by experienced members of that community" (Morita, 2002, p.24).

Several drawbacks are identified concerning this perspective on discourse community. First, it risks hiding complexity of interactive dimensions in real situations since there are usually subcommunities within general discourse (Bizzell, 1982; Casanave, 1995; Zamel, 1993). Swales' concept treats discourse community an

established set of criteria, waiting for ones to master. Elbow (1991) maintains "it is crazy to talk about academic discourse as one thing." Second, recent qualitative studies on academic discourse socialization contested treating disciplines as "uniform bodies of knowledge that can be passed from expert members to novices" (Prior, 1995, p. 294). Instead, findings (Casanave, 1992, 1995; Duff, 1995, 1996, 2001; Flowerdew, 2000; Kobayashi, 2003, 2004; Morita, 2000, 2002, 2004; Prior, 1998) proved that it is a negotiable and nonlinear learning process. Learners tend to take on active roles assigning meanings to tasks, utilizing local sources from teachers, peers and TAs, and constructing context for their texts.

Unlike Swales, recent studies informed by sociocultural tenets shifted major research focus "from the community as a collective group to that of the individual participant of the discourse community" (Johanson, 2001, p.15). Hence, other frameworks have been used to redefine the nature of discourse community and to explore situated learning conditions. One widely employed is Lave and Wenger's (1991) *community of practice* framework, they suggests that learning is generated from a person's cumulative experiences by participating in dynamic communities. Newcomers, even though usually participate in limited and peripheral activities, their involvement may co-construct the structures or consequences of events. Bizzell (1982) holds that healthy discourse communities are always a "mass of contradictions" and view individuals as "co-creators of knowledge in their interactions in the community" (Johanson, 2001, p.18; Prior, 1994, 1995, 1998). Prior (1998) echoed this view and found that doctoral students' writing texts incorporated in part others' words and works with their own voices. It proves that one's ultimate production is usually a combination of series experiences accumulated in multiple activities. More detail discussions of the framework will be addressed in next section.

The present study embraces the latter approach to the nature of discourse

community. It is not a homogeneous social entity. Newcomers acquire ways to establish membership through participations, observations and "varying degrees of otherness" (Morita, 2002, p.28). This interactive aspect of learning is hoped to facilitate members develop their academic communicative competence. The metaphor thus, to use Bazerman's (1998) words, entails "nothing so neat as the training of individuals in a fixed and disciplined practice" but "the messy production of persons in situations."

2.2 Community of Practice

This study concerns how local and on-site interactions constitute learners' participations and learning paths. One major theoretical perspective the present study adopts is from *Community of Practice* (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Departing from viewing learning an internalization of propositional knowledge, Lave and Wenger consider learning a situated process during which learners gain increased access and knowledge to participate in the community. At school, club, work, institutions and home, communities are formed as long as people engage and learn together through a variety of activities (e.g., problem solving, request for information, seeking experience, reusing assets, discuss development, documentation project, mapping knowledge and identify gaps). Wenger (2005) further describes CoP as "groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (p.1).

This notion was conceptualized based on analyzing apprenticeship cases of midwives in Yucatan, tailors in Liberia, butchers in U.S. supermarket, and participants in an Alcoholic Anonymous (A.A.) program. When these apprentices participate in situated practices in living communities, the process is termed "legitimate peripheral participation (LPP)" – newcomers start to involve from the peripheral of the activity

toward fuller participation in social construction. The term signifies different levels of participation in the community. According to Wenger (1998),

> Peripherality provides an approximation of full participation that gives exposure to actual practice. It can be achieved in various ways, including lessened intensity, lessened risk, special assistance, lessened cost or error, close supervision, or lessened production pressures.…No matter how the peripherality of initial participation is achieved, it must engage newcomers and provide as sense of how the community operates. (p.100)

In this view, peripheral participation means that newcomers involve by performing relevant but insignificant tasks at first. More exposures will then help them generate experiences, knowledge about processes of production and thus increasing engagement central to the practices. However, it is important to note that the word 'peripheral' doesn't imply that there is a single core or center to CoP (Prior, 1998, p.36). Both newcomers and old-timers operate on the peripheries from which learning experiences would "send them on trajectories toward full participation in the community" (Johanson, 2001, p. 28). This "decentered view of master-apprentice relations" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 94) basically suggest two key points. First, as Morita (2002, p.41) stated, "there are multiple ways of belonging in a community of practice" and "individuals positions and perspectives with a CoP can change overtime." Second, newcomers do not just take on "a particular role at the edge of a larger process"; they involve "performing in *several roles* – status subordinate, learning practitioner, sole responsible agent in minor parts of the performance, aspiring expert and so forth- each implying a different sort of responsibility, a different set of role relations, and a different interactive involvement" (Hanks, 1991, p. 23).

Another key aspect of LPP, legitimate participation, emphasizes that newcomers can participate only when they're granted access and opportunity. Even though

novices are usually offered minor and limited jobs, this legitimacy implies treating he/she as potential members. Lave and Wenger (1991) further elaborate, "newcomers' legitimate peripherality provides them with more than an "observational lookout post: it crucially involves participation as a way of learning – of both absorbing and being absorbed in- the 'culture of practice'" (p.95). While newcomers take places alongside more competent members, they are licensed to involve and witness what constitutes the practice of the community. It is the sanctioned access to "learn to talk" rather than "learn from talk" that counts as the key to begin participating and learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p.109).

In sum, Lave and Wenger view learning a process of increased access to participation and perform as master practitioners. At first, the novice takes on more of an observer role rather than a primary participant. Such participation remains in peripheral status. However, it is considered to be key opportunity for socialization. Experiences and insights from interacting with more experienced and competent members direct novice to gain understandings about the "*function* of the routine, as well as the *resources* needed to do the routine" (Ohta, 1999, p.1496, italic in original). After extended participation, novices are able to transfer to more active roles since they acquire anticipated ways to communicate. Meanwhile, involvement in more social events pushes novices to think about the meanings of the routines and their positions. Finally, the novice develops confidence to utilize sources in immediate surroundings to construct routines in accordance with their individual goals. Through this process, newcomers assemble learning experiences with commitment of time and effort. Also, they may transform their identities with respect to relations with others, with personal roles and positions.

Informed by the framework, to examine learning cannot overlook the paths and modes of participations in immediate surroundings. In the present study, graduate

schools are identified as central in "developing professional identification" (Becker & Carper, 1956, cited in Casanave, 1992); thus, graduate courses serve to be "an important entry point for graduate students into a larger academic community such as a disciplinary community" (Morita, 2002). In addition, graduate courses are places where pedagogical purposes are fulfilled through implementing academic tasks. The instructors guide and induct students to ways of processing academic activities. In this sense, classrooms form a specific community of practice while graduate students learn to become competent graduate students. By using courses the staring point, I would then be able to concentrate on local environment where focal students are socialized to the disciplinary practices.

2.3 Language Socialization Theory

Another theoretical perspective that the present study embraces is language socialization theory (Ochs, 1986; 1990, 1993; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Schiefflin, 1990; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a, 1986b; Watson-Gegeo, 1992). Research taking this sociocultural view on language learning made assumptions that learners gain membership and expertise through participating in social activities of various contexts (Duff, 2002, 2007; Moore, 2008; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986b). This approach roots in linguistic anthropology, sociology and Vygotskian psychology. Early first language (L1) acquisition studies on child-caregiver interactions revealed how children were immersed and socialized to acquire linguistic resources to construct, interpret and react to social actions, such as teasing (Eisenberg, 1986; Miller, 1986), calling out and repeating (Watson-Gegeo & Gegeo, 1986), story narrative (Heath, 1986), Japanese communicative style (Clancy, 1986). Based on findings of L1 literacy development, Ochs and Schieffelin (1984; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986a) noticed the importance of language in directing children to possess "social

competence" and to adopt identities and positions defined in parents' communities. Hence, they posit

> The notion of language socialization is premised on two assumptions about the nature of language, culture, and socialization. First, the process of acquiring language is deeply affected by the process of becoming a competent member of a society, and second, the process of becoming a competent member of society is realized to a large extent through language, by acquiring knowledge of its functions, social distribution, and interpretations in and across socially defined situations. This is largely achieved through participation in exchange of language in particular social situations. (1990, p. 252)

Two important concepts about language learning are emphasized. First, it is a process of socialization mainly through language. Only by extended involvement in language-mediated activities of target communities could novice learn ways to use language and display membership (Ochs, 1986; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Shcieffelin, 1990). In other words, language plays significant role familiarize members with its use in various social interactions. Second, language can not be separated from social contexts, nor its use from culture because these social interactions are recognized as opportunities for language development (Norton & Toohey, 2001). Séror (2008) thus highlighted that "language and its use is socially contingent, and is therefore never neutral, mechanical or uninterested" (p.12).

Accordingly, second language (L2) research informed by language socialization seeks to identify learners' cognitive progress and its relation with contextual factors (Duff, 2008; Duff, & Hornberger, 2008; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008). In addition, inspired by L1 studies, this framework attends to learning process as not only acquiring discrete set of linguistic structure, but also constructing social and cultural knowledge of context where learning occurs. This process-oriented exploration on language learning departs from traditional SLA studies which overlook effects of contextual and interactional dimensions of language (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Growing

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L2 studies thus position literacy events as "socially situated and co-constructed acts, with language serving as a key component (among others) driving learning" (Séror, 2008, p.12) across various educational settings and workplaces. Incongruent effects of socialization were found which either successfully apprenticed learners to perform expected outcomes (Kanagy, 1999) or failed to generate desirable ability to function in the community (Yoshimi, 1999; Atkinson, 2003; Kulick & Shieffelin, 2004). When examining reasons for failed academic performances (Duff, 1995, 1996; Atkinson, 2003; Moore, 1999), findings captured the complexity or even conflict between macro-level factors (cultural, institutional and social) and micro-level (classroom) practices, such as the example of students in Cameroon quit schooling in response to French-only rule at school (Moore, 1999).

Results of above studies have revealed that L2 learners were inducted to recognize the social constructions as well as to take certain identities. What makes the effects diversely generated is the fact that students are not necessarily assume the role assigned to them. Duff (2007) further suggests that second language socialization need to recognize that learners have agency to negotiate their roles, identities and goals through the socialization process. Although newcomers or novices are generally assisted by more competent members in the group, it is argued that this expert-novice interaction is not a unidirectional transmission. While both novices and more experienced members participate in social activities, they all "serve as resources for one another in exploring new domain and aiding and challenging one another" (Rogoff, 1990, p.39). In a similar vein, Jacoby and Ochs (1995) note that social events are "collectively built" and involve bidirectional and dynamic socialization process. For example, Prior (1994) holds that having the professor and peers response to students' texts is central for meaningful writing tasks. Due to co-participations, not only novices but old-timers may transform their thinking, understanding and

evaluations (Ochs, 1990).

As such, academic activities are situated social practices. Ways how students deal with tasks and how professors and peers perceive each other's works foreground negotiation processes other than language competence. To sum up this section and the principles of language socialization framework, followed are the key tenets summarized in Duff's (2007) plenary speech:

1. Social interaction contextualized within particular routine activities is a crucial aspect of cultivating communicative competence in one's first or additional languages and knowledge of the values, practices, identities and status of the target group.

2. Experts or more proficient members of a group play a very important role in socializing novices and implicitly or explicitly teaching them to think, feel, and act in accordance with the values, ideologies, and traditions of the group. However, novices also 'teach' or convey to their more proficient interlocutors what their communicative needs are, and the process of socialization is therefore seen to be bidirectional- or multidirectional if multiple models of expertise co-exist.

3. Language and other semiotic system and tools mediate not only communication in general but specifically the learning of language and other cultural knowledge.

4. Language leaning and socialization is a lifelong process as we enter new communities of practice in which new ways of acting, communicating, and thinking are required and new codes, registers, genres, or literacies are given priority over others.

5. Additional-langue (e.g. L2) socialization does not necessarily lead to the reproduction of existing L2 culture and discursive practices but may lead to

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other outcomes, such as hybrid practices, identities, and values; the

incomplete or partial appropriation of the L2 and status within the L2

community; or rejection of target norms and practices. (p.311)

2.4. Studies on oral academic discourse and oral academic Socialization

To date, literature concerning oral academic discourse is in short. A more correct

way to say is "we know much less about academic speech than we do about academic

writing" (Swales & Burke, 2003, p.1). Though the issue was only partially addressed

and understood, some inspiring research still has had great influence on the present

study. In the 1990s, studies focusing on spoken genres in English-speaking academic

setting mostly targeted to find oral needs and challenges of NNSs (Ferris and Tagg,

1996a, 1996b; Ferris, 1998; Jones, 1999; Kim, 2006; Manson, 1994; Ostler, 1980).

Along with the trend of sociocultural views on learning, increasing researchers

adopted qualitative design to depict how learners undertake tasks and learn (Ho, 2007;

Kobayashi, 2003; Morita, 2000, 2002, 2004; Weissberg, 1993; Zappa-Hollman, 2001,

2007). Meanwhile, corpus-based studies are devoted to identify salient rhetorical and

linguistic exemplars in oral academic genres (Simpson & Mendis, 2003). In this

section, I will briefly describe what major features constitute oral academic discourse

and what current socialization studies reveal about students' learning.

Starting from the 1990s, early studies attempted to investigate listening and

speaking needs of university students from different disciplines. Ferris and Tagg's

(1996a, 1996b) serial studies provided comprehensive survey findings on students and

instructors' perceptions of aural/oral skills in tertiary education. The large scale data

collected from instructors in four different institutions provided teachers' perspectives

on various listening and speaking requirements across disciplines. Moreover,

follow-up investigation in 1998 indicated the gap between students' responses and

professors' perceptions. Dramatic variety on skills and needs rankings between instructors and students indicated the necessity for language teachers on preparing students for comprehension and participation in lectures.

Much more recently, corpus-based research on different academic genres (i.e. lecture, conference presentation, dissertation defenses, and peer seminar) began to demonstrate the pattern of language use orally. Empirical analysis based on Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE)[1] of academic speech events (Simpson & Mendis, 2003; Swales & Burke, 2003; Swales & Malcewsk, 2001; Mauranen, 2001) achieved in separating the nature of academic talks from academic writing. So far, the preliminary maps of academic talks suggest that it seems position in the middle ground between ordinary conversations and academic prose. Academic speech tolerates informal wordings (e.g., gonna, wanna), vague word like "thing" (Swales, 2001), frequent use of discourse markers (e.g., okay, so, now), and filled pause. However, certain features of academic writing also appear in spoken discourse. Both tend to use heavily signposts to signal the structure of spoken text and hedging which is the typical technique to show modesty and uncertainty.

To add more complexity, academic oracy encompasses various sets of speech genres which students need to take part in. One in particular concerns academic lectures. A number of discourse-based analysis (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2004; Mauranen, 2001; Thompson 1994a, 1994b, 2003; Yong, 1994) all indicated that instructors' use of metadiscourse markers (e.g. *today we're gonna talk a little bit about*) are important signals for students to create "mental map of the overall talk" (Thompson, 2003, p. 5). To better facilitate L2 students, academic listening materials

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[1] MICASE consists close to 200 hours of recorded speeches from 152 of speech events (e.g., lectures, colloquia, research group meetings, dissertation defenses, faculty meetings, student study groups)(Simpson & Mendis, 2003). All the recordings were collected between 1997 and 2001, containing 1.8 million words with full transcriptions.

need to address the feature and try to provide authentic listening input. Apart from lectures, current contributions to the language of spoken form of research include Rowley-Jolivet (2005) who found rhetorical structure (move model) of scientific conference paper is different from that of research article, Hood and Forey's (2005) study aimed to explore how co-occurrence of language and gestures display conference presenters' attitude, Recski (2005) who linked the choices of modal (e.g., will, could, exactly, obviously) with dissertation presenters' stance, roles and commitment to proposition, and Aguilar (2004) who addressed certain features of peer seminars other than its mixed features from lecture, written research and conference presentation.

Accompanied with these academic speeches is the use of visual images (e.g. presentation slides, pictures, tables, and charts). One early study done by Miller (1998) revealed that visuals used in academic texts serve the functions to persuade and argue. Kress (2000) comments on this increasing occurrence of visual modes in texts by arguing that "it is now impossible to make sense of texts, even of their linguistic parts alone, without having a clear idea of what these other features might be contributing to the meaning of a text" (p. 337). Speakers may use visuals to structure discourse and express logic relations (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002) and to project their identity and disciplinarity (Tardy, 2005; Liou, 2008). The use of technology, such as PowerPoint slides or overhead projector slides, certainly brings changes to how information is organized. According to Myers' (2000) findings, effects of utilizing *Microsoft* PowerPoint software for lectures are particularly salient on text form (from sequential to more hierarchical), on process of presentation (from continuity to chunks), and on the kind of interaction (from voice to text).

Above reviewed studies described patchy yet valuable rhetorical and linguistic features of oral academic discourse. Their contributions lead to EAP material

development and provide practical guides for NNEs students. However, investigation of individual's acquisition and socialization paths shifted focus to learning and the learners. To address micro learning dynamics, current second language socialization research drew on Community of Practice perspective to examine how novices and more experienced members engage each other in situated activities. Duff (2007, plenary speech) summarized that this process-oriented perspectives by applying CoP analysis tended to ask following question:

1. How do newcomers to an academic culture learn how to participate successfully in the oral and written discourse (and related practices) associated with that community or practice?

2. How are newcomers explicitly or implicitly induced or socialized into these local discursive practices? What effect do these experiences have on their evolving identities?

3. How does interaction with their peers, instructors, tutors, and others facilitate the process of gaining expertise in those practices and thus full community membership?

4. How do the practices and norms themselves evolve over time and across practitioners, given the cultural and historical context of the local community of practices? (p.315)

Trying to answer these questions, Duff and her students (Kobayashi, 2003, 2004; Morita, 2000, 2002, 2004; Zappa-Hollman, 2001, 2007) initiated to investigate oral academic tasks in undergraduate and graduate courses. Morita (2004) focused on six Japanese international students' negotiation of participation and identity through open-ended discussion in L2 classroom communities. These six cases were found trying to exercise personal agency to resist marginal positions, to take different roles regarding personal perceptions of competence, and to develop strategies for growing

participation in class. Another study also done by Morita in 2000 conducted an 8-month ethnographic study in a TESL graduate program at a Canadian university with a mixture of domestic and international students. The aim was to look at how both NS and NNS students were expected and learned to give successful presentations in two courses. Findings showed that both NS and NNS felt challenging in relation to this class activity. Students applied multiple strategies to negotiate expectations, to communicate stances and take various voices and roles in pre-, during and reviewing stages of OAPs.

Zappa-Hollman (2007) extended former findings of OAPs by comparing this activity across four disciplines. Multiple data sources, including observations, interview, field notes, course outlines, from six non-native graduate students suggested some salient themes through their engagement. It is noted that challenges faced by the students may be linguistic (e.g., limited fluency, unclear pronunciation), sociocultural (e.g., lack of familiarity with OAPs or rejection of the qualities valued in courses) and psychological (e.g., shyness, fear of public speaking). Non-native learners used several strategies before and during presentations in order to sound smart, and speak clearly. Zappa-Hollman suggests that guidance from instructors and more experienced peers through peer assessment or systematic reflective practices would benefit novice students.

Moreover, Kobayashi's (2003) study focused on one certain group and their peer collaboration during preparation stages outside of the classroom. This group of three Japanese undergraduate students worked out task expectations and agreement on task performances. The recordings captured frequent negotiations between group members; they shared their own observations from class and experiences. The target group also rehearsed several times and did peer-coaching on each others' written and spoken language. The findings recognized that informal interactions outside the classroom

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become opportunities for L2 practice and learning.

To the best of researcher's knowledge, study of Taiwanese graduate students' academic spoken discourse socialization in domestic programs was the one done by Wu (2008). Two research questions were asked to see what students do when they make oral presentations and what their theories are about making OAPs in English. Five TESOL first or second year students participated in the study; interview data from their supervisors and course instructors was triangulated. Four stages were identified as preparing, researching, rehearsing and presenting. Students encountered various challenges during each phase and shared different expectations and definitions of OAPs with their instructors. The researcher suggested that teachers can provide goals and specific requirements to help students learn the values and qualities promoted for this spoke activity.

2.5 Summary

In this chapter, I have introduced the theoretical frameworks and their applications in research targeting at L2 language development. Informed by these theoretical frameworks, I consider routine coursework of OAPs a powerful lens through which students' perspectives and experiences can be better understood. The lack of literature in non-western contexts partly disclosed unawareness of its role in socializing students to content learning. Findings of above reviewed oral academic studies confirmed that the process of academic discourse socialization is composed of situated and negotiating interactions. Learners with different degrees of involvement are not linearly acculturated to academic or linguistic demands. Instead, they construct their knowledge, identities and expertise within activities. Moreover, each case carried with them different goals, needs and personal histories to classrooms, so variety were found regarding their conflicts and struggles in new academic settings.

The present study aims to address another learning culture in a Taiwanese EFL

graduate TESOL course by focusing on the local interactions and participations of

first-year students, senior students and the lecturer.

CHAPTER 3   METHODOLOGY

3.1 Qualitative case study approach

In order to provide richer and holistic accounts of EFL learners' socialization experiences, this study employed a qualitative multiple case study design (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998). Also, ethnographic method was used to document participation patterns of focal students and structures of academic activities in the given course. Among studies that was informed by *language socialization* theory, most have employed qualitative approaches (Bronson & Watson-Gegeo, 2008; Duff, 1996, 2002, 2007; Flowerdew, 2000; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002; Moore, 2008; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008; Watson-Gegeo & Nielsen, 2003; Zuengler & Cole, 2005). The context-rich descriptions and participant-informed orientation aims to reveal situated leaning within social contact. In keeping with the tradition, I triangulated multiple data sources gathered throughout an academic semester.

The rationale for using multiple case study is threefold. First, the information gathered will provide rich discussions and explanations of on-site situations (Babbie, 1990). According to Merriam (1998), case study is designed more suitable for research focus on process than on the outcome. Since major inquiry of present study includes students' oral presentation performances and related literate activities during preparation stage, case study provides comprehensive information about learners, their decision-making, use of strategies and growth. Second, language socialization research emphasizes the influential roles of personal, interpersonal and contextual components on students' academic socialization. Participants of this study with various educational backgrounds, professional goals and motivations require participant-informed interpretations of their learning. Case study approach, according to Yin (2003), is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon

within its real-life context" (p. 13); thus, is appropriate for descriptions of "naturally occurring data" (Ho, 2007, p.30). Third, case studies also seek access to and close records of focal students' viewpoints. With means of direct observations, interviews and collections of relevant documents, both subjective perspectives from participants and objective summary from the researcher may constitute a more systematic and complete picture.

While case study is recognized as effective ways for in-depth illustrations of individual cases, ethnographic methods will add "general trends and significant patterns" (Morita, 2002, p.51) to the whole picture. Major features of ethnographic techniques lead this study to seek emic perspectives (Mackey & Gass, 2005) through prolonged time period. Although this study was only conducted within one semester (18 weeks in total), I attended to variety of data source and fulfilled the purpose for triangulation. According to Miller (1991), "triangulation assumes that looking at an object from more than one standpoint provides researchers and theorists with more comprehensive knowledge about the object" (p.25). In doing so, it also helps ensure research credibility.

To sum up, present study explored not only students' oral presentation performances in one TESOL course but also individuals' socialization through preparing stage outside the classroom. Multiple data collection and analysis procedures will be comprised with (a) administration of survey questions, (b) classroom observation with video-taped recordings, (c) interviews with focal participants and instructor, (d) collection of relevant course documents, and (e) analysis for recurrent themes across cases.

3.2 Research context and participants

3.2.1 Background of the program and courses

The study was conducted from February 2009 to June 2009 (one academic term) at a research-oriented university in northern Taiwan. To study Graduate programs in Taiwan, either of social science or natural science fields, thesis completion is the must for degree fulfillment. Students in TESOL program, though set different professional goals[2], are trained to conduct research and participate as junior researchers in the community. For these students who were mostly English majors in undergraduate study, graduate education will advance their professional knowledge about English teaching. In another way around, they are required to contribute to the field and produce accepted academic work.

The selected university is one of Taiwan's tier 1 research universities. To most of the students in this program, it is a three-year journey. The first-year "rookies" spend most of the time taking courses, exploring the field with guidance of instructors. Near the end of the first academic year, each student would narrow down his/her research interest and choose a mentor. Moving on to the second year, the first semester might be spent on finishing remaining course credits (the total is 29), whereas the second semester would be the time to work on thesis. Students usually spend the last academic year for collecting data, writing thesis and fulfilling TEOFL iBT score of 100.

Routine activities and similar teaching discourse can be found across every course in this TESOL program. Students take turns presenting assigned readings from book chapters or journals, followed by lectures or discussions. On course syllabi,

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[2] According to questionnaire, interview and casual chatting with student participants, they mentioned that their goal for continuing master degree is to learn practical knowledge about teaching techniques for future career at secondary schools. However, the requirement forces them to sharpen ability in doing research. Two different orientations make students feel extra burdened and sometimes confused about whether the training really facilitates their teaching.

readings for every course meeting are already arranged. Within a three-hour lesson, there are usually more than one student presentations. This pattern usually begins at the second week till the end of the academic term. Except, the final two weeks are devoted to presentations of students' own studies or research proposals. This highly frequent oral event is essentially utilized to direct students toward content knowledge and academic activities.

In spring 2009, several courses were offered and one of them was chosen to be observed. After talking to first year students at the end of last semester, I was informed of their course-taking plan for spring 2009. All the six students took three same courses, ITE1000, ITE1001 and ITE1002. After consulting with three instructors, I decided to observe ITE1002 ("Second Language Listening and Speaking: Theory and Practice") for some reasons. First, two instructors of course ITE1001 and ITE1002 were more tolerant and felt less uncomfortable about being observed and video-taped. Second, among these two courses, only course ITE1002 assigned research article presentations instead of textbook chapter presentations. Journal articles demonstrate clear logic reasoning and largely written in conventionalized Introduction-Method-Result-Discussion (IMRD) pattern (Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 1994). Within book chapters, contents do not tend to convey this flow which will add more diversity to the study. Finally, presenting research articles is more similar to their possible future academic practices, such as oral defense and conference presentations. Hence, I decided to collect data from course ITE1002, since it carrieed typical OAPs as major course work for socializing students into content knowledge.

3.2.1.1 Situate the observed course and OAPs

Course ITE1002 is titled "Second Language Listening and Speaking: Theory and

Practice," covered 16 journal articles under 8 subtopics: listening comprehension, listening strategy, pronunciation, spoken corpora and oral academic presentation, to name a few. Although its course title suggests giving equal attention to theoretical and practical content knowledge, according to my fieldnote observations, the course took more of a research orientation. No textbooks were chosen. Instructor Hsiao intentionally assigned research papers for course materials. At the first course meeting, half an hour of class time was spent talking to students about "shift focus from knowledge transmission to knowledge transformation in graduate training" (fieldnote, 2009/02/26). The instructor also talked about her perspective in interview, "Actually, the most important task [to fulfill the degree] is doing research. As far as students are concerned, doing research is still the most important thing." In such case, the course intends to help students develop essential skills as stated in course syllabus:

> The course is designed to address key issues in the research and teaching of L2 listening and speaking. You are encouraged to become a (a) critical reader of research articles; (b) a reflective listener and speaker of the English language; and (c) resourceful researcher and teacher of the subject matter.

These assigned readings served as models for students to learn how to conduct a research. In week two, three, and four, instructor replicated the process used in the studies for students to experience, such as think-aloud, listening along with transcripts, examining a questionnaire, and analyzing data with coding scheme. All these above activities echoed course objective which create opportunities for learning about "procedure" of conducting research. Rich information and guidance were provided in this course throughout the semester. Students were inducted to the content knowledge, research methodology and also to the ideas beyond study itself.

The major activity is oral academic presentations. Among 18 weeks, OAPs started at week two until week eighteen, with a six-week interruption in between –

week one, six, eleven, thirteen, fourteen and sixteen where no presentations were performed (see Appendix A). The instructor did not set prescribed rules in terms of the style or the use of PowerPoint software. According to the format, presentations should take around 25 to 35 minutes. PowerPoint slides could not exceed 15 pages. This was set to assist students not only finish the speech within time limit but also force them to display important points rather than reporting details. Presenters attempted to stick to 15-page limit; yet, even if they prepared more than 15 pages, the instructor would not interrupt the speech. During the presentations, the instructor would sit at one side of the classroom. Usually, the students and the instructor remained silent in the period. Speakers would print out PowerPoint pages for the audience to refer to and take notes. Among 8 student participants, Ann, Brook and Victoria presented two research articles in this course, and the other five students gave one OAP.

After each presentation, major course time was spent for lecturing about the content. Sometimes, instructor referred to main points being brought up in PowerPoint slides. More often, she directly pointed out the core arguments in literature review and discussion section, shared her agree- or disagreement to certain statements and talked about the topic fields. For instance, after presenting the article done by Derwing and Munro (2005), instructor directed students to go back to the discussion, marking author's position and argument. She then elaborated on the issue of "mutual intelligibility" (fieldnote, 2009/03/26). Moreover, she introduced two big names in the topic field of spoken corpora in week ten, Professor McCarthy and Cartier. In her words, "they argued hard for the legitimacy of spoken grammar." (fieldnote, 2009/04/30).

There were two OAP-related assignments. First, every student was required to raise at least one question and propose one concrete research idea based on weekly

readings onto electronic bulletin board. These questions should be addressed by the presenter at the end of presentation and have a class discussion. However, post-presentation discussion was soon dominated by the instructor after week three (see chapter 5 for further discussion). Second, each presenter had to watch their recorded presentation at home and write a reflection paper. The purpose was to make students critique on their own performances based on Morita's (2000) table of qualified OAP features (see Appendix B and C). In her words about self-critique assignment, "I arrange this assignment. I just want students to see, to see your fluency or any aspect needed to improve" (interview, 2009/07/14). Generally speaking, these two assignments were designed to make students have reflective thoughts on readings and their performance.

3.2.2 Student participants

All the course takers in ITE1002 agreed to participate in the study. Six first year and two second year students are all female (see Table 3.1 Description of Focal Participants). Unlike previous studies done in North America, focal participants share the same linguistic background and nationality. To add richness to the data, I decided to include second year students and hoped to capture how they interact with first-year peers. This was also a valuable opportunity since first-year students mentioned that it was their first time taking course in the presence of upper-class students. As for second-year students, they are usually treated as more experienced members in academic community. Their experiences of composing PowerPoint presentations, one and a half years so far, for course readings are assumed to supplement data pool with more angles. It is hoped that they can further evaluate the effectiveness of OAPs and reflect back their learning in relation to it.

Table 3.1 Profiles of the Focal students[3]

Student	Age	Undergraduate study/major	English learning experience	Teaching experience	Career prospect
Ann	27 (2nd year)	- at a private university - English	- 13 years Started from junior high school study	- taught at an English school for children	an English teacher at secondary schools
Brook	26 (2nd year)	- at a private university - English	- 13 years Started from grade six	- English tutor - taught at a language school for adults	an English teacher at secondary schools
Courtni	25 (1st year)	- at a national university - English	- 14 years Started from grade four	- English tutor	- an English teacher at secondary schools - or work at a publishing house
Dana	24 (1st year)	- at a national university - English	- 14 years Started from grade six	- English tutor	an English teacher at secondary schools
Erica	24 (1st year)	- at a national institute of technology - applied English	- 12 years Started at 12 years old	- English tutor	- an English teacher at secondary schools - or work at public services
Jami	24 (1st year)	- at a national university of science and technology - English	- 12 years Started at 12 years old	- English tutor	- an English teacher at secondary schools
Monti	25 (1st year)	- at a national university of education - social development	-13 years Started from grade six	- English tutor - English teacher at a primary school (internship)	- an English teacher at primary or secondary schools
Victoria	24 (1st year)	- at a national university - English	- 11 years Started from grade six	- no	- an English teacher at secondary schools

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[3] All student names are pseudonyms.

3.2.3 Teacher Participant

Apart from students, course instructor was also included. Instructor Hsiao is very young and just completed PhD degree from one Taiwanese prestigious university. During the period of data collection, it was her second semester teaching in the institution. Because she offered required course for second-year students last semester, she was quite familiar with their in-class performance. However, even though she did not offer course for first-year students before, information about this group was gained from chatting with other instructors. Their observations indicated that relationship among these 6 first-year students are unusually close, compared to those in previous years. When it comes to course interactions, the instructor "felt very relieved that the seniors took this course," as she phrased it. She believed the second year students can also guide novice ones to participate in her class.

Before the start of spring session, I invited the instructor to share her perceptions and expectations of how good oral presentations are characterized. Fortunately, I received the instructor's approval to participate. At the first class, instructor left 10 minutes for me to officially describe main goals and ways of involvement in the study to all participants. At the same day, I left students with copy of Informed Consent Form (see Appendix D) for their consideration. Signed consent forms were then collected within following few days. Available access to the course includes observations, video taping student presentations, at least one interview with the instructor and collections of all written documents.

3.3 Data collection

Following the tradition of language socialization research, multiple data collection strategies were used to ensure trustworthiness of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1995; Merriam, 1998). It is widely considered the major technique to help researchers

confirm emerging themes and meaning (Merriam, 1998). Accordingly, all data gathered within four months included class observation, interview with students and instructors, video-recording of oral presentations, collection of written documents.

3.3.1 Beginning-of-semester survey

On the first week after class, copies of survey questionnaire (see Appendix E) were handed to all focal participants. Because some of them preferred to type on computers, electric version was e-mailed to all the participants a few days after. The purpose of this survey was to gain information regarding participants' biographical information, education background, teaching experiences, expectations about their graduate studies, perceptions of their roles in the program, course-taking and future career plans. In cases when their responses were needed further explanations, I would clarify their meanings in the first interview.

3.3.2 Interviews and conversations with students

Semi-structured interviews with focal students from February to June 2009 were the primary data source in this study. Average length of each interview lasted from 20 minutes to an hour. Prepared prompts (see sample questions in Appendix F) would be explained to the interviewees before the recordings. Interviews were conducted in Mandarin Chinese; yet, code-switching to English happened very often. Throughout the whole semester, each student was interviewed four times (some were five times due to their tight schedules). Constant conversations were also permitted to be recorded while they shared reflections on course interactions, instructors' comments, content of lectures, and observations on their own and others' oral presentations. Hence, the data pool consisted of over 50 recordings, total in excess of 40 hours of audio-recorded conversations.

First interview was conducted within first three weeks. The purpose was to gain information about their (1) current reflections and concerns on instructor's guidelines/ requirements regarding OAPs, (2) conceptions of OAPs and (3) other courses they are taking and schedule for interviews. The second and third interview then held after each one's presentations. Students were asked to send me their electric PowerPoint files before their in-class presentations. Moreover, to document the process of their PowerPoint composing, focal students were required to save slides in separate files whenever content was re-arranged[4]. While conducting second interview, I would print out all the versions of PowerPoint slides, bring the research article, and ask prepared questions to elicit their preparation processes. Most of the time, the second interview was held in computer lab in case students felt the need to refer to visual images on slides. With the presence of samples, it is suggested to facilitate interviewees discuss in detail a particular piece of work (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Seror, 2009).

Within one to two weeks after the second interview, the third one focused on participants' own evaluations on their presentations. According to course requirement, instructor asked course takers to view their own recorded video and wrote a critique about it. Particular criteria were based on a list of characteristics regarding a good oral academic presentation from Morita's study (2000). Based on their written reflections, I would reconfirm the meanings and elicit their own list of characteristics and perceptions of this task. Last interview was held in the same week of last course meeting. Students were invited to discuss (a) what they have learned from the course, (b) any changes of their perceptions/ conceptions of OAPs and (c) suggestions for course instructors about preferred organization of OAPs.

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[4] During preparation phase, some students may not complete their PowerPoint slides in one time. There are also possibilities students keep modifying the content or adding new information before final display. By saving all the changing in various versions, I would be able to see their composing strategies or even struggles. Section 3.3.5 will still refer to the electric documents.

The prepared open-ended questions were informed by research inquiry and tried to discuss various aspects of students' experiences and feelings. The choice of the semi-structured format enabled flexibility in conversations with interviewees. More emerging questions were based on their responses, developing an "authentic" understanding of each person's perspectives (Silverman, 2003; Kobayashi, 2004). Except scheduled interviews, some interesting insights were gained from daily conversations with focal students. These conversations could take place right before or after the course meetings with one or more students. It was used to compensate my failed attempt to have focal students keep journals in response to my guided questions. Students found any type of written responses extra burden to their already heavy workload. Therefore, we decided to have more talks with their permission of recording sometimes, so I could trace their ongoing reactions and lived experiences in courses.
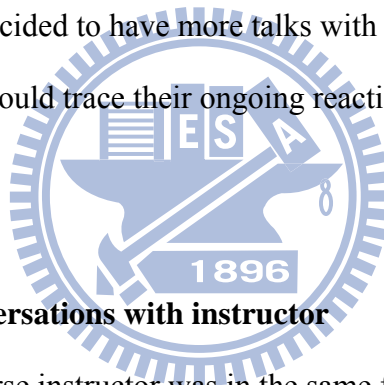
3.3.3 Interviews and conversations with instructor

Interviewing with course instructor was in the same format of that with the focal students. It was semi-structured, informal and audio-recorded. One scheduled interview was held after the course ended. It lasted one and a half hour and was conducted in Mandarin Chinese[5]. Prepared sample questions (see Appendix G) invited the instructor to share (1) perspectives and expectations of what functions and purposes do OAPs fulfill, (2) the rationale for the pre-set requirements for OAPs, (3) evaluative remarks on students' performances, and (4) expectations of focal students' participation in course. The data is valuable because instructor plays important role in students' socialization process (Morita, 2002; Kobayashi, 2004). Her viewpoints

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[5] Excerpts from interviews and written documents were all translated from Chinese to English by the researcher. In cases when some are originally in English would be marked with note [original in English].

provided another angle viewing students' classroom experiences which would be used for data triangulation.

3.3.4 Observation and video-recording of classroom discourse

On an ongoing basis, class observations were another major part of the data pool. To closely document participants' course participation and experiences of OAPs, only observing in one course can not represent what they are dealing with (Morita, 2002). Also revealed from conversations, students were fully aware of their different ways of preparation and participation cross courses. Learning occurs as a "cumulative effects" (Kobayashi, 2004, p 63); what they have picked up from other courses may contribute to current beliefs, attitudes and performances. Therefore, with instructors' permission, I observed two (course ITE1001 and ITE1002) out of three courses taken by all six first-year students. Yet, primary data for analysis was from course ITE1002 which required presentations of research articles. Observations in course ITE1001 would serve as extra sources for interviews, comparisons and triangulation[6]. In all, 18 out of 18 ITE1002 lessons and 7 out of 16 ITE 1001 lessons were observed, which compiled a total of 75 hours observations.

While sitting in courses, I kept written records of course events, procedures and instructor-student interactions on my field note sheet (see Appendix H). I was permitted to record the periods when students were giving presentations. Lights in the front row were always turned off in order for audience to clearly see the content on the PowerPoint slides. The video camera was kept in certain distance from the speaker in order to capture also the projected screen. In such circumstances, quality of the

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[6] Course ITE1001 was a required course for first-year students during the research period. Among 8 student participants, six first-year students were all taking the course. Remaining two second-year students have already taken the course a semester before. Moreover, the two seniors only took ITE1002 when participating in the research, so I was not able to observe them in other courses.

recordings sometimes was poor. Thus, I also utilized software *Camtasia Studio 6.0* to ensure clear oral and visual output – students' voices and PowerPoint display on computer screen. *Camtasia* allows users to record presentations by capturing full-motion screen recordings as well as the speaker's narration though microphone (see Figure 1). Each time when students present, they would attach little microphone onto their collar and press "recording" button. During presentations, I would observe the presenter, display of PowerPoint slides, and rest of the students, including the instructor. Recording files would then be immediately saved in classroom computer whenever it stopped recording.
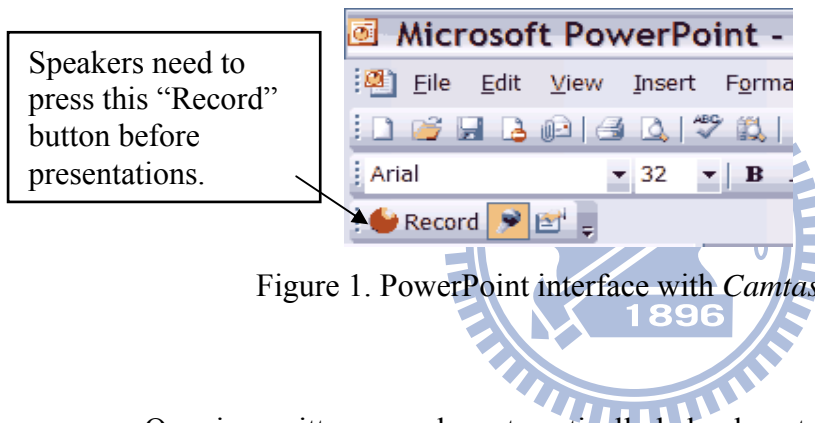

Figure 1. PowerPoint interface with *Camtasia* Add-in

Ongoing written records systematically helped me to trace development of the course and structures of OAPs (Morita, 2002). Collections of impressions, thoughts and emerging hypothesis all turned into themes or questions for further exploration. Recordings, on the other hand, enabled me to capture the dynamic of the situation. It would a primary data set showing the speaker's gestures, interaction with the audience and the use of PowerPoint slides for visual communication.

3.3.5 Collection of relevant documents

Written documents relevant to OAPs were collected whenever possible from students. Course syllabus, for example, provides not only course outline, recommended and required readings but also guidelines for each course task and

assignment. Course handouts from the course instructor and those prepared by students for presentations were also collected. Presenters usually printed out PowerPoint slides in format of handouts – six slides in one page; in such case, other peers can take notes. More relevant documents included students' self-critiques of their presentations, written descriptions about their perceived roles during presentations and final proposal outlines. Among all, one particularly valuable document linked to students' composing processes of PowerPoint slides was the different versions of their electric files. Students were required to separately save PowerPoint slides if they modified the content several times. In doing so, students would be able to explain their reasons for selecting content from written text and slide organization.

Table 3.2 Summarizes the data collection methods and database

Method	Data collection period (entire academic term: March, 2009- June, 2009)	Data
1. Classroom observations	● Ongoing	● Field notes on 25 lessons in two courses (75 hours of observation)
2. Interviews with students	● Interview 1: First two weeks of the semester ● Interview 2: After the presentation (within the same week) ● Interview 3: After student's self-critique report ● Interview 4: End of the term(the final week of classes)	● audio-taped and transcribed interviews ● 33 interviews in total ● Average 40 minutes each
3. Student presentation recordings	● Ongoing	● video-recorded and transcribed OAPs ● **Course ITE1002 (main**

		data set): student presentations (25 minutes × 10 OAPs) ● **Course ITE1001 (supporting data)**: pair-as-a-group presentations (1.5 hour x 6 OAPs)
4. Interviews with instructor	● once with instructor of course ITE1002 after the course finished	● audio-taped and transcribed interview ● one and a half hour
5. Documents	● Ongoing	● Course outlines/ syllabus ● Guidelines for course work ● Handouts for presentations ● Self-critique report on viewing own presentation ● Electronic files of PowerPoint slides (every version during composing processes)
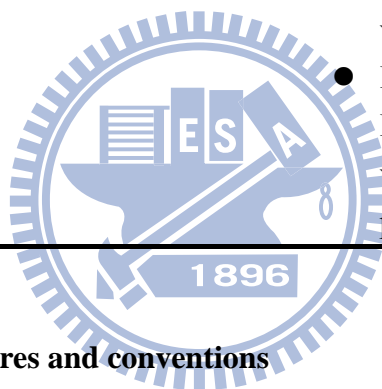
3.4 Transcription procedures and conventions

Large proportion of data pool was audio-recorded. All interviews were transcribed and some relevant sections of oral academic presentations were transcribed as well. Relevant issues to research inquiry from daily conversations with focal students would be adopted and transcribed as source for further analysis. The transcription conventions employed are detailed in Appendix I.

3.5 Data analysis

According to Merriam (1998), "data analysis is a process of making sense out of data" (p.192). Facing considerable amount of the data pool, data management is particularly important in generating findings. I followed suggested principles as in

tradition of qualitative research to grapple with intensive descriptions of more than one case. It was a cyclical and complex process, reviewing back and forth between cases, between raw data and grounded themes, and between descriptions and interpretations. Moreover, the process involved steps to organize, categorize, sort and search the data both within- and cross-cases. As mentioned earlier, the thesis focused on course ITE1002 and 8 course takers' socialization experiences in undertaking oral academic presentations. The observation data from course ITE1001 was used to supplement case descriptions and data triangulation.

First of all, collected data by different methods were kept in different files. Also, I created separate files for each participant, assembling all raw data about the person. Descriptive display of each case and different data set helped move to next analytical level (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This would allow me to develop sense of individual characteristic, perspectives, behavioral patterns and tentative themes. At primary stage, focus was on a case-specific basis (Séror, 2008). Transcribed interviews and recordings were categorized under each individual's name. Each student's responses then called for further triangulation by comparing with field notes from class observations and written documents. I repeatedly reviewed raw data and looked for "recurring regularities" (Patton, 1990). Next, separate case summaries would be created for every focal participant. It was used to identify individual's patterns of belief, preparation and performances involving OAPs and the link between these three to the settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

The next stage moved to cross-case analysis, such as comparisons between instructor's and students' conceptions of OAPs. The process started with "grouping together answers from different people to common questions or analyzing different perspectives on central issues" (Patton, 1990, p.376). I then developed coding categories, trying to recollect main themes and patterns evident from individual case.

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The attempt was to see "processes and outcomes that occur across many cases" and "develop more sophisticated description and more powerful explanations" (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Except indicated by data itself, more theoretical categories were generated by consulting relevant literature (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Morita, 2002). Again, returning back to transcripts and documents, following steps involved sorting every unit of data into which category they belonged.

After coding the data, another major decision concerning how themes would be associated and organized in reports. The conclusion, according to Duff (2008), needed to be "plausible and coherent and well supported by evidence" (p.163). Therefore, patterns and themes were presented accompanied by quotes and examples from documents. Moreover, focal students in part contributed to the credibility of final reports by responding to any misunderstanding occurred concerning my interpretations. It was hoped that this study would draw insightful implications on the role of OAPs in Taiwanese TESOL graduates' socialization processes into disciplinary learning.
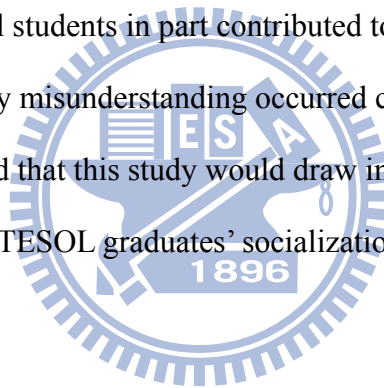
3.6 The researcher and the researched

My relationship with the focal students constitutes a notable feature in this study. We share same linguistic backgrounds, have studied English as our major in undergraduate study, and are now experiencing same academic training in a Taiwan TESOL program. To them, I am not only an insider but a "senior" – *hsueh chieh* in Chinese, whom they resort to when facing concerns about written assignment, final projects and course-taking decisions. We developed a close relationship through daily chit chat. The rapport and friendly interaction are believed to make them more willing and encouraged to express their perspectives.

At the course, I was a participant as observer involving "in the setting's central

activities, assuming responsibilities that advance the group, but without fully committing [myself] to members' values and goals" (Adler and Adler, 1994, p. 380, cited in Merriam, 1998). I did all the course work that focal students were required, including carefully read each presented article. Although full participation was not able to reach, my field experiences would facilitate my understanding of students' explanations for their own rationales or processes of OAP formation. On the other hand, students' awareness of self-learning through giving oral academic presentations might be aroused. As I was informed in the last interview, focal students mentioned that they have never thought about what purposes do OAPs fulfill and how they have improved by giving OAPs. This suggested reciprocal effects that bring changes to both parties (Morita, 2002, 2004).

However, there are also drawbacks of this method. The danger of being a participant as observer is that I may go too "native" into the research group and lose fresh perspectives as observers. In addition, my researcher identity and performance at the class may be strongly identified so that affects the student and instructor participants' practices. According to Merriam (1998), "the question, then, is not whether the process of observing affects what is observed but how the researcher can identify those effects and account for them in interpreting the data" (p. 103). Thus, I acknowledged my primary role as interpreter to the situated learning environment; yet, it shall be noticed that every individual presented themselves unique personal histories and occupied different positions and roles (Morita, 2002).

CHAPTER 4 DEVELOPMENT OF DISCIPLINARY EXPERTISE

RQ1: How do oral academic presentations facilitate the focal students to develop disciplinary expertise in knowledge consumption and dissemination?

In answering research question 1, the results are addressed in terms of knowledge consumption and knowledge dissemination. The chapter ends by summarizing and discussing how giving OAPs socialize students to the practices of knowledge consumption and dissemination.

4.1 knowledge consumption

In terms of knowledge consumption, major findings pertain to the focal students' (a) reading processes and (b) three reading foci of research articles (identify important information, think about the logic, and appreciate the research and the language).

4.1.1 Reading Process: three approaches to texts

Overall speaking, all students expressed having different reading processes opposed to casual reading at times when they do not have to present articles. For example, Monti wrote in her written report, "Before presenting the article, I thought I needed to read in detail and know more than my peers for the reason that I was the presenter" (original in English). To these student presenters, it is the presenters' responsibility to have good comprehension of written texts and display the essence of a research article. As shown from the data, students dig deeper rather than focus on surface level comprehension throughout the reading processes. There were three obvious approaches to written texts which concentrated on three levels of information processing: (1) reading for general picture and underlining important sentences, (2) decoding the text and outlining the structure, and (3) using text as reference.

The first approach was a combination of reading for general pictures and underlining important sentences. Since the subject matter was new to students, they focused on learning the knowledge of the topic. In Courtni's words, "When preparing

for making oral academic presentations, I considered myself as a novice in the academic community" (written report, English in original). She believes that acquiring knowledge of the field study from reading is definitely the priority for novice learners. In addition, student participants marked pieces of information which they might want to show on slides. Ann described, "when I read [for the first time], I may not read in detail. But I will underline; I will highlight the main statement of a paragraph or such as descriptions of participants" (interview, 2009/03/17). Although Monti, Courtni, and Erica, unlike Ann, mentioned they would read carefully right at the very beginning, this initial approach aimed to build up a full view of a study. Meanwhile, highlighted sections were prepared to save time when they came back again.
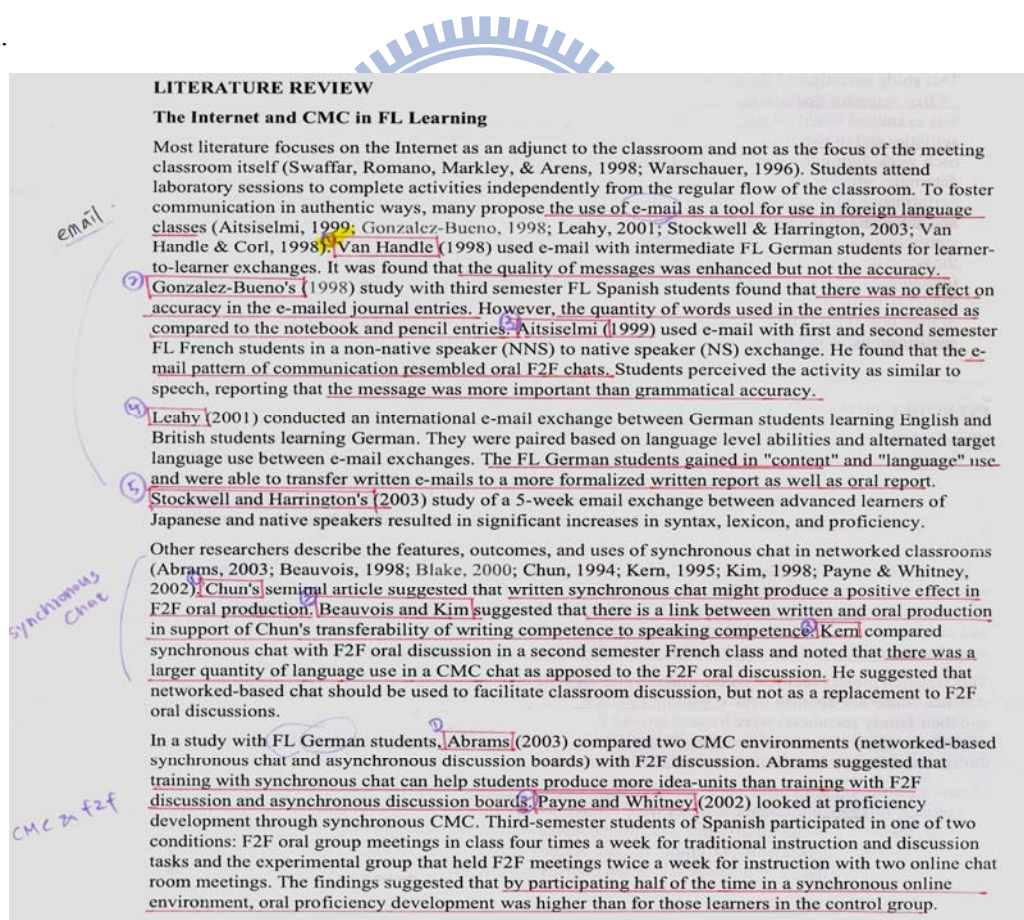

Figure 2. Courtni's notes on the research article

The second approach, digging deeper, was a decoding act. Information was not

only read over; students would write down marginal notes. Usually, only short phrases or terms were used to summarize a whole paragraph. Either in Chinese, English or mix of the two, it suggests that readers started to involve and interact with ideas. As shown from Courtni's notes, she not only wrote marginal notes but decoded the literature review section by numbering cited research under the same issue (see figure 2). By doing so, she made herself to examine what the authors intend to say with the reviewed items. She further elaborated:

> For example, [I know] it is about voice email, but voice email of what? What does it (the section) want to say? What [aspects] does it really wants to investigate? And how? So I read line by line again, trying, for example, to follow the flow of literature review. (interview, 2009/05/14)

Moreover, Courtni, Monti, Erica, Jami and Dana made an outline by listing all the titles and subtitles on a paper. In Figure 3, Monti utilized this clear skeleton to help herself capture the flow of thoughts. She would write down purpose statements to remind herself of the research centrality and niche. This outline format is considered an effective strategy to have a clear view of an article especially when the content was long and complicated.

Finally, the third approach, written texts would be consulted over and over again as a reference source once students started to compose PowerPoint slideshow and rehearse the speech. Instead of carefully reading line by line, they followed previous highlights, marginal notes and outline sheets. Information was processed paragraph by paragraph, aiming to locate which main statements would be shown on slides. Usually, underlined sentences were accessed first, so the consequent reading spread outward to
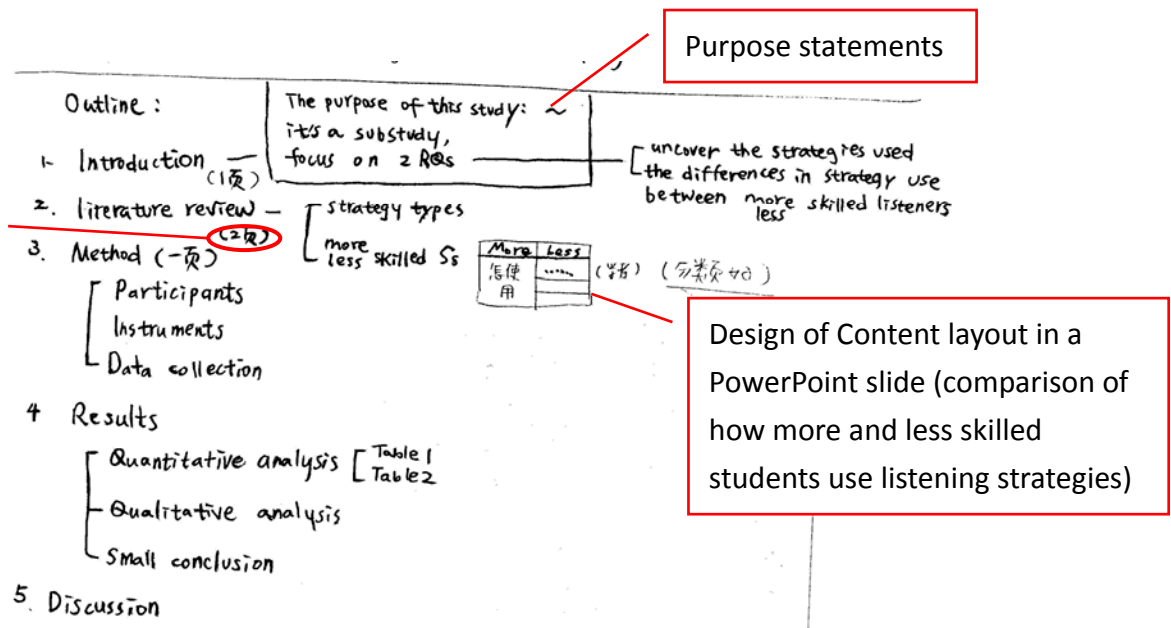
Figure 3. Monti's outline sheet

former and latter co-text. It was also at this stage that students decided which information would be shown on screens or addressed orally. As explained:

Then I will go back to where I underlined, because reading over the whole article again is too time-consuming. My second… after I typed all the headings of the article onto slides, **I would refer to those underlined parts of each heading sections.** When I read over, I would…feel they might be key points. And they may be something I will talk about. (Brook, interview, 2009/03/07)

Then, I would start focusing on each heading. For example, I was talking about "linking words," and then **I went back to the section to see what I underlined about this topic.** I would know what I wanted to say. Finally, I typed the content. (Erica, interview, 2009/03/13)

Usually, I only read once, but I will underline key points. When I start to make PowerPoint slides, **I just have to read again the area near the highlights, planning to key in certain sentences.** (Monti, interview, 2009/03/20)

While these three approaches were recurrent, it should not be mistaken that they stood for the times of reading. Monti claimed that she only read once in detail during her preparation, but her data also displayed the use of these three approaches. Some of

them only read twice. I intentionally focus on students' interaction with written texts rather than the times of their reading, because when they read, they might not read every word from the very beginning. However, there is a combination of these approaches through repetition of reading and analyzing the texts. Brook's comment, perhaps, best reflected the time and effort student presenters invested in the whole reading process, "That's why I said if I present, I will spend a lot of time. If others present, just… whatever" (interview, 2009/03/17).

4.1.2 Three reading foci

4.1.2.1 Information selection

Data suggest that students approach texts multiple times in an attempt to identify important information of research articles. Given the time limit (25- 35 minutes), student presenters manage to display only the essence of research. Two second-year students (Ann and Brook) suggested not spend too much time explaining literature review in detail. This general principle was later observed and applied by first-year students when talking about literature review. They usually left no more than three slides for this section. Ann explained in her self-critique report:

> ***Drawing from my previous experience of listening to others' OAPs, I often felt sleepy because of the presenters' very detailed literature review.*** **Moreover,** *I always thought that the Introduction section mainly serves to provide the important intellectual traditions that guide the study; however, it is not the study itself.* In my OAP, I tried to select the most important things and decided to briefly talk about the 3 main issues which are also separated into sections by the author (see pp.334-336 for more details), and condensed all the information within one PPT slide. [boldface and italic in original]

Except for this shared rule of thumb, students further demonstrated their strategies to locate important information in research. For example, before going through the information-selection process, Monti knew where to assemble basic ideas

of a study– abstract. In her words, "Every sentence in the abstract are main points, aren't they?" (interview, 2009/03/20). She directly typed sentences in abstract, such as purpose statements, descriptions of participants and methods of the study on slides under different section headings. Her strategy was efficient as she explained, "It is very clear…Abstract tells you what the study investigates. [After reading it] I will have an overview of what the research is about."

Abstract, although provides one- or two-sentence synopses of the studies, students still faced a demanding task to digest and condense each section. Talking about introduction sections, Ann reported, "Actually author talked about the background information first. That is, there are too many overseas students and three main issues then are brought up. I followed the subheadings and looked for statements that directly address the issues. In fact, this section talks about this subheading, and that for the next heading. Because three subheadings happened to be questions, I just find answers [in paragraphs]" (interview, 2009/03/17). By searching for statements which directly echo or answer the headings, Ann avoided being overwhelmed by too much information.

In the same section, when theoretical terminologies were introduced, students managed to provide clear explanation of more crucial ones. Erica, for example, pointed out the importance to know certain theoretical concepts so as to stay on path with the study.

> While I read through these three categories A to C, I needed to tell what's the purpose [of mentioning them] and what are the examples of these three. I think this is the most complicated part of the section. Latter part is fine. Here you need to get it clearly, so that you know what the latter [study itself] is talking about. **Because the study is based on these categories to examine those textbooks, they are the main points. The survey is based on the categories, so I feel I need to explain them clearly in advance**. (Erica, interview2009/04/16)

Erica discovered the rationale why authors spent large space reviewing certain literature and terms. After she carefully read through the study, she immediately identified how theoretical framework influenced the data collection and analysis methods.

When deciding which reviewed studies would be addressed in presentations, Courtni explained her choices in the following excerpt:

> Researcher: You chose VanHandle(1998) and Stockwell and Harrington(2003), why?
>
> Courtni: I chose these two because I could understand more clearly what the studies are about.
>
> Researcher: What does it mean that you can understand more clearly?
>
> Courtni: Like…in the written text, the descriptions for this one [VanHandle (1998)]… first sentence tells you what it examined, and then next talks about the results.
>
> Researcher: um..
>
> Courtni: But the others… also clear, but I chose this one maybe because I saw it first. It is the first cited study. Yes, and I chose the second one [Stockwell and Harrington (2003)] because I thought the research was the latest study.

According to Courtni, the choice depended on whether the descriptions of reviewed items are sufficient for her to understand. In addition, the latest work was given more credits and believed to give statements greater authority. This selection criterion was based on her understanding of citations, which was learned from academic writing class.

In a similar sense, students demonstrate their rhetorical knowledge of methods sections and effortlessly identify necessary descriptions of participants, research setting, instruments and data collection procedures. Students expressed that methods section was the easiest part to read and prepare. As reported in Ann's interview, "And the [sections] of study itself, the most important things are: does he [the author] try to

test out any hypothesis? If yes, then that is needed to be shown. As for the content of methodology, it includes, such as participants or the procedure, and methods…pretty much those major information" (interview, 2009/03/17).

The last two sections, results and discussion, were often discussed together. When students were exposed to large amount of findings and commentary, they found it confusing as to which of them were more essential. Therefore, they resorted to discussion section since it synthesizes a series of major "points," which represented what has been learned in the study. Next, students referred back to results section with clearer directions distinguishing major numbers or results. An instance was from Brook's interview. She talked about how this strategy finally solved her problem during preparation for her second OAP:

> This time I was stuck with the result part. Result section in this study has two parts. The first one is ok. The second one is more difficult, because it is a mess. A lot of numbers. **He [author] just described all the numbers and every percentage. Presenting so many percentages is meaningless and he [author] didn't really mention all of them in discussion**. Does it work if I address so many numbers? If I wanna choose, which one do I talk about? …..
> So I forced myself to make decisions. **Then I went back to discussion part to see which findings were mentioned and then picked them out.** (interview, 2009/03/28)

Aforementioned examples were chosen since they exhibited more clearly behind-the-scene processing. There were also cases when students seemed unable to explain how they locate the important messages of a study but simply concluded "it is important." Yet, what data suggest is that students attend to disciplinary knowledge of academic written genre and written discourse in this information-selection practice.

4.1.2.2 Think about the logic

Other than identifying important information, student participants claimed that

they paid attention to the "logic" of research articles. While students could locate important sentences in paragraphs, the demanding task was to connect them in a way that reflects the reasoning of research development. Following excerpts are examples of students' depictions:

> I think this question was not researched before. **Since there was [other] research [foci], I picked out what had been found before**... their findings first. **Then, I presented the development from previous to recent findings**. (Victoria, interview, 2009/04/09)

> **This article talked about distance education. And distance education has two types – with or without face-to-face meeting. This research focuses on no face-to-face meeting, so I put emphasis over this area**. Next, author also mentioned that there was a bunch of research about distance education for foreign language. However, less was about speaking. Thus, this one is about speaking. I therefore bring it out. (Courtni, interview, 2009/05/14)

The above examples suggest that students distinguish the organizational frameworks for structuring information in literature review, including chronological (Victoria's quote) and general-to-specific methods (Courtni's quote). What Courtni described was a general pattern for creating a research space: from general research territory (distance education) to indicating a research centrality (face-to-face meeting). Then, she decided to allocate time addressing more about specific issues. Monti also reflected and told me that "Sometimes, I felt that the author mentioned this [study] at this point prior to that one, he must have his reasons. Ya…right. You should try to see if you can find them or the connections, sort of this thing" (interview, 2009/05/20).

In addition to introduction section, students were also cautious toward the rationale of method design in research. As shown in Figure 4, Monti took great consideration of author's rationale of including qualitative data collection approach in addition to quantitative method. In the article, there was only a small paragraph introducing respective functions of the two approaches. Not judging from space,

Monti put emphasis on the additional information which would be generated from qualitative examination. In her words, "There is only a small space talking about qualitative design, but I assigned one slide for this. Because I felt this shifting process and the reasons why he adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods important. He just..actually, if I didn't mention this, everyone could still understand the results, but I felt this a crucial transition" (interview, 2009/ 03/ 20).
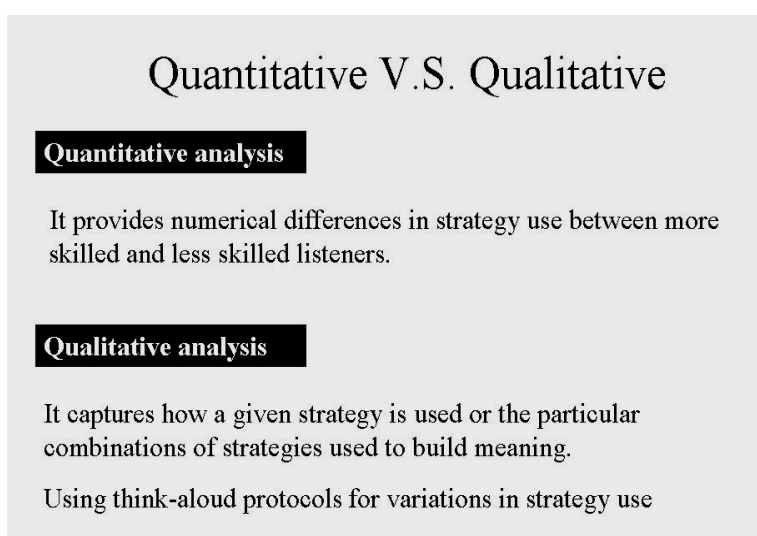

Figure 4. A method slide from Monti's presentation

Similar cases could also be found in Courtni's presentation. She devoted several slides to talk about evaluation criteria for grading students' oral language (from the Appendix of the research). The purpose of carefully introducing grading policy was explained, "I wanted to show them how the grades came from, since the results were affected by this grading criteria. Author mentioned that results were not significant maybe because of the criteria. That's why I think I need to talk about it" (interview, 2009/05/14). Instead of simply showing insignificant findings, Courtni addressed the cause-and-effect relationship between method design and results.

These examples demonstrated how students placed a high value at the whole logical flow within and between sections – what Griffiths (2004) called, "the systematic process of investigation" (p.714). When reflecting on introduction section,

students perceived logic to be presented in moves of written discourse. Also, the causal development between method design and elicited results are particularly highlighted. In my interview with Monti, she remarked why they concerned so much about the logical flow of research: "Professor Hsiao mentioned she wanted us to see how researchers structured an article…the whole structure, sometimes not just the ideas. You need to learn how authors describe the transition or a turn in the course of a flow." (interview, 2009/05/20).

4.1.2.3 Appreciate the research and the language

Given that course activities and task-related assignments aimed to induct students to the practices of doing research, research articles served to be crucial instruction materials. During post-presentation lectures, instructor Hsiao constantly spent time talking about the arguments and theories as well as research ideas and designs. According to the fieldnotes, professor Hsiao introduced functions of pilot study (03/12), features of a good questionnaire (03/05), the use of think aloud method (03/19), big names and important theoretical frameworks of the field study (04/23, 04/30, 05/14, 06/04), principles for writing literature review – "only include related studies" (03/19). Research findings from studies under the same topic were compared and discussed. In addition, she often expressed her opinions and judgments upon articles, including the writing and the research design. Student participants, therefore, realized that reading research papers involve multiple aspects of learning and reflections.

Such instruction raises students' awareness to engage meaningfully in reading processes. Thus, they adjusted their reading attitudes. Erica stated, "Previously, when I read, I just read through it and didn't think too much. Like my former presentations, I just spoke out what I read. But, maybe I didn't really understand what the content

was trying to say. *[…]* The old me only read through. I never discovered any problems. I just took up whatever it gave me. But I won't ask why" (interview, 2009/03/13). Students imitated instructor's guided thinking and observed good qualities of researching from professional members. Courtni asked herself to think about "How literature review was written? What's the logic? How methods were used and then how researchers viewed the results? Why authors know to see data this way?" (interview, 2009/05/14). By doing so, she gave an interesting comparison between meaningful and casual reading. The former helps her knowledge intake from the readings "improved 70 to 80 percent," while the latter only remains in "10 percent."

In addition to learning the research aspects, students were also directed to learn academic language. At class, professor Hsiao shared with the class how she was inspired by some beautifully written sentences. She even brought a small notebook, in which collected all beautiful sentences and phrases during her PhD study, to the class (fieldnote, 2009/04/09). Professor Hisao also encouraged students to prepare one and form the habit of picking up good language examples. To some first-year students, they just started to consciously learn academic language use from research articles. Courtni reported, "About the language, I started to notice it because professor Hsiao often mentioned at class that she saw here and there beautifully written language. I wasn't aware of this part before; I used to focus on the content [knowledge]" (interview, 2009/05/14). Erica also remarked, "Now, when I read, I notice how authors describe the participants. I find those expressions very good. Because my writing seems not like this, not academic-like, I will type and store those good sentences in my computer" (interview, 2009/03/13).

As exemplified in professor Hsiao's lecture, she made students to feel the differences between "pertain to" and "is about" also "is warranted" and "is needed" (fieldnote, 2009/04/09). Academic language use was consciously acquired from

readings so that students would accumulate academic repertoire preferred in written communication. Throughout the whole knowledge consumption processes, student participants not only located important sentences but also valued the organization and logic of how ideas were structured. Students' experiences from this course prompted them to have multifaceted learning from reading research articles.

4.2 Knowledge dissemination

With the use of technology equipment, a PowerPoint presentation is a typical multimodal production because "all modes of meaning realization may be involved: written/ spoken texts, visuals, actions, etc." (Ventola, Shalom & Thompson, 2002, p. 43). Visual effect was suggested to be a "multisemiotic aspects to be studied (e.g., the study of the use of overhead slides or how other visual visuals relate to the language of presentations)" (Ventola, 2008, p.319). According to Ventola (2008), current literature was mostly done exploring the semiotic use *during* OAPs, rather than "the design steps before" (p.319). In this section, I would pinpoint student participants' composing processes and visual outcomes in order to reveal their meaning-realization decisions.

4.2.1 Representations of introduction section

Since a maximum of 15-page slides was the prescribed requirement, students tended to save no more than 4 PowerPoint pages for introduction section. According to their foci during knowledge consumption processes, students generally include: 1) important citations from literature review, 2) clear explanations or definitions to key terminology, and 3) statements of research territory, purposes and niche.

Once the information was selected, presenters began to position those chunks in an order that reflected the organizational frameworks (chronological, thematic or

methodological pattern) used in the review section. For example, Brook and Monti, illustrated the chronological discussion or historical trend of a topic (see Figure 5).

Brook presented a line of research findings about perceptions of listening difficulties. At the bottom of the page, a summary statement about the research findings is presented. In Monti's slide, she reported that she used her understanding of general-to-specific pattern to display selected information. Finally, she remarked, "Because I think it's important, because when you do a research, you must know well the development of its background. Then, an audience, of course, wanna know what previous study did and what else the latter research achieved." (interview, 2009/03/20).
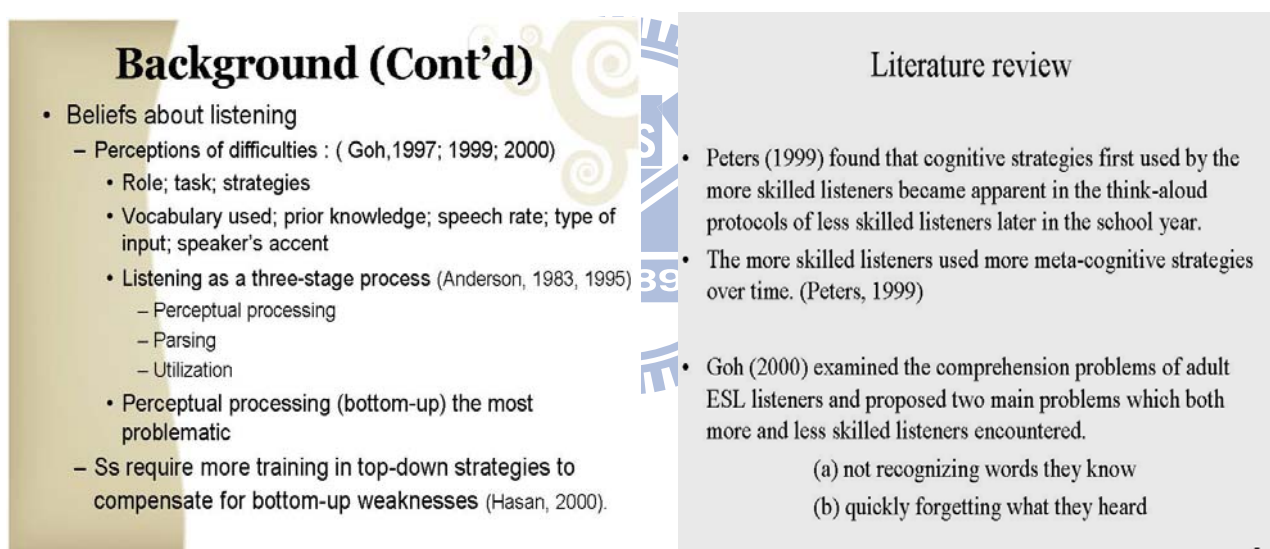

Figure 5. Literature review slides from Brook's (left) and Monti's (right) presentations

When introducing technical terms, students tended to provide concrete examples, instead of pure definition sentences. As shown in Figure 6, Erica's PowerPoint slide can be divided into three clear layers – key terms, definition extracted from written text, and lists of examples. She described her decision after reading, "Because I think that after reading the definition of the 'productive grammatical constructions,' I still didn't know what it is, I need to explain more" (interview, 2009/05/02). Only reading

through definitions was perceived ineffective since Erica, as a presenter, could not understand the term by simply reading through the definitions. Additional examples and explanation to the term would further build up listeners' mental representations of the concept.

Figure 6. Erica's presentation of technical terms

Above all, the clearest way to introduce the centrality of a study lies in lists of research purposes, gaps and research questions. Dana extracted these statements from abstract and put them into one slide right before moving to complicated literature review (Figure 7). She intentionally placed them together since she was afraid that audience might lose focus in several subsections. Another reason was that she experienced great difficulty creating fluent transitions or identifying connections between subsections of the position paper. Therefore, Dana's solution was to "preview" and leave the audience with preconceptions about author's positions as well as aims of the research.

A similar arrangement was also applied in Courtni's presentation, since she maintained negative comments about author's writing. In her words, "When I read the introduction, I felt it was messy. He talked about the background and then mentioned a little bit about this issue and jumped to another issue and also talked a little bit. So I

Figure 7. Statements of gap, purpose, or research nature in Dana's (left) and Courtni's (right) introductory slides

thought I was not going to mention things that are not [closely] related to the topic" (interview, 2009/05/14). To clarify real research territory, she created one slide narrowing down and highlighting the specific context of the current study (see figure 7). Also, this slide appeared as the first page under the heading of introduction. Dana and Courtni skillfully gather lists of niche (purpose, nature of study, research questions, structure of the study) in a slide and its appearance seemed to function as an abstract to inform the viewers of research directions.

As a matter of fact, such slide appeared in all students' presentations but was arranged more frequently at the end of introduction section, reflecting the written moves. Erica explained, "Because I found that so many places mentioned the research purposes in introduction. Also, author wrote research questions right in the first paragraph of introduction. However, I felt it would be weird to present them there (before reviewing literature), so I finished the background then talked about what the researcher wanted to examine, just like common ways in research articles and thesis writings. So I put them here; I felt it was more logical" (interview, 2009/03/13). The appearance of this slide indicates that students may have it to either facilitate speech
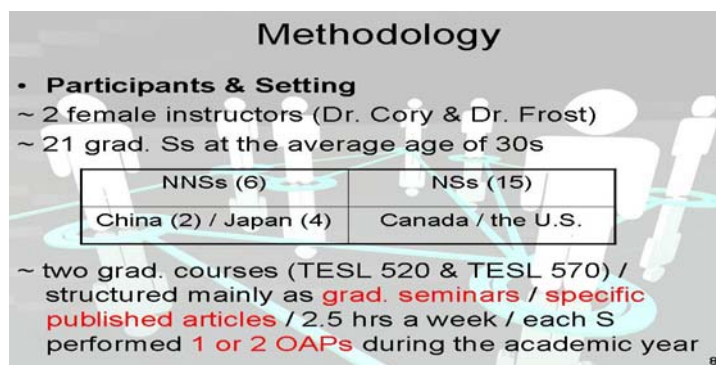
clarity or maintain introduction 'moves' which was conventionalized in academic writing.

4.2.2 Representations of methods section

Content-specific Language

According to Swales and Feak (1994), methods sections contain more variables than other sections in research, particularly in social science. There may be a variety of instruments and materials applied in a study. However, in terms of the writing, students reported that it was easier to read and understand compared to other parts of a research article. Particularly when students present basic elements featured in methods sections, such as participants, contexts and procedures, there is a very simple content display. Ann described, "I usually type this part in point forms and only pick up key words. Method design normally includes, for example, classroom observation, interview or questionnaires. They are very basic techniques and are just some terms. I would simply put key words onto slides and then explained orally" (interview, 2009/03/17). Apparently shown by Figure 8, shorter written text was presented. Ann even created a simple Table to make messages more transparent and organized. Owing to the descriptive written discourse of methods section, students had more confidence in typing only nouns or phrases on PowerPoint slides and relying on their verbal explanations to compress the meanings.
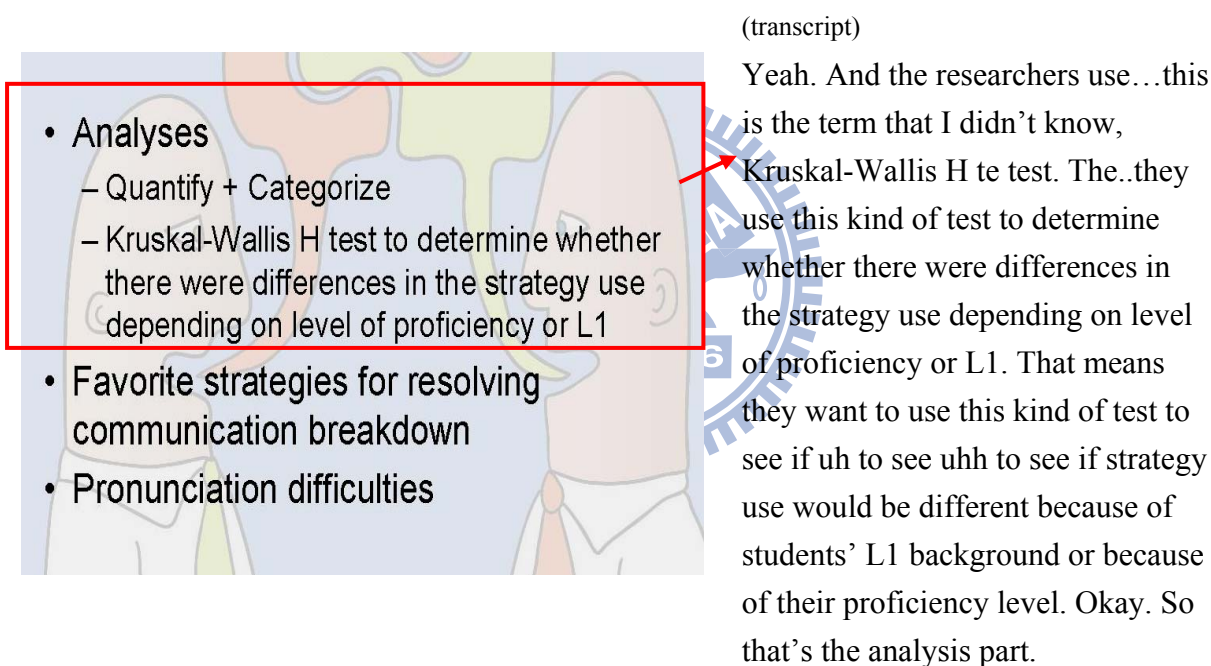
Figure 8. Shorter texts in Ann's methodology slide

Transmitting unfamiliar methodology

The focal students' common challenge with regard to this section lies in statistical analysis. As shown in Brook's second presentation (given in week five), she confessed that she was weak in statistical tools and concepts, but she managed to introduce briefly the functions of the statistical analysis (see Figure 9). After Brook's presentation, instructor complimented the way she introduced the statistics. She encouraged other students to learn how to introduce the use of analytical tool and the meanings of numbers by carefully examining author's descriptions (fieldnote, 2009/03/05).

(transcript)
Yeah. And the researchers use…this is the term that I didn't know, Kruskal-Wallis H te test. The..they use this kind of test to determine whether there were differences in the strategy use depending on level of proficiency or L1. That means they want to use this kind of test to see if uh to see uhh to see if strategy use would be different because of students' L1 background or because of their proficiency level. Okay. So that's the analysis part.

Figure 9. Brook's brief introduction of the statistical analysis

Taking this presentation as a model, instructor Hsiao suggested first year students to imitate senior's display of statistical analysis even if they were unfamiliar with the tools. Thus, this recommended mode was employed by all course takers, and was even utilized to introduce unfamiliar instruments. As shown in Figure 10, Jami created one particular slide to explain corpus research methods. Besides introducing the functions and operations of corpus research, she emphasized that "I think that it is

important for us to know corpus study. [Through this research] we can learn about it and about what information corpus linguistics can bring for us" (interview, 2009/05/06). Therefore, Jami highlighted the value of corpus research by putting the focus text in a green rectangle.
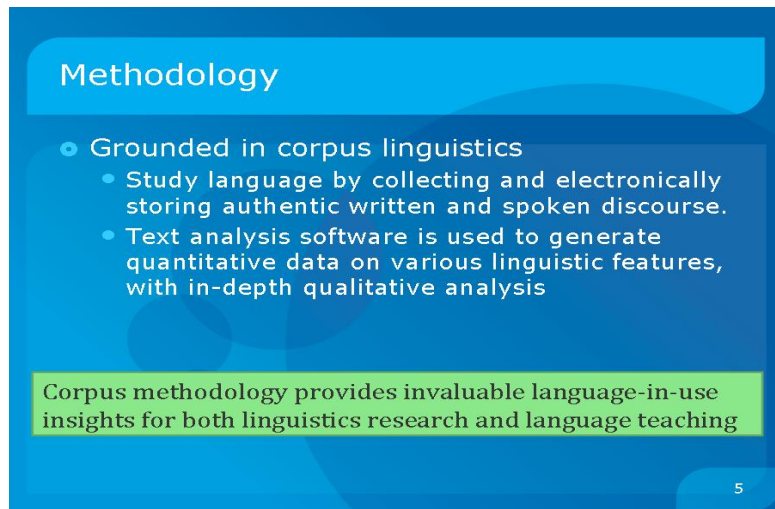
Figure 10. Jami's introduction of corpora study

4.2.3 Representations of results and discussion sections

As mentioned earlier, students locate major research findings by referring to what has been mentioned in the discussion section. Brook then continued to use this strategy to compose her PowerPoint slides. She said, "I would start composing PowerPoint slideshow from the discussion section. You know why? Because it's the easiest part of the whole journal article, the easiest part to understand, at least for me. Author has already synthesized major findings. I've already read the previous sections; I knew well what the paper was about. And, it is short" (interview, 2009/03/07). Her comment was derived from her two-year reading experience in research papers which raised her awareness to the characteristic rhetoric of discussion section. The content was easy to read since she had in mind the research centrality and because it was perceived shorter compared to other sections.

Her impression may not be completely accurate but reflective of how major

findings are systematically reflected and then interpreted, contributing to multiple

summary statements of results and then commentaries. Therefore, student presenters

reported not much difficulty locating summary statements within written texts. Once

the sentences were selected, presenters would enumerate them in bullet points,

followed by further interpretations or discussions of the phenomena, problems,

recommendations or expectations (see Figure 11).

Figure 11. An discussion slide from Brook's second presentation

Although composing PowerPoint slideshow backward was an exceptional

strategy adopted only by Brook, following her order to examine students' discussion

and then result slides not only visualized their careful reading tracks of these two

sections (refer to 4.1.2) but also revealed two illustration approaches to research

results. Findings of qualitative and quantitative research required separate display, in

lieu of mere textual statements in bullet points. With respect to quantitative research

outcomes, student presenters often copied Tables and Figures directly from written

texts in PDF file. As shown in Figure 12, such visual aids created a scientific look and

improved the entire image against text-only layouts. Besides, students could easily

mark major numbers on Tables and supply written statements by using highlighting devices, such as circles, rectangles and callouts.

Monti explained how her design efficiently demonstrated a number-description parallelism. In her words, "I decided to add *p value* to this Table [which is originally presented in another table in the article]. It is more convenient for audience to clearly see the significant difference in these two strategy use between groups]. After this, I would extract and show author's descriptions, so the classmates could understand very clearly" (interview, 2009/05/20).
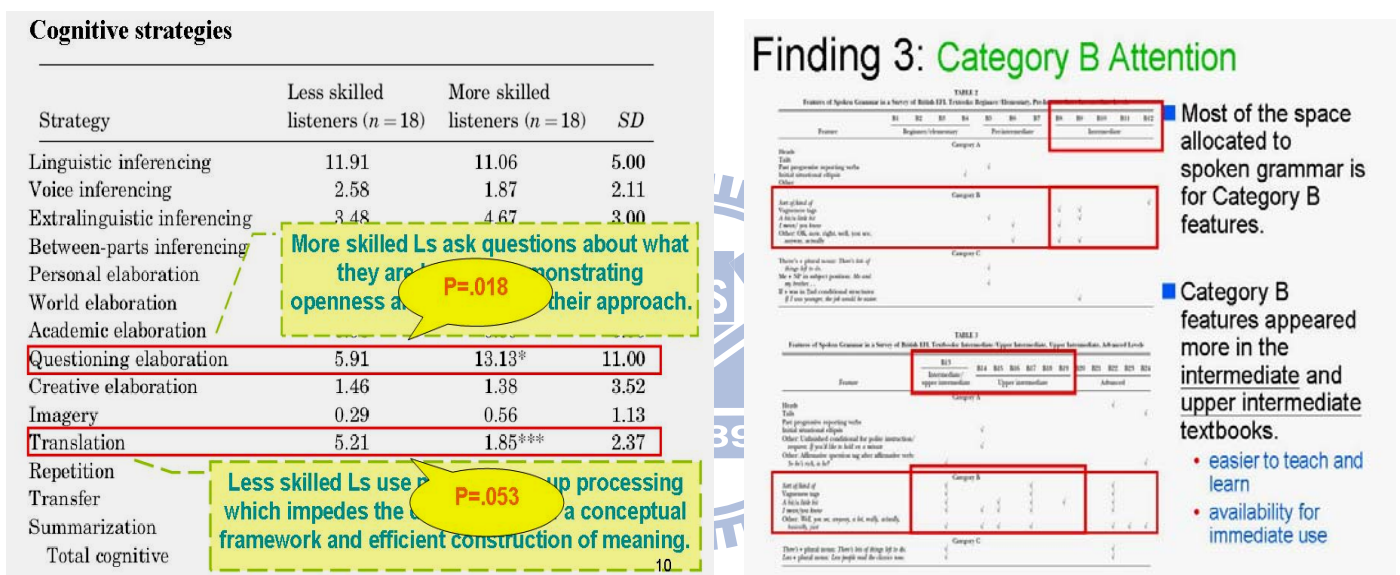
Figure 12. Display of quantitative results in Monti (left) and Erica's (right) presentations

This illustration was basically shared by other focal students. Statements of observations occurred near statistical evidence. Presenters usually added "entrance effect" animation to those statements in callouts or text boxes. After highlighting numbers, texts in callouts then appear on screens. Such pattern is suggested to accord with the written moves in results sections: location statements of numbers first, and then statements of general observations.

With a very different orientation, qualitative research results interweaved descriptions, observations and quotations in order to build up situated conditions. Ann,

while synthesized answers to research questions in bullet points, decided to have audience read through real words from research participants. As shown in Figure 13, she supplied quotations of the participants to the statements of findings by creating hyperlinked pages. Ann mentioned that the use of hyperlink pages was to prevent her OAP from exceeding 15-page limitation (quotation slides were not printed out in her handouts). Also, she reported that the use of quotations was inspired by a keynote speech at a conference in May, and she referred to the display as "very powerful."
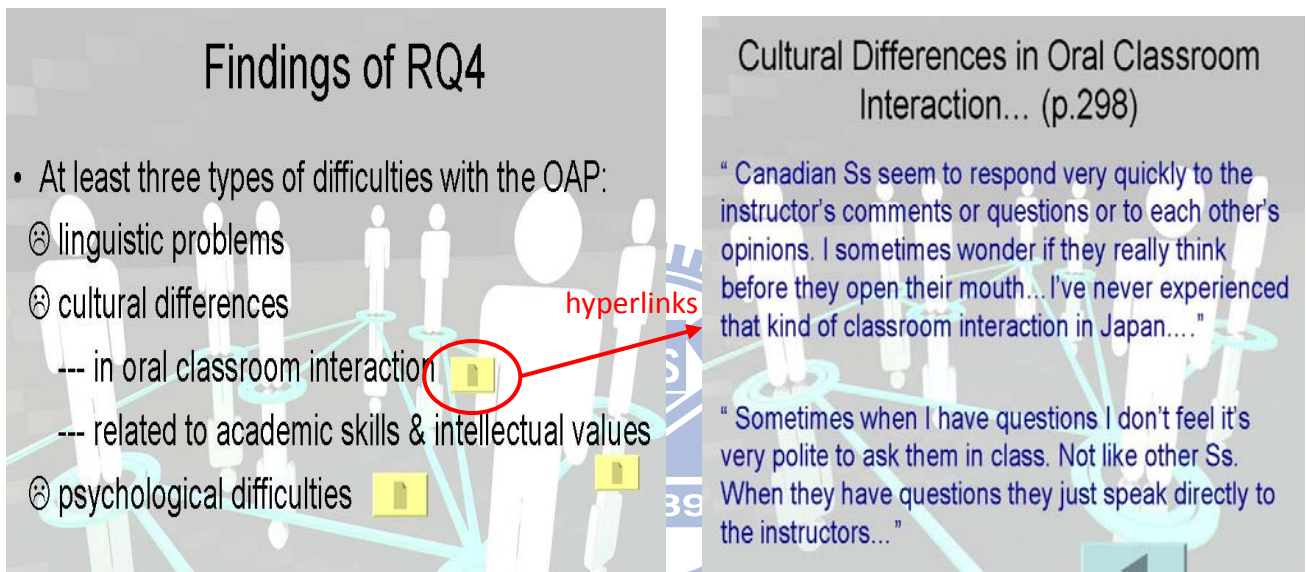
Figure 13. Shows of interview quotes in Ann's presentation of qualitative research

In her words, "I feel that showing quotations are to the point. I suppose that the audience will feel the same when they read through them. Especially those [international] students said that the native Canadians were so dare to raise hands at class but they didn't have the courage to join in. I felt those quotes were so interesting, so this was a good way to show [the audience]" (interview, 2009/03/17). While Ann presented, she even asked several classmates to read those quotes out, resulting in a central focus to the contents (fieldnote, 2009/06/04).

It seems that student presenters incline to show the data, either statistical numbers or interview quotes, rather than just report the findings. Not only statistical

outcomes or real spoken words can draw attention, but through showing them makes an audience understands how data are discussed and interpreted.

4.2.4 The use of visual effect

An analysis of the data revealed that the visual mode is used for two major functions: entertaining and organizational.

Entertaining function

Giving academic presentations in the classroom context, most students not only strived for professionalism but also added an amusing layer to the hard materials. On the one hand, written texts and content arrangement maintain a formal and serious manner. On the other hand, visual decoration shows the presenters' effort to entertain the viewers.

> I purely stood in an audience's shoes to think about my presentations. And I felt...**just didn't want people to feel so bored or going to fall asleep**. That's it. (Brook, interview, 2009/ 03/07)

> I believed background is important. Presenters have to cater to the audience's taste. **Beautiful backgrounds can make presenters feel comfortable about their slideshows and so will the viewers**. **Besides, a good background design will be a plus to a presentation, because it also represents the presenters' hard work in preparation process**. **I think everyone enjoys beautiful things**. (Dana, interview, 2009/03/23).

When taking about background design, Brook suggested that a good background design helps prevent an audience from losing interest. Similarly, Dana believes that since people generally enjoy beautiful things, an audience will be willing to look at beautifully designed screen. Therefore, most student presenters mentioned that they spent time searching for online free templates for educational and teaching purposes. If possible, they even looked for themes related to the topic of the presentation. As is

illustrated in Figure 14, Brook created a background of her own by dimming a graphic

with PhotoImpact software after an unsatisfactory search for speaking-related design.
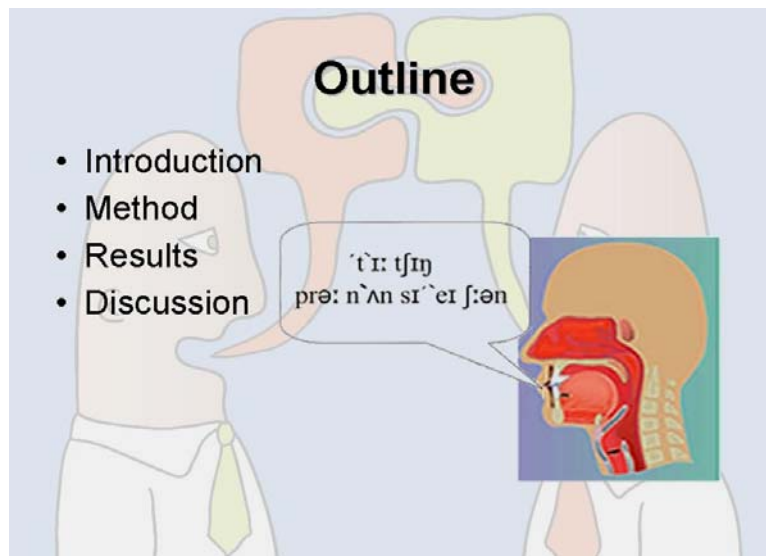
Figure 14. Topic-related and watermarked background design in Brook's 2nd
presentation

In the same slide, there is also a clip-art image of physical articulation. Clipart

images, as shown from the data, basically function to decorate the pages and remains

as personal preferences. Usually, clipart images in students' slides echo the

presentation topics. As can be seen in Figure 15, Courtni used a cartoon computer

clipart to symbolize the type of learning examined in the presented research –

computer-mediated learning.
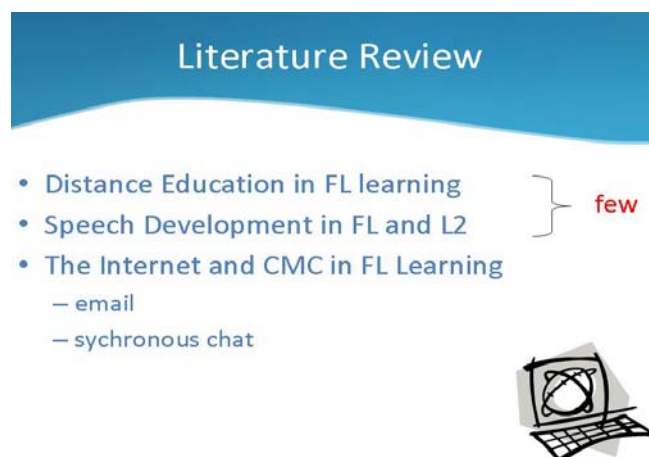
Figure 15. Visual decoration in Courtni's presentation

Through appearance design of PowerPoint slides, student participants managed to generate a "soft" atmosphere on the overall viewing effect. It aimed to flavor monological and text-explosive speech with visual stimulus. In other words, the focal students appeal to emotions of an audience. Unlike engineering students in Tardy's (2005) study, the focal TESOL graduates rarely remained background in single color blue or white. As how students in scientific fields design visual mode in alignment with scientific norms (Tardy, 2005; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002), the focal students' preferences seem to respond to the softer nature of social science. In the classroom environment, the student presenters reported to me that exposure of personal styles through visual decoration was not seriously harmful to the general disciplinary expectations. Instead, they made use of the advantages of visuals to generate delightful listening occasions.

Organizational function

In my interview with the students, they emphasized that they disliked having slides full of written texts in point forms. Thus, they solved the problem by organizing selected written texts into a new realization through the use of visuals. Tables, drawing shapes, and arrows are used to connect broken chunks of information in a way that complement logical relation.

Tables, for example, were suggested effective to illustrate comparison and parallelism. In Dana's slide (see Figure 16), she created a simple Table in order to make the opposite attitudes toward accent held in ESL and EIL contexts stand out. She mentioned in her interview that such design was also driven by her intention to avoid adding more hierarchical information to the first general statement. Also, the visual directed the audience to see the matching contrast in a parallel form which answered audience's anticipation of "a complex aspect." A similar design also occurred in Monti's slide to divide very opposite listening strategies used by more and

less skilled learners (also see Figure 16). Such realization of two contrasting concepts

or ideas can help viewers access a sharp comparison more quickly.

Figure 16. Use of Tables to illustrate contrasting match in Dana's (left) and Monti's (right) presentations

In addition, Tables are sometimes used to categorize and parallel, mostly

appeared in methodology slides. For example, when presenting a complicated data

collection processes and sources, Courtni decided to categorize all information into

Table forms which also provided an overview of relation between items (see Figure

17). Another example in Figure 17 was from Book's presentation. Brook applied the

same strategy transferring rich descriptions of three groups of participants and exams

into a condensed and paralleled introduction. In her presentation, she did not have to

spend much time explaining respective exam for three groups. What she did was a

brief introduction referring to the orientations of three exams without explaining the

details of test contents.

Figure 17. Use of Tables to categorize and parallel information in Courtni's (left) and Brook's (right) presentations

Compared to Tables, PowerPoint drawing shapes (e.g., rectangles, rounded rectangles and callouts) were used in a wider range. Focus texts in drawing shapes are highlighted and segmented among other information, indicating presenters' evaluation of its importance. As illustrated in Figure 18, Erica added further explanations of two summary statements of results. The arrow connected the findings to the 'causes' rectangles, making audience to have a cause-consequence formulation. Moreover, cause statements were isolated from other statements because the discussion of reasons were placed more value.

In Ann's presentation, after reviewing general statements of results, she made the concluding statement in rectangle entered on screen. She explained, "I think this is my personal habit. Sometimes, I use these frames. I like to …sometimes when I talk about the discussion section… For example, authors gave several statements of findings or interpretations of the results and finally a conclusion, I would like to frame the conclusion" (interview, 2009/03/17). This quote shows that she is aware of the

Figure 18. Focus text in drawing shapes from Erica's (left) and Ann's (right) presentation

written flow of discussion section (i.e., from reports, interpretation to a conclusion). Thus, her content layout follows this order and ends with the final remark.

What data suggest is that students do not merely draw on visual effects as "soothing eye candy" (Myers, 2000). Visuals aid presenters to show chunks of ideas in contrasting, paralleled and categorical relation. Though there still remained personal styles and preferences, visual effect has shown to play a favorable role in uplifting the whole look and signaling logical relation between information. Its entertaining function is available for self-expressions, creating a softer and livelier listening environment in the local context, while organizational function reflects the presenters' ways of meaning-making.

4.2.5 Preparation for oral delivery

A PowerPoint presentation is a work of partly reading, paraphrasing and telling more than what was projected, including the transition between ideas and sections. Student presenters reported taking several steps to prepare for a speech. First, they printed out PowerPoint slides in handout format which contains six slides in one page.

Second, students began to write down notes on the paper. Since student presenters needed to ensure how to explain every selected sentence on slides, they referred back to the paragraphs and then grasped authors' expressions and meanings. As Brook described, "I have to know well the whole idea and every sentence which talked about the idea" (interview, 2009/03/07). Third, after finishing note-taking, students started a simulated slideshow presentation.

Because students prevented from preparing a whole script and reading it on stage, multiple times of rehearsing aimed to practice verbal paraphrasing of projected sentences into more straightforward expressions and explaining them with more information from unshown part of written text. From step two to three, student presenters accessed notes several times until, not every word but at least, key nominal groups were remembered. If having difficulties in transitions between ideas or sentences, they might need to refer to articles again. In my interview with Dana, she remarked that she frequently searched for authors' use of transitional devices between ideas so that she would know how to address the connection and the flow.

Although ideas were understood and certain groups of words were memorized, student presenters still encountered a great challenge concerning, what Courtni said, "how would you structure everything in head and speak it out in English" (interview, 2009/05/26). To solve the problem, student presenters sometimes relied heavily on the written texts to explain the content. It was perceived a safe way to maintain accuracy of word choices and meanings. For example, Brook described, "If explaining those bullet points, I will use words mostly from articles" (interview, 2009/03/28). She believed that sticking to the phrasing of articles can support oral accuracy. Erica agreed with the idea since she worried that if only interpreting with own words, there might be inaccurate translation caused by her limited English command or incorrect understandings. Rarely when presenters seemed unable to be clear, as the last resort

they might code-switch to Chinese. It happened in Ann's and Brook's presentations.

They explained to me in the interview afterward:

> Some ideas are just very hard to explain, especially the…the idea mentioned in
> the article…that we can simultaneously be a relative expert or maybe a novice
> and then something about expertise and novice interaction. This kind of stuff is
> so difficult to explain. You go read that part again. **The author writes very well,**
> **but I don't know how to talk about it**. (Ann, interview, 2009/03/31)
>
> **One reason is that I was unable to explain in English. Or, perhaps, I felt**
> **even if I explained, the audience couldn't understand what I was talking**
> **about**. *[…]* Also, maybe because I was nervous on stage and thought I couldn't
> spend too much time on that point. Therefore, I simply used Chinese. That would
> be quicker. (Brook, interview, 2009/03/07)

At the time when trying to explain a complicated idea, both of them were stuck

in a middle stage of processing the input and translating the ideas into easier

expressions. Particularly, the language structures of written discourse are of heavy use

of passive and extraposition with long and complex noun groups (Rowley-Jolivet &

Thomas, 2005), so students faced difficulties making them into straightforward

sentences. Monti echoed and summarized her self-critique report by saying "it is a big

challenge for me to express my thoughts clearly in the target language while

simultaneously trying to convey complex ideas. Although I have majored in English

teaching department, I still have found that my limited English proficiency caused my

speech chaotic."

In Casanave's (1992) study, a similar challenge was also discovered and

discussed. It was suggested that students learned new concepts introduced in

"specialized language," so they felt uncertain finding everyday terms or expressions

to talk about them without sacrificing originality. Accordingly, the focal students

rehearsed several times to practice verbal expressions by combining memorized word

units from written texts with some of their own words.

4.3 Discussion

Drawing on language socialization and CoP perspectives, this study uses oral academic presentations as a starting point to examine the learning opportunities available for the students by engaging in this routine task. Data suggest that the instructor is the major socialization agent. She chooses and coordinates reading and presenting of research articles, the two central activities that initiate students into the research world. Such curriculum design, to use Griffiths' (2004) words, is "research-oriented teaching" which puts great emphasis on inducting students to "understanding the process by which knowledge is produced in the field as on learning the codified knowledge that has been achieved" (p.722). OAPs do not merely train students' delivery skills or organization of what they have read, but also expand their repertoire about knowledge consumption and dissemination and production in the field. Particularly, the instructor exercises her influence over the focus of published papers that students read. The primary way is through post-presentation lectures. Instructor guides students to re-examine authors' arguments and reasoning, to think about the rationale of research methodology, and to learn the techniques of writing a good academic paper.

Students perceive such instruction as general guidelines to follow when reading research, so they can "talk reading and writing" in their OAPs (Heath, 1985, cited in Blanton, 1994, p.226). The focal students specifically emphasized the necessity to identify the logical flow and important statements. As the data have shown, the students evaluated the reviewed items from previous research in introductions, delineated literature review written in chronological or thematic ways, scrutinized data collection and analysis methods, and synthesized major findings and their

discussions. It seems that because students consciously attend to the techniques experts use to structure ideas, they are socialized to the rhetoric conventions of academic writing. For instance, these students expressed that the introduction, which contains intricacies, is a complicated section, while the methods section is written in relatively simple descriptive statements. Students learn to talk about the study; they are simultaneously inducted to the conventionalized written communication in research article.

From Reading to presenting, what student presenters transmit in an OAP is "a selective representation of the research world and research activity" (Thompaon, 2002, p. 147). The focal students' presentations confirm with Tardy's (2005) remark that PowerPoint slides are constructed in response to the disciplinary discourse. Data suggest that students' discursive choices, more prose-like text or shorter phrases and nominalizations, reflect the rhetorical difference in sections of research articles. Also, they stick to IMRD pattern, CARS model and section moves into substance of the presentation slides. Even though presenters did not use the term "moves" but "logical flow" when taking about their content layouts, their presentations basically follow the superstructure arrangement typical of research papers. By doing so, student presenters believe what they have summarized was a valid and 'academic' depiction. Furthermore, in order to emphasize the scientific nature of the materials, students placed a high value on displaying quantitative or qualitative evidence, namely, statistical numbers and interview quotes.

At the same time when presenters transmit factual information to an audience, other co-present modes, taken together, may involve in conveying the meaning (Kress, 2000; Myers, 2000; Tardy, 2005). Especially with the use of PowerPoint software, presenters make decisions about "which mode to use for representing which aspects of meaning" (Kress, 2000, p.339). In the current study, there are multiple cases which

students make use of tables and shapes to transform line-by-line bullet points into a new sense, meeting purposes of demonstrating comparison, parallelism or categorization. The use of drawing tools aims to meet a rhetorical need, especially to create a logical connection between selected information. In addition, Data indicate that students develop a sense of viewers' visual fatigue when seeing only verbal texts in point forms. Focus text displayed in tables or shapes is perceived a strategy to break the visual habit and bring in "fresh air" to text organization. By doing so, presenters demonstrate their ability to synthesize and re-organize the content.

Interesting to note, the visual mode not only complements the connections between information but also appeals to interpersonal emotions. Students rely on the 'social' function of delightful background templates and clipart decoration to please both themselves and the audience. Still, as most of their slide backgrounds suggest, students believe that predesigned template, instead of a "plain black-on-white default design" which is frequently used in science fields (Tardy, 2005, p.327), can speak more vividly the nature of 'social' science. It seems that the student presenters include overall visual effect a means to maintain an audience's interest level and attentiveness. To build up our understanding of the roles of visual as to please and decorate or to complement and realize written language accordingly (Royce, 2002), results of the present study suggest that it plays multiple roles as attention getter, eye soother and organizer.

As for the verbal mode, the focal students experience a great difficulty. Data indicate that student presenters rely heavily on the language usage and phrasing of the written texts in speeches, and it is taken to help maintain the formality and accuracy. A major reason may attribute to the difficulty paraphrasing the written words into more straightforward expressions. In giving OAPs, students mostly identify the task a rightful opportunity to assimilate the linguistic conventions of prints. As what

Scribner (1997, cited in Kobayashi, 2003, p.356) notes, "language itself becomes an object upon which [the students] work, not merely an instrumentality through which [the students] work to gain other (non-language) ends" (p.166).

Through engaging in a series of reading, analyzing, evaluating, information selecting, reorganizing and meaning-making practices, students are introduced to "the intellectual activities of a discipline" (Herrington, 1985, p.97), the mastery of content knowledge as well as to disciplinary discourse and rhetorical conventions. The instructor inducts these learners to acquire not only the skills but also the valued interactions with knowledge. Because presenters carry with them the responsibility to "facilitate the listeners' efforts to construct an internal representation of the content" (Heino, Tervonen& Tommola, 2002, p.128), student presenters aim to walk the audience through the lines of reasoning and research flow. The holistic understanding of task-preparatory processes and task performances suggests that OAP is a rich context for academic discourse socialization.
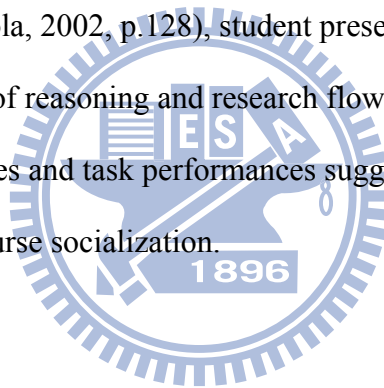
CHAPTER 5 NEGOTIATION OF IDENTITY AND PARTICIPATION

RQ2: How do the focal students negotiate their identities and participation in giving oral academic presentations?

Results of RQ2 indicate that how the focal students develop new professional selves in the academic context will influence which participation roles, modes and stance they adopt when engaging in the community practice – namely, OAPs. In this chapter, students' perceptions of their current identities will be discussed first, followed by a specific focus on their negotiation of participation in doing OAPs. The chapter ends by summarizing major issues concerning focal students' identity adaptation and its relation to their performances.

5.1 Graduate students, junior researchers or language learners?

Conflicting perspectives on identity construction occurred when novice learners met a junior professor who just completed her PhD degree and seemed set a high standard to these student participants. An analysis of students' interview data suggests that the focal students recognize the new learning culture as a socialization to be "graduate students." However, instructor Hsiao expected them not only to be students but to recognize and develop the role as researchers. She was also concerned that these students engaged in many academic tasks as language learners instead of thinking as researchers. What the findings indicate is an obvious mismatch between how the instructor and the focal students define graduates and the purpose of graduate training.

Being graduate students

Comparing to previous learning histories, almost every student mentioned the need to alter learning attitudes in graduate study. Jami particularly distinguished a shift, "You become a, like a more independent learner. *[…]* In university, teachers didn't…maybe because of too many students, there were usually exams. Here, I feel

myself carry greater responsibility since you need to demonstrate, such as final projects, something to show people" (interview, 2009/03/11). Similar comments and perspectives, that their life in the TESOL program contributed to this major theme, were expressed by all the students.

With this role, Erica argued that an advanced level of thinking and more responsive participation at class were necessary. From her viewpoint, "I feel the need to think deeper. The previous learning style was: teachers teach and you absorb. Now, you need to give something out and to think. At university, teachers said something and you were like 'ok.ok.' You didn't think why" (interview, 2009/03/13). She also emphasized in the interview that, unlike in undergraduate classes, there are fewer students in courses and instructors always expect students to respond in graduate classes. Such classroom interaction was a big challenge to some of the students since they used to remain silent. In other words, their voices were required to be developed by partly dominating the course sequence. To conclude the concept of "thinking like a graduate student," Jami referred it to "developing critical and reflective ideas" and "multifaceted considerations of information" (interview, 2009/03/11).

Becoming junior researchers?

The word for "graduate student" in Mandarin is 研究生 (ýan jioù sheng); "ýan jioù", which corresponds to "graduate," actually means "research" in Mandarin. Yet, this title seems lost in translation as to how students define themselves. While students are socialized to a new learning style, thinking mode and participation level in courses, such adaptations are recognized as requirements in order to fulfill the degree rather than as developing new professional selves in academia. For instance, Monti referred to final projects in every course – mini studies or research proposals – as nothing different from general reports frequently assigned in undergraduate study. She said, "No. [I don't feel like a researcher.] Not really different from what I did at

university, I still just hand in reports to the teachers at the end of a semester" (interview, 2009/03/20). Even if final research papers are crucial opportunities for novice students to experience the processes of research and knowledge production, there is no clear transformation regarding how the students develop a researcher identity in graduate study.

Data suggest that the focal students hardly acknowledged that research-related learning and participation made them "junior members" of the academia, let alone "junior researchers." In my interview with Dana, Erica and Monti, all of them shared the same perspective, maintaining that they haven't reached the level as researchers yet. Dana continued to say, "I've just begun to explore everything now. Those mini studies we did were only for final assignments but not something I meant to research" (interview, 2009/03/23). At this phase, the focal students mainly viewed themselves as novices with a great need to absorb content knowledge instead of taking a leap to generate knowledge. Even though the two second-year students, Ann and Brook, had already begun conducting their thesis research, they did not agree that they had the competence or the spirit to be called researchers. Ann said she might be a "pioneer" on her own thesis topic, but she was definitely not a researcher in the field since she was still "new and inexperienced," also "not productive as professors and not interested in researching" (interview, 2009/03/17).

The idea of novelty prevents students from moving toward more central participations and roles since they are right at the stage of establishing expertise in order to live up to the academic standards. Therefore, focusing on considerable knowledge consumption activities was the priority for these students. Their "professional self-images" reflect how they position themselves in the very periphery of the community, due to lack of disciplinary knowledge and researching abilities (Casanave, 1995).

Continuing language learner roles

While the focal students engaged in a wide range of academic practices, they frequently took academic tasks as opportunities to advance their English ability. Two major reasons can be identified from student participants' reports.

First, after participating in academic practices, students reflected that their English ability was not good enough to meet the academic standards, particularly academic writing and speaking. They reported decreased confidence in their English proficiency in academia which led to a re-emergence of language-learner status and goals. For instance, on the part of giving OAPs, Monti expressed that she needed to improve her oral English, especially intonation and pronunciation, because speaking ability is needed in places such as graduate courses and conferences. Also, fluency was identified by all participants as a major element to communicate competence. Dana believed that a presentation could not be graded without paying attention to language delivery. In her words, "the audience will judge you. Do you have an accent? Is it fluent? How is your accuracy? Because everyone is in this field, if you stumble throughout the speech, even if you have very good research, people may still deduct some points" (interview, 2009/03/23). In other words, English ability, to a great extent, speaks for one's professional performance and how membership is communicated. Students sense a high standard of English command awaited to be fulfilled in order to engage in academic practices. Therefore, what is positive about giving OAPs on a routine basis is that presentations are occasions for the students to practice English. Understandably, the expectations and goals which were attached to OAPs by the students are particularly meaningful to them.

Second, the focal students placed a high value on mastering academic English because they associate the training beneficial to their future profession as English teachers. In general, graduate training with great amount of writing, speaking and

reading tasks is perceived practical to English improvement. Particularly, OAPs made

student participants digest the reading materials and talk about key issues in an

organized manner. According to Brook and Jami's descriptions, this process will be

similar to what secondary English teachers do at English classes in Taiwan. Therefore,

giving OAPs were reported to cultivate their organization skills, speaking skills, and

even stage manner. Because of this connection, students also engaged in varying

academic activities with an attempt to advance their overall English level.

In terms of the three roles, graduate students, junior researcher and language

learners, Professor Hsiao shared with me her observations of the focal students'

mindset and her comments:

> **Actually, forcing these graduates to do research is cruel, because,
> "academically," they are not ready.** They are pitiful. **Basically, they do not
> want to do research, but they are forced to do a lot of things they dislike.**
> That's why I see so many immature productions. It is not necessarily students'
> problems but partly owing to the system or the policy. In addition, **our graduate
> students are very homogeneous** in terms of their academic backgrounds, age,
> and professional backgrounds.
>
> **Graduate study is mainly for generating knowledge not only for consuming
> knowledge**. That's why I made students read the Chinese speech transcript at the
> first class. But, generating knowledge requires great motivation and competence.
> My expectation is of a high level, but I know that I can't have such expectation
> of graduate students. **I expect them to be researchers rather than language
> learners. Students just got in here and have to transform from language
> learners to language teachers and language researchers. This
> transformation seems not function well**. *[… …]* The students position
> themselves…**they still think that they are babies and they are language
> learners**, because, couple months ago, they might still look up electronic
> dictionaries for new vocabulary in assigned readings. Suddenly, they jumped in
> and then felt very lost. (interview, 2009/07/14)

The instructor pointed out that these students do not recognize their central

academic practices as to generate knowledge or ideas because of their unstable

identity transformation (from language learners to researchers) and insecurity resulted

from multiple socialization. The above mentioned phenomena in this section includes,

what Golde (1998) called, "the preparatory socialization into a profession" and

"learning the realities of life as a graduate student" (p.3). In addition to these two

socialization, instructor Hsiao emphasized that these EFL learners even struggled to

survive the "academic language socialization." Data indicate that multiple

socialization gives rise to multiple learning goals and roles. The focal students were

adjusting their participation behaviors and attitudes toward the promoted learning

culture in graduate study. Also, they took on active roles determining their learning

foci in academic tasks. However, when facing the imposed identity as junior

researchers, students tended to question their competence to adopt such stance and

voice which they have not yet established.

5.2 Negotiation in giving OAPs

Comparing the course instructor's perspectives with that of students', there was a

notable mismatch with regard to presenters' roles and voice. On the part of what

instructor Hsiao expected, besides reinforcing organization skills and language

proficiency, all the pre- and post-presentation activities were designed to encourage

more critical opinions about the research articles. In her words, "I actually hoped for

them to learn [more than just] practical skills. As apprentices, you need to have some

thoughts about the research. To have some feelings, no matter positive or negative.

[To think about] why you don't like it. It's about training your logic" (interview,

2009/07/14). To reach this goal, students were expected to develop critical voices. She

continued, "So I expected them to reflect on, for example, first, does it make sense at

all; second, what's the contribution of the study; and third, if I will do an extended

research, what can and can't I do? I hoped them to be research learners. I hoped them to be research apprentices."

However, on the part of the student presenters' perspectives, two categories can be identified from their written reports to account of a presenter's role. The first, and also the most frequently reported, role was as communicator of the essence of research articles. Students referred to presenters as "summarizers", "information transmitters", or "information providers." These terms all indicated that "the job of giving class presentations is to summarize the study and deliver the summary to audience clearly" (Courtni, self-critique report). Original text was digested and reorganized in a more concise manner.

Very rarely did student participants recognize themselves as "relative experts," except for Brook and Courtni. Both of them indicated that this second role, "relative experts," entailed having reliable control of reading comprehension as well as an ability to clarify any possible confusion about the text, either during or after presentations:

> **The only expert of the study would be the researcher himself, but I call it "relative" because** *I probably understand the whole study better than my fellow classmates***.** (…Being assigned to a particular article, however, I need to make sure that I at least am quite **familiar to the topic as well as the study**, which means that I have to know what I'm about to say next and the meanings thereof. **Sometimes I would also look up additional information** (e.g., definition of certain terms) as supplement for the material when needed) **this** *altogether would probably further reinforce my epistemic stance, as I would seem to exhibit my familiarity and knowledge towards the given topic.*(Brook, written report) [italic in original text, boldface added]

> During presentations, my classmates may have questions for me. **Because I spent more time reading and analyzing the assigned article, I had more confidence in answering questions. Under the circumstances, I considered myself as an expert**. (Courtni, written report)

It is important to note that the term was used to indicate their understanding of the article relative to the audience's understanding but not as a display of personal expertise of the topic. Unfortunately, no matter which role students reported in giving an OAP, they seemed failed neither to go beyond the content nor to voice their critique of research which was anticipated by the instructor.

The instructor Hsiao could sense students' general attitude. She felt it very challenging to make students either critical readers or developing the role. Consequently, she felt tense and decided to dominate the post-presentation discussions and turned them into lecturers. In her words, "I sometimes feel like playing a one-man show. Also, I don't know where to work on first. Then, I become hurried and spoke a lot at classes" (interview, 2009/07/14). She seemed having difficulty making students to mount individual critique, so requiring students to write self-critique assignments by evaluating their own OAPs with a list of good qualities in Morita's (2000) study was intended to make students think out of the box. In my interview with the instructor, she emphasized that many features, such as critique, reference, immediacy and epistemic stance, were important elements to employ so that students can gradually develop their own voices.

In response to the instructor's objectives, student participants claimed that those features were too ideal to apply in the local context. Ann commented, "Those [features] are unrealistic, even though there was guidance. However, as a graduate student, I think it is too hard. How can you communicate with literature? How do you make personal links to the topic? I believe it requires superb skills. It is not that easy" (interview, 2009/06/18). Even though students recalled that professional presenters in conferences always went beyond the texts and related issues to life experiences, these impressive speeches were far exceeding their competence level. There was a suggested dichotomy between experts and themselves. Perhaps, Brook's opinion best

summarizes how student participants view the local contexts they constructed: "The context [in Morita's study] just not fits, because ours are just class presentations. It is not very academic and not very professional" (interview, 2009/03/28).

Data suggest that this general self-belittling mindset is closely related to their self-perceived identity and status; also, it is a reason why the focal students take a resistance stance to address personal critique of research articles in presentations. As graduate students, they tended to absorb information instead of judging the published words. Moreover, with a consideration of their current state of knowledge, student participants feel diffident to make public comments on research papers:

> I just don't know… **When I read, I seldom question the content if there is any flaw. I just digest and reorganize what the author wrote, and then present**. **Not until the teacher talked about something inappropriate did I feel surprised to notice it**. I didn't have particular feeling while I read the paper. When the teacher pointed out something, then I noticed that. (Victoria, interview, 2009/04/09)

> **I am not professional enough** that…even if sometimes I have doubts or I feel something weird, **I don't think I can find proof. I don't dare to question. Maybe, it is because my reading is not enough**. *[… …]* **I always feel that published work, since it is published, didn't have any big flaw**. (Victoria, interview, 2009/04/23)

> **I am so lacking theoretical knowledge and foundations**. When I try to explain, I just can't use theories to interpret the data….**They will just be a bunch of vague opinions**. (Monti, interview, 2009/06/22)

The first quote from Victoria also revealed that her experience of reading used to remain passive. Compared to these students' past approaches to knowledge (referred to as a "reproductive approach to learning" in many Asian education systems), the TESOL training required them to make a radical transition to the "ultimately speculative approach" of the Western experience (Ballad and Clanchy, 1990, cited in

Morita, 2000, p.33). Therefore, students felt confused and frustrated throughout this adjustment phase. Monti remarked, "I like the teacher to be very critical. She is full of ideas. I felt myself…I felt I am trying to be critical already, but teacher still said 'you are misled.'" Some student participants mentioned that their interpretations sometimes turned out to be inaccurate according to instructor's further clarification. It was also suggested that they were not clear about the concept of critique since they were lack of the experience. Under the circumstances, it was even deemed risky to convey not solid or theory-based evaluation of published works.

To sum up, both the instructor and the focal students experienced difficulties. instructor Hsiao found no effective means to make students develop critical voice. As for the students, they would rather summarize and transmit knowledge than communicate individual comments about research papers. Such resistance reaction is found to reflect their current state of identity, their limited knowledge of the field and their uncertainty about critique.

5.3 Students' perceptions of the OAP culture

As mentioned in the last chapter, focal students can gain disciplinary knowledge through giving OAPs; however, their questions about certain aspects of OAP training deserve some discussion. According to the students, there was a shared question about the rationale of assigning oral presentation activity a routine for every course meeting. Students' first impressions were of OAPs as a way for teachers to save time as they neither had to prepare for another course activities nor lecture for three whole hours:

> I felt…during my first year of study, I took a course taught by professor Wang. At that time, **I felt [student] presentations were basically what the teacher used to occupy course hours, so that she could just sit at one side of the room**…I felt this particularly in that course, because in that course I felt…because teacher seldom gave responses. She seemed not to talk so much. (Ann, interview, 2009/03/17)

The teachers' intention is: **they want to shirk [the duty of instruction]**. **Second**, teachers maybe want to **train us how to grasp the main points and the abilities to reorganize ideas**. Yes. Then the third is they hope we, at least the presenters, need to **know the article very well**. (Dana, interview, 2009/03/23)

To simplify matters. (laugh) Is it possible that teachers give lectures every time? It is tiring. Of course this is one major reason. **Just to save troubles, so they ask people to present**. On the other hand, **it also trains our stage manner and English**, **because we will become teachers and we will have to present**. But, to save troubles is supposed to be everyone's OS (off-screen voice). (Jami, interview, 2009/06/18)

Ann held a more positive attitude if the instructor provided feedback or further clarification – what Dana called, "the action of instructing" – about the presentations. Otherwise, she tended to question the intention of assigning OAPs for every class. After a second thought in the same interview, she continued and stated the importance of presentation skills for successful conference presentations and oral defenses. Similarly, Dana voiced her question but recognized two other goals for doing OAPs (grasp main ideas and being familiar with the article). As for Jami, other than questioning the real reason of OAPs, she also specified that students can practice oral proficiency and stage manner in order to function in their future careers as teachers.

It appears that the focal students do not maintain completely negative attitude toward doing OAPs, since they still identify several positive functions of the task and its connection with their career goals. However, data indicate that students felt exhausted and searched for a reason why there was no alternative other than presentations "for every course meeting." Unfortunately, in most students' reflections, great amount of OAPs seemed to make them feel "numb" about their growth. What was left to the student participants was physical and mental fatigue:

"sometimes, I really feel so tired. Actually, it is also tiring to listen [to speeches] and it takes lots of effort and time to prepare for a presentation. **I will have to be on stage for the following one and a half month consecutively. I really feel like crying**" (Erica, interview, 2009/03/13).

"**Not for me. [Doing presentations don't help me to learn.]** Because we presented too many times in a semester, I...because I usually had one to two presentations a week for so many weeks, **I get numb and…nothing special. It is just the way it i**s" (Monti, interview, 2009/06/18).

But toward the end of semester, you just feel…that was too much. Also, there are only six of us and you feel…**actually, there is no need to have so many [presentations]. Just..focus on quality but not quantity**. If I present, if this time I present badly, isn't it gonna dent my confidence? I will feel myself…maybe I am not good enough…and make me feel sad if I give a poor presentation. Therefore, **I think teachers should calculate the… we also need time for [preparing] something else. The training should include more dimensions**. (Jami, interview, 2009/03/11)

Because 6 first-year students took three TESOL courses, each of them had more than 10 presentations in total for the semester– in course ITE1000 that I did not observe, each student had to present six times since 6 course takers were assigned to cover over 25 journal papers. This great amount of OAPs decreased students' self-perceived improvement. Moreover, the sense of numbness and repeated routine wore out students' anticipation to grow out of doing OAPs. When asked about how OAPs facilitate their learning, most students, like Monti, reported no particular idea. It may also explain why Jami calls for a diverse or multidimensional training. Dana shared the same perspectives and commented, "No, I don't think they should keep students presenting and presenting all the time. What do we get?" (interview, 2009/03/23). Her question, perhaps, represents students' complaint about instructors' fixed course sequences and insensitiveness to students' learning loads and needs.

Also, Dana's question ("What do we get?") implied that students were in a

relatively powerless position. They suppressed their doubts and expectations for an adjustment of OAP nature. As a matter of fact, the focal students did keep to themselves suggestions for instructor Hsiao and also other instructors. First, most of them argued the need to have post-presentation discussions. Especially, Ann complained about little time spent on addressing questions posted by classmates onto the bulletin board. She said, "If you know teacher won't read them or not take it seriously and don't discuss it, I will think – what's the meaning? Besides, I feel teachers should value everyone's questions or ideas, even though those ideas teacher might consider ridiculous. You should respect. Otherwise, all of us feel frustrated and wonder if teacher thinks our posts are stupid." (interview, 2009/03/17). Other classmates agreed with the idea of having group or whole class discussions so that they would have courage to bring up questions. Discussion sessions were believed to have positive effect on mutual learning from each other's reflections or thoughts.

Second, students asked for all instructors' evaluation feedback on their OAP performance (e.g., summary of the content, presentation delivery, layout of slides). Jami and Monti stressed that teachers' perspectives will lead students to focus on more advanced level of understanding rather than surface meaning of the text. Comparing to her competence, Monti maintained that "Teachers read articles with different vision and roles, and we just read in our [student] roles. It is possible that you think your logic is clear enough but teachers don't view the same way. It could happen. Like a beautiful mistake (*laugh*). So I hope they can give me feedback right away" (interview, 2009/06/12).

Last, abased on their viewing and self-critique assignments, students suggested all instructors communicate expected features of OAPs at the first course meeting. The assignment seemed unable to make students understand the qualities promoted by the instructor, nor did they experience positive effects of taking Morita's Table (2000)

on examination of their OAPs. Brook commented after finishing the report, "I basically don't feel anything…I just finished the assignment and still that's it. I mean, no big help. You found you didn't incorporate certain features, but it is still tough to make it for the next time" (interview, 2009/ 03/28). Courtni, therefore, recommended teachers to give a brief introduction of the criteria at the beginning of the course. However, to Monti, verbal explanation made no apparent differences from their own reading of the tables. To require a more effective way, she stated, "I think teachers themselves should present a research article for us. Because I heard from a student in Linguistic program that it is always their teachers do the presentations, it is our teachers' turn to show us in some other days. Why I always have to…you set such high standards for me to reach, but you never demonstrate. Then [I wonder] how high can you get?" (interview, 2009/06/18).

    These three major suggestions manifest the focal students' preferred participation mode and learning needs. They felt uncomfortable to openly express personal comments of articles, so they preferred group discussions. Student participants placed high value on the time for discussing their, even if immature, questions. Also, they anticipated receiving instructors' feedbacks on the contents of their presentations; otherwise, they might question the meanings of OAPs if they just returned to their seats once speeches were finished. Foremost, students recurrently stated that they needed to see model presentations from the instructors so that they can directly understand what teachers expect. Even though these ideas were never explicitly communicated at classes, students had their thoughts about the OAP culture in the local context. Their messages call for attention to the imbalanced and fixed training focus as well as the overall outcomes due to routine practices.

5.4 Discussion

The findings concerning the issue of identity show that student participants were experiencing multiple socialization into the disciplinary community. It involves socialization into the role of graduate students. As shown in this chapter, students recognize a fundamental change from their historical passive learning style to self-responsible study and reflective interaction with knowledge. Focal students are aware that they can not behave according to previous learning norms when they engage in such western-oriented reading and writing modes (Morita, 2002). Like what Golde (1998) notes, graduate students are promoted to undertake four important tasks: (1) intellectual mastery, (2) learning about the realities of life as a graduate student, (3) learning about the profession, and (4) integrating oneself into the department. Among these social practices, they embed a layer of socialization as novice operating within a new learning culture (Zappa-Hollman, 2001, 2007).

Beyond these socialization tasks, academic language socialization was reported to be the most immediate challenge that these students experienced as newcomers to the TESOL discipline. As members in a community which focuses on researching and practicing English teaching, a shared viewpoint of student participants is that developing a high-level English command is essential for negotiating competence and membership. It was not easy because academic language forms itself a unique rhetorical conventions and plays a role as a medium and a communicative tool "for analytical and reflective thoughts" (Casanave, 1992, p.155). Moreover, the situation is where professors are not at the position correcting or teaching academic English at graduate courses, so students frequently construct classroom activities as vehicles to improve their language. Accordingly, multiple socialization tasks take place in parallel; students are squeezed to strive for both language advance and readiness for the discipline culture.

Socialization is accompanied with development of roles and status into the value system (Wenger, 1998). During this period for establishing new professional selves, data indicate that identity negotiation is unstable and in constant struggle. Generally, students perceive themselves graduate students in a pressing need to learn subject matter. Also, because they attempt to equip themselves with the communicative competence, they maintain roles as academic English learners in various classroom activities. Even though the instructor designs assignments and activities to induct students to the research world and knowledge production practices, the focal students hardly move up to a researcher position. At this point, combined deficiency of limited knowledge and language control contribute to a peripheral social standing. Student participants "enter at the bottom of the hierarchy" (Kuwahara, 2008, p.188) and feel anxious about personal inability to perform to academic standards. Remaining what they used to do as students – acquire knowledge and keep improving language ability – is preferred and much familiar to accomplish.

What data suggest is that students choose to perform who they are instead of adopting "a voice which they do not yet own" (Ivanič, 1998, cited in Costley, 2008, p.84). According to Morita (2002), she makes an appeal of "situated identity" to explain the phenomena as constructed by learners' "past identities (roles they had played in their previous academic contexts) as well as future identities in their target or "imagined" communities (e.g., professional communities in which they hoped to participate in the future" (p. 184; also see Norton, 2001). Drawing on this perspective, it explains why the focal students make varying level of investment in their identity adaptation. When they enter the academia, they show desire to raise the level of their language proficiency, because they connect language ability to representation of competence and membership in both academic and their "imagined" community – future teaching job market (English teachers at secondary schools). These students

weigh the importance of being academic language learners against being researchers, which reflects how students see themselves as "temporary [visitors] to the academic community" (Morita, 2002, p.128). Their learning goal is not focused on gaining fuller membership in the academic world but on developing knowledge and skills beneficial for future career. Consequently, the focal students have been "selective" about their identity adaptation.

Data also suggest that identity negotiation and participation are "closely interconnected and mutually constitutive" (Morita, 2002, p.183; see also Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The identity perceived by student themselves shapes their participation and behaviors, in this case, realized through oral academic presentations. In knowledge consumption processes, what students did was "comprehending when they are actually doing no more than decoding" (Blanton, 1998, p.231). It resulted in a condensed version of the written texts in their presentations without presenters' own thoughts and reflections to bear on the content. As a matter of fact, they considered several qualities for developing personal voice not necessary, too ideal or presumptuous for them as novice graduates. Results unfold students' shared self-belittling mindset and clear dichotomy between themselves versus professional roles (e.g., instructors, doctoral students, well-known researchers). Such identity construction gives rise to a resistance stance to argue critical opinions in public.

However, the instructor's expectations and intentions of every OAP-related task were in a sharp contrast with those of the students. She anticipated "the behaviors of 'talking' to texts" (Blanton, 1998, p.227) by commenting on the positive and negative sides of research. She aimed to push students to be able to, as academic readers and speakers, talk about the study with mixture of voices from author researchers and themselves (Blanton, 1998; Myers, 2000). According to professor Hsiao, the outcome was not satisfactory. In the end-of-the-semester interview, she also ssummarized the

inherent reason preventing students from taking a further step:

> What I tried to work on was to help students develop their own voices, but it was very hard. **Having individual voice is difficult to reach because their identities are still shaking**. *[… …]* **Students reported that some features from Morita's study couldn't apply to their OAPs. It shows these students' mindset. They are uncertain about their socialization. They think they don't have to reach to that level**. *[… …]* That's the common attitude shared by the students. Actually, it is not to say that the students are not earnest. Since they have no idea of what to do, they just let it be like that. Finally, everyone is like cans produced from the same factory. (interview, 2009/07/14)

Rather than assuming that students in this study simply refuse to develop critical voices, the underlying messages behind these students' resistance also associated with other issues except for shaky identity. First, they have not received adequate instructions about critique of a research article. According to their learning history, students were told to demonstrate critical thinking skills only if teachers asked them to. Most of the time, they tended to absorb whatever the readings say. It was the teachers to "tell" learners further inferences and extended discussions beyond the text itself. When this practice is expected from students, it causes a dramatic shift in "cultural approaches to knowledge, education, and the whole enterprise of assessment" (Ballad & Clanchy, 1991, p.34, cited in Morita, 2002).

Second, sometimes the problem is concerned with giving public comments. Compared to solid and theory-based interpretations, simply addressing personal opinions is regarded "not academic," "childish," or "not objective." Not only do students worry that their responses may sound immature or subjective but also do they feel powerless to "criticize" or evaluate openly the published words of specialists. To some students, printed sources which have been through careful reviewing, revising and editing processes speak on behalf of truth and authority. Although previous studies (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999; Zappa-Hollman, 2001), which recruited

learners from Asian countries, remark that cultural orientation may make Asian students think that challenging the authorities is a negative posture, the current study finds the reluctance related to multiple facets, including their self-perceived status, incompetence, inexperience and relative powerlessness in front of prints.

In this regard, the findings confirm that discourse socialization is not a one-way assimilation but a complex negotiation of personal motif, identity and participation (Duff, 2008; Duff & Hornberger, 2008; Morita, 2000, 2002; Morita& Kobayashi, 2008; Séror, 2008). Students may bring with them different meanings, against those of instructors', to engage in academic tasks. Facing the roles and requirements imposed on them, students may not merely refuse to adjust, nor do they perform a rigid reproduction of experts' expectations. In the current study, without a preferred channel to express themselves through group discussions, students turned silent and retrieved back to pure "information transmitters." Toward the end of the semester, what left for students was the impression of excessive decoding-rehearsing-and-transmitting chain with not much sense. Results shed lights on the need of the instructors to include dialogic communication with students concerning mutual expectations and difficulties.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Conclusion and pedagogical implication

The present study examines how eight Taiwanese TESOL graduate students are socialized to discipline culture and expected disciplinary expertise through giving oral academic presentations in a routine base. By triangulating multiple data sources, the study generates a comprehensive understanding about learners' discursive, linguistic as well as social adaptation to practices in situated community. It is found that OAPs function to not only force students know well the materials but also adopt an analytical focus on knowledge. Students are generally introduced to the values promoted in the local context when interacting with written texts. In order to be able to present a research in an organized way, they pay attention to logical progression, written discourse and rhetoric conventions of an academic prose. It appears that the whole preparation process is a test of comprehensibility, "selective explicit" (decide where to address more and where to take short cuts) (Casanave, 1992, p154) and organization of speakers' display of information. In addition, through engaging in such language-mediated activity, learners attend to the academic language use for written and spoken communication.

While students try to establish competence and membership in the academia, they also communicate personal agency to decide the level of investment in their learning. Students pay attention to learning disciplinary discourse since it is perceived necessary in order to participate in multiple social practices during graduate study, especially thesis writing and academic presentations. In terms of the language, students share the belief that master of academic language – a kind that requires more advanced level of lexicon, complexity and logical connections, will enhance their qualification and access in future profession. It appears that students' participation is shaped by personal roles and goals. Such expectations that students bring to the

community may not match, or sufficiently meet, those of the community. It seems that socializing students to the discourse and language conventions is much smoothly functioning, while making students to take on empowered identity (e.g., junior researcher, critic) and voice in graduate-level learning is something uneasy to promote, particularly when students only aim to fulfill the degree and probably will leave the academic world for good.

Data also indicate that focal students are intimidated to develop their voices, partly owing to peripheral status in academic ranks. Blanton (1998) maintains that "empowerlessness results from students never having opportunities to bring their own views and experiences to bear on texts" (p.231). Course activities thus should avoid reducing classroom exchanges to mere identification of the conventions, forms and language use. It is suggested that instructors could incorporate into their course instructions the following:

1. Provide explicit guidelines for the type of critique-related responses expected for in-class presentations. Since students attributed the difficulty of judging a publish text to limited content knowledge, instructors may need to give some guiding questions for them to evaluate the prints. For example: "Does the summary of the current knowledge provided?" "Is the theoretical framework evident in the (1) research purpose, questions and/or hypotheses, (2) selection of measures or instruments, (3) in the discussion of the results?" "Do research questions and hypothesis flow logically from the purpose of the study?" "Are there potential biases in the sampling method? Are they identified?"

2. Model and inform students how and why to incorporate certain features, such as critique, epistemic stance, relevance, and immediacy, in OAPs. The

connection of specific aspects of training and its meaning in the discipline need to be clearly introduced.

3. Incorporate varying task-related activities and assign different roles of students in the process of instruction – this aims to guide students to experience different aspects of learning (Prior, 1994). The focal students prefer to express personal opinions in whole-class discussions, rather than simply giving personal comments at the front of the classroom. Instructors may need to establish different forums to invite sharing and collaborative learning. For example, electronic bulletin board can also be used for extended discussions outside classroom contexts.

4. Treat OAPs not merely as product for evaluation but part of apprentice opportunity to the research ethos and practices (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999). Instructors are suggested to give feedback on students' OAP performance. It will raise speakers' awareness about the amount of detail for coverage, the transition devices and continuity of ideas and expressions.

6.2 Limitations of the study

This study aims to provide rich and profound understandings of eight EFL students' academic socialization experiences. Qualitative case study method is particularly applied to gather emic perspectives. Small number of participant population, though, foregrounds their unique learning experiences in local context, the findings cannot be extrapolating to other cases without considering the differences in place, culture and learners' historical learning backgrounds. Also, the focal students' transformation can be more clearly identified if prolonging the research period. In the findings, there might be more variables and facets not well covered from data sources due to my selective skills, subjectivity and personal interpretations of the results.

Particularly, being a participant as observer, there is possibility that I may lose fresh perspective as a pure observer. My presence and participation in the course might also be identified by my participants and, to some extent, turned them into observers and had impacts on their behaviors.

The participants I was able to recruit were all female young adults, who continue master study within two years after undergraduate study. The issue of gender is unknown to what extent influences how they construct the learning practices in the classroom community (Ochs, 1993). To the researcher's experiences and speculation, the gender image is particularly projected in ways how they design PowerPoint content layout. Tardy (2005) also discovers that students' display of information on slides unfolds the sense of individuality they sustain. Therefore, it is great possibility that male students may have quite different behaviors in response to technologies or contextual factors.

6.3 Directions for future research

This study intends to enrich the discussion of academic socialization by portraying a new experience outside English-speaking contexts. Previous research has shown some discoveries in terms of international students studying in Canada or America. However, there is still a great amount of learners choosing to study in domestic programs. Students choose to study abroad or in their host country may share different goals, tendency, and considerations (e.g., financial issue). It is suggested to investigate EFL learners of various nations continuing TESOL study within their local settings. Braine (2002) also mentions the limited investigation focusing on NNS graduate students in Asia where "they are able to use their L1 for research and communication with their teacher and peers, and yet must read and write

in English" (p.66). A potential line of research will be systematic investigation of EFL learners' academic development.

During the process of researching, more inspirations are generated. First, other populations also deserver investigation. For example, the instructor in the current research provided insightful observations of these students' socialization processes. She also plays decisive roles directing learners' participation in the academic world. It may be insightful to have systematic evaluation of instructors' reflections and interactions with graduate learners. Moreover, Taiwanese students in science disciplines who are also encouraged to present in English at conferences usually receive limited hour of instructions of oral academic presentations. It is unknown what strategies and resources (e.g., advisors, upper class students, discussion with peers, previous samples, or simply transfer the written to the oral discourse) they use to complete the task and other related tasks involving English use.

Second, students in different level of schooling may project different learning mindset when facing academic socialization. Research should be careful with learners' personal motif together with their investment in their learning. Undergraduate, graduate and doctoral students differ not only in their life experiences, learning trajectories but also in desired level of engagement in the academic community. A future line of research can investigate and compare specific needs or expectations of these three distinctive groups.

Finally, student in-class presentations of research articles and book chapters is not the only pervasive routine course work adopted in TESOL programs. Other academic activities, such as final study, teaching demonstrations, study group, and online discussion forums are fertile territories merit close attention. Drawing on CoP and language socialization frameworks, these academic practices can be taken as unit of analysis to examine voices of both the learners and the instructors. Much can be

studied in this domain, including learners' perceptions and expectations, their

difficulties and strategies in response to these practices, and students' negotiation of

linguistic, social and cultural adjustment.

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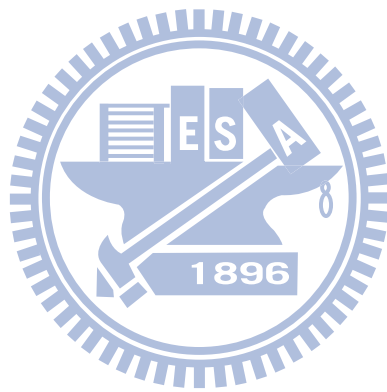
APPENDICES

Appendix A: Table of Presentation Schedule

Date	Topic	Presenters
Week 1 (2/26)	Introduction	(None)
Week 2 (3/5)	**Listening comprehension** (Field, 2004; Graham, 2006)	Lu (dropped the course at week 3) Brook
Week 3 (3/12)	**Academic listening** (Littlemore, 2001; Morell, 2004)	Ann Researcher
Week 4 (3/19)	**Listening strategy** (Vandergrift, 2003; Graham et al., 2008)	Monti Victoria
Week 5 (3/26)	**Pronunciation** (Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Derwing & Munro; 2005)	Brook Dana
Week 6 (4/2)	No class	
Week 7 (4/9)	**Textbook evaluation**	All students
Week 8 (4/16)	**Textbook evaluation**	All students
Week 9 (4/23)	**Assessment** (Dlaska & Krekeler, 2008; Leung & Mohan, 2004)	Not assigned Victoria
Week 10 (4/30)	**Spoken corpora** (Camiciottoli, 2004; Cullen & Kuo, 2007)	Jami Erica
Week 11 (5.7)	A invited speech from Dr. Chen	
Week 12 (5.14)	**CALL in L&S** (Guichon & McLornan, 2008; Volle, 2005)	Lin (an audit student) Courtni
Week 13 (5.21)	Dr. Howard Chen's speech	
Week 14 (5.28)	No class	
Week 15 (6.4)	**Oral academic presentation** (Morita, 2000; Zappa-Hollman, 2007)	Ann Researcher
Week 16 (6.11)	in-class peer-editing & wrap-up	None
Week 17 (6.18)	term-project presentation	Every student
Week 18 (6.25)	term-project presentation continued	Every student

**Appendix B: Key Features of Good OAPs from Morita's (2000) Study**

Feature	Description
Summary	• Provide a concise summary that covers only the main points or identifies key issues of the article. • Avoid a long summary that discusses too many details or information already known to the audience.
Critique	• Provide a thoughtful critique of the article that brings new insights. • Critique the article from a number of perspectives. • Discuss both strengths and weaknesses of the article.
Implications	• Discuss pedagogical and research implications of the article for other relevant issues or situations (i.e., go beyond the article to, e.g., discuss applications of a theory to concrete language learning situations)
Relevance	• Make personal links to the topic when appropriate (e.g., provide personal anecdotes). • Relate the topic to the audience members' experiences, needs, and situations.
Epistemic stance	• Communicate one's epistemic stance (e.g., show credibility as a relative expert, communicate one's strong interest in the topic, seek solidarity as a novice).
Emotional engagement	• Communicate one's emotional engagement (e.g., show enthusiasm, communicate one's feelings or strong opinions about something, use humor).
Novelty	• Communicate a sense of novelty (e.g., provide new information, use a different format, use support items).
Immediacy	• Communicate a sense of immediacy (e.g., discuss urgency of an issue, relate the article to immediate contexts).
Conflict/tension	• Communicate a sense of conflict, debate, or dilemma, and stimulate audience members intellectually.
Support items	• Use relevant and effective support items (e.g., handouts, visual aids, video clips, newspaper articles, a passage from a novel).

Audience involvement	• Provide discussion questions that make audience members think and encourage their participation in discussions. • Invite audience members' input by taking an interactive approach. • Maintain the audience's interest (cognitive involvement). • Be perceptive of the audience's reaction (e.g., continually assess the interest level of the audience, try to involve members in discussions).
Delivery	• Use an effective delivery (e.g., maintain eye contact with the audience; use appropriate gestures, rate of speech, and volume; avoid speaking in a monotone).
Time management	• Be conscious of time and allocate appropriate time to each subpart (i.e., summary, critique, discussion). • Be flexible in the case of an unexpected time change or limitation (e.g., focus on the most important points if time is limited).

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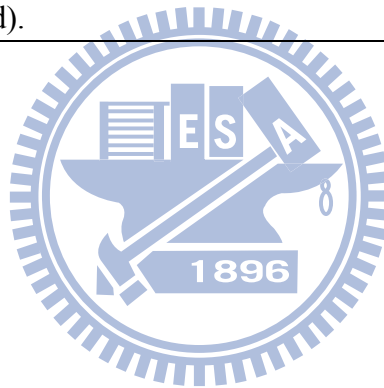
Course: Second Language Listening and Speaking: Theory and Practice

Name: Courtni

Date: May 18, 2009

Critique of Oral Presentation

Presentation Date: May 14, 2009

Title of Presentation: Analyzing Oral Skills in Voice E-Mail and Online Interviews

Critique:

1. Summary

I think I did well in summarizing the whole study. In the research article, Volle delivered her study in detail. She used a long page to talk about method and results in this study. When presenting this part, I chose some main points which were significant and relevant to the discussion part in the study. I think it is good to use tables and figures to present the data directly. Therefore, I put tables and figures in my presentation. In general, I provided a concise summary that covers some main points of the research article.

2. Critique

I did not provide a thoughtful critique of the study in my presentation. The reason I did not critique the study was because in my perception, the job of giving class presentations is to summarize the study and deliver the summary to audience clearly. I did not have the concept that I have to discuss both strengths and weakness of the article with my audience in my presentation. Actually, when reading this article, I did have some critique to the study. I posted them in the discussion forum on the E3 platform. However, I did not discuss my questions with audience in my presentation.

3. Implications

I talked about pedagogical and research implications of the article in the end of the presentation. However, these pedagogical and research implications were solely from the research article.

4. Relevance

I did not particularly relate the topic to the audience members' online learning and teaching experiences. Since we have seldom learning or teaching experience online, I did not make personal links to the topic.

5. Epistemic stance

I had several epistemic stances during the process of preparing the presentation.

When preparing for my presentation, **I considered myself as a novice in the academic community.** In the preparing process, I read and analyzed the assigned article carefully. When meeting difficulties in comprehension, I discussed my problems with classmates. We worked together as a study group. I had discussion and shared reflection with classmates.

After having a more understanding of the assigned article, I started to think about the way to delivery my presentation. In this process, I considered myself as **a performer**. I tried my best to conduct a speech and made my presentation intelligible.

During delivering my presentation, my classmates may have questions for me. Because I spent more time reading and analyzing the assigned article, I had more confidence in answering questions. Under the circumstances, I considered myself as **an expert.**

6. Emotional engagement

I did not show any particular emotions in my presentation. As a class presenter, I think **it is safe** to present the weekly article without any emotional engagement. The thing I did in my presentation was try to deliver an intelligible presentation without any particular emotions.

7. Novelty

I did not communicate a sense of novelty in my presentation. I think every audience has already read this research article before my presentation. What I did was to give a precise summary of the research article in my presentation.

8. Immediacy

I did not communicate a sense of immediacy in my presentation. Since I had rare teaching or learning experience online, I did not relate the article to the teaching or learning contexts in Taiwan.

9. Support items

I gave audience handouts of my presentation. Audience may have more understandings of my presentation from the handout.

10. Audience involvement

With regard to this aspect, I did not provide discussion questions that make audience members think and encourage their participation in discussion. However, I was perceptive of the **audience's reaction** to assess the interest level of my audience. Their facial expressions and whispers served as visual cues as to whether they followed my presentation.

11. Delivery

In terms of this item, I did not do well in the following aspects. First, I did not maintain eye contact with the audience. Sometimes I looked at the computer

monitor and read the sentences on the PowerPoint. Second, I did not have fluent speech in m presentation. Because I was too nervous, I stammered in my presentation. I think I should rehearse my presentation more before class presentation to avoid the above mentioned problems of my presentation.

12. Time management

My presentation lasted for about 20 minutes. Because I was a victim of delaying time (I was always the one giving presentation in a short time since some presentations before mine took too much time.), I was careful of time control. However, I finished my presentation within just 20 minutes. Compared to others' presentations in class, I think maybe I should add more in my presentation.

Reflection

In general, I was not satisfied with my performance in the presentation. Actually, I have been not satisfied with my presentation for a long time. I had no confidence to speak out in front of people. I am not that kind of person who delivers a fluent speech in front of people. From watching the video of my presentation and checking the criteria items from Morita, I have more understandings of my weakness in my presentation. For example, I should improve my delivery skills. I should learn to keep eye contact with audience and practice delivering a fluent speech. From the above criteria, I know there are lots of elements that I fail to incorporate in my presentation, and these are areas that I need to further work on in order to deliver a fairly good presentation.

Appendix D: Informed Consent Form for Students

Dear Potential Participants:

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Sun, Y. C. at Chiao Tung University. I am conducting a research study to investigate the oral discourse socialization process of EFL graduate students in MATESOL programs.

I am requesting your participation, which will involve filling out a survey about your understanding of academic skills and your expectation of being a graduate student in field of TESOL academia. The survey will take about 20-30 minutes of your time. Also, your participation in course ITE1001 and course ITE1002 in the spring of 2009 will be observed and video taped. The purpose of the video taping of the class sessions is to document on-site presentation performances and classroom interaction. The dynamic recording will better depict the patterns of students' participations. It is not a tool to evaluate your participation and performance. If you would like to participate and wish not to be video taped, you will have a chance to sit out of the camera range and microphones. Only the principal investigator will have access to the data. All the data collected will be destroyed seven years after this study is completed. Your participation in the study is voluntary.

Moreover, you will be asked to conduct several interviews with the researcher throughout the spring semester. The interviews will be conducted in the beginning, middle and end of the spring semester. The purpose of the interview is to better understand your preparation, perspectives, difficulties and reflections on academic presentations in these two courses.

The researcher will also ask for electronic files of PowerPoint slides and copies of some writing assignments. Your revisions and the professor's comments will be examined for the purpose of the study. There will be possibility to have you do the several self reports on your presentation preparation and performance during the whole semester. Several guiding questions will help you reflect on your presentation strategies and challenges. The self-report will take about 20 minutes of your time. You can choose to do the report by email or by keeping a journal.

If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. It will not affect your grades in the two courses. The results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used.

The possible benefit of your participation is that you will have a chance to reflect on your growth and the process of learning associated with oral academic presentations. At the same time, your viewpoints and reflections will help the researcher gain better understanding of oral academic training in EFL context. Thank your for your assistance and participation.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call Anita at 0912331798.

Sincerely,
Anita Wu (Ying-Hsuan)

By signing below I am giving consent to participate in the above study.

_____   _____

Signature   Date/Time

By signing below I am giving my permission to have the class ITE1001 and ITE1002 observed and video-taped. I hereby release to Ying-Hsuan Wu the rights to my image, likeness and sound of my voices as recorded on videotapes made during the entire spring semester of 2009 for the purposes of her research. I realize that there is a possibility that excerpts of the audio or video tapes may be transcribed and used in the written report of the study.

I give my permission to be video-taped.
Your confidentiality is assured.

_____   _____

Signature   Date/Time

Appendix E: Survey Response Form (adapted from Ho, 2007)

Dear Participants,

Thanks very much for participation in this study. Below are a few questions that I would like you to answer. An electronic version of this survey is also available. If you would like to have an electronic copy so that you can directly type on the survey form, please let me know by e-mail 1213anita.tesol96g@g2.nctu.edu.tw. If you prefer to answer the questions verbally in the form of an interview, please let me know as well.

After finishing answering the survey, please let me know by email so that I can pick it up. Again, thank you for your participation.

Your email address: _____

1. What is your gender?   (please circle one) Male or female?
2. What is your age?   _____
3. What was your highest education before coming to the MA-TESOL program? What was your major?
4. Do you have any teaching experience before?   Yes   No
   If yes, what was the subject and to whom?
   _____
   _____
   How many years of teaching experience do you have?   _____
5. When did you first start learning English?   How many years have you been learning English?   _____ ; _____ (years)
6. Are you currently involved in other courses or activities which relate to your graduate learning or language teaching?

Open-ended Questions: (Please write/computer type your responses to the following questions)

7. What are your expectations about the graduate studies in the MA-TESOL program? 你對於唸 TESOL 研究所有什麼期待或目標嗎?

8. What concerns, if any, do you have about the oral academic presentations in courses ITE1002 and ITE 1001? 對於這兩門課要求的口語報告，你在哪一方面會多加留意或感到擔心?

9. How would you describe your roles in the study of teaching English as a Second language? 是否能**敘述**(或者條列說明)你在研究所生活中扮演了哪一些角色，心態或感覺如何?

10. What are your expectations about the classroom interaction and/or participation in the graduate classes? 請問你期待的研究所上課方式、活動或者互動方式是什麼樣子?

11. Compared graduate to undergraduate training, are there any difference? What abilities do you think you have grown or went backward? 比較唸研究所與大學的訓練，你覺得最大的不同在哪方面，你的哪一個方面的技能有增強或減弱?

12. What are your future career/professional goals? 你畢業後的職場目標是什麼?
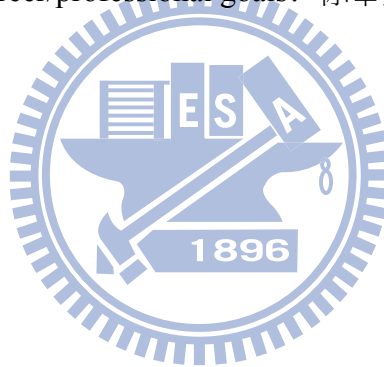
Appendix F: Interview Protocol for Student Participants

Backgrounds: (supplemented)

1. What was your academic and professional background prior to coming to the MA-TESOL program?
2. Do you have any teaching experience before? If so, please briefly describe the context (what class, at what level, for how long, etc.) of each experience you have had.
3. Are you teaching this semester? What are you teaching?
4. Have you presented or participated in any academic/professional conferences? If so, please briefly describe the context and your impressions of the conference(s).

Conceptions of PowerPoint Presentation

1. What roles does the oral academic presentation play in graduate training? And what are the functions it serves in your professional growth?
2. What's your attitude toward having presentations as one major course event/activity in graduate training?
3. In what way do you expect to learn through giving presentations in two courses?
4. What concerns, if any, do you have about your presentation performance in these two courses?
5. What suggestions, if any, do you have for the instructor in terms of the in-class presentation requirement?
6. How did the oral presentations help you in terms of your professional development?

About preparation stage (PowerPoint composing path)

1. Please briefly describe the pattern or any strategies you use during your preparation stage. (E.g. read and take note, read and make PPT slides at the same time, rehearsal, etc.)
2. Did you encounter any challenge or difficulty while preparing the PowerPoint slides (e.g. in terms of the reading, flow of the content, how to decide what to address in the slides, time limit, etc.)? If so, did you try to overcome those difficulties? In what way?
3. How did you decide what information to address in the slides?

4. What factors, if any, influence the way of your content display or decisions on information selections?

5. Compared to the time you are not required to present, what differences may occur?

6. What roles do you assume when responsible for the presentation?

7. (Optional) How did your first presentation differ from the second one (in terms of the preparation, organization of content, information selection for the slides, the way you present)?

8. Is there anything particularly interesting, surprising or memorable during the preparation stage? Why?

Self- critique on your own presentation

1. What general impressions (about the content and oral proficiency) do you have after viewing your own recorded presentation?

2. In your opinions, what constitute a good oral academic presentation? And did you think you achieve them?

3. How do you think this task help your professional/academic development?

4. In what ways can this experience help your future presentations?

End of semester reflection

1. How did the oral presentation help you in general?

2. Did your perceptions or participations in oral presentations change over the semester? If so, how did they change and why do you think they change? If not, why?

3. In terms of your professional goals, how do these two courses help your professional development? Why?

4. Please describe some of your most interesting/challenging/rewarding experiences in the two classes.

5. Did you have any comments about your participation in this research project?

(adapted from Ho, 2007; Morita, 2000; Kobayashi, 2004)

Appendix G: Interview Guide and Questions for Course Instructor

Ⅰ. **General Questions**

1. How would you characterize this semester's student group? Is there anything special about this year's students that have influenced the way you organized the course or class discussion?

2. What role do you think in-class oral academic presentations play in graduate students' academic learning?

3. What expectations and impressions do you have about students' participation in graduate classrooms in general?

Ⅱ. **Questions about oral academic presentations**

1. You had students do in-class oral presentations in every lesson.

   1.a What's your rationale behind that?

   1.b What do you want students to get out of it?

   1.c What expectations do you have about students' oral presentations?

2. Have you experienced any challenges with regard to practicing this course event?

3. According to the syllabus, you asked students to limit their PowerPoint slides to 15. What's the purpose of it?

4. Following two statements are about post-presentation activities you highlighted (one from syllabus, another from e-3 post in the 3rd week). Did they mean that you shift the structure of the presentations? If yes, why? If not, what's the purpose of this second reminder?

   (from syllabus) Give a coherent presentation (25-35 minutes, including **addressing the questions raised on e-3**) on the weekly reading.

   (from bulletin board) In your oral presentation in class, **DO NOT spare time for group discussion on the questions**. Instead, share with us your opinions on some of the posts.

5. How did you evaluate students' oral presentations?

6. Why did you want students to critique on their own presentations?

7. Did you have different expectations for research article presentations and students' final presentations on their own study?

8. Are there any other related issues you would like to comment?

Appendix H: Fieldnote Sheet

Fieldnote Sheet

Setting: _____

Date and Time: _____   **Number of Students:** _____

Length of Observation: _____

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      <u>Description of Object</u>   **<u>Reflective Notes</u>** (insight, hunches, themes)

Appendix I: Transcription Conventions

.	*A period indicates* terminal falling intonation
-	*A dash* indicates a brief pause or cut-off utterance
!	An exclamation mark indicates an enthusiastic tone
,	*A comma indicates nonfinal intonation, usually a slight rise*
...	*Ellipsis* indicates a pause in the conversation
YES	*Capital letters* indicate increased volume
?	*A question mark* indicates a rising intonation
(Laughs)	*Parentheses* include information about physical behavior accompanying the utterance.
[clarification]	*Brackets* include information to clarify meaning
"reported speech"	Words between *double quotation marks* are attempt made by the speaker to report speech
bold	*Bold typeface* is used to highlight part of an utterance for analytical purposes
<u>Underlining</u>	*Underlined words* indicates utterances spoken with emphasis
[	*A single left bracket,* indicates the starting point of overlap