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系所班組別：外國語文學系 乙組

考試科目(代碼)：外語教學(4002)

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1. 請核對答案卷(卡)上之准考證號、科目名稱是否正確。
2. 作答中如有發現試題印刷不清，得舉手請監試人員處理，但不得要求解釋題意。
3. 考生限在答案卷上標記「由此開始作答」區內作答，且不可書寫姓名、准考證號或與作答無關之其他文字或符號。
4. 答案卷用盡不得要求加頁。
5. 答案卷可用任何書寫工具作答，惟為方便閱卷辨識，請儘量使用藍色或黑色書寫；答案卡限用 2B 鉛筆畫記；如畫記不清(含未依範例畫記)致光學閱讀機無法辨識答案者，其後果一律由考生自行負責。
6. 其他應考規則、違規處理及扣分方式，請自行詳閱准考證明上「國立清華大學試場規則及違規處理辦法」，無法因本試題封面作答注意事項中未列明而稱未知悉。

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General Directions: This examination has three parts. Please read the directions for each part carefully.

Part 1: Answer the following questions in a few paragraphs (30% total; 6% each).

1. What is Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), and why do some scholars consider it “the heart of Communicative Language Teaching”?
2. How are Self-regulation, Autonomy, and Strategies related?
3. What is your understanding of Sociocultural Theory and related terms such as Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding?
4. Explain Interaction Hypothesis and how it can be applied in a classroom.
5. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Give an explanation.
“Teachers should teach simple language structures before complex ones.”

Part 2: Read the following excerpts of a research article, then answer the following questions (30%; 10% each).

Citation:

Lee, I., Yu, S. & Lin, Y. (2018). Hong Kong secondary students' motivation in EFL writing: a survey study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(1), pp. 176-187.

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Background Introduction:

This study was conducted in Hong Kong. The term “Secondary Students” refers to high school students. Secondary 1 in Hong Kong is equivalent to Year 1 Junior High School in Taiwan. Secondary 3 in Hong Kong is equivalent to Year 3 Junior High School in Taiwan. And Secondary 5 in Hong Kong is equivalent to Year 2 Senior High School in Taiwan. This study involved these three grade levels.

The educational context in Hong Kong, with its high stress, high competitiveness environment, is somewhat similar to the situation in Taiwan. **In this part of the exam, please imagine that you are a Taiwanese scholar who conducted this study in Taiwan and obtained similar results.** The main findings of this study is underlined in the excerpt below.

After reading the excerpt, please answer the following questions:

Questions:

- (1) Given what you know about the Taiwanese EFL education situation in junior and senior high schools, how would you explain the results of this study?
- (2) Based on the results of this study, give some suggestions to junior/senior high school EFL teachers in Taiwan who are teaching writing.
- (3) What are some limitations that you see in this study in terms of research design and method?

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The article's excerpt starts here:

Motivation is about the direction and magnitude of human behavior (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), explaining choice, persistence, and effort in relation to human behavior—that is, why people do something, how long they can sustain, and how hard they are willing to try. In education, motivation is a central concern because high motivation generally leads to effective learning.

Motivation is not only contextually situated, it is also domain-specific (Zhang & Guo, 2012). In learning to write, for example, students' motivation may differ from their motivation to learn other language skills. Because “learning to write in a second language is one of the most challenging aspects of second language learning” (Hyland, 2003, p. xiii), L2 writing motivation is particularly worthy of attention. To date, however, research has focused primarily on L2 motivation in general (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015), whereas L2 writing motivation research is still very much in its infancy.

No L2 research, to the best of our knowledge, has explored the level of student writing motivation—that is, to what extent students are motivated or unmotivated to write, as well as its relationships with language proficiency, gender, and grade, which are found to be significant variables in L1 writing (Troia, Harbaugh, Shankland, Wolbers, & Lawrence, 2013) and L2 language learning in general (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2001). To fill these research gaps, this survey study seeks to explore (1) the extent to which Hong Kong secondary students are motivated to write in English, and (2) the influence of language proficiency, gender, and grade on their writing motivation.

Because this study is about secondary students' writing motivation, we adopt an educational approach advocated by Dörnyei (1994), where motivation is conceptualized in terms of (1) the language level (integrative and instrumental motivation), (2) the learner level (individual learner motivation characteristics), and (3) the learning situation level (situation-related motivation within the classroom). We also draw on Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) recent influential work on L2 motivation research, namely, the L2 motivational self system, comprising the ideal L2 self (i.e., more integrative motivation), ought-to L2 self (i.e., more extrinsic motivation), and L2 learning experience (i.e., the immediate learning environment and experience).

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While the L2 ideal and ought-to selves concern the language and learner levels, L2 learning experience concerns the learning situation level in Dörnyei (1994). In short, our operational definition of motivation takes account of a more situated and dynamic conception of L2 motivation and acknowledges the pivotal role of context in influencing L2 motivation, which informs the design of the survey.

Participants of the study were 1,395 students (699 girls and 696 boys) across three different grades (Secondary 1/Grade 7 = 386, Secondary 3/Grade 9 = 500, and Secondary 5/Grade 11 = 509) from three secondary schools (Band 1 = 471, Band 2 = 452, and Band 3 = 472) in Hong Kong. Locally, secondary students are put into three different bands according to their academic abilities—Band 1 being the highest and Band 3 the lowest. In terms of English proficiency, the three bands are also indicative of their abilities, with Band 1 students being the most proficient and Band 3 the least proficient in English. The researchers administered a self-developed, bilingual (Chinese and English) writing motivation questionnaire to the participating students in class. A 5-point scale was used for the questionnaire items, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The final questionnaire contained 40 items.

FINDINGS

The mean score for each item ranged from 1.64 to 3.03. The mean scores of all the items were below 3.0, except one item (“I consider learning writing important because I can get into a good school/university”), and the mean scores for a total of 11 items (mainly learner and learning situation related) out of 40 were below 2.0. The results indicate that the participants of the study were generally not motivated to write in English.

A significant interaction between L2 proficiency and grade was observed. The results show that within Band 3 students from different grades had equally low L2 writing motivation. However, the writing motivation level of Band 2 students declined as they proceeded to a higher grade.

In addition to the interaction effect, there was a significant difference among

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students from three different bands in their L2 writing motivation. Band 1 students scored higher than Band 2 and Band 3 students in L2 writing motivation. Band 1 students reported much higher scores than Band 2 and Band 3 students regarding writing interest and writing efficacy, respectively. These results show that secondary students with higher English proficiency were more motivated to write in English, and higher-proficiency students had higher writing efficacy and were more interested in English writing.

The data analysis reveals a significant difference between boys and girls in terms of their L2 writing motivation. Girls reported higher levels of writing motivation than boys.

The MANOVA analysis indicates a significant difference among students in different grades in their L2 writing motivation. Secondary 1/Grade 7 students were more motivated to write in English than Secondary 3/Grade 9 and Secondary 5/Grade 11 students. Specifically, the grade difference focused on the writing efficacy scale. Secondary 1/Grade 7 students scored higher in writing efficacy than Secondary 3/Grade 9 and Secondary 5/Grade 11 students. Such a finding suggests that students' writing efficacy tended to decline as students progressed through school.

[END OF PART 2]

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Part 3: Read the following excerpt of another research article, then answer the following questions (40%; 20% each).

Citation:

Ruivivar, J. & Collins, L. (2018). **The effects of foreign accent on perceptions of nonstandard grammar: a pilot study.** *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(1), pp. 187-198.

Questions:

1. Summarize the article in about 350 words. Include the following information in the summary: (1) the gaps left by the literature to be fulfilled by the study, (2) the research aim of the study, (3) the methodology used to collect and analyze data in this study including the participants and instruments, and (4) the findings.
2. Comments on the topic and results of this study. Have you ever had personal experience in relation to this topic? Is this a topic worth researching? What do you think about the results? (You should look back to the authors' rationale of this research and the discussion section to help with your answer.) Feel free to write any opinion you have.

The article's excerpt starts here:

Research has shown that spoken language often deviates from the rules of standard written grammar. Carter and McCarthy (1995), for example, note the frequency of ellipsis ([I will] see you next week) and of left and right dislocation (This one I haven't seen; He's a good guy, John is) in spoken English. Scholars have called for greater attention to be paid to spoken grammar in English language teaching

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(Cullen & Kuo, 2007; Frazier, 2003; Jones & Waller, 2011), arguing that learners must be equipped with a full range of linguistic resources to communicate in a variety of situations (Carter & McCarthy, 1995; Mumford, 2009; Timmis, 2005). Cutting (2006) has observed that vague language in spoken English, such as that kind of stuff, can serve as a marker of membership in a given speech community, and argues that this use can help learners show solidarity with first language (L1)-speaking peers.

However, there is reason to believe that some L1 speakers may not find second language (L2) speakers' use of certain language features acceptable. For example, Prodromou (2007) found that native English speakers consider the use of creative idioms unacceptable when told that they were written by nonnative speakers, but will accept them when ostensibly written by fellow native speakers. L1 raters have also been shown to respond more strongly to L2 users' stylistic errors in academic writing (Hyland & Anan, 2006). Regarding L2 speech, Kennedy (2015) found that speakers with foreign accents were judged by native speakers to have made grammatical errors in their output for what was actually error-free speech, supporting previous findings that nonexpert judges tend to confound grammatical and phonological errors in L2 speech (Varonis & Gass, 1982). Derwing, Rossiter, and Ehrensberger-Dow (2002) found no such effect among L1 listeners with language learning or teaching experience, suggesting that linguistic awareness also plays a role in L1 perception.

These findings suggest that foreign accent might influence the perceived acceptability of nonstandard grammar in L2 speech, at least as judged by non-linguistically trained L1 listeners. Recent studies have linked accent with a variety of negative judgments, such as lower competence (Lindemann, 2005), employability (Carlson & McHenry, 2006), and credibility (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2010). The explanations for these judgments include the argument that accent may function as an outgroup marker (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010) and that it also increases processing demands on listeners (Munro & Derwing, 2006). As Kennedy's (2015) findings suggest, these judgments might well extend to lower linguistic or grammatical proficiency levels.

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However, to the best of our knowledge, no published research has explored perceptions of L2 speakers' use of nonstandard spoken features of grammar. Also understudied is perceived grammaticality as a subjective construct. Studies investigating perceived grammaticality have mostly used discrete-point Likert scales (e.g., Kennedy, 2015), which may not adequately capture the finer differences in judgment that may arise from the presence of accent. To this end, a subjective scale such as the one developed by Saito, Trofimovich, and Isaacs (2015) may be more appropriate. This 1,000-point scale was originally used for a variety of linguistic measures, including accentedness, lexical richness, and discourse structure. This range may be more appropriate for a study seeking to capture subjective perceptions of grammaticality rather than categorical judgments of correctness or incorrectness.

This article reports on a pilot study for a larger project exploring whether the presence of a foreign accent influences nonexpert L1 raters' judgments of the acceptability of nonstandard spoken grammar forms, and whether the degree of accentedness affects this influence. Our research questions were:

- 1) How does foreign accent influence L1 users' judgments of the acceptability of nonstandard spoken grammar forms?
- 2) Does degree of accentedness affect the severity of these judgments?

METHOD

Following Kennedy (2015), we asked four expert raters to rate accentedness and four nonexpert raters to rate the grammaticality of 60 speech samples containing spoken grammar features. We then analyzed the scores for effect of accent on grammaticality ratings. We used Saito et al.'s (2015) sliding scale with the goal of capturing more subjective perceptions than previous rating studies have done, and to evaluate the scale's ability to yield consistent scores among nonexpert raters.

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Participants

There were three groups of participants: speakers, expert raters, and nonexpert raters. The speakers were five L1 English speakers, two male and three female, and ten L1 Tagalog speakers, five male and five female, who spoke English as an L2. The speakers were aged 22 to 35 ($M = 27.7$). Self-reported daily use of English was 85% to 100% for the L1 speakers and 50% to 80% for the L2 speakers. The L2 speakers had been living in Montreal, Canada for two to four years and were studying at English-language universities. They all had high self-rated English proficiency ($M = 7.7$ on a 1–9 scale). All speakers also spoke French; the L1 speakers also spoke a variety of third languages (L3s) including Greek, Italian, and Hebrew.

The expert raters consisted of two male and two female teachers of English as a second language (ESL), aged 26 to 37 ($M = 30.8$), with 6 to 13 years of teaching experience ($M = 9.5$). The nonexpert raters were two male and two female information technology professionals aged 27 to 41 ($M = 33.8$) with no reported linguistic training or language teaching experience, and who were thus considered to be representative of the community in which learners might expect to use spoken grammar. All raters spoke French and English but identified English as their dominant language, using it in 75% to 90% of daily interactions. They also reported little to no contact with Tagalog speakers, as determined through a semantic differential scale (very frequent contact – no contact at all).

Materials and Procedure

Stimuli. The stimuli consisted of 60 sentences, of which 48 contained one of four types of spoken grammar constructions: subject ellipsis, topic fronting, disjointed descriptions, and historical present. These forms were chosen based on their frequency in spoken English, as observed by Carter and McCarthy (1995) in a mini-corpus of British English. For this study, the speech samples were modeled after examples from the Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (Du Bois et al., 2005), which more closely represents the English spoken in Canada, where the study took place. Twelve distractors consisted of six sentences with no errors, and six sentences containing egregious errors of the kind that are normally corrected in ESL

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classrooms (e.g., tomorrow there will be many rain). All sentences were between 15 and 25 words long and contained the same number of clauses. Table 1 provides a description of each of the categories.

TABLE 1
Description of Spoken Grammar Constructions

Spoken grammar form	Example	Standard (written) form
Subject ellipsis	<i>Gotta love Swedish weather.</i>	<i>You've got to love Swedish weather.</i>
Historical present	<i>I was jogging the other day, and I see this man who must have been about sixty-four, he's running twice as fast and he just whizzes by me.</i>	<i>I was jogging the other day, and I saw this sixty-year-old man who was running twice as fast and just whizzed by me.</i>
Topic fronting	<i>This book, it's one of my favourites.</i>	<i>This book is one of my favourites.</i>
Disjointed descriptions	<i>It's a good show, very whimsical, it's a children's story but philosophical.</i>	<i>It's a good show. It's a very whimsical but philosophical children's story.</i>

The speakers recorded all 60 sentences into an Apple laptop computer with a Logitech microphone. Although previous rating studies have used extemporaneous speech samples, and our target forms typically occur in such informal conversation, it was not possible to record extemporaneous speech while simultaneously ensuring that the target forms were produced. Instead, we attempted to simulate conversational speech as closely as possible in a laboratory setting by instructing the speakers to speak in a casual, conversational tone. Speakers listened to three sample recordings demonstrating the required tone, and practiced each sentence before recording. They recorded each sentence twice, then an independent rater chose which version sounded most natural.

The resulting speech samples were between 6 and 10 seconds long.

Rating sessions. The expert raters rated the speakers on accentedness, defined as the degree to which the speech varied from that of a native speaker (Munro & Derwing, 2006). Although nonexpert raters are able to consistently rate accentedness, we opted for expert raters because they have been shown to rate with slightly higher consistency (Isaacs & Thomson, 2013). Before rating, they listened to three samples illustrating strongly accented, moderately accented, and nonaccented speech, and practiced rating speech samples using a computer-based sliding scale

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(described below). To prevent grammar from interfering with accentedness judgments, raters listened to a selection of error-free distractors recorded by the speakers. Each rating session took approximately 40 minutes, including 5-minute breaks after every 10 speakers to prevent rater fatigue.

The nonexpert raters rated the samples on grammatical acceptability, vowel and consonant accuracy, and word stress placement. The two phonological measures were added to encourage the raters to attend to grammar and pronunciation separately, because these two have been shown to interact in nonexpert ratings (Varonis & Gass, 1982). Grammatical acceptability was defined as the listener's perception of how acceptable the speaker's grammar was, not based on a word-for-word analysis but rather a judgment of the speech as a whole. Vowel and consonant errors were defined as the use of different sounds than might be expected from a proficient speaker, such as pronouncing pitch /pitS/ as peach /pitS/ or light /laɪt/ as right /raɪt/. Word stress errors were defined as emphasizing (pronouncing longer and more loudly) the wrong syllable, such as phoTOgrapher pronounced as photoGRApher. As with the expert raters, they listened to sample files illustrating low, medium, and high scores in all three measures, and practiced rating three sample files using the sliding scale. They also took 5-minute breaks after every 10 samples. Each rating session took approximately 70 minutes.

In addition to rating the three sample files, we also asked raters to identify which characteristics of the sample influenced their ratings (e.g., word stress received low scores because the speaker said GRAffiti instead of graffIti).

The rating sessions took place in a research laboratory in Montreal, Canada. Raters listened to the samples on a Dell laptop computer and used a pair of Logitech headphones. In all sessions, the raters listened to each sample once and were allowed to take as much time as they needed to complete the rating before moving on to the next sample.

Rating scale. We used a computer-based sliding scale adapted from the one developed by Saito et al. (2015). As mentioned, the 1,000-point range of this scale was expected to capture more fine-grained differences in judgments than would be

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possible with discrete-point scales (e.g., Kennedy, 2015). Anchor points were marked by frowning and smiling faces representing the low and high ends, as well as verbal descriptors.

The descriptions for all four measures are provided in Table 2. Analysis Cronbach's alpha was .99 for the expert raters and .88 for the nonexpert raters on grammaticality, indicating high reliability within both groups. The mean accentedness ratings yielded three groups of 10 speakers each: heavily accented, moderately accented, and native-like, with mean ratings of 321, 705, and 944, respectively. The mean grammaticality ratings for each group were then calculated and compared using a Kruskal-Wallis H test. This nonparametric test was chosen because of the small sample size.

TABLE 2
Anchor Point Descriptions for Sliding Scale

Measure	.001 =	1.000 =
Accentedness	Strongly accented	Not accented at all
Grammatical acceptability	Unacceptable grammar	Acceptable grammar
Vowel and consonant errors	Frequent errors	No errors
Word stress errors	Frequent errors	No errors

RESULTS

We will first report findings regarding whether foreign accent affected nonexpert raters' judgments of the grammaticality of spoken grammar and whether degree of accentedness played a role in this influence. Table 3 shows that nonaccented speakers received the highest grammaticality scores overall, and heavily accented speakers received the lowest scores. The scores for phoneme and word stress errors also decreased with the presence of accent, although less so in the case of word stress. Figure 1 shows that grammaticality scores generally decreased as accentedness increased. The Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that grammaticality ratings were significantly affected by accentedness, $H(2) = 37.4, p < .001$. Post-hoc analyses were performed using Mann-Whitney U tests, with a Bonferroni correction to adjust significance levels to .0167. These tests showed statistically significant differences in

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grammaticality scores between native and moderately accented speakers ($U = 49, r = .43$), between moderately and heavily accented speakers ($U = 17, r = .60$), and between native and heavily accented speakers ($U = 0, r = .70$). This indicates that degree of accentedness does affect the severity of grammaticality judgments, such that heavily accented speakers are judged more harshly than moderately or nonaccented speakers.

Figure 1 also shows some inter-rater variation for nonaccented speakers, which decreased as accentedness increased. The range of grammaticality scores was 199 for nonaccented, 80 for moderately accented, and 46 for heavily accented speakers; that is, inter-rater consistency roughly doubled as accentedness increased.

TABLE 3
Mean Scores by Degree of Accentedness

Measures	Groups by accentedness	
	Nonaccented	Moderate
Accentedness	944	705
Grammaticality	830	670
Vowel and consonant errors	888	651
Word stress	914	828

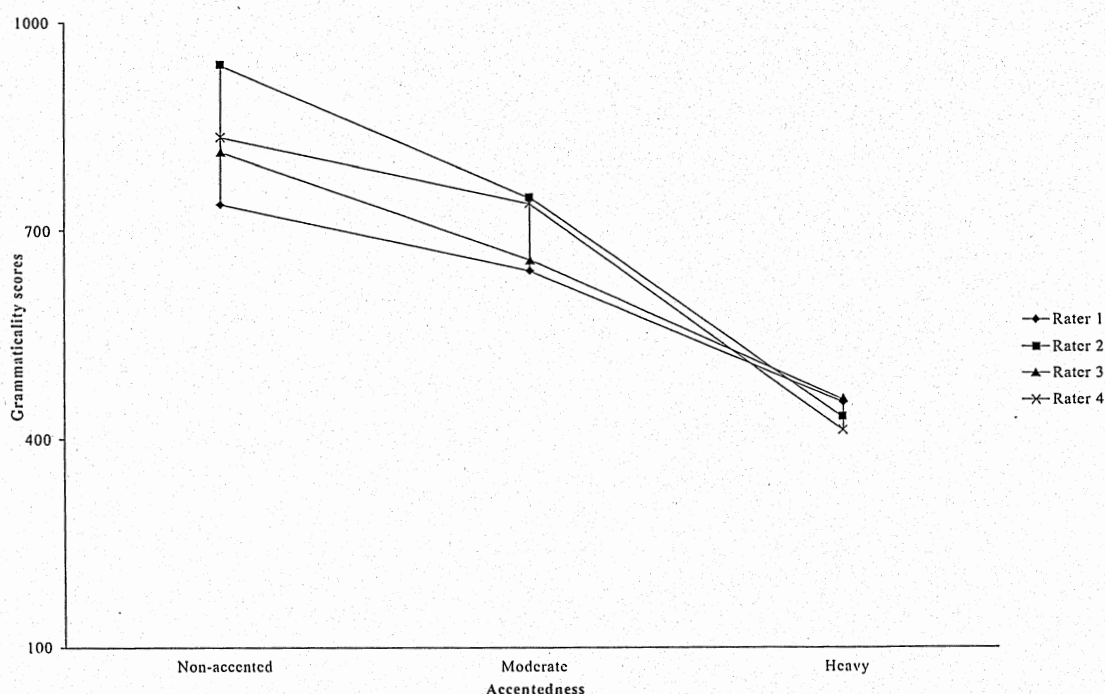


FIGURE 1. Grammaticality scores by accentedness.

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DISCUSSION

This study is among the few to have examined the relationship between accent and grammatical judgment. Although previous studies have looked at stylistic (e.g., Hyland & Anan, 2006) and dialectal variation (Carlson & McHenry, 2006), few studies other than Derwing et al. (2002) have specifically looked at L2 speakers' use of nonstandard features frequent in L1 speech. Accent did appear to influence nonexpert raters' subjective perceptions of grammaticality, and this effect appears to be stronger with more pronounced accents. At first glance, this appears to support Varonis and Gass's (1982) findings that nonexpert raters are unable to distinguish between errors in pronunciation and grammar, which leads to accented speech being judged as less grammatical (Kennedy, 2015). It is possible that task design may have conflated some elements, as raters had to judge pronunciation and grammar at the same time. However, we took steps to encourage raters to separate these two constructs by having them rate phonological measures in addition to grammaticality. The raters also showed evidence that they rated the measures based on different observations rather than relying on a single construct.

Raters also appeared to notice nonstandard grammar to different degrees when accent was weak or nonexistent, but noticed it more consistently as accentedness increased. It is likely, then, that the differential judgment did not entirely result from the raters confounding the two measures. One possibility is that stronger accents place a greater processing load on the listener, which leads to negative impressions about the speaker (Munro & Derwing, 2006). This would be in line with existing studies showing that accented speakers are often seen as less competent or intelligent (Lindemann, 2005). A lower expectation of linguistic ability might cue listeners to expect grammatical errors, or perceive as errors what they would normally accept from nonaccented speakers.

These results also suggest that, at least in the case of spoken grammar, L1 users are essentially "allowed" to break certain linguistic norms, while L2 speakers are expected to stick to standard forms. This offers some support for Prodromou's (2007) claim that some features of English are "out of bounds" for L2 users. It also supports Cutting's (2006) view that some features of spoken grammar serve as

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ingroup markers; that is, listeners are accustomed to hearing nonstandard forms from L1 speakers but not from L2 speakers. It would appear that L2 speakers' use of these forms does not signal group membership; rather, L1 speakers appear to perceive it as a deviation from what the speaker is expected or able to say. Further research will be needed to identify factors that influence raters' judgments of nonstandard grammar in L2 speech, such as type of accent and spoken grammar form, rater experience, attitudes toward the L2 community, and contact between L1 and L2 groups.

Although the results are not conclusive given the small sample size of this pilot study, they offer preliminary evidence that foreign accent affects nonexpert raters' judgments of the acceptability of nonstandard spoken grammar. The study also showed that grammaticality can be reliably rated as a subjective construct by nonexpert raters, despite slightly harsher judgments on sentences exhibiting topic fronting.

We anticipate conducting a full-scale study with a larger number of speakers and raters, and hope to shed more light on the possible variation between different spoken grammar constructions. Findings from this larger study could also highlight issues to consider in the teaching of nonstandard grammar and other features of spoken English, including possible barriers to successful use of these features by learners. It will also be important to identify aspects of pronunciation that lead to harsher judgments and thus might be worth addressing in the classroom, as well as teachers and learners' views on the appropriate norms of spoken language for L2 users.

[END OF EXAM]