KOTESOL Proceedings 2000

Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning

Proceedings from the Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference, Taegu, Korea, Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

KOTESOL Proceedings 2000

Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning

Proceedings from the Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference, Taegu, Korea, Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL / KOTESOL)

KOTESOL Proceedings 2000

Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning

Proceedings from the Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference, Taegu, Korea
Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

Edited by Korea TESOL

Korea TESOL Publications Chair
Robert J. Dickey
Kyongju University

Proceedings Supervising Editor/Coordinator
Kirsten B. Reitan
Kyung Hee University

Proceedings Editorial Staff

Michael Duffy
Dong-A University

David Dugas
Taejon University

Brian Kim
KAIST

Kirsten B. Reitan
Kyung Hee University

David E. Shaffer
Chosun University

Jane Hoelker
Seoul National University

Douglas Margolis
Dong Seoul College

Peter E. Nelson
ChungAng University

Robert Dickey
Kyongju University

Terri Jo Everest
Pusan University of Foreign Studies

For information on reprints of articles from this or other Korea TESOL publications, as well as inquiries on membership or advertising, please contact us at

www.kotesol.org or kotesol@chollian.net

© 2001 Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(Korea TESOL, KOTESOL).

ISSN: 1598-0472 Price: 10,000won / US$10 Free to Members.

The Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Taegu, Korea
Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

Conference Committee

Conference Chair
Conference Webmaster
Andrew Finch
Seoul National University of Technology

Conference Co-Chair
Publicity Co-Chair
Dr. Hyun, Tae-duck
Andong National University

Conference Site Chair
Dr. Bae, Jong-un
Kyoungbuk National University

Conference Site Co-Chair
Dr. Steve Garrigues
Kyoungbuk National University

Program Chair
Kirsten Reitan
Kyung Hee University

Registration Chair
Ms. Kim, Su-mi
Kumjong High School

Publicity Co-Chair
Dr. Lee Yong-hoon
Kyoungbuk Foreign Language High School

Conference Treasurer
Ms. Park, Sung-shil

Employment Center
Asif Siddiqui
KAIST & Yonsei Universities

International Liaison Chair
Jane Hoelker
Seoul National University

Student Coordinators

Craig Bartlett
Keimyung University

Lee Kil-Ryoung
Yeungnam University

Associate Member Liaisons

Carl Dusthimer
Hannam University

Andrew Todd
MacMillan Heinneman

Program Brochure and Pre-registration
Robert Dickey
Kyongju University

FOREWORD

The 2000 Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Kyongbuk National University in Taegu on September 30th and October 1, 2000. The conference featured plenary sessions by Dr. Leo Van Lier and Dr. Richard Allwright, as well as two featured speaker sessions by Dr. Andy Curtis. In addition there were over 120 concurrent sessions for conference participants to choose from. The theme "Casting the Net: Language, Learning, and Diversity" reflected the ideas of networking, of the internet, and of teachers' casting a wide net to reach all their learners. Korea TESOL also cast a wide net, attracting presenters from Kazakhstan, Russia, Taiwan, Japan, and the United States, as well as Korea. Papers by a number of these international presenters are included in this conference proceedings.

The papers presented in this volume are representative of the entire range of presentations given at KOTESOL 2000. The first two sections have a plenary paper written by Dr. Allwright and Dr. Curtis's reflection on reflective teaching. In the next four sections the papers have been arranged into four categories: Research in Korea, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Classroom related, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Research in Korea highlights papers presenting the results of research done in Korea and Korean students including Korean students' exposure to English, their learning style preferences, the effects of task-based teaching on their learning and accuracy. In addition, one paper on job satisfaction further expands on a research study initially presented at PAC2 and in the PAC2 proceedings. The CALL section explores the various applications of CALL as well as addressing the possible effects on future needs for teachers. The third section, Classroom related topics, looks at such diverse topics as learning strategies, teaching culture, tackling large classes, lexis, and asking questions. The fourth section, ESP, looks at the success of various ESP classes and approaches. The last two sections include a symposium paper on pronunciation and reports on two workshops focused on use of gender in titles and on oral testing, respectively.

It is our hope that the reader will enjoy these *KOTESOL Proceedings 2000* as much as the participants at the conference enjoyed the presentations.

Kirsten Reitan
Supervising Editor/Coordinator
KOTESOL Proceedings 2000

KOTESOL Proceedings 2000

Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning
Proceedings from the Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference, Taegu, Korea
Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

CONTENTS

I. Plenary Speaker

Classroom Language Learning: Public Behaviour, Private Learning — 9
Dick Allwright

II. Featured Speaker

Teacher development as a selfish activity: (Re)Visiting Reflective Practice — 21
Andy Curtis

III. Research in Korea

Korean Exposure to Spoken English: Learner Analysis for Instructional Design — 33
Douglas P. Margolis
David D. I. Kim

Language Learning Styles of Korean Midshipmen Learning English — 47
Junyong Lee

A Comparison Of Presentation-Practice-Production And Task-Based Learning With Respect To Language Learning In South Korea — 57
Don Makarchuk

Teaching Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction: A Survey of KOTESOL Professors (Part II) — 69
Peter Nelson
James Gongwer

Task Complexity in Language Learning and Teaching: Why Tasks Fail — 81
Chris Sheppard

CONTENTS (continued)

IV. CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)

How to Make Webpages Legible 93
Jerry Greenfield

Promoting Awareness of Cultural Diversity via Student E-Mail Exchange 103
Philip L. McCasland
Brent R. Poole

Using The Internet To Complement Classroom Instruction 117
Adriane Moser

Are Human Teachers Obsolete? 127
Stephen K. Roney

V. Classroom related

Learning Strategies For English Acquisition in Korea 137
Douglas Paul Margolis

Merger and Acquisition of Culture 145
David McMurray

Cultural Awareness Through Movies 155
Jiwon Paek

Student Generated Materials and Activities 163
Michael J. Pronko

Size matters: Creating dictionaries from the world's largest corpus 169
Ramesh Krishnamurthy

Effectively Teaching Large Classes 181
John Skye

CONTENTS (continued)

VI. ESP

Designing Case Studies for Kazakhstani Companies **191**
Larissa Akizhanova

Content-based Team Teaching **195**
Robin Nagano
Yukie Koyama

English Learning in Vocational Universities in Taiwan **203**
Tien, Ching-Yi
Hou, Hsiao-I

Developing Job-oriented Material for Group Learning **217**
Zaira Utebayeva

VII. Symposium, Workshop, and Guided Discussion Reports

Symposium on English Pronunciation **225**
David D. I. Kim (Reporter)

Exploring Title in Gendered Language **233**
Beth Ellen Barry

Revised Protocols for a Series of Rapid Oral Tests **239**
David W. Dugas

VIII. Conference Overview

Presentations at the Conference **243**

Plenary Speaker

Classroom Language Learning: Public Behaviour, Private Learning

DICK ALLWRIGHT
Lancaster University

PREAMBLE

I hope to persuade you that it could make sense to abandon the idea that language lessons need to be planned in terms of the precise language points you intend to teach. I wish to propose instead that language lessons could more profitably be planned in terms of activities that are likely to be linguistically productive, for the learners concerned, without there being any need to decide in advance which precise language items they will be productive for. I wish to propose to you also that, to make such a radically different way of teaching maximally useful, it would make sense to involve the learners in the process, via the notion of Exploratory Practice, so that they, and you, are jointly developing your understandings of what it means to be a classroom language learner and/or teacher.

I do not really expect to be spectacularly successful. I do not really expect that you will leave this room immediately ready to throw away your textbooks and start again. I'm not at all sure that that would be a good idea, in any case. I do hope, however, to have given you, by the time you leave this room, at least plenty of ideas to think about, ideas that will encourage you to see your lessons, the way they are now, as already far richer for your learners than you might otherwise think them to be. I will also be talking about ideas that might help you, and your learners, find the language classroom a much more interesting and pleasurable place to be in.

And with those positive thoughts in mind, I hope you will feel able to worry less in the future about precisely what *you* have *taught*, and to be more optimistic about what *they* might have *learned*.

And, if that works for you, then you might also feel able to gradually switch your focus away from the precise efficiency of your teaching and towards the general productivity of your lessons.

1. BEING A CLASSROOM LEARNER IS ESSENTIALLY OF *PUBLIC* MATTER.

1.1 We're accustomed to thinking about learning as an *individual* matter, with results being explained in terms of some learners being individually *cleverer* than others, and some learners being individually more *motivated* than others.

1.2 But as soon as we give people a teacher it becomes a *social* matter, in which a human relationship is at stake.

1.3 And, as soon as we put people into classroom groups it becomes a distinctly *public* matter, in the sense of people having to do their learning in the company of others, and therefore in front of an 'audience' of some sort.

1.4 And so it is now a highly complex social matter, with very many human relationships at stake, not just the teacher/learner relationship.

1.5 Which means that it is not only the learning that is done in public, but also the working out of all the human relationships involved in classroom teaching and learning.

BUT

2. ACTUAL LEARNING IS ESSENTIALLY A *PRIVATE* MATTER.

2.1 It is probably misleading, however, to suggest that *learning* is done in public. Historically, classroom research seemed to be predicated on the assumption that the more closely we studied classroom events the more close we would come to see learning taking place, but instead we have found that the actual learning is even more mysterious than before. For example, when a small group of Algerian university students on an intensive English course were asked what they thought they had learned from their lessons (Slimani, 1987), they listed a total of one hundred and fourteen different things between them, but there was very little overlap in the individual lists, with only a third or so of the items being claimed to have been learned by more than a couple of people. That was not predictable from the way they had been taught, which involved no pair or group work, but was instead a good example of sustained lockstep language teaching, with no apparent attempt to cater for individual differences. For a further example of the unpredictability of actual learning we can look at the issue of learner participation in classroom interaction. It was reasonable to imagine that the people who participated most in class would also be the ones that learned most, *because they participated most* (see Seliger, 1977), but now that we have looked at the issue more closely we can see that what actually happens is much more complex, and we can even hypothesise, just as rationally, that at least in some cases the people who do participate most may be doing so *because they are learning most*, rather than vice versa.

2.2 What we can say is that lessons are *carried out* in public, with everyone acting as audience for everyone else, for all the behaviour that is visible or audible.

So the teacher says: 'Open your books at page 21', and, in principle at least, everyone can hear what the teacher has said, and everyone can see whether or not everyone else is doing what they have been told. If some learners have not even got books out on their desks, then everyone can know this, and wonder what the teacher is going to do about it.

2.3 Similarly, if a learner says something in the target language, then everyone can form their own opinions as to its merits or demerits, and then see what the teacher does in response. For example, the following brief exchange was recorded in an ESL class in the USA some years ago:

Learner: 'Look' is 'see', right?
Teacher: Yes.

All the learners not directly involved, as well as the learner who asked the question, could, in principle, have overheard this public exchange and concluded that 'look' and 'see' are synonyms. This would be slightly misleading, of course, but it could be argued that a teacher trying to get on with his or her lesson plan could be forgiven for disposing of the question as economically as possible in terms of lesson time.

2.4 BUT, although such episodes may be instructive, in that there is something there (even if it sometimes a misleading something) for other learners to learn from, we cannot say that we have seen learning take place, just because we have been exposed to a learner's attempt to say something in the target language, and to the teacher's reaction to it.

2.5 What we have seen taking place, I would argue, is only the creation and management of an *opportunity for learning*, not the learning itself.

2.6 We can say, then, that the learners have been exposed to a learning opportunity, and perhaps we can also say something about how 'good' that opportunity was (the teacher's response suggests perfect synonymy between 'look' and 'see', but that, as already noted, is somewhat misleading). But we cannot *know* that any of the learners, not even the one who said the "'Look' is 'see', right?" have actually learned anything from the opportunity. Probably, some will have already formed their own understanding of the similarities and differences between 'look' and 'see', and so find nothing there for them to learn. Some others won't have been paying enough attention to learn anything (which may be their only way of avoiding confusion, of course, if misleading opportunities are at all frequent).

2.7 So, it seems necessary to insist, if we are to have a proper understanding of life and learning in the classroom, that what we can see happening in public is not the learning itself but the creation and management of learning opportunities.

2.8 So, the actual learning remains a private matter, something that happens, or does not happen as the case may be, inside the head of each learner. The behaviour

that creates and manages learning opportunities *is public* behaviour, but any learning which actually takes place is necessarily a *private* matter.

AND

3. YOU CAN'T PREDICT WHAT PEOPLE WILL ACTUALLY LEARN FROM THEIR PUBLIC BEHAVIOUR.

3.1 It would be reasonable to assume, even though classroom behaviour is public and learning itself is private, that there would be a sensible relationship between the two. For example, from the illustration given earlier, you would at least expect to be able to predict that, if anybody learned anything from the episode, it would be about the semantic relationship between 'look' and 'see'.

3.2 Unfortunately (although it's probably not really to be regretted at all), nothing is so simple. The opportunity to learn something (even though it may perhaps be misleading) about the semantic relationship between 'look' and 'see' is not the only learning opportunity created by this episode. Someone who already knows about the semantic relationship may hear something in the pronunciation of 'look', for example, perhaps a regional variant of the vowel, that he or she has not noted previously. Someone else may not have thought that it would be allowable to ask a question by making an assertion and then expressing doubt about it ('Look' is 'see', right?). Someone else may have not thought it would be allowed for learners to ask questions about semantic relationships when the teacher is trying to teach grammar, and so could learn something about the flexibility of mind of the teacher. And so on.

3.3 Looked at in this way, every learning opportunity episode offers, in principle, an indefinite (even infinite?) number of individual learning opportunities.

3.4 It is therefore not going to be possible to predict accurately and exhaustively what is going to be learned (if anything) from these myriad opportunities.

3.5 But, we might still expect to be able to predict that, for example, what has been clearly focussed upon, made salient in some way, will be more likely to be learned than something that has not been explicitly foregrounded.

3.6 This does in fact seem to be likely to be the case (Slimani, 1987, 1989, 1992; Banatwala, 1989). It is consistent with the general educational finding, that 'time on task' is about the only thing that can be shown to really matter to educational achievement. That is to say, of the things that are on the syllabus to be taught, the ones best learned will be those that have taken up most classroom time. But this is what you get when you look at what should have been taught, rather than at what actually became available to be learned, through the normal processes of classroom interaction that, as we have seen, actually give rise to learning opportunities that themselves would not have been part of any teacher's lesson plan. When you look at *what could have been learned* from a lesson, rather than

at what was ostensibly taught, and then look at what learners seem to have taken away from the lesson, then you get a very different picture. One major part of this new picture is the observation that, even with a small relatively homogenous class, most of the things the learners are willing to claim they have learned from a lesson are claimed by only one or two people. So the learners, however little or however much they have learned, seem by and large to have learned different things from each other, from the same lesson. It becomes extremely difficult, therefore, to predict what any one person will have got from a lesson.

3.7 BUT note that there are now two quite separate things to predict here. It is not only a matter of *what* will get learned, it is also a matter of *who* will learn it - everyone, just the learner most centrally involved, or what?

3.8 The first is at least partly predictable in terms of 'topicalisation' (Slimani, 1987, 1989: what is topicalised *is* most likely to get learned).

3.9 BUT, although *who* topicalises something matters (Slimani, 1987, 1989: more people claim to have learned something that was topicalised by a learner), we cannot go from there and assert that 'who topicalises, learns', in spite of the good sense that would make. We can only say that more people have been found to claim they have learned something when that something has been topicalised by a learner. The learner who does the topicalisation is not necessarily, it seems, in a better position to learn anything from it than any other learner in the room (Slimani, 1987, 1989), and may even be in a less good position to do so. So the second part of what we might like to predict, just who will learn what, remains mysterious.

3.10 This does not mean that there is in fact no sensible relationship between what people do in class and what they get out of being there.

3.11 But, it does mean that it is an extremely subtle relationship, about which we cannot therefore make precise predictions. The picture we get is fundamentally one of heterogeneity, not homogeneity, of idiosyncracy, not of commonality.

3.12 Conversely then, we can predict, but only in a general way of course, that what learners get out of a lesson will be essentially idiosyncratic and unpredictable, a product of the complexity of their differential participation in the lesson, and therefore of their different experience of it.

BUT

4. DOES IT REALLY MATTER?

4.1 The analysis so far has more or less importance depending upon the extent to which I may be justified in saying that actual learning from classroom lessons is not only essentially private but also *essentially* idiosyncratic.

4.2 'Essentially idiosyncratic' should be opposed to 'peripherally idiosyncratic'. I am claiming here, not that we know definitively that classroom learning *is*

essentially idiosyncratic, but that we should at least try to contemplate the hypothesis that, given the wealth of evidence so far, it is best treated as essentially idiosyncratic, and then consider where we stand.

4.3 You could perhaps argue that 'communicative language teaching', with its emphasis on communication as the aim, rather than just linguistic knowledge, has already solved the problem, because communicative language teaching can effectively free teachers from the 'tyranny of the language teaching point'. Lessons can now be planned around communicative activities, rather than around bits of the language. However, in spite of the 'communicative revolution', I would estimate that most teachers in most countries of the world, even those where communicative language teaching has been officially adopted, believe, and/or act as if they believed, that it makes sense to identify bits of the language for learners to learn, and then to teach them, more or less explicitly, on the general understanding that this is basically how things will get to be learned (via isolation and deliberate teaching, see Krashen and Seliger, 1975).

4.4 Teachers may not of course need to take the trouble to identify what there is to learn, because they are likely to be using a textbook that has done that for them. The textbook is also likely to specify just how each identified teaching point is to be taught, again on the understanding that this is how it will best be learned. Why would a textbook be so specific about such matters, unless that specificity were considered helpful to learning?

4.5 The underlying thinking here is surely that actual learning should be essentially and directly predictable from public behaviour in the classroom, in fact virtually from the teacher's public behaviour alone (without bothering to take seriously into account what the learners actually do, since they will just be doing, more or less well, whatever the textbook, via the teacher, tells them to do), which may be derived in most respects directly from a textbook.

4.6 In practice, however, and as we have seen, each lesson is more or less bound to create an infinite number of more or less well-formed learning opportunities, relating to an infinite number of matters that may or not be the intended focus of any teaching.

4.7 Each lesson can therefore be infinitely richer than whatever the textbook would have led one to expect. It may *not* be, of course, and that is a good reason for wanting to look carefully at what actually does happen, but we can be sure that it will not simply be limited to whatever was in the textbook. Any lesson is a *social* accomplishment, and as such cannot be entirely predicted from whatever source texts are used for its ostensible 'backbone'.

4.8 We may perhaps compare this to the performance of a play. A performance is bound to offer more than the text itself can provide, and to do so for good or ill (bad acting can make a strong text sound weak, and sometimes vice versa).

Similarly a lesson, however closely it keeps to a textbook, is bound to offer more than the textbook itself could possibly offer, again for good or ill. But in the case of the play we may more reliably predict that the actors will not give up on a bad text and improvise something better before our very eyes, whereas we may fervently hope that a teacher faced with a textbook lesson that is clearly not working well will feel free to improvise something that will hopefully be more productive. We might also expect that, if learners make mistakes because the lesson is too difficult in some way, then these very mistakes will be information that the teacher can use to try to modify the lesson appropriately.

4.9 The main point here, though, is that it matters (that what gets learned is not simply predictable from what gets taught), because it calls into question the value of what seems almost universally to be taken for granted, the proposition that it makes sense to try to teach people particular things at particular times. What is the point of putting so much effort into deciding what to teach, in what particular sequence, in what particular way, and precisely when, if what actually happens when people get together in the classroom is bound to throw up countless learning opportunities, and produce something that is potentially infinitely richer (and, I might add, better adjusted to learners' individual and immediate needs) than any normal lesson plan could predict?

AND,

5. IF IT DOES MATTER, WHAT CAN WE DO ABOUT IT?

5.1 Even if we are willing to contemplate the possibility that teaching teaching points is not necessarily helping learners in any direct way, what difference should we allow it to make to our teaching, or more generally to our role as teachers?

5.2 There are three fundamental positions to take up here.

5.2.1 *You could try to teach more efficiently, so that learning is more predictable.*

You could rationally decide that the reason that teaching teaching points is not particularly effective is probably that they are not taught well enough. You could then equally rationally decide to try to make direct teaching more directly effective than it currently is, simply by teaching 'better', somehow. This is treating the whole thing as a 'technical' problem - assuming the overall approach is correct, but that it is not yet being implemented well enough. This would lead you to look out for the latest teaching techniques, and then to try them out in the classroom in the hope that they would indeed be more effective than your old techniques.

5.2.2 *You could develop learner autonomy: get learners to teach themselves, and hope that they are more efficient at it than you are.*

If you decide that you are unlikely to be able to make the teaching of particular teaching points more efficient, and that in any case you would like to try to harness the potential of classroom interaction to create something that is richer than any tightly controlled lesson could ever be, then you could then start looking for a way

of so managing a classroom group so that the learners themselves can develop their individuality, and maximise their own contributions to the richness of classroom lessons, to make sure that they get lessons that are appropriate to their immediate and individual needs. This clearly involves a radical change of approach, shifting from trying to teach particular things 'well' to trying to create a classroom environment that will be linguistically productive because the learners make it so, from their own decisions about what should happen - about what they should try to learn, about how they should go about learning it, and about how they should evaluate their own learning. This is learner autonomy (see Holec, 1988).

5.2.3 There is a third position: to decide to carry on much as before, as far as the syllabus is concerned, but to try to be a lot more aware of the potential each lesson has to be a different lesson for every learner, and to be a far richer lesson than anything you could deliberately devise, and therefore alive to any possible ways you may see to promote that richness. You could really look out for incidental learning opportunities and build upon them as much as possible, rather than feel obliged to get back to your original lesson plan as quickly as possible.

5.3 The first position is fundamentally attractive to many teachers around the world, it seems, and it is also attractive to teacher trainers and certainly to governments concerned about getting value for money from the education service. But enhanced efficiency is difficult to achieve in practice. Even if the overall idea is accepted it still remains immensely difficult to get adequate training to all the teachers that may need it, and immensely difficult to know exactly what to do with them if you can get them in for training, so that you can be sure they will return to their schools significantly more effective as teachers, significantly better able to use their familiar techniques, or to use whatever new ones you have been able to introduce to them.

In any case, it is not an attractive suggestion to all teachers. There are many who are already very good at their job, but who are also close to 'burn-out' from the daily pressures they are under to produce good examination results. We cannot expect them to react well to the implied suggestion that they are just not good enough, and must retrain to become 'better' teachers.

What we need are ways of helping such teachers get more satisfaction from their classroom work, so that they come to work more cheerfully, and stay in the profession longer.

5.4 The second position, being more obviously radical, demands more thought. It involves looking at traditional class teaching as a matter of making a huge number of decisions *for learners*, and then deciding that things would perhaps be better if the learners were making at least most of those decisions *for themselves*. This is certainly attractive if one takes the view that it is unreasonable to expect teachers to know the hundreds of learners they deal with every week better than the learners could know themselves, and if you also believe that it will help learners in the

long run, when compulsory schooling is a thing of the past for them, if they learn at school how to look after their own learning needs.

But this sort of thinking can lead us into a tricky position to defend rationally. If *precision teaching* isn't the answer, why should *precision learning* do the job instead? And yet *precision learning* is precisely the position of those influential advocates of learner autonomy who believe learners should identify for themselves precisely what they should learn, how they should learn it, and how they should find out whether or not they have learned it successfully (Holec, 1988). But why should learners, even given in-class learner training, be any better at it than trained teachers? They might be able to guarantee that the focus is on things they find relevant and worth learning, but is that going to be enough to make the private learning predictable from the public behaviour?

5.5 One really radical alternative, of course, would be to put all our faith in purely incidental learning (as did Krashen, we might note in passing, with his 'forgetting principle',1982) and hope that that will suffice. We could hope that all learners need to do is to keep busily engaged with the target language (see Allwright 1976 for early thoughts on what this might imply in practice), and somehow all necessary things will be learned, eventually, without their ever needing to be consciously focussed upon. The Bangalore Communicational English Language Teaching Project, in the late 1970s (see Prabhu, 1987), demonstrated that such a solution could be made practically feasible even in economically unfavourable circumstances, and of course numerous 'immersion' projects have demonstrated the viability of using a target language as a medium of instruction for all other curriculum subjects (see Genesee, 1987).

5.6 Another, less obviously radical, possibility, going back to the third option presented above (perhaps mixed with the first option - trying to teach more efficiently - if there really does appear to be room for improvement) is to try to manage classroom lessons in such a way that your learners (as well as you yourself of course) can create opportunities to better understand what it is that you are all trying to do. This would amount to trying to get the best of both worlds. You would be offering precise and deliberate/explicit teaching of particular teaching points wherever that seemed appropriate, to make the most of the potential benefits of topicalisation, but at the same time you would be opening up the process to discussion, as part of the language learning itself, so that learners would be able to contribute more appropriately (in the light of their own and other people's learning needs) to the creation and management of learning opportunities. This could constitute a sort of 'learner training' for them, and so make a move towards a helpful form of learner autonomy. This 'opening up' could take the form of Exploratory Practice (see Allwright and Lenzuen, 1997; Miller and Bannell, 1998) whereby normal classroom language learning activities are harnessed, whenever it seems appropriate, for the sake of throwing light on what is happening in the classroom. In this way we can return full circle, to the first propositions of this

paper, where the emphasis was put on the classroom being the place not only where learning is done in public, but also where a highly complex set of human relationships is worked out, also in public. Exploratory Practice would offer a way in which such things could be brought to conscious attention, and problems could be worked out collectively.

For an example of Exploratory Practice in action (actually what will follow is the report of a key event that prompted a lot of the thinking behind Exploratory Practice) consider the perennial problem of learners not being able to keep in the target language if they are left on their own to discuss something in groups. The first proposal above would imply that the teacher should seek a 'better' way of designing group work tasks so that learners stay in the target language. The second proposal above would suggest leaving the learners to decide for themselves, under guidance of course, whether or not they would try to stay in the target language. The 'immersion' solution would bypass the problem completely, of course. That leaves the Exploratory Practice idea, of working first for understanding. As I suggested above, the central idea of Exploratory Practice (using normal classroom activities as tools for developing understanding) came to me from an actual event - a Brazilian English teacher's public report of how she got her learners to accept, for small group discussion, the very issue of the difficulties they experienced when they tried to stay in English for their group work. She reported that she learned a lot from hearing how they explained their difficulties to each other, and so felt much more sympathetic towards them herself. She also felt they were developing a sympathetic understanding of each other, and, to add the final touch, when she next asked them to discuss something in English they tried much harder than before, and more successfully, to stay in the target language. She felt, then, that the work they had done for understanding had not only produced understanding, but that that understanding had actually moved them all towards a solution of the original problem.

6. IS KOREA SPECIAL?

The above example was taken from Latin America. Is that relevant? We should surely be careful about assuming that classrooms are universally the same, anywhere in the world. So we should ask at this point: Is there any reason to believe that Korea is a special case? I cannot currently answer that question, but I can point out that surely learning opportunities still have to be created and managed, in any classroom, anywhere in the world, and this is still necessarily a social business, whether it is teacher-dominated or learner-centred. And learners still have to be allowed to practice the language and so run the risk of making mistakes that may offer the teacher a chance to teach something not originally on the lesson plan. So the same sort of analysis should still apply in principle, although the picture might look different in some ways from other places. But would only one picture emerge? Would all Korean language teaching situations yield the same picture? I cannot tell of course, and should not presume to guess. I do not

even know if anyone has done relevant research in the Korean context. I would be extremely interested, however, to hear about any work done in the Korean context.

7. CONCLUSOINS

7.1 Two points in particular emerge for me at this stage. Firstly, I have tried in this paper to show that there is much to be understood in the area of the relationship between the classroom activity of teachers and learners, on the one hand, and the learning that does or does not get done, on the other hand. I think it is appropriate therefore to work for understanding, and for teachers and learners to work for understanding together (by using Exploratory Practice, perhaps) in the classroom, without waiting for academic researchers to publish their understandings. Secondly, I hope I have also said enough about Exploratory Practice to suggest that such work for understanding, as well as being fruitful in itself, could also be an enjoyable way of spending class time. Certainly I believe it has the potential to bring enhanced 'job satisfaction' to teachers (and to learners), to help them resist 'burn-out'.

7.2 Finally, I can only hope that the 'public behaviour' you have witnessed on my part, in giving this talk, has facilitated some 'private learning' on your part. It is a curious paradox in our field that if I had wanted to control your learning I would have done better to run a workshop than to give a talk. In the supposedly 'learner-centred' context of a workshop, with its opportunities for public discussion, I could have manipulated the discussion to make sure the points I wanted to emphasise most got most prominence. By giving a talk, a 'teacher-centred activity' which instead provides an opportunity for me to do all the talking, I have had to leave it entirely up to you to decide what, if anything, you will take away from the event.

Whatever you take away, I hope it serves you well.

THE AUTHOR

Dr. Allwright has taught at Lancaster since 1978, after almost a decade at the University of Essex. He was founding Chair of the Centre for Research in Language Education, and also the founding Chair for the new national Institute for English Language Teacher Development in Higher Education. He was TESOL Inc. President in 1988/89. He has published mostly in the area of classroom research on language learning, with a focus on trying to understand the peculiarities of the relationship between language teaching and language learning. He is the author of Observation in the Language Classroom (1988), and, with Kathi Bailey, of Focus in the Language Classroom: an Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers (1991).

The current major focus of his work is on finding ways in which language teachers can bring a research perspective into their classrooms, and develop their own understandings of what goes on there, but by exploiting standard pedagogic activities for their investigatory potential, rather than by applying the standard research techniques.

REFERENCES

Allwright, R.L. (1976). *Language Learning Through Communication Practice*. ELT Documents No. 3. London: The British Council, pp. 2-14.

Allwright, D. and Lenzuen, R. (1997). 'Exploratory Practice: Work at the Cultura Inglesa, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. *Language Teaching Research, 1*(1), 73-79.

Banatwala, A. (1989). *Exploring the Relationship between Classroom Interaction and Uptake in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Teaching Classes in Order to Provide Better Learning Opportunities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, S.N.D.T. Women's University, Bombay, India.

Genesee, F. (1987). *Learning Through Two Languages. Studies of Immersion and Bilingual Education*. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Holec, H. (1988). Introduction. General Presentation. Prospects. In Holec, H. (ed): *Autonomy and Self-Directed Learning: present fields of application*. Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Cooperation, Council of Europe, pp. 5-18..

Krashen, S.D. (1976). Formal and Informal Linguistic Environments in Language Acquisition and Learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 10*(2), 157-168.

Krashen, S.D. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Institute of English.

Krashen. S.D. and Seliger, H. (1975). The Essential Characteristics of Formal Instruction. *TESOL Quarterly, 9*, 173-183.

Miller, I.K. and R.I. Bannell (1998). Teacher Education, Understanding and Exploratory Practice. *Teacher Trainers SIG Newsletter, 22*. Broadstairs, Kent: IATEFL, pp. 20-27.

Prabhu, N.S. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seliger, H.W. (1977). Does Practice Make Perfect? *Language Learning*, 27(2), pp. 263-275.

Slimani, A. (1987). *The Teaching/Learning Relationship: learning opportunities and learning outcomes*. An Algerian Case Study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Lancaster University, Department of Linguistics.

Slimani, A. (1989). The Role of Topicalisation in Classroom Language Learning. *System, 17*, pp. 223-234.

Slimani, A. (1992). Evaluation of Classroom Interaction. In Alderson, J.C. and A. Beretta (Eds), *Evaluating Second Language Education*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 197-221.

Featured Speaker

Teacher development as a selfish activity: (Re)Visiting Reflective Practice

ANDY CURTIS
Hong Kong Polytechnic University

ABSTRACT

This paper takes a step back from the current interest in how to do Reflective Practice (RP) in order to (re)explore what we may mean by RP, and what such practice may entail, in terms of its fundamentals. The notion of 'teacher development as selfish activity' is explored in relation to self-awareness, self-observation and self-monitoring. Based on these and other 'self-ish-nesses', an examination of the meaning(s) of reflective practice is presented, with the teacher' s reflective self being located within the teaching and learning communities in which teachers live and work, i.e., linking the self and non-self. The complexity of RP is then revisited and mapped out as a series of two-way relationships between different aspects of RP.

INTRODUCTION

Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms (Richards and Lockhart, 1994) is a useful volume, and shows that the interest in reflective practice (RP) has been growing in (second) language education for some time, as well as in education more generally. The book starts with around 24 questions designed to help language teachers critically reflect, and which form the focus of the individual chapters. The questions are helpful focusing tools, though may appear somewhat teacher-centered. However, there may be good reasons for this, discussed below, which Richards and Lockhart may have overlooked. The questions include "What are my beliefs about teaching and learning, and how do these beliefs influence my teaching?" (p.1) and "What patterns of language use occur when I teach" (p.2). Richards and Lockhart set out five assumptions on which they base their book:

- an informed teacher has an extensive knowledge base about teaching
- much can be learned about teaching through self-inquiry
- much of what happens in teaching is unknown to the teacher
- experience is insufficient as a basis for development
- critical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching (pp.3-4)

Though this volume is useful, an important aspect of RP seems to be conspicuous by its absence. Richards and Lockhart explain that, in reflective

teaching, "teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p.1). However, in spite of posing many helpful questions, one fundamental question does not appear to be raised: What is Reflective Practice? Bearing in mind Newman's position that "We should reject the certainty of any one meaning implied by the term reflective practice" (1999, p.158), other key questions related to this include: Does RP mean the same thing to different people? Would each of us define and describe it differently? (Curtis, 1999a).

One of the surest signs that topics such as RP are becoming established as distinct entities, worthy of specialized study and consideration within the academic community, is the launch of an academic journal devoted to that topic. One of the newest education journals, *Reflective Practice*, was launched in February 2000, and in the Editorial, Ghaye explains that: "we have included papers in this first volume which raise questions about what reflection is or may be taken to mean" (2000, p.5). This shows the importance of not overlooking such questions, of not assuming that a reader already has a clear definition/description in his/her mind, and of not assuming that different readers share the same understanding of a particular term, in this case, RP.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AS A SELFISH ACTIVITY

There are many different definitions in the teacher development literature, most of which are based on the ideas of self-awareness and self-observation. Therefore, any attempt to fully understand the basis and principles of RP must first start with the self.

Is teacher development, then, a 'selfish' activity? Yes, one could argue. Further, it can be claimed that teaching itself is a 'selfish' activity. The basis for these claims, which appear to go against the accepted belief that teaching is in fact a very giving and unselfish teaching, is as follows. Despite all of the recent and growing interest in collaborative (language) teaching (Curtis, 1999b), in most (language) classrooms in the world today, there is still only one teacher. This maybe for a number of reasons, not least of which is the fact that having two teachers teach the same class at the same time, though potentially enriching the experience for all, does cost twice as much. Also, some teachers may feel face-threatened or that their classrooms are territorially occupied with another teacher in their classroom. Whatever the reasons, this leads to what Lortie has called the 'egg carton' aspect of teaching (1975), referring to the enclosed and protected behind-closed-doors spaces of the classrooms in which most teaching and learning takes place. In relation to RP, this isolation can also lead to what Wells describes as "the loneliness of the long distance reflector" (1994, p.11).

A key consequence of this isolation is the development of necessary 'self-ish' traits, such as: self-assurance, self-confidence, self-discipline, self-reliance, and sometimes even such self-ish traits as the teacher' s self-abnegation in learner-

centered classrooms. In the same way that teacher self-abnegation benefits learners, teacher development focused on the self/selves can result in the kind of professional growth which benefits learners. In this sense, learner-centered teaching may in fact be complemented by teacher-centered teacher development.

SELF-AWARENESS

A four-part relationship was put forward by Larsen-Freeman (1983) in terms of what teachers need in order to "make informed choices" (p.266) about their teaching: awareness, attitude, knowledge and skills. Larsen-Freeman puts forward awareness and focused attention as the foundation on which to base choosing from a number of possible options:

> I cannot make an informed choice unless I am aware that one exists. Awareness requires that I give attention to some aspect of my behavior or the situation I find myself in. Once I give that aspect my attention, I must also view it with detachment, with objectivity, for only then will I become aware of alternative ways of behaving, or alternative ways of viewing the situation, and only then will I have a choice to make." (1983, p.266)

It is worth noting that notion or even the possibility of being objective has been much questioned in the postmodernism that has grown since Larsen-Freeman's comments, though this does not negate any of the other points she made.

Building on the work of Larsen-Freeman, Freeman (1989, 33) defined awareness as "the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one is giving or has given to something. Thus, one acts on or responds to the aspects of a situation of which one is aware." Freeman's model (1989, 36) of the constituents of teaching also links four aspects: awareness, attitude, skills and knowledge, which he defines as follows:

> Attitude: "a stance toward self, activity, and others"
> Skills: "the *how* of teaching"
> Knowledge: "the what of teaching" (ibid.).

Both of these sets of definitions and frameworks show that awareness, though not sufficient on its own, is nonetheless an essential starting point. However, van Lier's discussion of language awareness identifies a level preceding awareness, but also does locate it within a four-part model and identifies different types of awareness (1998):

> Level 1: Global: "intransitive" consciousness: "just being alive and awake."
> Level 2: Awareness: "transitive" consciousness, involving "perceptual activity of objects and events in the environment, including attention, focusing, and vigilance."
> Level 3: Metaconsciousness: "awareness of the activity of the mind".
> Level 4: Voluntary action, reflective processes, and mindfulness: "deliberate and purposeful engagement in actions." (p.131)

These extracts, from the work of three language teachers, show that, for language teachers, awareness of what we are doing, why and how we are doing it,

as well as awareness of our learners' actions and behaviors, are key elements in teachers working as reflective practitioners.

SELF-OBSERVATION AND SELF-MONITORING

According to Richards (1990) self-observation is "a systematic approach to the observation, evaluation, and management of one's own behavior... for the purposes of achieving a better understanding and control over one's behavior" (p.118). As with the important differences, highlighted above, between simply being aware and being aware of something specific, there are critical differences between open observation and focused observation with four particular outcomes in mind: evaluation, management, understanding and control.

Richards stresses that self-monitoring "complements, rather than replaces, other forms of assessment, such as feedback from students, peers, or supervisors" (1990, p.119), and identifies a number of ways in which self-monitoring can help teachers (ibid.). Even with limited time for professional development, and this may be especially true in settings such as those we work within in Asia, self-observation can provide valuable feedback. Self-monitoring can also lead to critical reflection and can help us "better understand [our] own instructional process" (ibid.).

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, self-monitoring can help to give back the responsibility for professional development to individual teachers. This could be one effective way of helping to counter the current top-down, market model, knowledge-as-product approach to educational management which appears to be increasingly prevalent in education in general, and perhaps even more so in language teaching centers tasked with generating institutional income (Curtis, 1999c, 1999d). As Zeichner and Liston (1996) put it: "When embracing the concept of reflective teaching, there is often a commitment by teacher…to take responsibility for their own professional development. This assumption of responsibility is a central feature of the idea of the reflective teacher." (p. 6).

In terms of methods of self-monitoring for language teachers, Richards recommends teachers "making a record of a lesson, either in the form of a written account or an audio or video recording of a lesson" (1990, p.118) as a way of getting feedback on their teaching. In this way, teachers can, in a sense, create some distance between their selves, between their 'me, myself and I'. This distance may be relatively easy to achieve when we are viewing someone else, another teacher. However, when attempting to view ourselves with an evaluative and developmental eye – assuming that an objective standpoint is difficult and perhaps impossible (as mentioned earlier) when viewing ourselves – this distancing becomes more difficult but essential.

But what of feedback on our teaching from the traditional, assessment-oriented 'outside' sources, i.e., outside of ourselves? Comparing feedback from within and without, Richards believes: "A supervisor's evaluations and students' grades are ways of assessing this [a teacher's teaching], but a more direct source of information for teachers is regular observation of their own teaching." Richards

goes on to say that: "Although few language teachers avail themselves of this resource on a regular basis, self-monitoring has much to recommend it as a component of the teacher's ongoing professional development" (1990, 118).

As acknowledged above, there may be many reasons for one teacher being reluctant to have another teacher see them at work. However, when one teacher is viewing themselves, although this too may entail some degree of discomfort, the risk is much lower. This greater security may, in turn, enable us to be willing to be more innovative, to try out new and different approaches and then see what happens, with deep, insider knowledge of our selves, but also at a safe distance.

One final note in this section should be made, regarding the difference between 'observation' and 'monitor'. Although 'monitor' can be used to mean "8. to observe or record" (Collins, 1992, p.860), it is more frequently used to mean "1. A person or piece of equipment that warns, checks, controls, or keeps a continuous record of something" (ibid.). Consequently, even though the two words can be used interchangeably, as we have done here, some may prefer 'self-observation' to 'self-monitoring', as the former may be considered more neutral in terms of the developmental/judgmental distinction.

REFLECTING ON PRACTICE

Exploring the idea of reflection in its more well-established non-RP senses, Bailey (1997) consulted *The Oxford English Dictionary* (1994, 1541), and found many meanings of 'reflection' which help to show what RP can mean, and the different shades of meaning it can contain:

(1) reflexive influence on the mind
(2) the action, on the part of surfaces, of throwing back light or heat
(3) the action of a mirror or other polished surface in exhibiting or reproducing the image of an object
(4) the action of bending, turning or folding back
(5) the action of throwing back, or fact of being thrown or driven back
(6) reference, relation, connection
(7) the action of turning back or fixing the thoughts on some subject; meditation, deep or serious consideration
(8) a thought or idea occurring to or occupying the mind (Bailey, 1997, p.3).

The recurring themes of these eight meanings can be combined thus: thoughts and images returning to one's mind, connecting thoughts and actions, previous and subsequent.

John Dewey (1933), generally credited with being one of the earliest (western) proponents of RP in education, believed that three key attitudes are necessary for RP: open-mindedness, responsibility, and whole-heartedness. His definition of reflection was "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of the reasons that support it and the further consequences to which it leads" (Zeichner and Liston, 1996, 9). This early, seminal definition sets up the

thought-action, belief-proof and cause-effect paired relationships that have shaped most subsequent conceptualizations of RP.

According to Dewey, reflection "emancipates us from merely impulsive and routine activity...[and] enables us to direct our actions with foresight and to plan according to ends in view of purposes of which we are aware" (1933, 17). Here, Dewey makes an important distinction between what might be called 'random acts of teaching' and 'goal-oriented acts of teaching'; this distinction may well have sown the seeds for many of the fundamental changes in the way teaching and learning were thought of and structured.

Interest in RP continued in the years following Dewey's work, including growing interest amongst second language educators. For example, Cruickshank and Applegate defined RP as: "the teacher's thinking about what happens in classroom lessons, and thinking about alternative means of achieving goals or aims" (1981, p.4). However, with the work of Donald Schön (1983), a resurgence of interest in RP appears to have occurred. Schön made the added distinction between "reflection-on-action" (ROA) and "reflection-in-action" (RIA); the difference between the two being an important chronological one. In ROA, RP occurs before and/or after teaching, whereas in RIA, RP occurs during the actual teaching. Russell and Munby (1991) describe ROA as "the ordered, deliberate, and systematic application of logic to a problem in order to resolve it; the process is very much within our control" (p.164); the reference to control echoing one of Richards' (1990) four main goals of self-monitoring, as discussed above. The difference in timing will, naturally, have an effect on the type (quality and quantity) of RP and result in different understandings and outcomes.

SELF AND NON-SELF

Education does not occur in social vacuums, i.e., all institutionalized teaching and learning takes place within societies which organize, arrange, monitor and assess the teaching and learning that takes place within them. This may be especially true for (second) language education, as such teaching and learning is increasingly conceptualized and designed to generate income; no longer just a desirable skills, but an essential commodity in the new knowledge-based, global economies. Furthermore, according to the old maxim, Knowledge is Power, and as knowledge has to be expressed in a language of some kind, so language knowledge is power.

The relationship between knowledge gained through RP and the socio-historical and socio-political actions that result from understanding gained in this way, has not gone unnoticed, has been recognized, for example, by Kemmis (1986), who stated that: "Reflection is not just an individual, psychological process. It is an action oriented, historically-embedded, social and political frame, to locate oneself in the history of a situation, to participate in a social activity, and to take sides on issues" (p.5). In terms of the 'self-ish-ness' of teacher development discussed above, Kemmis' phrase *not just an individual process* stresses that self-awareness,

self-observation and self–monitoring does *not* mean that any of these activities have to be carried out in isolation.

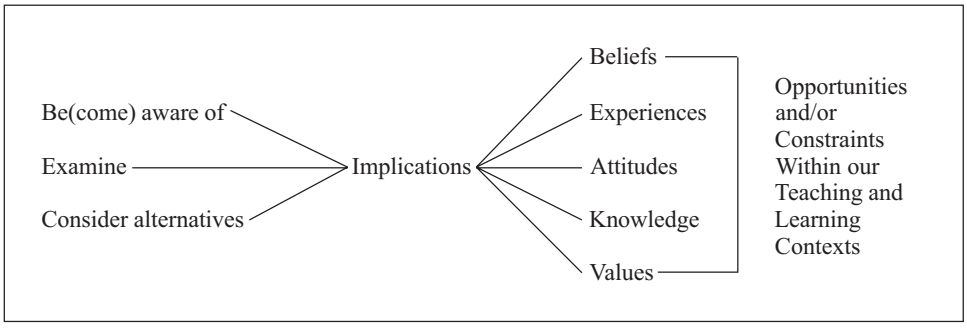
Self-access language learning does not mean learning a language alone. In fact, many self-access centers, such as those in Hong Kong, now encourage learners to go to their language centers (for English and Mandarin) with friends, in small study groups, because of the benefits of collaborative learning. If, after observing my class, a colleague points out to me things that I am doing that I am not aware of, for example, (not) evenly distributing my questions to the groups, then my self-awareness has been raised *by interaction* with a colleague and peer. Kemmis goes on to say: "Moreover the material on which reflection works is given to us socially and historically; through reflection and the action which it informs, we may transform the social relations which characterize our work and our working situation" (ibid.).

This individual-societal relationship in RP has also been identified and discussed by Bartlett (1990), for whom reflection is: "the relationship between an individual's thought and action and the relationship between an individual teacher and his or her membership in a larger collective called society" (p. 204). The intrapersonal-interpersonal connection is highlighted by Bartlett when he stresses the importance of this individual-societal interaction in RP: "The first relationship involves the subjective meanings in teachers' heads. The second relationship explores consciously the relationship…between individual teaching actions and the purposes of education in society" (ibid., 204-205).

CONCLUSION

The complexity of RP is show by an analysis of a Zeichner and Liston (1996) comment, for whom RP is: "a recognition, examination, and rumination over the implications of one's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, knowledge, and values as well as the opportunities and constraints provided by the social conditions in which the teacher works" (p.6). A break down of this shows a great many relationships between several aspects of RP, which may be represented as follows:

FIGURE 1.
A DIAGRAMMATIC BREAKDOWN OF ZEICHNER AND LISTON' S DESCRIPTION OF RP



This paper has suggested that in second language teacher development, in our eagerness to embrace RP, we may not have considered carefully enough the basis and fundamentals of RP. To address this, self-awareness, self-observation and self-monitoring have been discussed, but whilst trying to stress that collaboration can and should occur between language teachers who are working as reflective practitioner, as Birch (1992) has advised: "the support of colleagues who are undertaking a similar process [of RP] is highly desirable" (p.290).

This paper was designed to show that RP is neither simple nor easy, but the benefits to be gained from developing the knowledge, skills, understanding and understanding to be a reflective practitioner more than outweigh the potential benefits for all parties.

THE AUTHOR

From 1998 to 2000 Andy Curtis designed and directed a new, advanced inter-disciplinary EAP program, Effective English for Postgraduate Research Students (EEPRS), designed to assist researchers from Hong Kong, China Mainland and elsewhere to complete their doctoral degrees in English. In Spring 2001 he becomes a Visiting Scholar in the Faculty of Education at Queen's University, Canada. His new book, Pursuing Professional Development: The Self as Source, co-authored with Kathi Bailey and David Nunan, is being published by Heinle & Heinle. Email: andy.curtis@sit.edu

REFERENCES

Bailey, K. (1997). Reflective teaching: Situating our stories. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, *7*(1), 1-19.

Bartlett, L. (1990). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second language teacher education* (pp.202-214). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Birch, G. (1992). Language learning case study approach to second language teacher education. In J. Flowerdew, M.N. Borck, & S. Hsia (Eds.), *Perspectives on second language teacher education* (pp.283-294). Hong Kong: Hong Kong City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Collins Concise English Dictionary. (1994). Glasgow: HarperCollins.

Cruickshank, D.R., & Applegate, J.H. (1981). Reflective teaching as a strategy for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership*, *38*(7), p.553-554.

Curtis, A. (1999a). Re-visioning our roles: Teachers as experts, researchers and reflective practitioners. *ThaiTESOL Bulletin, 12*(2), 24-32.

Curtis, A. (1999b). Collaboration as the key to excellence. In *ELT collaboration: Towards excellence in the new millennium: Selected papers from the 4th CULI international conference (December)* (pp.15-27). Bangkok, Thailand: Chulalongkorn University Language Institute.

Curtis, A. (1999c). Changing roles for language teachers in the new era. In *Selected proceedings of the eighth ETA-ROC international symposium on English teaching (November)* (pp.37-47). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane Publishing.

Curtis, A. (1999d). Changing the management of change in language education: Learning from the past, lesson for the future. *PASSA 29*, 92-100.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. Chicago: Henry Regnery

Ghaye, T. (2000). Editorial: Into the reflective mode: Bridging the stagnant moat. *Reflective Practice*, *1*(1), 5-9.

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*(1), 27-45.

Kemmis, S. (1986). Critical reflection. Unpublished manuscript. Deakin University, Geelong, Australia.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Expanding roles of learners and teachers in learner-centered instruction. In W.A. Renandya & G.M. Jacobs (Eds.), *Learners and language learning* (Anthology Series 39, pp.207-226). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Newman, S. (1999). Constructing and critiquing reflective practice. *Educational Action Research Journal*, *7*(1), 145-161.

Oxford English Dictionary. (1994). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J.C. (1990) The teacher as self-observer: Self-monitoring in teacher development. In J.C. Richards, *The language teaching matrix* (pp.118-143). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., & Lockhart, C. (1994). Reflective teaching in second language classrooms. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Russell, T., & Munby, H. (1991). Reframing: the role of experience in developing teachers' professional knowledge. In D. Schön, *The reflective turn: Case studies in and on educational practice* (pp.164-187). New York: Teachers College Press.

Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.

van Lier, L. (1998). The relationship between consciousness, interaction and language awareness. *Language Awareness*, *7*(2 & 3), 128-145.

Wells, M. (1994). The loneliness of the long-distance reflector. In A. Peck & D. Westgate (Eds.), *Language teaching in the mirror* (pp.11-14). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching.

Zeichner, K.M., & Liston, D.P. (1996). *Reflective teaching: An introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Research in Korea

Korean Exposure to Spoken English: Learner Analysis for Instructional Design

DOUGLAS P. MARGOLIS
Dong Seoul College

DAVID D. I. KIM
Yonsei University

ABSTRACT

Most Instructional Design theories include analysis of learner needs as a primary prerequisite to selecting and sequencing the material to be taught. This study contributes empirical foundation to a learner needs analysis by offering results of student self reports concerning their exposure to English listening and speaking via three settings: instruction, multimedia, and travel to English speaking countries. Furthermore, the relationships between motivation to learn English and the three types of listening and speaking exposure are examined. The results suggest that Korean students have had on average 4 ½ minutes per class hour of lifetime English listening and speaking exposure, which amounts to 2 ½ days of total English speaking and listening exposure. Further, a relationship was found between motivation and receiving English instruction from a native English instructor. The findings have important implications for design of English instruction in Korea.

INTRODUCTION

Korean academic institutions began intensifying their English language programs in the nineties in response to market demand, government encouragement, and globalization pressures. Course designs, book decisions, and instructional choices, however, were largely made based on speculative estimates and anecdotal information about students—if students were considered at all. Empirical studies about Korean students that take us beyond mere intuition and speculation are difficult to find. Studies, for example, of socio-cultural, cognitive and affective variables are needed to determine appropriate classroom strategies and materials. While research about the exact connection between learner variables and second language acquisition is not yet conclusive, and therefore, making predictions about the exact effects that individual characteristics will have on language learning is difficult, the importance of an accurate understanding of learner variables is generally accepted by both education and second language acquisition theorists (see for example, Brown 1994, Gagne & Briggs, 1979, Harmer 1991, Lightbown & Spada 1993, and Reigeluth 1983).

The current study examines student motivation and exposure to English listening and speaking in the hope that the findings can be used to facilitate instructional design decisions.

STUDY OBJECTIVES

Two primary objectives motivated this study: 1. to provide empirical data concerning Korean students' English listening and speaking exposure in three areas—instruction, multimedia, and sojourning experiences to English speaking countries; and 2. to explore the relationships between different types of English listening and speaking exposures and motivation to learn English.

METHOD

Participant Composition

359 Student participants, from two universities in Seoul, completed a one page questionnaire. Of those who indicated their gender 218 were male and 134 female (7 no responses). The ages ranged from 18 to 29 (M = 21.3, $s.d.$ = 2.3). The student participants were recruited from universities that could be considered mid-ranked among universities in Seoul, and were attending Introductory, Intermediate, and Advance English Conversation courses, and English Pronunciation and Listening Labs.

Questionnaire and Analysis

The survey questionnaire was newly developed to examine Korean student exposure to English listening and speaking via instruction, multimedia, and travel to English speaking countries. The student participants were directed to include only instruction that involved English listening and speaking exposure, not reading, writing and test-taking courses. The survey also asked students to report their degree of motivation to learn English (as well as various other questions unrelated to the present study, that will be reported elsewhere). In addition, gender and age information were collected.

A first draft of the questionnaire was pilot tested (N = 30) for ease of response and administration, and revised where necessary. The final version of the questionnaire was administered to students during class and collected before the class period had ended. The participants were asked to respond honestly and told their response would not affect their grades. The students were also encouraged to seek clarification from the instructor of any and all aspects of the questionnaire that were unclear.

For a more detailed explanation of the questionnaire and its development, readers should consult Kim and Margolis (forthcoming).

After the questionnaires were collected, the data was then coded, inputted and subjected to statistical analyses. The statistical package SPSS, version 5.0.1 for

Windows, was used to produce response frequencies, percentages *(%)*, means (*M*), standard deviations (*s.d.*) and correlations (*r*).

RESULTS

Instruction

How may hours of instruction in English listening and speaking do the participants in this study report? To address this question participants were asked to indicate the total number of lifetime hours of English listening and speaking instruction in three areas: Academic institutions, private institutes and private tutoring.

TABLE 1.
RESPONSE FREQUENCIES OF HOURS OF ENGLISH SPEAKING AND LISTENING EXPOSURE

Instructor/	Academic Institution: School [a]		Private Institute: Hakwon		Private Individual Tutor	
Lifetime Hours	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native
0	149 (42)	236 (66)	266 (74)	270 (75)	340 (95)	332 (93)
1-20	45 (13)	5 (01)	17 (05)	17 (05)	5 (01)	7 (02)
21-40	52 (15)	21(06)	19 (05)	24 (07)	4 (01)	5 (01)
41-80	51 (14)	31 (09)	20 (06)	19 (05)	4 (01)	6 (02)
81-120	34 (10)	11 (03)	11 (03)	6 (02)	1 (00)	1 (00)
121-200	15 (04)	13 (04)	14 (04)	10 (03)	3 (01)	6 (02)
201-999	13 (04)	42 (12)	12 (03)	13 (04)	2 (01)	2 (01)

Note: Frequency of responses for each range of hours of exposure to English speaking and listening per situational category.
Parenthesis = Percentage of responses per situational category (Total of 359 responses).
Native = Native English speaking instructor.
Non-native = Non-native English speaking instructor.
[a] = Elementary, Middle, High School and University.
[b] = Hakwons are privately operated learning institutes for extracurricular instruction.

Table 1 shows the response frequencies (and percentages in parentheses) for hours of lifetime English listening and speaking exposure. The responses for hours of English listening and speaking exposure were categorized into seven groupings: *zero* (or *never*); *1-20*; *21-40*; *41-80*; *81-120*; *121-200*; & *201-999* hours of exposure.

As seen in Table 1, the majority of students have had little to no exposure to formal English listening and speaking instruction during their lifetime. For the Academic Institution category, 149 (42%) out of 359 participants responded that they have *never* received English listening and speaking classes from native English

speakers (column 2), and 236 (66%) *never* received English listening and speaking classes from non-native English speakers (column 3). As for private institutes (*hakwons*), 266 (74%) participants *never* received listening and speaking lessons from native English speakers, and 270 (75%) participants *never* received listening and speaking lessons from non-native English speakers. Finally, 340 (95%) participants have *never* received English listening and speaking tutoring from native English speakers and 332 (93%) have *never* received tutoring from non-native English speakers.

TABLE 2.
MEAN HOURS OF ENGLISH SPEAKING AND LISTENING EXPOSURE:
FROM NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING INSTRUCTORS

Instructor/ Situational Category	Native English Speaker	N.E.S. 10% Trimmed	Non-Native Speaker	N.N.E.S. 10% Trimmed	Total Hours	Total 10%
Academic Institution: School [a]	47.0	22.8	92.9	21.2	139.9	44.0
Private Institute: Hakwon [b]	31.4	7.3	31.0	5.1	62.4	12.4
Individual Private Tutor	4.7	0.0	8.0	0.0	12.7	0.0
Total Hours: Lifetime [c]	83.1	30.1	131.9	26.3	215.0	56.4

Note: Self-report of lifetime exposure to English speaking and listening instruction (Mean hours).
[a] = Elementary, Middle, High School and University.
[b] = Hakwons are privately operated learning institutes for extracurricular instruction.
[c] = Total hours: Lifetime for the three situational categories.

Table 2 shows the average lifetime number of hours of English listening and speaking exposure from native (second column) and non-native (third column) English speaking instructors, according to situational categories. The average total lifetime hours (tabulation of the hours for the three categories) are shown in the bottom row.

Participants received from academic institutions, on average, 47.0 and 92.9 hours of English listening and speaking instruction from native and non-native English speaking instructors, respectively. For private (*hakwons*) institutions, 31.4 and 31.0 hours from native and non-native English speaking instructors, respectively. Participants received 4.7 hours of tutoring from native English instructors and 8.0 hours from non-native English instructors. The lifetime hours of English listening and speaking instruction totaled 83.1 hours from native English instructors and 131.9 hours from non-native English instructors.

A visual inspection of the data from this study, however, suggests that the upper 10 percent of the data could be considered outliers, that is, these data points do not represent the typical student's exposure time to English language instruction, and are probably atypical of the average student in Korea. When the upper 10 percentage of the data for each situational category of instruction are trimmed (i.e., excluded from the calculation) and the averages recalculated, the total lifetime means were found to be 30.1 hours and 26.3 hours of English instruction from native English speaking instructors and non-native English speaking instructors, respectively. The resulting mean lifetime hours of English listening and speaking instruction then totals 56.4 hours, or about one-quarter of the untrimmed mean. Based on the typical Korean school calendar, this total lifetime English speaking and listening instruction translates to about 7% of the total class period or approximately 4 ½ minutes per hour.[1]

Multimedia

What amount of English exposure do students receive via multimedia? To address this question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of hours-per-month they watch/listen to English material in four areas of media: Television, radio, cassette tapes, and videotapes.

Table 3 shows response frequencies of listening to English material through the four media. The hours-per-month categories were: *0* (*zero*); *1-2 hours*; *3-5 hours*; *6-10 hours*; and *more than 10 hours*.

TABLE 3.
RESPONSE FREQUENCIES OF HOURS-PER-MONTH-CATEGORIES OF ENGLISH LISTENING EXPOSURE THROUGH MULTIMEDIA

Media Medium/ Hours per Month	Television	Radio	Tapes	Video
0	128 (36.7)	212 (62.9)	115 (33.8)	85 (24.9)
1-2	119 (34.1)	79 (23.4)	97 (28.5)	83 (24.3)
3-5	53 (15.2)	18 (5.3)	55 (16.2)	78 (22.8)
6-10	22 (6.3)	11 (3.3)	31 (9.1)	38 (10.6)
More than 10	27 (7.7)	17 (5.0)	42 (12.4)	58 (16.2)

Note: Tapes include English song cassettes as well as English instructional tapes (e.g., TOEIC, TOEFL, etc.).
Parenthesis = Percentage of responses per situational category (Total of 359 responses).
Tabulation of percentages for a given media do not total 100% due to missing data.

Television: The second column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies of English exposure from television. Of 359 participants, 128 (36.7%) indicated that they did not watch English programs on television. And, 119 (34.1%) watched 1 to 2 hours, 53 (15.2%) viewed 3 to 5 hours, 22 (6.3%) watched 6 to 10 hours, and 27 (7.7%) viewed more than 10 hours of English programming on television, per month.

Radio: The third column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies of listening to English programming on the radio. Of 359 participants, 212 (62.9%) responded that they did not listen to English programs on the radio. And, 79 (23.4%) listened to 1 to 2 hours, 18 (5.3%) listened to 3 to 5 hours, 11 (3.3%) listened to 6 to 10 hours, and 17 (5.0%) listened to more than 10 hours of English programs on the radio, per month.

Cassette Tapes: The fourth column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies of listening to English material on a cassette tape. Of 359 participants, 115 (33.8%) said that they did not use cassette tapes to listen to English material. And, 97 (28.5%) listened to 1 to 2 hours, 55 (16.2%) listened to 3 to 5 hours, 31 (9.1%) listened to 6 to 10 hours, and 42 (12.4%) listened to more than 10 hours of English material on cassette tapes per month.

Videotapes: The fifth column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies of English exposure from videotapes. Of 359 participants, 85 (24.9%) said that they did not watch English videotapes. And, 83 (24.3%) viewed 1 to 2 hours, 78 (22.8%) watched 3 to 5 hours, 38 (10.6%) viewed 6 to 10 hours, and 58 (16.2%) watched more than 10 hours of English videotapes, per month.

Traveling to an English Speaking Country

Have Korean students had travel experiences in English speaking countries, and if so for what duration? To address this question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of months, if any, they had sojourned to an English speaking country.

TABLE 4.
TRAVELING ABROAD TO AN ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRY:
RESPONSE FREQUENCIES AND MEAN

Travel/ Month(s)	Response Frequency
0	296 (82.5)
1	27 (7.5)
2-12	25 (6.9)
13-120	11 (3.1)
Mean 2.2 (s.d. = 11.4)	

Note: Response frequencies of month(s) travel in an English speaking country.
Final row contains the mean response and the standard deviation (s.d.)
Parenthesis = Percentage of responses per category (Total of 359 responses).

The responses were categorized into the following groupings: *0 (zero) months*, *up to 1 month*; *2-12 months*; and *13-120 months*. The response frequencies for each grouping are shown in Table 4. Of 359 responses, 296 (82.5%) indicated that they have *never* traveled to an English speaking country, 27 (7.5%) have up to 1 month, 25 (6.9%) have between 2 to 12 months, and 11 (3.1%) have between 13 to 120 months sojourning experience in an English speaking country.

The mean number of months spent in an English speaking country is 2.2 months, but is irrelevant because it is not indicative of the reality that 82.5% (296 out of 359 respondents) have never traveled to English speaking countries.

Motivation for Learning English

What are the motivational levels of students to learn English? To address this question, students were asked to report their motivation on a 5 point Likert scale (1=Very motivated, 3=So-so, 5=Not motivated).

TABLE 5.
RESPONSE FREQUENCIES OF MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Not at all motivated	-	So-so	-	Very Motivated
1	2	3	4	5
67	69	135	51	35

Table 5 shows the response frequencies of motivation for learning the English language. Of 357 participants who responded, 67 indicated that they were *very* motivated to learn the English language, while 69 said that they were between being *very* motivated and being *moderately* (*so-so*) motivated. 135 participants indicated that they were *moderately* motivated to learn English. 51 participants responded that they were between being *moderately* motivated and *not at all* motivated, with 35 indicating being *not at all* motivated.

Relationship Between Motivation and Exposure

What relationships, if any, exist between motivation and exposure to English speaking and listening? To address this question, correlations between motivation and 1) types of instruction, 2) multimedia, and 3) sojourn experiences were analyzed.

TABLE 6.
MOTIVATION CORRELATES: INSTITUTIONAL INSTRUCTION

	School		Hakwon		Tutor	
	Native	Non-native	Native	Non-native	Native	Non-native
Motivation	.11*	.00	.13*	-.04	-.02	-.02

* = Significant to the $p<.05$ level

Table 6 shows correlation data between motivation and type of instruction (school, *hakwon*, and tutor, from native and non-native instructors). Two correlations reach a significance level of $p<.05$. They are between motivation and English instruction at school from a native English speaking instructor ($r = .11$),

and between motivation and English instruction at a *hakwon* from a native English speaking instructor ($r = .13$), suggesting a positive relationship between motivation and receiving English instruction from native English speaking instructors.

Correlation results, however, do not indicate causal relationships. That is, in this context, conclusions of what-causes-what can not be drawn from correlation results. Native English speaking teachers may increase student motivation, or highly motivated students may seek out native English speaking teachers, or other variables may contribute to an increase of motivation when students have a native English speaking instructor. The data only suggests that there is a relationship between the variables in question.

The correlations between motivation and the other types of instruction are insignificant, suggesting that there are no relationships between the motivational level of participants and these types of instruction given or sought.

TABLE 7.
MOTIVATION CORRELATES: MULTIMEDIA

	Multimedia			
	Television	Radio	Tapes	Video
Motivation	.17**	.05	.07	.03

** = Significant to the $p<.01$ level

Table 7 shows correlation data between motivation and avenues of multimedia the participants utilize to access English materials. All correlations are insignificant, except for that between motivation and viewing of English material on the television ($r = .17$; $p<.01$), suggesting a relationship.

Due to the large number of participants who have never traveled to an English speaking country (82.5%), producing a largely skewed distribution, the correlation result between motivation and sojourning has been excluded.

DISCUSSION

Pitching instruction appropriately requires accurate information about student learning needs. The authors hope that the present study can help teachers set aside possible misconceptions of student experience and ability and thereby make more appropriate selections of content and activities. Toward this end, the current section will discuss the study results in light of education and second language acquisition theory regarding student experience, motivation, and learning needs.

Student Experience

Given the push by government, educational officials, and parents, 4 ½ minutes per instruction hour is much lower than anticipated and amounts to about 2 ½ days of total English speaking and listening instruction! This relatively small quantity of English speaking and listening exposure after 6 years of English education is quite surprising and requires teachers to reflect upon its implications.

The first implication is that Korean students primarily study English as an academic subject—memorizing rules and concepts *about* English—rather than *using* English as a tool for communication. In Nunan's (1993) terms, rather than acquisition from *inside* the language (attention to meaning, meaningful interaction, making language personal and concrete), students remain *outside* language, mired in attention to form and abstractions. Six years experiencing this approach inevitably produces a pattern of study and expectation resistant to change. Further, this approach offers rewards—other than communicative ability—that have been institutionally validated and promoted, by tests and grades, to the point that, in many cases, communicative ability as a goal of language learning has been displaced.

The second implication is that teachers who ask students to give class presentations, speeches, even basic conversations, may be placing unrealistic demands upon students that could be counterproductive and discouraging. Lewis and Lewis (1996) write, "only wide exposure can provide learners with the information they need about the collocations and fixed phrases which are essential to natural language use" (p. 2). Often times, as native English speakers, we forget and take for granted the countless hours of English language exposure we were afforded to be able to fluently communicate in English. Young children require about a year of English language exposure before being able to produce single words (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998). Then require another two years to be able to use sentences containing five to six words (*Ibid*). Some teachers assume, incorrectly, that surely after six years of English language instruction, Korean students should be capable of communicating orally in English at a basic level. The results of this study suggest otherwise.

A third and related implication concerns the silent period theory. Nunan (1998) sums up the concept as, "The belief that a second language is learned most effectively in the early stages if the pressure for production is taken off the learners." Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982) expresses the point more emphatically, claiming that students *need* a period of receiving language input through listening prior to producing second language orally. In recent years, some theorists have criticized the silent period concept, arguing that this period may be a result of incomprehensible language input or other factors (Gibbons, 1985). Nevertheless, the delay of speaking the second language is a phenomenon that is still recognized by instructional theorists, who stress the importance of prioritizing listening skills in the early stages of language learning (Nunan, 1998).

According to this study, university students are unlikely to have passed through a silent period. Therefore, pressuring students into premature language production may lead to adverse effects, such as de-motivation and frustration, if not outright rebellion.

Another implication of this study's findings regarding student low exposure after at least six years of English language classes is that lack of ability to communicate in English is likely to damage the student's sense of self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) argues that self-efficacy is a crucial determinant governing academic achievement. Bandura reports, "children who had stronger belief in their efficacy were quicker to discard faulty strategies, solved more problems ... chose to rework more of those [problems] they failed, and did so more accurately than children of equal ability who doubted their efficacy" (pp. 214-215). Many university students are being expected to use English for purposes which they have had very little instruction and experience. High expectations upon students who are being asked to perform in a different realm from their experience may lead students to believe that they do not have an aptitude for learning languages and thus to quit.

Motivation

Gardner (1985) suggested motivation was one of four factors that influence language learning. One of the challenges faced by teachers is to maintain and/or increase student motivation. The findings of this study suggest that student motivation remains remarkably high despite—or as a result of!—lack of exposure to English speaking and listening. As stated above, societal pressures, market forces, and educational emphasis have all contributed to an environment of strong external motivations. Teachers who help students internalize this motivation may help to maintain and improve it. Moreover, in this study, a positive relationship was found between motivation to learn English and learning from native English speaking instructors. That is, highly motivated students received/sought English language instruction from native English speakers. Some variables mediating this relationship might be novelty of receiving English instruction from a native English speaker, self-confidence derived from opportunities for authentic English communication, and different expectations students place upon foreign teachers, allowing for innovative teaching styles and approaches. Another possible mediating variable is culture.

Second language acquisition theorists tend to agree that culture plays a role in language learning and many people have explored the characteristics of the relationship (e.g., Agar, 1994; Grosjean, 1982; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Brown (1994) regards teaching a foreign language as teaching a culture. Indeed, he likens foreign language learning to the acquisition of a new identity. In some sense, the acquisition of a foreign language involves the language learners undergoing a socialization process—a process of acquiring knowledge, values, attitudes, and social

skills associated with a language—to become a competent member of, and integrated within, a language society (Reber, 1985).

In receiving English instruction from a native English speaker, the student is implicitly acculturated into the English language society, by a member of that community. Native Korean instructors could aid in this acculturative process, but it is only natural that unless strongly emphasized, their instructional effects (in teaching the culture) would be diminished. Also, Gardner (1985) hypothesized a relationship between student motivation to integrate with the target culture and success in second language learning. Integrative motivation arising from contact with native speakers may be another explanation for the observed relationship between native English instructors and student motivation.

Learner Needs

Students need more speaking and listening exposure. The results of this study clearly show that the majority of students entering university are ill prepared to meet the challenges of communicating orally in English. Teachers often overlook those students that are not yet capable of oral communication and focus their attention and instruction towards those students who are able to *match* their teaching expectations. These students are probably in the minority. To select appropriate speaking and listening activities, teachers should keep in mind how little previous exposure students have had. Syllabi should be developed with a slow progression that allows ample time for student practice. In this manner, student confidence and self-efficacy can be restored.

Moreover, teachers should discuss issues, such as tolerance of ambiguity, inter-language errors, and culture differences, with students to help them understand the process of language learning. Further, because students have developed habits and attitudes of language learning that may prove ineffective, learning strategy training should be an essential ingredient to help students overcome the consequences of past English instruction. Students must learn that English should not be *studied* as an academic subject, but *used* as a tool for communication. This point is very important. Teachers have studied about language learning and teaching methodologies at great length. The students, on the other hand, have very little background experience, understanding, or expectation about the communicative approach. Very rarely do students use a communicative approach to self-study. To enhance the effectiveness of instruction, teachers must teach the students how to study on their own in a communicative manner. That is, instead of sweating alone for long hours over vocabulary lists, for example, students must be taught alternative methods, such as calling on a classmate for an "English Date," calling a friend for an English conversation, or chatting on the internet. Teachers can help facilitate this change by reducing focus on "correct answers," convergent thinking, and translation. Instead, teachers should encourage students to discover problem solving and divergent thinking skills. Sometimes, it is even appropriate

to leave students guessing about the exact meaning of texts—whether oral or written—to give them a chance to test and trust their own conclusions and guesses.

CONCLUSION

Korean students in this study were found to have very low exposure to English listening and speaking, a finding probably consistent with most people's expectations. However, the degree to how little exposure students have had—about 2½ days lifetime total or 4½ minutes per hour of English class—is surprising in the context of the emphasis and commitment to English education evident throughout Korean society. In other words, students experience English as essentially a "dead" language.

The results of this study also imply that Korean students have fossilized study habits and learning expectations that may be obstacles to language learning. Therefore, instruction must concentrate some effort to the extinction of such habits and development of learning strategies conducive for second language acquisition.

Finally, this study raises two questions for additional research: 1) What are students being taught in the English classroom in Korea? And, 2) What are appropriate performance expectations for students who study a second language for 6 years? Answering these two questions can lead to developing meaningful evaluation tools for English education here and guide us toward better instructional design.

NOTES

1. Students typically receive 4 hours per week x 32 weeks per year of English instruction in Middle and High School. The total school year includes 220 days of instruction (36 weeks), but 4 weeks were dropped for exam periods and miscellaneous class cancellations. The result yields 128 hours of English instruction per year or 768 hours of Middle and High School English instruction.

THE AUTHORS

Douglas Margolis currently teaches at Dong Seoul College and coordinates the KOTESOL Teacher Training project. His teaching and research interests include developing assessment methods for pronunciation and spoken English, identifying culturally appropriate teaching techniques and online teaching methodologies, and incorporating multiple intelligence theory and learner strategy training into curriculum development. Email: dpm123@teacher.com

David D. I. Kim has been teaching English in Korea for five years, most recently at Kookmin University, in Seoul. Presently he is pursuing a Ph.D. degree at Yonsei University. His teaching and research interests include: cross-cultural issues in language learning, developing language assessment tools (e.g. pronunciation) and teaching methodology. His bilingual (English and Korean) abilities and bicultural experiences provide experiential foundation in understanding the interactive dynamics of language and culture. Email: kdi@yonsei.ac.kr

REFERENCES

Agar, M. (1994). *Language shock: Understanding the culture of conversation*. New York: William Morrow and Co.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching, 3rd Ed*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fromkin, V., & Rodman, R. (1998). *An introduction to language: 6th edition*. Orlando, F.L.: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Gagne, R. M. & Briggs, L. J. (1979). *Principles of instructional design* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gibb, M. (1998). Attitudes toward language varieties: A survey of university students in Seoul. In *Proceedings of the 1997 Korea TESOL Conference*. Taejon, Korea: KOTESOL.

Gibbons, J. (1985). The silent period: An examination. *Language Learning, 26*, 267-280.

Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with two languages*. Cambridge, M.A.: Harvard University Press.

Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching, new edition*. London: Addison Wesley Longman.

Kim, D. D. I., & Margolis, D. P. (Forthcoming). "Korean Students' Exposure to English Listening and Speaking: Instruction, Multimedia, Travel Experience, and Motivation" in *KOTESOL Journal*.

Lewis, J. & Lewis, D. (1996). *Challenge & Change in Language Teaching*. Great Britain: Macmillan Heinemann ELT.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1993). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implication for cognition, emotion and motivation. *Psychological Review, 98(2)*, 224-253.

Nunan, D. (1993). Task based syllabus design: Selecting, grading, and sequencing tasks. In G. Crookes and S. Gass (Eds.), Tasks *in a pedagogical context: Integrating theory and practice.* England: Multilingual Matters.

Nunan, D. (1998). Approaches to teaching listening in the language classroom. In *Proceedings of the 1997 Korea TESOL Conference*. Taejon, Korea: KOTESOL.

Reber, A. S. (1985). *Dictionary of psychology*. New York: Penguin Books

Reigeluth, C.M. (1983). *Instructional-Design Theories And Models: An Overview of their Current Status*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Language Learning Styles of Korean Midshipmen Learning English

JUNYONG LEE
Korean Naval Academy

ABSTRACT

The present study identified Korean midshipmen's language learning styles using a Korean inventory for preference channels devised by O'Brien (1995). This study has shown that Korean midshipmen sometimes used the three physiological aspects-visual, auditory, and haptic channels. There was no significant difference between classes, based on a statistic method-analysis of variance. Pedagogically, the findings of this study suggest that appropriate use of teaching style be conducted in the classroom to help the midshipmen become more successful in their English learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Our personalities seem to influence our learning. When we learn something, we often rely on our preferred method. It is not difficult to understand that personal factors such as introversion or extroversion determine which channels or procedures we favor. A language learning style can be described as the overall patterns that give direction to language learning behavior. Recent research shows that learning styles play an important role in the process of second language learning.

In this paper, I will present a study in which I researched midshipmen's language learning style. Specifically, the study will focus on sensory channel preferences the learners use, such as visual, auditory, and haptic (tactile and/or kinesthetic). Finally, discussions and pedagogical implication will be added, based on the physiological elements.

2. LANGUAGE LEARNING STYLES

2.1 Different Language Learning Styles

Language learning styles are defined as the general approaches students use to learn a new subject or tackle a new problem (Oxford, et al., 1991). Language learning styles have four main aspects, and they are related to each other: cognitive, physiological, affective and behavioral. Cognitive elements include preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning. The affective aspects reflect patterns of attitudes and interests that influence what an individual will most pay attention to in a learning situation. The physiological elements involve at least partly the anatomically-based sensory, perceptual tendencies of a person. From the standpoint

of behavior, learning style relates to a tendency to seek situations compatible with our own learning patterns, often related to our specific language learning strategies (Oxford, et al., 1993).

Differences between learning styles and learning strategies can be stated as follows: the former is the general approaches to learning or problem solving, while the latter is the specific behaviors or actions (Oxford, et al, 1993: 440). However, both of them have a strong cultural component. That is, the environment in which we grew up largely determines learning styles or strategies. Hofstede (1986), for example, shows four different cultural dimensions about teacher-student and student-student interaction: collectivism vs. individualism, large power distance vs. small power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance vs. weak uncertainty avoidance, competition vs. cooperation. These dimensions and/or cultural characteristics consist of individual learning style, directly or indirectly. For example, Korean English learners' style is closely related to their tradition and culture based on large power distance, collectivism, strong uncertainty avoidance, and cooperation.

Individual learner's learning styles are also classified into many dimensions: global vs. analytic, field-dependent vs. field-independent, feeling vs. thinking, impulsive vs. reflective, intuitive-random vs. concrete-sequential, closure-oriented vs. open, extroverted vs. introverted, visual-auditory vs. hands-on, etc. The analytic student usually prefers to engage in formal language learning or achieving accuracy, for example, while the global student prefers communicative or experiential learning. Many language researchers such as Brown (1991) comment that feeling, impulsive, intuitive-random, or extroverted learners did better in learning a language, even though the results are not always the same.

Abraham (1985) and Chapelle and Roberts (1986) researched the differences between the field-independence of ESL/EFL students. They found that field-independent students did better on tests of grammatical accuracy, but field-dependent students performed better in communicative tasks although the results were not consistent. Similarly, impulsive students showed quick and uncritical acceptance of initially accepted hypotheses, while reflective ones preferred systematic, analytic investigation of hypotheses (Oxford, et al., 1992).

Sensory preference channel can be one of the most significant elements in the ESL/EFL classroom. This report concentrates on this field. Several research studies show that visually-oriented students prefer reading and obtaining a great deal of visual stimulation. For these students, visual devices are very useful in lectures, conversations, or any other teaching or learning environment related to the target language. On the other hand, auditory-oriented students are satisfied with oral directions and interactions instead of visual devices. Hands-on or kinesthetic people like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects. For those people, it is not a good strategy to stay in one place for a long time without any movement.

In the investigation of sensory preference style, Reid (1987) found very interesting results from the multi-cultural point of view. It was revealed that Korean

students were the most visual among the multi-cultural people. And the tendency was significantly higher than U.S. and Japanese students. Arabic or Chinese students also turned out to have strong visual preferences. Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese were less auditory, and among them the Japanese were the least. In addition, Reid's (1987) results show that most ESL students strongly preferred kinesthetic learning. The strongest in the kinesthetic area were Arabic, Spanish, Chinese, Korean, and Thai students. Interestingly, native speakers of English were less kinesthetic than the other countries' students. She recommended that ESL teachers identify their students' styles and try to adjust to their styles, first of all.

2.2 Learning Preference Channels

Let us now look at some theoretical aspects that ESL teachers need in order better to understand the students' behavior in class. Maggioli (1995: 9) enumerates some typical traits of visual learners as follows: 1) They rarely speak in class; 2) They are very verbal in their mother tongue; 3) They tend to follow the teacher with their eyes as he or she moves around the classroom; 4) They are very neat and organized; 5) They find it useful to underline and highlight information; 6) They generally work quickly in class and finish early; 7) They reproduce information by visualizing the text page; 8) They generally respond to a teacher' s written comments more than to a verbal message.

Classifying visual learners into two, Kinsella (1995) makes a distinction between visual-verbal and visual-nonverbal. The former students easily relate to print, while the latter relate to pictures more than print. Typically, a visual student tends to prefer reading to watching videos. Maggioli (1995: 9) adds that visual verbal students have a tendency to operate with their left hemisphere more frequently, and this makes them more analytical than those who fall into the visual-nonverbal section.

On the other hands, auditory learners are very active in class, talking loudly and carefully choosing the words they use to achieve a desired effect. Thus, they respond to oral directions or comments by the teacher rather than to written ones. The auditory learner' s traits can be summarized as follows (Maggioli 1995: 10): 1) They always chatter, whisper, talk, etc.; 2) They like narratives, jokes, and stories, and they are excellent storytellers; 3) They can repeat information and give in a verbal way with a high degree of accuracy after only a few repetitions; 4) They use rhythm and sounds as memory aids; 5) They are excellent leaders because they know how to listen to people; 6) They perform better in class than their test results indicate; 7) They see relationships of cause and effect very carefully.

The last channel -- haptic (kinesthetic or tactile) students learn best by moving, or hands-on experience. It is not easy for them to get information from a textbook (visually) or a lecture (auditorially). Both kinesthetic and tactile learners tend to adhere to right brain processing and synthesized information. However, kinesthetic students often understand in a logical way, using their left hemisphere for analysis and comprehension and for sending information back as a picture.

On the other hand, most tactile learners are dominated by right hemisphere, and they often operate in a global way (Maggioli, 1995). Traditionally, however, haptic learners show the following characteristics (Maggioli 1995: 10): 1) They often follow an "observe-reflect-do" sequence to absorb new information; 2) They exhibit some tactile traits; 3) They are good at sports and physical tasks; 4) They must move; they cannot sit still for long periods of time; 5) They learn best with quiet periods followed by active ones; 6) They need concrete experiences to process new information; 7) They have difficulty learning abstract symbols or following cause-effect sequences; 8) They have a very short concentration span; 9) They need to see and hear and physically do things in class.

Seating preferences and postures are also different for each style (Maggioli 1995: 12–13). Visual learners like to sit at the front or middle of the class. In addition, they need to be near a window or a place where there is a good view. Meanwhile, auditory learners don't have any seating preferences, but they would like to sit near friends so it is easier to talk. Since they are easily disturbed by noise, it can be a good strategy to move them away from noise sources. Moreover, auditory learners have a comfortable sitting posture. On the other hand, haptic learners like to sit at the back of the room in a very relaxed way. Generally they sit close to other kinesthetic or tactile students.

One of the important things in class teaching can be how to decrease style conflict between teachers and students. A teacher likes to teach his or her students in the way they learned best. If the teacher's style does not coincide with the learning style of the students, the result from the conflict will be problematic. In that case, the students go through it as a painful experience and do not like the class or the subject. Therefore, it is very important to find our own teaching style. Since most Korean English teachers are apt to use their preferred method or style and reinforce that style with their students, they can easily have trouble with their students.

3. METHODOLOGY

The present study identifies language learning styles of Korean midshipmen learning English for a specific purpose, focusing on the physiological elements of learning style. Studying language learning styles, several researchers developed different inventories. This study used Lynn O'Brien's (1990) preference channel survey inventory consisting of thirty-six items.

3. 1 Subjects

The subjects were all midshipmen at the Korean Naval Academy and the data were collected during the 1999 spring semester. As in most Korean educational institutions, English is one of the most important subjects in the academy. Like other Korean university students, the Korean midshipmen have been officially taught English from the seventh grade. Throughout their four university years, all the midshipmen take more than one English course.

When they reach third or fourth year, they have to take the English course Military English or Basic Naval English. Taking those courses, they have the opportunity to accumulate English skills for their future career in the Korean navy. In the first year, English Reading is a required subject. The final number of the students who participated in this study were six hundred and two, after deleting unfinished answers to the questionnaires.

3. 2 Description of Instrument

In order to check frequency of language learning students' channel preference, O'Brien (1990) devised a Style Inventory. The inventory contains three preference sections. The thirty-six items of the inventory range on the Likert-scale from "1: almost always" to "5: almost never."

The total points of each channel can be divided into the number of each part. The specific items of each channel are as follows: the items for visual include 1, 5, 9, 10, 11, 16, 17, 22, 26, 27, 32, and 36. Items for auditory channel include 2, 3, 12, 13, 15, 19, 20, 23, 24, 28, 29, and 33. A typical example for this channel is seen in item 33; "For extra credit, I prefer to do a report on tape rather than write it." The other items for haptic inventory are the rest – item 4, 6, 7, 8, 14, 18, 21, 25, 30, 31, 34 and 35.

The author carefully translated the English inventory into Korean in order to minimize possible errors coming from difficulties in English reading. More concrete information or completed Korean inventories can be obtained by contacting the author.

3. 3 Pilot Study and Data Collection

In order to avoid possible unexpected problems, a pilot study was conducted one week before the main study, with four seamen who had attended university for one or two years. One of the main objectives for the pilot study was to check items translated into Korean. No significant problems were found in the pilot study.

For the data collection, the author asked many professors in the academy to reserve fifteen minutes before one of their classes. All of the professors were very cooperative with the project. Before distributing the questionnaire, a brief explanation of the objectives of the study was given to the students. Most of them finished the thirty-six items in less than fifteen minutes. It took approximately three weeks to collect all the data. Their answers were checked several times, and some were deleted because of incomplete information on their questionnaire.

For the study, the author addressed two questions:

1. In regard to ESP at the ROK Naval Academy, can we find some channel differences among classes?

2) Are there any significant differences in the students' channel of preferences?

In order to answers these questions, the author used descriptive statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Each student's preference channel score was added, and the average means of each class and/or each channel were compared.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The midshipmen's average score for the visual, auditory, and haptic channels were 3.47, 3.07, and 3.03, respectively. The average mean of the preference channels was 3.19. According to Oxford's (1989) explanation of the Likert scale, the range indicates that they "sometimes" use the three channels. The use of the haptic (M = 3.03) and auditory (M = 3.07) channels was almost identical; however, that of the visual (M = 3.47) was a little higher than the other two channels. Table 1 shows the results of the questionnaire.

TABLE 1.
AVERAGE MEAN OF VISUAL, AUDITORY, AND HAPTIC CHANNELS

	Visual	Auditory	Haptic	Average
Freshmen (176)	3.26	2.90	2.80	2.99
Sophomore (148)	3.72	3.33	3.31	3.45
Junior (140)	3.46	3.05	3.01	3.17
Senior (138)	3.42	3.00	2.89	3.10
Average (602)	3.47	3.07	3.03	3.19

Comparing the average mean of each class, that of the sophomore class was the highest (M = 3.45), and that of the freshmen was the lowest (M = 2.99). The other grades, juniors (M = 3.17) and seniors (M = 3.10), were between those of sophomores and freshmen. The greatest difference between grades and channels was 0.46 and 0.44, respectively. Every grade, it turned out, used the preferred channels of visual, auditory, and haptic, in that order. At a glance, there were no big differences between grades, or between channels, as seen in the Table 1. Converting the result of the questionnaire into percentages, we could obtain 36.25%, 32.08%, and 31.67% on the visual, auditory, and haptic channel, respectively. Table 2 shows the percentage of each channel that the midshipmen use.

TABLE 2.
PERCENTAGE OF VISUAL, AUDITORY, AND HAPTIC CHANNEL

	Visual	Auditory	Haptic
Average	3.47	3.07	3.03
Percentage	36.25 (%)	32.08 (%)	31.67 (%)

N = 602

In order to check if there were significant effects between grades or between channels, moreover, an analysis of variance was carried out with the figures in Table 2. The total sum of squares was 58.03, and the difference between the sum of squares was 0.35. Each grade has 3 cases (channels), so the degrees of freedom were 8 ((3-1) (3-1) (3-1) (3-1)). The result of the analysis of variance turned out as shown in Table 3:

TABLE 3.
SUMMARY OF ANOVA FOR PREFERENCE CHANNELS

	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
Between Grades	3	0.35	0.12
Within Channel	8	0.75	0.10
Total 11 1.10			

N = 602, * p = .01

The author made an F test to see whether or not we could find any significant difference between groups (grades). There was no significant difference between groups. That is, the value of F ((0.12/0.10) = 1.12)) was less than the value of F ((3, 8) = 4.07, *p = 0.01)). However, since the value was more than 1, after the F test additional tests followed. The author could not find any significant effects between grades or between channels in the following tests, either. The results of the test reflect that all the students use almost the same channels throughout their four academic years, even though there were slight differences between preference channels.

5. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Pedagogical Implications

O'Brien (1995: 199-201) suggests strategies for the learners of visual, auditory, and haptic preferences. His suggestions could be a great help not only for each style of learners of a second or foreign language but also for many language teachers who are interested in assisting their students. Here are the main recommendations for the visual preferences: 1) Write things down such as quotes, lists, dates, etc.; 2) Look at people while they are talking; 3) Work in a quiet place; 4) Use color to highlight main ideas in your notes, textbooks, handouts, etc.; 5) Select a seat furthest from the door and windows and toward the front of the class, if possible.

The following recommendations are for learners with an auditory preference. This information will also be very helpful for teachers with that style preference. O'Brien suggests those people try some of these guidelines and create some more

that will work for the auditory learners. These are some of the typical suggestions: 1) Try studying with a buddy so you can talk out loud and hear the information; 2) Recite out loud the thing you want to remember (quotes, lists, etc.); 3) Make tape recordings of classroom lectures, or read class notes onto a tape. Try to listen to the tape three times in preparing for a test. 4) Summarize whenever possible.

The same author, O'Brien (1995), does not forget to recommend guidelines for haptic students. For those people, as we have seen, getting information from a textbook (visually) or a lecture is not easy, since the best ways to learn a language are closely related to their style: 1) To memorize, pace or walk around while reciting to yourself; 2) Use a bright piece of construction paper in your favorite color as a desk blotter; 3) When reading a textbook chapter, first look at the picture, then read the summary or end-of-chapter questions, then look over the section headings and bold-faced words; 4) When trying to memorize information, try closing your eyes and writing the information in the air or on a desk with your finger.

According to O'Brien (1995) suggestions, learning efficiency is closely related to our own channel preferences. As seen in the results of this study, the Korean midshipmen do not have any significant physiological characteristics among the three channels. Moreover, the Korean midshipmen's use of the channels was not high (M = 3.19/5.00) thus they "sometimes" use the three channels. Therefore, English teachers need to use every aspect from these learning suggestions. Meanwhile, the visual preference is slightly stronger than the other two channels. Thus, it will be most helpful to emphasize the recommendations for the visual preference channels.

Considering the results of this study, Reid's (1987) finding can be interpreted differently. Even though the most eminent channel for the midshipmen was also visual, the differences among the three were very slight and there was no significant effect, statistically. In order to compare these results with ones from other research studies, it is recommended that further research such as longitudinal study be conducted for students in ESP settings.

5.2 Conclusion

The present study has identified Korean midshipmen's language learning styles using a Korean inventory for preference channels devised by O'Brien (1995). This study has shown that the Korean midshipmen "sometimes" used the three physiological aspects - visual, auditory, and haptic channels. There were no significant effects between grades, based on ANOVA. Moreover, there were no significant differences between channel preferences. Although the visual and sophomores' figures were higher than the other channels and the other classes, respectively, the differences were very slight. Pedagogically, the findings of this study suggest that appropriate use of teaching style be conducted in the classroom to help the midshipmen become more successful in their English learning. For more effective and communicative language learning and teaching in an ESP

setting, further exploratory research is needed, including interviews, longitudinal observations, and other survey inventories.

THE AUTHOR

Junyong Lee was born in Masan in 1958. He graduated from the Korean Naval Academy in 1981. While serving in the Navy, he majored in English Language and Literature at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS) in Seoul. In 1991, he received an MA in English at HUFS. From 1993-1998, he studied Applied Linguistics at Ball State University, Indiana and got a Ph.D. As an assistant professor, he is teaching English Reading to Korean midshipmen. His major concerns are language learning strategies and CALL.

REFERENCES

Abraham, R. (1985). Field independence-dependence and the teaching of grammar. *TESOL Quarterly 20*.

Brown, H.D. (1994). *Teaching by principle*. Englewood: Prentice Hall.

Brown, H.D. (1991). *Breaking the language barrier*. Intercultural Press.

Chapelle, C.A., and Roberts, C. (1986). Ambiguity tolerance and field independence as predictors of proficiency in English as a second language. *Language Learning 36*.

Eliason, P.A. (1995). Difficulties with cross-cultural learning styles assessment. In J. M. Reid (Ed.), *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Hatch, E. and Lazaraton, A. (1991). *The Research Manual: Design and Statistics of Applied Linguistics*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Hofstede, G. (1986). Cultural differences in teaching and learning. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations 10*.

Kinsella, K. (1995). *Understanding and empowering diverse learners in the ESL classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

O'Brien, L. (1995). The learning channel preference checklist. In J. M. Reid (Ed.), *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R. (1989). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Newbury House.

A Comparison Of Presentation-Practice-Production And Task-Based Learning With Respect To Language Learning In South Korea

DON MAKARCHUK
Kyonggi University

ABSTRACT

This article reports on a study that tested two ways of teaching English conversation in a Korean university classroom. The first way used a form-based approach (Presentation-Practice-Presentation) and the second a meaning-based approach (Task-Based Learning). In addition, the meaning-based approach was divided into two groups each with a different type of highlighting. One employed a teacher-presented form of highlighting and the other a teacher-facilitated form. The language content which the study focused on was lexical chunks.

The results of the study suggest that a meaning-based approach combined with a teacher-presented form of highlighting promotes language uptake better than either a meaning-based approach with a teacher-facilitated type of highlighting or a form-based approach. It also concludes that the form-based approach best promoted accuracy.

Finally, this article makes the point that a combination of the meaning-based approach with teacher-presenting highlighting and the form-based approach might prove to be more effective than either of the approaches used alone.

INTRODUCTION

During a period of doubt as to the value of my style of teaching as compared to others being touted, I was presented with the opportunity to conduct a study designed to compare two prominent ways of teaching English in South Korea. It was hoped that this study would either justify my pedagogical beliefs or point the way to a more effective teaching style. I was particularly interested in the relative merits of what might be called the 'top down' or meaning-based type of teaching versus the 'bottom up' or accretion-of-parts type. The former takes the view that language is best learned holistically. This 'holism' is achieved by having learners focus on meaning while engaged in communication. The hard version of this belief holds that this is all that is required to learn a language while softer stances ally the communication focus with instruction of some sort. On the other hand, the bottom-up approach claims that languages are best learned by first mastering one linguistic bit then another, and then synthesizing them into a gradually expanding approximation of the target language.

My interest, in particular, was in finding a principled basis for making decisions about how to teach my university level English as a foreign language conversation classes. The study included three groups of students who were each taught using one of the above models. With one group a lesson plan format typically referred to as *Presentation-Practice-Production* (PPP) was used. This format realizes a bottom-up approach. Another group was exposed to a meaning-focused approach (*Task-Based Learning-1*) with a **teacher-presented** *focus on form* (FOF) instructional component, while in a third group (*Task-Based Learning-2*), the same meaning-focused approach was combined with a **teacher-facilitated** *focus on form*.

PPP was chosen as a test treatment because, though a controversial methodology in the eyes of those who doubt the value of teaching language bit by bit, it is, in my experience, still widely used in Asia (see Lui (1998) for more about this) and continues to be taught in teacher-training courses (For instance, it was prominent in a Cambridge University RSA CELTA program conducted in Seoul, South Korea in the winter of 2000.). In addition, as students in South Korea are generally habitually exposed to a teacher-centered pedagogical format (which PPP is) in their elementary and secondary schooling (as well as beyond), the format was thought to have a high degree of face validity. This would likely benefit teachers who employ it, but work against teachers who choose a different path such as Task-Based Learning. Task-based learning (TBL) was selected as the other main treatment type because it is a meaning-based approach, because it has a high profile in English language teaching (ELT) (Skehan 1998), and because it seemed suited to the needs of my particular teaching environment.

Korean university-level students generally complete at least six years of English language education before reaching university. However, on starting their tertiary level English studies they commonly complain of being unable to operationalize their learned English language knowledge when attempting to have conversations. It was thought that task-based learning with its focus on using language for meaningful communication might provide these learners with the opportunity to develop their conversation ability by drawing on the English that the learners had previously studied. The rationale is that by trying to use a language we improve our ability to use it (learning by doing).

In line with the objective of helping learners to speak more automatically, *lexical chunks* were chosen as the target language of the study. Lexical chunks are believed to play an important role in the fluency of speech as they can be operated independently (for the most part) of the syntactic system, thus realizing speech when factors like time pressure and information load might cause delays in syntactically-constructed speech.

However, while fluency is no doubt valuable, it is also essential that a learner's interlanguage develop in the direction of native speaker-like accuracy. Ideally, one might hope for a way of teaching which balances progress in these two areas so as to avoid cases where a highly fluent speaker is compromised by his or her lack of accuracy or vice versa.

The results of the study do offer some insights into the effects of these different teaching styles. They suggest that (1) Task-Based Learning-1 seemed to best encourage learners to try to implement the target language, though with a high degree of inaccuracy while (2) the PPP-type treatment led to advances in the accurate use of the target language of the study (lexical chunks). And (3) that Task-Based Learning-2 did not appear to promote the implementation the target forms as well as TBL-1, and also led to a loss of accuracy in the use of the target language.

DEFINITIONS

PPP

PPP is a way of teaching which prescribes a three-stage process. First, in the Presentation stage, a language item (structure, function, or notion, for example) is presented to the learner. This might take the form of a blackboard explanation in which the teacher demonstrates the operation of a grammatical structure (the present perfect for indefinite past experiences, say). Second, the practice stage involves the learners in completing controlled practice activities using the presented language item. Here the learners might transform the present perfect in relation to person (have/has) or use a variety of past participles to convey different meanings, but without having any choice as to which form to use in any given instance. Finally, the production stage is designed to engage learners in freer practice activities that are intended to draw out the target language. For the present perfect, learners could interview each other on past travel destinations and then prepare a presentation of the findings (A: Where have you traveled to? B: I've been to Greece and the U. S.).

The much-disputed rationale (see Lewis 1994, Rutherford 1996) for using PPP is that by focusing on and practicing language (this might include grammatical structures, lexis or functions and notions, for example) in a piecemeal fashion, learners will eventually synthesize the pieces into a gradually expanding representation of native speaker-like language.

Because PPP deals so explicitly with the language code, it is said to have what is sometimes referred to as a 'focus on form'. A FOF occurs when one examines the linguistic structure of language as opposed to processing language for meaning. Long and Crookes (1992) make the distinction between a 'focus on form' and a 'focus on forms' (FOFS) (plural). The former is akin to consciousness raising in that learners are given the opportunity to acquire particular aspects of language (if they are ready to) by having their attention draw to them. However, should the learners' internal syllabus preclude acquisition, this would be perfectly acceptable. A FOFS makes the assumption that learners can be impelled to acquire certain language by **pointedly** drawing their attention to it, as in PPP. A FOFS tends to isolate language for highlighting purposes while a FOF deals with language in context. Finally, a FOFS is controlled by the teacher (teacher-directed) whereas a FOF is student-centered and teacher-facilitated.

Long and Crookes are highly critical of a FOFS, in part, because it does not take the learner's internal syllabus into account, something SLA research has indicated is important. For the purposes of this paper PPP will be said to have a FOFS.

TBL

The rationale for using TBL is that language is more likely to be acquired if the students are engaged in attempting to use it to convey meaning. In contrast to PPP, the focus is not on the forms of the language, but rather on getting one's message across by mobilizing whatever language resources are available, however ineptly.

Tasks are used to stimulate learners to attempt to communicate. In the hard version of TBL this is thought to be sufficient to propel language acquisition. However, in the soft version, which is used in this study, tasks are combined with instruction because instruction is now believed by many to enhance language learning (J. Willis (1996), Nunan (1996), Lightbown and Spada (1995), Larsen-Freeman & Long (1994)).

A task has been variously defined by Nunan (1996), Long (1995), Prabhu (1987), Candlin (1987), Breen (1987), and Crookes (1986). Long and Crookes call a task 'a piece of work.' Breen, Candlin and Prabhu call it a procedure. A task is undertaken in a language education setting to attain a reward: learning, pleasing the teacher, or maybe even having fun. It has an objective and one or more outcomes (convergent or divergent tasks). Tasks are divided into two main types: rehearsal tasks and pedagogical tasks. The former imitate 'realworld' tasks and help the learner prepare to do the task outside the classroom. The latter, according to Nunan (ibid) activate psycholinguistic processes that aid language acquisition. A rehearsal-type task might ask future servers to ask for and write down a customer's order in a classroom role-play. A pedagogic task might ask learners to listen to a taped conversation of customers ordering dinner in a restaurant and record the food ordered.

Lexical Chunks

Lexical chunks are the languages forms which are the focus of this study. They are combinations of words (usually) that frequently or always are used together, and which have a particular function. In the sentence 'What on earth are you doing?', the 'What on earth _____' part is fixed in its form and has the function of adding emphasis to the question expressed. 'Finally', another kind of lexical chunk, is used to signal the end of a unit of discourse. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) list a number of types of chunks or lexical phrases as they call them. In this study, one type, sentence builders is of particular importance. Sentence builders combine with other syntactically created language to produce sentences. For example, the sentence builder 'My point is that' can be used to construct a number of possible sentences by varying the 'that' clause that follows it.

My point is that he never comes to work on time.
My point is that being healthy pays off in the end.

Lexical chunks were chosen as the content of this study because they are thought be an important part of what a learner has to acquire and because they were believed to be applicable to both of the study treatment types.

The importance of lexical chunks to the learner comes from the belief that native speakers of English rely on two basic sources to create language. One is the construction of language syntactically (from scratch) and the other by remembering and deploying prefabricated expressions (lexical chunks). (For more on this see Skehan (1998), Sinclair (1991) and Peters (1983).)

The applicability of lexical chunks to the study treatments rests on the belief that as the chunks are to be learned by memorization, they are not susceptible to the typical criticism of PPP which is predicated on the teaching of grammatical structures and posits that these structures **cannot** be learned additively (synthetically). (For more on this criticism see the previously mentioned work by Rutherford, Lewis, and Long and Crookes, and D. Willis (1996).)

Lexical chunks while allowing for some paradigmatic slot variation tend to have relatively simple syntagmatic frames which make them quite different from syntactically- composed language which is subject to the complex variations of grammatical operations. As a result of this relative stability of form, lexical chunks can be learned additively much like any lexical item through memorization techniques.

This study takes the position that memorization (something of a black sheep in language learning) is a vital part of learning a language. While criticism related to the memorization of Audiolingual dialogues (not useful) or endless words lists (poor retention rate) is believed to be justified, it is posited that lexis is an appropriate subject for efficacious memorization techniques.

With regard to TBL, the issue is that because tasks are meaning-focused it is difficult if not impossible to prespecify particular language content. (See Skehan (1998) for the view that some tasks **do** allow for the focusing on particular language.) While this study largely accepts this position, it is believed that the Highlighting component of the TBL lesson plan format provides an opportunity to focus on particular lexical chunks.

Highlighting (A/B)

Highlighting refers to the process of drawing learners‘ attention to particular aspects of language. This is sometimes referred to as consciousness raising, noticing or a FOF (as mentioned earlier).

Highlighting A (used in TBL-1) forcefully points out isolated lexical chunks by presenting them to the learner in much the same way that they are taught in the *Presentation* stage of PPP.

Highlighting B (used in TBL-2) takes a less invasive (if you will) tack by asking learners to analyze samples of language taken from native speakers doing the study task. The learners are encouraged to notice lexical chunks which pertain to particular functions, and which are potentially useful when doing the task (i.e. 'Could you tell me more about _____') to solicit information. The teacher's role is restricted to providing the appropriate samples, giving instructions and support, and supplying feedback on the task results.

THE STUDY

University students volunteered for one of three classes to which a treatment-type was assigned randomly, and which was held over the course of five weeks. Each class was held once a week and was two hours in length. The number of students varied from beginning to end as displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN COURSES

Treatment	Learners		
	Start	Finish	Data
PPP	13	11	3
TBL-1	7	6	5
TBL-2	6	5	3

The 'Data' numbers represent learners who attended every class. The data used in the study came only from these learners because it was believed that it would enhance the integrity of the results by using only the data of students who had had equal exposure to their respective treatments.

Pre- and post-tests consisting of the same two-way, divergent, problem-solution task were conducted, and the data recorded. To do the task learners worked in pairs. One watched a portion of a video which contained a problem of some sort while the other was absent from the proceedings. Next, the absent learner returned and the nature of the video clip was explained and the problem described by his/her partner with the previously absent student asking questions as needed to clarify his/her understanding. The next stage of the task was for the pairs to discuss a solution to the problem observed in the video clip with there being a number of possible outcomes: 1) to agree on a solution, 2) to choose different solutions, 3) for one learner to choose a solution with other abstaining, and 4) for neither learner to choose a solution.

The Treatments

PPP

1) Warm-up (activate schema)
2) Present
3) Practice
4) Production (task)
5) Planning time
6) Report (orally to the class)

TBL-1 *

1) Warm-up (same as PPP)
2) Task (same as PPP)
3) Planning time (same as PPP)
4) Report (same as PPP)
5) Highlighting A (focus on form)

TBL-2 *

1) Warm-up (same as TBL-1)
2) Task (same as TBL-1)
3) Planning time (same as TBL-1)
4) Report (same as TBL-1)
5) Highlighting B (focus on form)

* The TBL lesson format was borrowed from J. Willis in A Framework for Task-Based Learning (1996). In this model the planning time and report stages are held to promote a focus on accuracy. They were included to balance the overall focus on fluency which is commonly attributed to meaning-focused types of learning.

The Data

TABLE 2.1.
TOTAL POSTTEST OVER PRE-TEST SCORES OF LEXICAL CHUNK USE BY METHODOLOGY

Methodology	Post/Pre
PPP	2.16*
TBL-1	4.8*
TBL-2	1.73

* statistically significant results in a matched t-test $p < .05$

TABLE 2.2.
TOTAL POSTTEST OVER PRE-TEST SCORES OF ACCURATE AN INACCURATE LEXICAL CHUNK USE BY METHODOLOGY

Methodology	Post/Pre	
	Accurate	Inaccurate
PPP	6*	1.81
TBL-1	5	4.75
TBL-2	0.4	1.83

* statistically significant results in a matched t-test $p < .05$

DATA ANAYLSIS

First off, it should be made clear that an instance of lexical chunk use (Table 2.1) includes only those chunks that were focused on in the study, and both accurately formed chunks (at the clause level) and partially formed chunks which could be easily identified i.e. 'In nutshell' would qualify as an inaccurately formed version of 'In a nutshell'.

Now, if we first of all examine the differences between the total pre-test and post-test use the of the lexical chunks which were focused on in the study treatments, we observe that though all treatments led to increased use, the TBL-1 type produced more than twice the increase of PPP and TBL-2 (The changes in the TBL-1 and PPP treatment groups were statistically significant.).Why should TBL-1 have led to this greater increase?

TBL-1/PPP and Lexical Chunk Use

The difference in the change in lexical chunk use in the TBl-1 and PPP treatment groups may be attributable to the difference in the primary focus of the two ways of teaching. In TBL-1 the learners were focused, in the main, on meaning. Their lessons placed the task near the beginning of the lesson format and the FOF at the end, thus it seems reasonable to assume that they would be focused on the task objective (getting and giving information).

PPP placed the task after the focus on forms stages (Present and Practice) so here it seems likely that learners would have been more concerned with the accuracy of their utterances than was the case with TBL-1.

The hypothesis then is that TBL-1 led to greater instances of lexical chunk use than PPP because learners felt less constrained by the need to perform accurately. If this were true, TBL-1 learners, being less worried about accuracy, would likely have taken more risks with the target chunks which might have led to the chunks being deployed less accurately, while PPP learners perhaps would have displayed more accurate usage.

If we turn to the Table 2.2 we find that indeed the PPP class substantially (and statistically significantly) increased in accuracy. While the TBL-1 group also increased the percentage of accurate instances of lexical chunk use, it also lead to a sizable increase in inaccurate use (though these changes were not statistically significant). This would seem to support the hypothesis above.

Another possible explanation for the total use differential between PPP and TBL-1 might be that the latter encouraged more extensive memorization and retrieval of the target chunks. One way to account for this has to do with the placement of the task in the lesson plan format. In the TBL-1 treatment the task comes before the focus on form thereby creating a need for the targeted chunks. That is, having done the task and having found their language resources wanting,

the learners would be motivated to take in language which would help them do a better job in the future.

The PPP treatment places the focus on form before the task which it is presumed does not engender the same level of motivation in taking in the target language. The difference here might be analogous to studying before an exam versus studying after having failed an exam and before retaking it.

TBL-1/TBL-2

If the explanation for the greater increase in lexical chunk use in TBL-1 versus PPP is that the former is meaning-focused and the latter forms-focused, or that a greater need to memorize was created in the one versus the other, or both, how can we account for the much weaker lexical chunk production in the TBL-2 group (as it is also meaning-focused and has the same task placement)? As the only variation in the two lesson formats is the type of highlighting employed, looking at this difference might help us to better understand the results. (Obviously, this study is not considering non-methodological variables like learner differences which might have influenced the results. For this reason, any conclusions must be viewed with a skeptic's eye.)

Highlighting A (used in TBL-1) presented the lexical chunks to the learners in a very direct manner. That is, learners had the same chunks which were presented in PPP pointed out to them in an explicit manner. This decontextualized kind of highlighting of isolated lexical chunks contrasts with Highlighting B (TBL-2) in which learners were given samples of native-speaker discourse of the study task. Highlighting B then asked learners to search for chunks which performed a certain function (e.g. beginning a summary - 'To make a long story short') which had previously been identified by the instructor as being in the sample. Next, the instructor elicited feedback to identify the relevant chunks or if the learners failed to find them the instructor provided clues to help with their search.

It may be that where lexis is concerned (as opposed to grammatical structures) the more explicit highlighting of TBL-1 leads to greater use of the target forms. This may be because lexis is learned primarily by memorization, and not as significantly through the hypothesis testing process often associated with the learning of grammar, and which Highlighting B might better facilitate.

The hypothesis, then, is that explicitly highlighting lexical chunks in an isolated manner leads to better memorization and later deployment than highlighting them within a sentence. This may simply be because the isolated forms are emphasized more strongly as items for learners to memorize than when they are part of a sentence. When they are included in a sentence learners may focus less on the chunk and more on the whole sentence. Or it may be that learners find it easier to memorize isolated chunks because they fit more neatly into function-form lexical units (function-summarizing/form-'In short', 'In a nutshell') whereas chunks within a sentence first have to be isolated then added to the function-form unit.

Alternatively, or perhaps in association with the above, the reason why Highlighting A seems to have led to greater lexical chunk use may simply be due to the difference in the sheer number of chunks which were highlighted. Highlighting A, because it drew on decontexualized chunks, had access to more chunks than Highlighting B which restricted itself to exploiting the native-speaker discourse (Highlighting A worked with 55 chunks to Highlighting B with 33.)

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM

From the results, the following patterns may be discerned:

1. TBL-1 lead to greater use of the target lexical chunks, but with a high level of inaccurate usage.
2. PPP had a positive effect on accuracy, but did not increase lexical chunk use as much as TBL-1.
3. TBL-2 did not increase lexical chunk use as much as TBL-1 and had a negative impact on accuracy.

If we focus on the positive aspects of 1 and 2 above, a new lesson plan format emerges. That is, by adopting TBL-1 to increase use of the taught chunks (by encouraging experimentation and memorization) **and** combining it with PPP to promote accuracy (by focusing on forms) we create the following hybrid:

1 Warm-up
2 Task 1
3 Planning time
4 Report
5 Highlighting A/Present (These were the same in this study.)
6 Practice
7 Task 2 (similar in type to Task1)
8 Planning time
9 Report

This combined lesson plan format has certain advantages over either one or other of its antecedents. By increasing the use of lexical chunks, it is likely that fluency would improve (i.e. fewer and shorter pauses and repetitions) as the chunks could be utilized to fill in the spaces in discourse. (In fact, this study found an improvement in fluency for TBL-1 and a loss of same for PPP [though not statistically significantly].) This improvement in fluency when complemented by the improvements in accuracy shown to accrue from PPP is likely to work toward more balanced language learning. This more balanced form of learning would, it is hoped, help to prevent situations in which a learner emphasizes fluency at the expense of accuracy or vice versa.

This format has an additional advantage for the Korean pedagogical environment of including aspects of the traditional teacher-fronted teaching style (through PPP) which have high face validity, and which thus might work to lessen any resistance to the methodological innovation of TBL.

CONCLUSION

This paper has reported on the findings of a study that compared two ways of teaching lexical chunks in an EFL context, one meaning-focused and one form-focused . In addition, it explored the use of two different types of highlighting with the meaning-focused treatments. The results have suggested that both PPP and TBL-1 have advantages and disadvantages while TBL-2 was the least successful treatment.

This paper proposes that it would be advantageous to combine TBL-1 and PPP in a complementary fashion in the hope of producing a lesson plan format superior to either of the two alone. It remains for further testing to determine whether the theoretical justification which has lead to this hybrid lesson plan format will indeed help learners acquire lexical chunks better.

THE AUTHOR

Don Makarchuk is a lecturer in the Division of Western Languge and Literature at Kyonggi University in South Korea where he has taught for the past 5 years. He received his M.A. in TEFL/TESL from the University of Birmingham, England. His current research interests are in the areas of methodology, second language acquisition, and English for Specific Purposes. E-mail: dmak@kuic.kyonggi.ac.kr or donmak@soback.kornet21.net.

REFERENCES

Breen, M. (1987). Learner contributions to task design. In C. Candlin and D. Murphy (Eds.), *Lancaster Practical Papers in English Language Education7: Language learning tasks,* pp. 23 – 46. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Candlin, C. (1987). Towards task-based language learning. In C. Candlin and D. Murphy (Eds.), *Lancaster practical papers in English language education 7: language learning tasks,* pp. 23 – 46. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Crookes, G. (1986). *Task classification: A cross-disciplinary review (Tech. Rep. No. 4)*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Social Science Research Institute, Center for Second Language Classroom Research.

Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M. (1994). *An introduction to second language research*. London: Longman.

Lewis, M. (1994). *The lexical approach*. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.

Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1995). How languages are learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. (1995). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task-based language teaching. In K. Hyltenstam andM. Pienemann (Eds.), *Modeling and assessing second language acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Long, M. and Crookes, G. (1992). The three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly 26*(1).

Lui, D. (1998). Ethnocentricism in TESOL: Teacher education the neglected needs of international TESOL students. *ELT Journal 52*(1).

Nattinger, J. and DiCarrio, J. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nunan, D. (1996). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1996). *Language teaching methodology*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Peters, A. (1983). *The units of language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prabhu, N. (1987). *Second language pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rutherford, W. (1996). *Second language grammar: learning and teaching*. London: Longman.

Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Willis, D. (1996). Accuracy, fluency, and conformity. In J. Willis and D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching*. Oxford: Heineman.

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow: Longman.

Teaching Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction: A Survey of KOTESOL Professors (Part II)

PETER NELSON
Chung Ang University (Seoul)

JAMES GONGWER
Chung Ang University (Ansong)

ABSTRACT

This study extended the 1998 survey by examining statistical relationships among 22 attitudinal indicators of satisfaction in the workplace and one summative index. Research first identified that all variables had high, positive correlations. Principal Components Analysis and Stepwise Multiple Regression were then used to identify key variables associated with dimensions of satisfaction. A final procedure placed these key variables within a needs hierarchy first postulated by psychologist Abraham Maslow and later used in behavioral literature to identify sequential needs fulfillment.

Findings suggest that intangible indicators reflecting respect, collegial support, consultation and information provision are more closely identified with satisfaction than tangible indices including extra pay, provision of living arrangements, and classroom independence. These data support Maslowian hypotheses of needs fulfillment by showing that components of recognition, status and esteem rival those of physical amenities. The findings also provide an improved framework in which to study profile and attitudinal variable interrelationships.

PART I: INTRODUCTION

Our article for the PAC2 conference proceedings (Nelson and Gongwer, 1999) reported highlights of a survey of native English-speaking KOTESOL professors at tertiary institutions in Korea. Its purpose was to examine the degree to which those surveyed were satisfied with their employment conditions, and to identify what difficulties they may have encountered at the workplace. It also analyzed whether patterns of attitudes exist among the responses. Fifteen profile (independent) variables were used to list criteria as gender, age, years lived in Korea, courses taught and so on. Twenty-three attitudinal (dependent) variables were used to identify different facets of employment satisfaction. In brief, the survey reported that most professors were generally satisfied with their jobs but felt they were inadequately recognized as professionals or acknowledged for their EFL qualifications and contributions. Many also noted the lack of advancement opportunities and insufficient respect shown to them by their colleagues.

Selection of the satisfaction variables was inspired by the work of behavioral psychologist Abraham Maslow (1943). His pioneering work concerning a needs hierarchy argued that many human emotions and drives are based on a variety of needs, which are often filled sequentially. The bottom layer pertains to survival (food, water), followed by shelter (safety, security), social (belonging, love), self-esteem (cognition, recognition) and self-actualization (truth, justice). In the workplace, satisfaction depends not only on readily tangible factors like good pay and adequate housing, but also on intangible ones including recognition, praise and acceptance. Successful adaptation to work (especially in a foreign culture), good communication between employers and employees, and overall job satisfaction, then, are related to a variety of conditions, some of which have been identified in the Korean context for this study.

Stage II of this project, reported below, is a further look at variable interrelationships using common statistical techniques. Data on the respondents (129, or 40% of KOTESOL professors surveyed by an anonymous mail-in questionnaire) are restricted to attitudinal variables only, and results are interpreted using Maslow's framework. A final section identifies the relevance of the survey to professional and teaching organizations, and, by cautious extension, to the professional expatriate teaching community within Korea. It is important to bear in mind, however, that while statistical techniques are employed their interpretation should be conservative. Our findings are exploratory and suggestive only, and are perhaps restricted to those KOTESOL professors who responded.[1]

PART II. STATISTICAL OVERVIEW

The 23 dependent variables are shown below in order of questions asked on the survey sheet. All were gradable on a 0 -10 interval scale, with -0- representing Inadequate, or dissatisfaction, -5- representing Adequate, and -10- representing Outstanding, or high satisfaction. Variable #23, SUMview, is used to encapsulate the respondent's overall feelings in relation to job satisfaction. It also was important for statistical techniques including bi-variate correlations, principal components analysis and stepwise multiple regression. Since this paper is a summary only, tables, findings and techniques are minimized but will be reported in more detail later.

While Table 1 is useful by showing median scores of respondents, it is difficult to detect a meaningful pattern. To do so, it is necessary to re-arrange the variables by high and low median scores, and then examine variable characteristics. The authors focused primarily on strongly held positive and negative opinions, using a median of 7.0 or higher to reflect satisfaction, and 4.0 or lower to reflect dissatisfaction. The re-arrangement is shown in Tables 2A and 2B.

TABLE 1.
ORIGINAL SURVEY QUESTIONS AND MEDIAN SCORES

Variable Name	Survey Question	Median
1. Material	The amount/variety of EFL/ESL teaching materials is sufficient	6.0
2. Events	I am regularly kept informed of events and changes affecting me	3.0
3. Contract	My teaching obligations are similar to those in my contract.	8.0
4. Assistme	My professional colleagues provide assistance to me.	6.0
5. Myduties	I have a clear understanding of my teaching responsibilities.	7.0
6. Indbooks	I have sufficient independence when selecting course materials.	8.0
7. Indgrade	I have sufficient independence when grading students.	7.0
8. Friendly	I find fellow Korean professors to be friendly to me.	7.0
9. Depthelp	I find the office staff to be helpful to me.	7.0
10. Admhelp	I find the university administration is helpful to me.	5.0
11. Policie	I am consulted sufficiently for policies that affect my teaching.	3.0
12. Respec	Korean professors elicit and respect my professional opinions.	4.0
13. Profrole	I am encouraged to play a professional role in conferences, etc.	4.0
14. Select	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in course materials selection.	8.0
15. Curric	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in curriculum development.	5.5
16. EFLteach	My department sufficiently acknowledges the importance of EFL teaching.	6.0
17. ESLqual	My professional (EFL only) qualifications are respected by my colleagues.	6.0
18. Newideas	My department is open to new, innovative and/or challenging ideas.	4.0
19. Extrapay	I am paid sufficiently for 'extra' (e.g. editing) work I do for professors.	5.0
20. Support	I get adequate departmental support for problems encountered in class.	5.0
21. Living	I am satisfied with the living arrangements provided in my contract.	7.0
22. Advance	I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement within my department.	2.0
23. SUMview	My opinion of my job overall (in relation to the above criteria).	7.0

TABLE 2A.
ORIGINAL SURVEY QUESTIONS AND HIGH MEDIAN SCORES

Variable Name	Survey Question	Median
Contract	My teaching obligations are similar to those in my contract.	8.0
Indbooks	I have sufficient independence when selecting course materials.	8.0
Myduties	I have a clear understanding of my teaching responsibilities.	7.0
Indgrade	I have sufficient independence when grading students.	7.0
Friendly	I find fellow Korean professors to be friendly to me.	7.0
Depthelp	I find the office staff to be helpful to me.	7.0
Living	I am satisfied with the living arrangements provided in my contract.	7.0
SUMview	My opinion of my job overall (in relation to the above criteria).	7.0

TABLE 2B.
ORIGINAL SURVEY QUESTIONS AND LOW MEDIAN SCORES

Variable Name	Survey Question	Median
Respect	Korean professors elicit and respect my professional opinions.	4.0
Profrole	I am encouraged to play a professional role in conferences, etc.	4.0
Newideas	My department is open to new, innovative and/or challenging ideas.	4.0
Events	I am regularly kept informed of events and changes affecting me	3.0
Policies	I am consulted sufficiently for policies that affect my teaching.	3.0
Advance	I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement within my department.	2.0

When these dependent variables were first presented in 1999, KOTESOL participants at PAC2 felt the high and low scores reflected their own experiences in the Korean classroom. Most were satisfied with their employment overall, citing the relative independence given to them by their departments, the friendliness and help of colleagues, adequate living conditions, and efforts to stay with contract stipulations. They also felt the negative scores reflected personal experiences, citing insufficient recognition for their professional roles and few opportunities for advancement.

In addition to mirroring actual situations, the response patterns above are important because they support Maslow's concept of a needs hierarchy. From this perspective, variables that have high median scores are essentially tangible in scope (e.g. contracts met, help given, friendliness shown), and correspond to lower-order needs in the hierarchy. Variables with low median scores are generally intangible in scope (e.g. respect shown, openness, encouragement), and correspond more to higher-order needs. It was this distribution— satisfaction of basic needs but dissatisfaction with broader issues once basic needs are satisfied— that prompted the larger, multi-variate study below.

The 1999 presentation concentrated solely on median scores, and no attempt was made statistically to relate the dependent variables to each other. Answers to each question were considered in isolation, permitting univariate but not multivariate analysis. The second phase, however, has focused on variable interrelationships, notably bi-variate (Pearson product-moment) correlations, principal components analysis and multiple stepwise regression. Highlights are given in tables below;[2] readers unfamiliar with these procedures may choose to go to Parts III and IV without loss in coherence.

The initial step was to cross correlate the 23 variables to determine their interrelationships. A second step was to use SUMview as a collective substitute for the 22 originally chosen, and then to identify those dependent variables that correlated highly with it. Results for the highest correlations are shown in Table 3; all are statistically significant at .01.[3]

TABLE 3.
HIGHEST CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SUMVIEW AND OTHER DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Explained Variance	Variable	Pearson Correlation	Explained Variance
1. Contract.	.673	(45%)	8. Support.	.588	(34%)
2. Events	.643	(41%)	9. Respect	.587	(34%)
3. EFLTeach	.627	(39%)	10. Advance	.571	(33%)
4. NewIdeas	.625	(39%)	11. ProfRole	.544	(30%)
5. AdmHelp	.613	(37%)	12. Assistme	.529	(28%)
6. EFLQual	.611	(37%)	13. Friendly	.526	(28%)
7. Policies	.601	(36%)	14. ExtraPay	.523	(27%)
			15. Living	.512	(26%)

Inspection of this table indicates that many dependent variables correlate highly with SUMview, and suggests that overall satisfaction has complex components. However, whereas Tables 2A and 2B record high and low median scores, Table 3 shows that all correlations are positive. Statistically, higher levels of satisfaction are associated with increases in each of the above components considered separately. Moreover, the high percentage of variance explained for each variable relationship suggests their importance.

A further step examined whether a super-ordinate, underlying dimension exists within this group. The researchers theorized that the high inter-correlations found within the matrix in effect highlight a broader concept of satisfaction. To test this hypothesis, however, it was first necessary to separate statistically the overlapping, interactive effects of the variables, using a technique called Principal Components Analysis. The findings are shown below, using all 22 dependent variables but not SUMview.[4]

TABLE 4.
PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS ANALYSIS
(4 components obtained; only 1 is relevant with 48% of total variance explained)

1. Respect	**.794**
2. Support	**.787**
3. Policies	**.782**
4. Event	**.775**
5. EFLqual.	**.772**
6. Admhelp	**.771**
7. NewIdeas	**.757**
8. ProfRole	**.744**
9. EFLteach	**.734**
10. Friendly	.698
11. Assistme	.696
12. Contract	.693
13. Advance	.661
14. Myduties	.655
15. Select	.651
16. Extrapay	.651
17. Material	.631
18. Curric.	.62
19. IndGrade	.610
20. Depthelp	.609
21. Indbooks	.579
22. Living	.465
23. SUMview	Excluded

Inspection of Table 4 strongly suggests that a super-ordinate dimension — SATISFACTION —exists within the responses given by KOTESOL professors. The first nine variables highlighted above each load with the principal component at 0.737 or higher, while the principal component itself has an explained variance

of 48%. It is also important to note that intangible characteristics (respect, policies, events) generally load higher to SATISFACTION than do tangible ones (IndGrade, Living, Extrapay).

A final step collectively viewed the highest loading variables in Table 4 to determine their additive effects in relationship to SUMview. The researchers selected the first nine, then performed a statistical technique known as Stepwise Multiple Regression, using SUMview as the dependent variable to be explained by the nine selected. Table 5 shows the bivariate correlation matrix, whereas Table 6 identifies the regression results.[4]

TABLE 5.
CORRELATION MATRIX FOR NINE DEPENDENT VARIABLES AND SUMVIEW

	Respect	Dept Help	Policies	Events	EFL Qual	Adm Help	New Ideas	Prof Role	EFL teach	SumView
Respect	***	0.553	0.635	0.569	0.611	0.603	0.594	0.572	0.537	0.587
DeptHelp		***	0.364	0.391	0.431	0.596	0.386	0.389	0.374	0.441
Policies			***	0.771	0.526	0.598	0.563	0.631	0.519	0.601
Events				***	0.588	0.549	0.604	0.588	0.514	0.643
EFLQual					***	0.550	0.611	0.545	0.683	0.611
AdmHelp						***	0.558	0.608	0.561	0.613
NewIdeas							***	0.600	0.699	0.625
ProRole								***	0.517	0.544
EFLteach									***	0.627
SumView										***

All variables are significant. at .01 (two tail test)

TABLE 6.
STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF TOP NINE DEPENDENT VARIABLES WITH SUMVIEW

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.643	.413	.408	1.9035	.413	75.989	1	108	.000
2	.730	.533	.524	1.7060	.120	27.460	1	107	.000
3	.755	.570	.558	1.6448	.037	9.111	1	106	.003

a Predictors: (Constant), EVENTS
b Predictors: (Constant), EVENTS, EFLTEACH
c Predictors: (Constant), EVENTS, EFLTEACH, ADMHELP
d Dependent Variable: SUM

Table 5 illustrates the high inter-correlations within the matrix, indicating both their mutual association and the potential for overlap. When overlap is eliminated statistically to enable the stepwise multiple regression shown in Table 6, two variables alone (Events, EFLteach) account for 52% of the variation found within SUMview, and three account for more than 55%. Based on these data, the degree to which a (surveyed) KOTESOL respondent finds work to be satisfying overall depends largely on the extent to which the teacher is informed of events that affect work, the degree to which a professor' s department values the importance of EFL teaching, and administrative assistance received. While other variables are of course important, their degree of overlap reduces their total additive effect.[5]

PART III. INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Principal components analysis and multiple regression indicate the complexity of job satisfaction, but indicators should be considered individually. Reviewing Maslow's original needs framework, then locating each dependent variable within it, can best do this.

Table 7 shows Maslow's original hierarchy. Bottom layers (Levels 1, 2) consider fundamental, tangible aspects of life, especially desires for food, shelter, group identification and belonginess. Higher levels incorporate more intangible notions as self awareness, recognition by others, and cognition if not pursuit of abstract values that underlie morality or give meaning to our existence. It is assumed that our desires are never fully sated, but we must first satisfy basic needs before contemplating or addressing those at higher levels. Moreover, modern behavioral psychology assumes we can select physical or attitudinal indicators that reflect these needs, and we can measure them coherently.

TABLE 7.
MASLOW' S NEEDS HIERARCHY

Level	Maslow's Title	Common Examples
5	Self Actualization	Self development, decision making potential
4	Esteem, Status	Reputation, status, recognition, approval
3	Social, Affection	Friendship, acceptance, belonginess
2	Safety, Order, Security	Job, housing, insurance
1	Physiological Needs	Food, Shelter

The researchers hypothesized that all dependent variables in the KOTESOL survey lie within the pyramid of needs identified by Maslow. Accordingly, they discussed the function and interpretation of each variable separately, then located

it within the hierarchy. Although most had a primary location on one level only, the complexity of several was sufficient to place them on two or more adjacent levels. Table 8 below shows their location.[6]

TABLE 8.
MASLOW' S NEEDS HIERARCHY + KOTESOL VARIABLES

Level	Maslow's Title	Relevant KOTESOL Variables
5	Self Actualization	Contract, Myduties, Indbooks,Indgrade Policies, Select, Advance
4	Esteem, Status	Material, Events, Contract, Myduties, Indbooks, Depthelp, Admhelp, Policies, Respect, Profrole, Curric, EFLteach, EFLQual, Newideas, Extrapay, Support
3	Social, Affection	Events, Assistme, Friendly, Depthelp Admhelp, Policies, Respect, Profrole
2	Safety, Order, Security	Living
1	Physiological Needs	xxxx

While this configuration provides valuable information, a noticeable pattern emerges when the dependent variables are arranged to reflect the earlier loadings obtained from the principal components analysis in Table 4. As shown in Table 9 below, the top nine variables each have Maslow's Level _4_ in common. There is no striking pattern for variables 10-21, however, although variables reflecting Levels 3, 5 and 4 appear in groups. Finally, Variable 22 (Living) has the lowest loading with the underlying dimension of satisfaction.

The practical interpretation for the top nine variables each having Level 4 in common is that interviewed KOTESOL professors are motivated by, and feel job satisfaction from, intrinsic factors showing esteem and status. These include respect, responsibility, decision-making, challenge, and opportunity for learning. These factors or their proxies are near the top of Maslow's needs hierarchy, and as such reflect Maslowian descriptions of motivational factors in the workplace (Deci, 1975, Pastor, 1982).

It is also possible to suggest deeper meaning: configuration of the data implies how communication patterns between Koreans and foreign teachers are perceived and interpreted. In essence the teacher views interaction from two perspectives, that of his/her own culture, and that pertaining to his/her understanding of acceptable interaction patterns within this country. Korean professors and administrative staff, in turn, view communication from the standpoint of their own needs and requirements, cultural considerations, and their perception of factors that motivate and produce the most effective, satisfied teachers.

TABLE 9.
PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS ANALYSIS IN RELATION TO MASLOW' S NEEDS HIERARCHY

No.	Variable	Maslow's Variable Level	Loading	Variable Definition
1	Respect	3, 4	0.794	Korean professors elicit and respect my professional opinions.
2	Support	3, 4	0.787	I get adequate departmental support for problems encountered in class.
3	Policies	3, 4, 5	0.782	I am consulted sufficiently for policies that affect my teaching.
4	Events	3, 4	0.775	I am regularly kept informed of events and changes affecting me.
5	EFLqual	4	0.772	My professional (EFL only) qualifications are respected by my colleagues.
6	AdmHelp	3, 4	0.771	I find the university administration is helpful to me.
7	Newideas	4	0.757	My department is open to new, innovative and/or challenging ideas.
8	Profrole	3, 4	0.744	I am encouraged to play a professional role in conferences, etc.
9	ELFteach	4	0.734	My department sufficiently acknowledges the importance of EFL teaching.
10	Friendly	3	0.698	I find fellow Korean professors to be friendly to me.
11	Assistme	3	0.696	My professional colleagues provide assistance to me.
12	Contract	4, 5	0.693	My teaching obligations are similar to those in my contract.
13	Advance	5	0.661	I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement within my department.
14	Myduties	5	0.655	I have a clear understanding of my teaching responsibilities.
15	Select	5	0.651	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in course materials selection.
16	Extrapay	4	0.651	I am paid sufficiently for 'extra' (e.g. editing) work I do for professors.
17	Material	4	0.631	The amount/variety of EFL/ESL teaching materials is sufficient.
18	Curric	4	0.620	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in curriculum development.
19	Indgrad	5	0.610	I have sufficient independence when grading students.
20	Depthelp	3, 4	0.609	I find the office staff to be helpful to me.
21	Indbooks	4, 5	0.579	I have sufficient independence when selecting course materials.
22	Living	2	0.465	I am satisfied with the living arrangements provided in my contract.

It is the perceived clash of these perspectives, or failure to recognize their importance, which produces dissatisfaction in one or both parties. Miscommunication may occur naturally, as when language problems arise or instructions are not clearly understood. It may also stem from different cultural perspectives, reflecting in part the "horizontal" nature of Western society with its emphasis on equality, and the more "vertical" nature of Korean society, with its emphasis on order and hierarchy. It may arise from different role expectations: for example, native speakers who envision upward mobility and commensurate status changes, whereas their Korean counterparts may only want a teacher filling a stationary position. Finally, it may occur simply because stated goals and underlying values of foreign teachers and their Korean colleagues are incompatible. Although the survey does not explain how or why miscommunication occurs, it does embody our self perceptions within the academic community. Hence the ways in which our Korean hosts understand and address issues concerning our needs at work,

especially those concerning acceptance, belonging and esteem, are directly related to our teaching effectiveness, comfort levels, and job satisfaction.

PART IV. IMPLICATIONS

Although this is an academic and largely statistical study, its findings have everyday relevance for teachers. First, it highlights the significance of both tangible and intangible factors as components of job satisfaction. Classroom amenities, good housing and sufficient pay are important to respondents. However, they do not dominate our notions of job satisfaction, at least among those surveyed. Intangible considerations such as respect and being informed of departmental events also play an important role. Knowing the value and role of these intangible factors can only help us when communicating with each other or our Korean colleagues, or attempting to voice our dissatisfactions when they occur.

Second, because we now have a broader understanding of ourselves, we also have more ways to compare our behavior and motivations with those of our Korean colleagues. During audience feedback, for example, participants used the survey findings to consider valid reasons why Korean professors may not (seemingly) show sufficient respect. This frank discussion enabled us to view our behavior and roles more completely, and to evaluate our actions in light of their cultural perspectives.

Third, we have the basis for new research. By highlighting Maslow's work and supporting his theories, the survey provides us with psychological and sociological insights that may lead to improved cross-cultural modes of communication. However, we do not yet know the psychological and cultural perspectives of our Korean colleagues in their assessments of our needs, expectations and performance, or their own efforts to assist us. To this end the authors are preparing a survey of Korean university professors to examine many of the issues covered above, but from their standpoint. The comparative results, we believe, will assist all of us.

END NOTES

(1) The researchers were aware of design limitations associated with a response survey of this type.

(2) Before data manipulation, all 23 dependent variables were checked for skewness, kurtosis and ANOVA characteristics to ensure they met criteria for normalized distribution and had significantly different means. Only highlights of different tests are presented in this report.

(3) All variables within the 23 x 23 matrix were positively correlated, and most correlations were statistically significant at .01. Due to the number of inter-relationships (529), the entire matrix has not been shown.

(4) Most readers are familiar with a similar technique known as factor analysis, which taps into the correlation or covariance matrix to obtain underlying multivariate dimensions, or factors. Factor analysis enables the matrix to be "rotated" to obtain multiple dimensions and outcomes. Principal Components Analysis, however, obtains only one mathematical solution, and is used here for this reason.

(4) Multiple regression accounts for variation in a selected dependent variable using two or more independent variables as explanatory indices, after their mutual association has been eliminated statistically.

(5) Regression of all 22 dependent variables with SUMview produced an Adjusted Multiple R^2 of 62% with four predictors. Given the small sample size relative to all dependent variables, the researchers worked only with the top nine shown in Table 6.

(6) Since this was a study of satisfaction in the workplace and not for life generally, it was assumed that most of the dependent variables would be on Levels 3-5. Additionally, while the researchers understood they could not know the basis on which a respondent made a choice regarding satisfaction, later placement of a variable within Maslow's ramework was based on its likely interpretation by respondents and enactment within the work environment.

THE AUTHORS

Peter Nelson holds a Ph.D. in Economics and Government and certification in EFL teaching. He is active in KOTESOL as a public speaker, writer, and presenter for Korea Teacher Trainers. His research interests include statistical analysis of speech components, communications studies and survey research. In Korea since 1995, he currently teaches in the Department of English Education, and in the Graduate School of Education.

Jim Gongwer has an MA in Education/Psychology from the University of California (Santa Barbara), counseling credentials from UC Berkeley, and certification in EFL/ESL. Working in K-12 education since 1970, he has chaired committees and conducted research studies on teaching standards, effectiveness and curriculum development. He has taught in Korean universities since 1996 and is currently in the Department of English, and the Graduate School of Education, at Chung Ang University.

*** The authors wish to thank several colleagues for their valuable input and advice in the writing of this paper: James Forrest, David Kim, Gerry Lassche, Douglas Margolis, Kirsten Reitan and Cameron Wood.**

REFERENCES

Deci, E. (1975). *Intrinsic Motivation*. New York: Plenum.

Nelson, P., and Gongwer, J. (1999). Proposals to Increase Teaching Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction, *KOTESOL Proceedings, PAC2*, 225-230.

Pastor, M. (1982). A Study of Higher Order Need Strength and Job Satisfaction in Secondary Public School Teachers. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 20, 1972-183.

Task Complexity in Language Learning and Teaching: Why Tasks Fail

CHRIS SHEPPARD
Pusan University of Foreign Studies

ABSTRACT

This paper reviews academic literature to find why some tasks fail in the language learning classroom. It examines past teaching approaches and explains their eventual abandonment. The task-based approach is then explained based on its appropriateness of form, and as a model for acquiring implicit knowledge. Task complexity and cognitive processing constraints are used to explain why tasks might fail. If the task is not complex enough for learners, focusing on form may not be achieved. If the task is too complex, the processing resources of learners may be too busy with task demands to enable input to become intake. Finally, socio-cultural reasons are also given for task failure.

INTRODUCTION

Recently the concept of 'task' has become important in language teaching and research. However, there is little information on the dimensions of tasks and why they fail in the classroom. This paper examines task complexity for failure of tasks that focus on form (FonF) goals. It initially evaluates three teaching approaches: synthetic, analytic and task-based. The role of 'focus on form' in task-based approaches is then explained using Ellis's (1994, 1997) model for learning implicit knowledge. Regarding complexity, it is proposed that a task is not likely to meet its goals when it is too complex or too easy. In addition, socio-cultural factors may be involved in task failure.

TEACHING APPROACHES: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC

Synthetic

Two methodologies have influenced language teaching over the last thirty years, what Wilkinson (1976) has termed synthetic approaches and analytic approaches. Synthetic approaches include any syllabus that provides sequencing based on the forms of the language. Long and Robinson (1998, p. 15) explain that in this approach,

> Depending on… linguistic preferences, the L2 is broken down into words and collocations, grammar rules, phonemes, intonation and stress patterns, structures, notions or functions.

Language components are introduced one-by-one by the 'three P's' method: presentation, production and practice, where learners' processes are viewed as a

gradual build up of parts that are expected to be synthesized into a whole (Wilkinson, 1976). However, the main problem with this view is that language learning has been shown to be anything but a linear process. As Long and Robinson (1998, p. 16) note, "Learners rarely, if ever, exhibit sudden categorical acquisition of new forms or rules." Kellerman (1985) demonstrated a U-shaped curve of acquisition, while Sato (1990) demonstrated zigzag developmental curves.

Analytic

In the late 1970s and the early 1980s the pendulum swung from synthetic approaches to more analytic approaches. Krashen's 'Input Hypothesis' (1981, 1982, 1985) is perhaps the most famous, arguing that the best way to learn a language is to consider it a system of communication rather than an object of study. It assumes all the learner requires is a large amount of comprehensible input, or, as termed by Long and Robinson (1998), 'positive evidence,' which will be processed into linguistic knowledge by the 'black box' of the learner's brain.

In the last twenty years, however, considerable evidence has shown there is more to the language learning process than simply 'comprehensible input'. Long and Robinson (1998), for instance, give examples to support the contention that analytical approaches are inadequate.

First, in some classrooms there seems to be advantages in *speed of learning* for those who receive instruction (Ellis, 1994), rather than just experience in natural learning processes. Second, adult learners, both in natural ESL situations described by Schumann (1978) regarding 'fossilized learners', and in EFL situations such as Swain's (1985) 'immersion', do not seem to become native-like L2 speakers. Finally, since learners are only exposed to positive evidence (input) in an analytic approach, there are some questions as to how learners could learn some linguistic forms which require negative evidence (the adverb position in French, for example.

Although these two approaches have their strengths, they both fail to produce native-like speakers in the target language. By building on them, however, researchers have developed other approaches that better approximate language learning processes.

A THIRD APPROACH – FOCUS ON FORM

Doughty and Williams (1998) have defined the synthetic approach as 'focus on formS' and the analytic approach as 'focus on meaning'. They suggest 'focus on form' (FonF) as an alternative with fewer weaknesses. (FonF is very different from 'focus on formS') Long (1991) defines FonF as a method which "...overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication." (p. 45 –46).

This approach, then, allows us to teach form through tasks that have a communicative goal.

THE TASK-BASED APPROACH

The 'task' is a central concept in current approaches to teaching and research. Pica (1997 in Ellis, 2000) indicated the "...task is seen as a construct of equal importance to second language acquisition researchers and to language teachers."

Definition

For teachers, the task is defined by Skehan (1998, p. 95) as an activity in which

- meaning is primary
- there is some communication problem to solve
- there is some relationship to comparable real-world activities
- and task assessment is in terms of outcome

Accordingly, a 'listen and draw' activity, where one learner must explain a picture to another, who will then draw a separate version, may be defined as a task where meaning is primary. Only communication will resolve the need for the learner to explain the picture completely, and the learners can evaluate the task by comparing the drawing to the original picture.

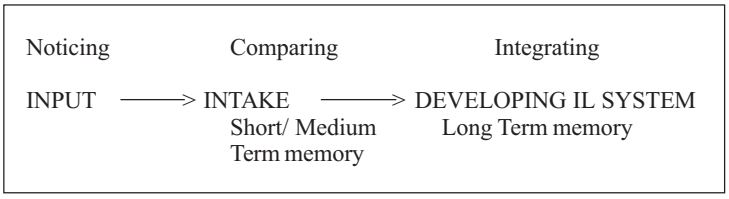
Ellis(2000, p. 198) contrasts this type of task with a 'fill in the blank' grammar exercise.

> The learners are primarily engaged in producing correct linguistic forms, there is no obvious communicative goal to be achieved, the outcome is evaluated in terms of whether the learners' answers are grammatically correct or not, and no direct relationship between the type of language activity involved and naturally occurring discourse is intended.

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THEORY

Ellis (1994, 1997) also provides a model for the process of learning implicit knowledge (see figure 1). It starts at the level of input and explains cognitive processes at three levels: *noticing*, *comparing* and *integrating*. It includes representations of language (input, intake and interlanguage), and identifies places where language knowledge is stored (short, medium and long term memory).

FIG. 1.
LEARNING IMPLICIT KNOWLEDGE



(Source: Ellis, 1994 and Ellis, 1997)

There are two transitions that are important to language learning. The first is the transition from input to intake. According to Schmidt (1990), one way for input to become intake is through a conscious awareness of some linguistic form in the input, which he terms *noticing*. In practical terms, for input to become intake, learners need to perceive input at a level of consciousness which could be available for verbal reporting.

The second transition is from intake to interlanguage (IL). This occurs in two stages, according to Ellis. The first is that of *comparing* intake to information stored in the learner's IL. Schmidt and Frota (1986) argue that *comparing* is a subconscious process, or at least is at a low level of consciousness. However, it may be possible that *comparing* can be taught as a conscious language learning strategy, in order to assist the language learning process. Once learners have compared the two forms of acquired knowledge, they can decide whether the input knowledge is in agreement with current IL. If not, a decision must be made whether to store the information in long term memory for future use, or attempt to *integrate* it into IL.

As language teachers, our concern is to ensure that this process takes place. We therefore should ensure that input is noticed by the learner. Skehan (1998, p. 119) concludes that "the construct of noticing has considerable importance, for it is central to the way a focus on form can be achieved."

Skehan (1998) suggests that tasks designed in different ways can focus on three aspects of production. Ellis (2000, p. 202) has summarized the three as follows:

> (1) fluency (i.e. the capacity of the learner to mobilize his/ her system to communicate in real time); (2) accuracy (i.e. the ability of the learner to perform in accordance with target language norms); and (3) complexity (i.e. the utilization of interlanguage structures that are cutting edge, elaborate and structured).

For FonF instruction, we are interested in tasks that foster complexity in language production. Ellis (1994, 1997) also suggests 'task demands' as one possible factor that may induce learners to notice something in the input.

Although tasks can obviously be used for a number of language learning goals, one very important role for them is to foster the noticing of input so that it can become intake. Then the task can assist teachers, material designers and curriculum creators to ensure that linguistic elements arise incidentally in classroom lessons in a FonF environment.

Since tasks are important to learners in helping them acquire linguistic forms through noticing, how can we be certain language tasks will be successfully executed in the classroom?

REASONS FOR TASK FAILURE

When the teacher has a particular form for the students to notice through a communicative task, it is important that learners complete the activity as the teacher

intended. As noted by Long and Robinson (1998. p. 18), "Just as the teacher's attempt to correct errors may not result in error correction", tasks that have a FonF goal may not be necessary to induce the learner to notice the target form. A task may fail to induce this noticing. Task failure is, then, a failure to reach the goals or expectations of the participants.

There are two possible explanations for task failure as described here; the first due to task complexity, and the second due to socio-cultural perspectives and task instructions.

TASK COMPLEXITY

Task complexity here is a different but related concept to Skehan's (1998) notion of 'complexity'. Skehan uses the term 'complexity' as a form of learner production that challenges interlanguage. In this paper, however, 'task complexity' refers to characteristics of the task, and, unless otherwise noted, 'complexity' will mean 'task complexity'.

Defining Task complexity

Robinson (2000,) distinguishes task complexity from what he identifies as task difficulty and task conditions. Complexity is defined by the 'cognitive factors' of the task. Task difficulty is explained by 'learner factors', and task conditions refer to 'interactive demands' of the task. Thus, "Task complexity … is the result of attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner." (p. 6)

Task difficulty, however, is defined by individual differences. Robinson includes affective variables such as motivation, anxiety and confidence, and ability variables such as aptitude, proficiency and intelligence. Thus, task difficulty will "explain *between learner* variance in performance" (p.7), while task complexity will "explain *within learner* variance in performance" (p.6).

Skehan (1998) and Robinson (2000) both describe the dimensions of task complexity as planning time, task repetition, single/ multiple tasks (both simultaneous and subsequent), prior knowledge of the task or content, and the number of elements in the task. By varying these dimensions material designers can adjust the level of complexity.

Another aspect concerns 'interactive demands' of the task. This simply refers to the way information is exchanged. There are one-way and two-way tasks that can be open or closed, convergent or divergent.

Task complexity and theory

Swain's (1985, 1998) 'comprehensible output hypothesis' suggests that for interlanguage development to take place, the learner must be 'pushed' to produce the language. Similarly, White (1987) argues that input is more likely to become intake if the input is initially incomprehensible to the learner. If the focus is on

communication, and the learner requires the information, there is a higher likelihood the learner will work to extract meaning from the language input. Robinson (2000) has summarized the results of several researchers (Loschky and Bley-Vroman, 1993; Tarone, 1985; Tarone & Parrish, 1998; Muranoi, 1996), who found that "...greater attention to second language speech, induced by the communicative demands of specific tasks, often results in higher levels of accuracy."

Robinson (2000) then proposes that the more cognitively demanding the task, the more attention the learner will pay either to input or output, which will result in a greater level of noticing (See fig. 2). Then, according to Schmidt (1990), this will become intake. Without this intake in short-term memory, the subsequent processes of comparing and integrating cannot take place (Ellis, 1994, 1997).

FIG 2.
TASK COMPLEXITY AND LEARNING IMPLICIT KNOWLEDGE

Task demands		**Cognitive Resources**		**Learning Mechanisms**		**Performance Beliefs**
More Cognitively Demanding tasks	——>	More attention to input/ output And noticing/ Rehearsal in Memory	——>	More rule and Instance learning/ stage shifts/ procedualization modification	——>	More incorporation of input/ more of output

Thus, according to Robinson, the more complex the task, the more likely it is to generate the noticing necessary for the learning process to take place. Alternatively, tasks with low levels of complexity are not likely to challenge learners to reach high levels of production and 'push' them to notice form in the input. This is one possible cause for task failure in the classroom. Tasks with a FonF goal of this kind are likely to be uninteresting to the learner and have little face validity.

Processing limitations

In this model Robinson (2000, p.14) assumes that language processing takes place within a 'multiple resource model' where "...form and content need not always be in competition for scarce 'attention resources."' However, Ellis (2000) makes the point that even Robinson's own research (Robinson, 1995; Robinson, Ting & Urwin, 1996), as well as Skehan's research, tend to support a 'limited processing view of capacity'.

VanPattern (1990, 1996) provides an explanation for a 'a limited-capacity, single-resource model of attention'. Basically, this means that we have limited resources for processing language, and once those resources are used, as in trying

to recall the meaning of a low-frequency word, we have no other resources for other aspects of the language (e.g. form). In terms of task complexity, if the task is too complex, we will expend all of our processing resources on aspects other than appreciating language form.

This position is in opposition to Robinson's argument that the more complex a task the more opportunity there is for noticing. It would seem, then, while a task of low complexity will not foster necessary noticing, one with a high level of complexity may cause the learner to use all resources on aspects other than noticing form in the input. In this sense, tasks with levels of complexity too high for learners' current levels of competence are also likely to end up in task failure.

SOCIO-CULTURAL ASPECTS OF TASKS

Task complexity is not the only aspect of the task that can cause task failure. Ellis (2000, p. 208) points out that "the participants always co-construct the activity they engage in, in accordance with their own socio-history and locally determined goals." That is to say that even though the teacher may have a form-focused goal for a particular task, the students may not complete the activity in the way the teacher intended.

Coughlan and Duff (1994) explain that tasks have two realities. The first is the 'work plan', or written version of the activity, the intended task goal of curriculum planners or material writers. The second is the 'activity', what actually takes place between learners completing the task. Brooks and Donato (1994) found that even when teachers explained a task to students, the first thing the learners did was negotiate their own goals in their first language before commencing the task itself.

When tasks are complex, therefore, students may have difficulty understanding what outcomes are required and negotiate their own goals based on their own interpretations. This can occur even when they understand the required outcome of the task. For example, they may have goals for the class different from that of the teacher, or there may be possible problems from difficulties of the task itself. This is another possible source of task-failure.

CONCLUSION

In language learning, the process of noticing input is an important first step. It is therefore vital for teachers, material writers and curriculum developers with 'focus on form' goals to design tasks that are able to foster 'noticing'. This kind of task will aim to have 'complexity', which includes planning time, task repetition, single/multiple task, prior knowledge, and the number of elements in the task. However, it is important to keep in mind that tasks can also be used for developing accuracy and fluency.

If the task does not achieve its FonF goal, then it should be viewed as task-failure. Tasks can fail for several reasons. One is that the level of task complexity is too low to challenge the learner's interlanguage. When this occurs, the task

might be more effective if used to develop fluency. Second, when the level of task complexity is too high, the learners just do not have sufficient processing resources to deal with the operations required and to notice forms in the input. Finally, if the task is badly explained, or goals are too far from the students' needs, they may re-engineer the goals. This level of task failure considers the distinction between the 'work plan', which is presented by the teacher, and the actual 'activity', which is done by learners.

THE AUTHOR

Chris Sheppard is currently working as a lecturer at Pusan University of Foreign Studies in South Korea where he has worked for the past two years. He has also worked in both Japan and New Zealand. His current research interests are fostering noticing in focus on form and the perceptual learning styles of Korean university students.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brooks, F., & Donato, R. (1994). Vygotskyan approaches to understanding foreign language learner discourse during communication tasks. *Hispania,* 77, 262-74.

Cook, G., & Seidlhoffer, B. (Eds., 1995). *Principles and practice in applied linguis*tics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Coughlan, P., & Duff, P. (1994). *Same task, different activities: Analysis of SLA from an activity theory perspective*. In J. Lantolf and G. Appel (Eds.), 33-56.

Crooks, G. & Gass, S. (Eds., 1993). *Tasks and language learning, 1*. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.

Day, R. (Ed., 1986). *Talking to learn*. Rowley, Ma: Newbury House.

De Bot, R., Ginsberg, R., & Kramsch, C. (Eds.,1991). *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (Eds., 1998). *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). *Issues and terminology*. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), 1-11.

Ellis, N. (1994). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages.* London: Academic Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *A theory of instructed second language acquisition*. In N. Ellis (Ed.), 79-114.

Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based research and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research* 4(3), 193-220.

Ericksson, K., & Simon, H. (1984). *Protocol analysis*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Gass, S., Mackey, A.. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass, S., & Madden, C. (Eds., 1985). *Input in second language acquisition*. Boston, Mass: Heinle and Heinle.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1992). *Language transfer in language learning.* Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Kellerman, E. (1985). *If at first you do succeed….* In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), 345-354.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Lincolnwood, NJ: Laredo.

Lantolf, J., & Appel, G. (Eds., 1994). *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. Norwood, New Jersey: Abex.

Long, M. (1991). *Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology*. In De Bot, R., Ginsberg, R., & Kramsch, C. (Eds.), 39-52.

Long, M., & Robinson, P. (1998). *Focus on form: Theory, research and practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Loskey, L., & Bley-Vroman, R. (1993). *Grammar and task-based methodology*. In Crookes, G., & Gass, S. (Eds.), 123-167.

Meisel, J., Clahsen, H., & Pinemann, M. (1981). On determining developmental stages in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 3(2), 109-135.

Pica, T. (1997). Second language teaching and research relationships: A North American view. *Language Teaching Research,* 1(1), 48-72.

Robinson, P. (1995). Task complexity and second language narrative discourse. *Language Learning*, 45(2), 99-140.

Robinson, P. (2000). *Task complexity, cognition and second language syllabus design: A triadic framework for examining task influences on SLA*. In P. Robinson (Ed.), (Forthcoming).

Robinson, P. (2000). *Cognition and second language instruction*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P., Ting, S., & Urwin, J. (1995). Investigating second language task complexity. *RELC Journal*, 25, 62-79.

Rosa, E., & O'Neil, M.(1999). Explicitness, intake and awareness: Another piece in the puzzle. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 21(4), 511-556.

Sato, C. (1990). *The syntax of conversation in interlanguage development*. Tubingen: Gunter Narr.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics,* 11(2), 14-46.

Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). *Developing basic conversational ability in a second language*. In R. Day (Ed.), 237-326.

Selinker, L ., & Lakshamanan, U. (1992). *Language transfer and fossilization*. In Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (Eds.), 196-215.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M (1985). *Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development*. In S. Gass, S., & Madden, C. (Eds.), 235-253.

Swain, M. (1995). *Three functions of output in second language learning*. In Cook, G., & Seidlhoffer, B. (Eds.), 125-144.

Swain, M. (1998). *Focus on form through conscious reflection*. In Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (Eds.), 64-82.

Tarone, E. (1985). Variability in interlanguage use: A study of style shifting in morphology and syntax. *Language Learning*, 35, 373-403.

Tarone, E., & Parrish, B. (1988). Task-based variation in interlanguage: The case of articles. *Language Learning,* 38, 21-44.

VanPattern, B. (1990). Attending to form and content in second language acquisition: An experiment in consciousness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12(3), 287-301.

VanPattern, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction: Theory and research*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex.

White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of second language competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 121-134.

Wilkins, D. (1976). *Notional syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)

How to Make Webpages Legible

JERRY GREENFIELD
Miyazaki International College

ABSTRACT

Well-established standards for legibility of print typography are based largely on research by Miles A. Tinker and his associates and students at the University of Minnesota and compiled in two important books by Tinker, *The Legibility of Print* (1963) and *Bases of Effective Reading* (1965). Standards for computer screen legibility have been researched less thoroughly. The literature that is emerging acknowledges the print standards as the starting point. Results of experiments with text legibility on computer screens generally concur with the earlier findings. Summary recommendations are gleaned from Tinker and the new literature. While these provide useful guidelines for evaluating and producing texts for online reading courses, much research remains to be done to identify how legibility variables are affected by online delivery.

THE WORLD WIDE WEB AS A READING RESOURCE

Many of us have discovered the World Wide Web to be a useful resource for teaching reading. Using the Web is appealing for several reasons: It lets students use computers, which in itself often makes a reading activity more enjoyable than getting printed handouts from the teacher or reading one assigned in a book. Finding something on the Web, especially if students have to search for it on their own, makes students invested in what is there. Web browsing to find information builds skills of scanning and skimming to locate relevant information, as well as close reading when relevant text is located. A well-structured website helps students understand relationships in the information it presents. Even if the site itself is not well-structured, often the process of finding it involves structured thinking by the student. For these and other reasons it has become common in educational conferences to hear presentations demonstrating the many benefits of using computers in teaching reading and in content-based EFL instruction.

THE PROBLEM OF LEGIBILITY

Unfortunately, the potential of the Web to provide useful information and texts cannot be fully realized if webpages are difficult to read due to problems with their legibility. Even texts that would be easily accessible to a group of readers in normal printed formats might be completely unintelligible in a webpage that is poorly designed or viewed with a badly configured browser. For example, it is common to encounter web pages displaying one or more of the following legibility problems:

Type is too small.
Lines are too wide (long).
Space between lines is too small.
Space between lines is too large.
Lines of running text are not aligned on the left.
Contrast between text and background is too low.
Threading of running text across multiple pages is unclear.

Some of these problems can be corrected by changing the settings of the web browser or computer monitor. Other problems may be inherent in the source coding of web pages and cannot be corrected except by extracting the text and placing it into a new document for reading.

A note on terminology is needed here. Originally readability referred generally to all of the factors that might affect the comprehensibility of a text, including not only linguistic characteristics but also presentation features such as type style, size, color, line width, and page layout. Since the development of readability formulas in the 1930s and 1940s, the term has come to mean more specifically the linguistic difficulty of texts, especially as predicted by readability formulas. However, even today outside of educational discourse the earlier, more inclusive usage can still be found. To avoid confusion, it is better to use the term "legibility" for the visual presentation features of text and "readability" for the linguistic aspects. Obviously the two considerations are complementary in assessing the accessibility of a text's content. To be clear, this presentation is about legibility.

VARIABLES AFFECTING LEGIBILITY

What is known about what makes web pages legible? Are there any guidelines to help us identify problems in web pages, correct them, and avoid them when we create our own material to be read on-screen? In fact, while a good deal is known about print legibility, with well-established guidelines widely followed by publishers, research on whether those guidelines also hold for computer screens is far from complete. Moreover, the scattered research results that do exist are not generally familiar to the majority of webpage makers, who may or may not be sophisticated software users but are most likely novices at typography.

A font originally was a set of type pieces of a particular size and style for use in a letter press. The type size was measured in points, equal to 1/72 inch, indicating the height of an individual piece—not the letter itself but rather the body that supported the letter, or the type face. The face was smaller than the body in order to leave some space between lines when the type was set solid in the press. How much smaller the face was than the body could differ considerably from font to font. Similarly the width of the body controlled the spacing between letters, which could be either fixed or proportional depending on the font's design. Thus letters in 12-point Times font are very noticeably smaller and more compact than letters in 12-point New York font, even though both fonts are nominally the same size.

Even more important in the perceived size of a font is the x-height, or the height of a lower-case x in a particular style. Two different styles with the same x-height may differ by as much as 2.5 points. Other dimensions in a type include the length of the style's ascenders and descenders, the parts of letters that extend above and below the x-height characters.

Although every font has a certain amount of space above and below the letter built into its design, it is customary to add extra space between the lines of letters. Because this was originally achieved by placing thin strips of lead between the rows of letter-press type, the addition of space between lines of type is called leading. How much leading is needed to achieve the best legibility with a particular type style depends on both the font size and the length of the lines in a block of text. Line length, which typographers call "line width", is measured in units called "picas" of approximately one-sixth of an inch. Computer word processors automatically apply a set amount of leading for each type style. This amount may or may not be optimal depending on the line width set by the user. It may be possible to override the default leading by setting the line spacing manually. In Microsoft Word, for example, one needs simply to select Paragraph in the Format menu and then set the line spacing at exactly whatever spacing is desired. The number of points greater than the font size is the amount of leading set. For example, for a 12 point font, setting the line spacing at 14 points would result in two points of leading. Two additional choices to make in selecting a font are whether to use a serif or sans-serif style and whether to make the face bold or italic rather than plain.

STANDARDS FOR PRINT LEGIBILITY

Research by Miles A. Tinker and his associates and students at the University of Minnesota largely form the basis for Publication standards for print legibility. Their findings from over three decades of investigation are compiled in two important volumes by Tinker, *The Legibility of Print* (1963) and *Bases of Effective Reading* (1965). Researchers have used a variety of means to measure legibility, ranging from tachistoscopic studies and extinction meters to oral reports. Tinker's favorite methods were to track eye movements and to measure reading speed. The following recommendations are a distillation of these classic research findings regarding the main variables in print typography. Keep in mind that unless noted otherwise these recommendations apply to running text, not headings or other special uses of type.

Font size

For type faces with small x-height, an 11 or 12 point font should be used; conversely, for faces with large x-height, a 9 or 10 point font is fine.

Serif or sans-serif

Contrary to what some self-appointed coffee-room experts may insist, there is no advantage in legibility in favor of either serif or sans-serif. An often-cited claim that serif fonts are more legible because they facilitate horizontal movement of the eyes was not based on empirical evidence. On the contrary, empirical studies have consistently found no significant difference in running text, although there is some evidence that individual letters may actually be more legible in sans-serif (Prince, 1967). Tinker's advice is to use whichever you prefer, perhaps using contrasting styles for headings and other special text.

Upper-case versus lower-case

Lower case is read faster and preferred by fluent readers. Use UPPER case sparingly for headings and titles. It has long been understood that fluent readers learn word shape-outlines in lower-case typography that assist in recognizing those words without having to decode them letter-by-letter. This process is hindered when upper-case is used, because words have basically a uniform oblong shape that requires letter-by-letter decoding. Tinker found that this leads to fewer errors made in reading upper-case words, but he also found lower case reading is 13% faster than upper-case, due to fewer eye fixations needed.

Italic and bold faces

Italic is disliked by readers, and it slows reading. Italic tends to appear smaller when embedded in plain type in the same point size. Because of its thin strokes and reduced enclosed white areas, it is more affected by other suboptimal conditions, which in combination markedly reduce legibility.

Proportional versus fixed-width letter spacing

The nod goes to proportional-spaced styles.

Line width (length)

For optimal 9-12 point fonts, Tinker recommends a width of 18 to 30 picas (3 to 5 inches or 7.5 to 12.5 cm), resulting in a maximum of about 10 to 12 words per line.

Leading

Line spacing appears to be less important than other factors in legibility. Optimal leading depends on type face used, with heavier faces needing more leading than light ones, and large x-heights needing more than small x-heights. Generally, for 9 to 12 point fonts, Tinker recommends a leading of 2 or 3 points. This is confirmed by Bouma's (1980) finding of 2 degrees for the minimum angle between lines, for an interlinear distance to line width ratio of about 1:30. However, even optimal

gains are not very great, 2 points of leading delivering a 7.5% improvement in reading speed over unleaded. Contrary to common practice in academic papers, double spacing definitely does not produce an advantage in legibility. Tinker found that slightly increasing leading to 3 points reduces the speed improvement to only 5% over unleaded spacing.

Line justification

Although Tinker reports fairly extensively on the effect on legibility of varying margin sizes (no significant effect found) and on various alternative text arrangements, all of his studies of normal text blocks appear to assume full left-right justification. In full-justified typography, lines in a paragraph are aligned on the left, with spaces within the lines increased as needed to make the right ends also come out even. In computerized typesetting normally used in the publishing industry, the extra spacing is distributed evenly between letters and between words, while in desktop wordprocessing the extra space is inserted only between words. The result in wordprocessed documents is uneven spacing from line to line, which is particularly noticeable when lines are short or words are long.

Studies are inconclusive about whether there is a significant difference between full and left-only justification (Fabrizio, Kaplan, & Teal, 1967; Gregory & Poulton, 1970; Hartley & Burnhill, 1971; Davenport & Smith, 1965). However, Gregory and Poulton (1970) found that while full justification did not affect good readers, it created difficulty for poor readers. Rehe (1974) speculates that left-justified typography may be preferable since it allows more consistent eye movement than in full-justified paragraphs. Moreover, Rehe cites evidence that left-only justification is preferred by readers even if there is no conclusive performance advantage. It is important to note that none of these studies appears to take account of differences between computerized typesetting and desktop wordprocessing, nor do the studies take account of interaction of justification with line length.

Text and background colors

Considering that Tinker's research dealt with print legibility, it is remarkable that he devoted a great deal of attention to the effect of text and background color interactions on legibility. His research is conclusive and his recommendations very specific. For optimal legibility, use dark text on a light background. Black on white is best, although acceptable effects may be had with the dark colors green, magenta, red, and blue for text on backgrounds of the light colors yellow and cyan. Tinker (1965) provides the following hierarchy of color combinations, in which a negative value indicates the percentage decrease in legibility found for that combination relative to optimal black on white:

black on white (0.0)
green on white (-3.0)
blue on white (-3.4)

black on yellow (-3.8)
red on yellow (-4.8)
red on white (-8.9)
green on red (-10.6)
orange on black (-13.5)
orange on white (-20.9)
red on green (-39.5)
black on purple (-51.5)

Some high chromatic (hue) contrasts have low perceptual brightness contrast: for example, red/blue and orange/gray. In general, Tinker found that legibility depends less on chromatic contrast than on brightness contrast, with any color combination acceptable that affords a brightness contrast of at least 70%. Most papers reflect 75-90% of white light, printing inks about 5%. Therefore there is a difference, or contrast, of about 70-85%. This should not fall below about 65%, which allows for pale tinted papers without undue sacrifice in legibility.

Black-on-white versus white-on-black print

Tinker found definitively that not only do readers prefer black print on white background, they also read it significantly faster than reversed white on black. Therefore dropout (reversed) text should be reserved for titles and headings and avoided for running text.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR WEBPAGE TYPOGRAPHY

The recommendations summarized above are based on research with print legibility. They should be of interest to anyone who uses a wordprocessor to prepare printed materials for students to read. Some of the recommendations directly contradict what have become standard practices for many of us, including use of long lines, double-spacing, full justification, and copious bold and italic. The research findings that inform typographic practices in the publication industry obviously could be applied to good effect in our printed work as well.

However, we began this inquiry with a special interest in evaluating and optimizing the legibility of Web texts. Standards for computer screen legibility have been researched less thoroughly, but the literature that is emerging on this subject acknowledges the print standards as the starting point. Indeed, results of experiments with text legibility on computer screens (e.g., Bouma, 1980; Bruce & Foster, 1982; Fukuzumi, Yamazaki, Kamijo, & Hayashi, 1998; Grabinger & Amedeo, 1988; Kember & Varley, 1987; Pastoor, 1990; Peek, 1998; Van Nes, 1984; Van Nes, 1986) generally concur with the earlier print findings. Where there are differences in results, they often seem to be attributable to difficulties in measurements in the new research such that the new findings are inconclusive.

As might be expected, research into the effects of color interaction has taken on greater relevance for computer screens, with a far greater range of testable

options open to investigation than were available to Tinker (see, for example, Van Nes, 1984, and Pastoor, 1990). The easy application of color to computer texts has opened up lines of investigation that would not have concerned Tinker and his generation of researchers, leading to distinctly modern advice, for example, not to use too many colors on a page and to be consistent in the use of color coding both within a page and between pages in a web site. Other issues such as the effects of screen resolution, sharpness, brightness, contrast, and refresh rates on screen legibility have not been definitely addressed. Clearly, much research needs to be done to identify how typographic legibility variables are affected by delivery of text on computer screens.

Screen fonts

Perhaps the most useful contribution to legibility, not only of web pages but of any text meant to be read on-screen, has been the introduction of scalable fonts optimized for the screen. Until recently there were few font choices available for web pages and those that were available had been developed for print and often did not translate well to the screen. The TrueType scalable font engine, developed at Apple 1990 and incorporated into Windows since 1991, greatly increased flexibility in the font styles and sizes available in a wide range of applications on both platforms (see Penney, 2000). In addition, Microsoft Corporation has introduced a pack of free fonts recommended for the Web, including some new ones that have been specifically optimized for on-screen legibility (Microsoft Corporation, 2000). These are normally included in Microsoft software installations. If they are not available on your computer, the fonts can be downloaded from http://www.microsoft.com/typography/fontpack/default.htm at no cost. The new fonts are the following:

Serif styles
- Georgia (designed for computer screens)
- Times New Roman family
- Courier family

Sans-serif styles
- Verdana (designed for computer screens)
- Trebuchet (designed for computer screens)
- Comic Sans
- Impact

In general, it is safest to use these screen-friendly fonts for text to be read on a computer. This applies of course to web pages, but also to word processing documents intended to be read on-screen. Even with documents being prepared for print, in which another style font might be preferred for the final printed version, you might consider composing in one of the screen fonts and then reformatting in the other font just before printing. The improvement in legibility while you are working on the document may be worth the extra work required at the end. Of

course, the fact that the new fonts were developed for the screen does not mean that they cannot be used in prints as well. They can, and their legibility in printed documents may also be appreciated. Whatever the application, for running text, captions, and smaller sizes, the best of the new fonts may be Georgia, Trebuchet MS, or Verdana. Save Comic Sans and Impact for larger size headings.

Correcting problems in web pages

Controlling the legibility of word-processing documents displayed on-screen is relatively simple and direct using the settings available in the word-processing application. But what can we do about problematic web pages viewed with a browser? Basically the size of text in a webpage is controlled by a combination of the screen's resolution setting and either the webpage's source instructions or the browser's settings. As a rule of thumb, a resolution of 800 x 600 pixels displays pages in WYSIWYG size—What You See Is What You Get. A five-inch-wide line set in 12 point font is five inches both displayed on screen and printed out on paper. Since most screens will not display a full A4 or US Letter size page at once, using the WYSIWYG resolution means that scrolling will often be necessary to read a page of text. If a font is still too small to be read easily, the resolution can be set even lower—to 640 x 480 pixels—to increase the size of the font on-screen, but then everything else is enlarged as well.

Depending on the equipment you are using, it may be too inconvenient to change the screen's resolution for a single problem document. However, it could be worth the trouble if the computer will be used primarily to display and process text or if a problem document is the focus of a class activity. The advantage of changing the screen to a lower resolution is that it will make everything automatically larger, including text embedded in graphics, without interfering with the overall design of the document. The disadvantages are that more scrolling will be needed and that what was already legible in a higher resolution will now be needlessly enlarged.

A second way to increase the size of displayed text is to select a preferred font style and size in the browser and set the browser to override the page's fonts. Choosing a larger font size of 14 or 16 points will compensate for a higher screen resolution of, for example, 1024 x 768 pixels or 1152 x 780 and keep displayed text at approximately WYSIWYG size. The disadvantage of this approach is that it could disrupt the design of the page, causing displacement or overlapping of elements, possibly making it more difficult to read the text. Moreover, not all web pages allow this strategy to be used.

A third strategy is more radical and time-consuming. This involves extracting the text from the webpage by saving or copying and pasting it into a new document, then reformatting as needed to make it more usable. This approach raises ethical and legal issues that need to be kept in mind for any use beyond the immediate one, but these considerations are similar to those governing photocopying for personal and educational use.

Other Considerations

In addition to considerations of legibility as such, the Web has introduced a range of related factors that impinge on how readers access online texts. In the first place, texts found in a webpage are subject to the culture of the Web, characterized by the activity of "surfing." Web surfers typically spend only a minute per page, and less if the page has problems with legibility or readability. This results from the fact that 79% are in the habit of skimming rather than reading word-for-word what they find on a webpage (American Society of Association Executives, 2000). While a classroom context may specially prepare students to approach web pages as texts to be read more closely, the association of online texts with habitual surfing attitudes is difficult to override, and probably some accommodation to it is prudent.

The following recommendations suggest some very broad guidelines for writing text for reading on web pages. While they are intended for material that is being created, they also provide a framework for evaluating existing web pages as reading texts.

Page layout

Use a concise, spacious design, with isolated heading, spaced paragraphs, directive cues, and graphic organizers such as text boxes and background colors (e.g., using tables).

Hypertext organization

A choice must be made between heirarchical and linear linking of pages and between scrolling and paging to move through the text within a single page. One recent study (Nimwegen, Pouw & Oostendorp, 1999) has found hierarchical structure more useable than linear structure, and heirarchical with scrolling better than heirarchical with paging.

Writing style

Web culture imposes a new discipline on our writing. Students have come to think of text as skimmable, to look for keywords, and to expect information to be structured in an inverted pyramid, main points at the top (or one side) with details below (or on the other side). While we must not be confined to what we can convey in bulleted lists and text snippets, our writing for online reading needs to be especially lucid and concise, devoid of fluff, and clearly organized, if we want it to engage our student readers.

CONCLUSION

Armed with the research findings that exist for print legibility, together with their confirmation and extensions for screen legibility, we can provisionally say how a text ought to appear on a computer screen for optimal legibility. Such

information is useful for evaluating and selecting web pages for our students to read. It can also guide our production of better materials of our own, both for printed and for on-screen reading. However, much research remains to be done on how our understanding of reading processes needs to be modified for online texts and on how the Web has changed the ways students access them.

THE AUTHOR

Jerry Greenfield has a doctorate in Curriculum, Instruction, and Technology in Education from Temple University and teaches English and Information Technology at Miyazaki International College. He brings to his Web-intensive teaching a background in English education, visual communication, and design, including 25 years on the faculty of The University of the Arts in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Email: jgreenfi@miyazaki-mic.ac.jp

REFERENCES

American Society of Association Executives (2000). Writing for the Web. *Association Management, 52*:5 (May), 102ff.

Bouma, H. (1980). Visual reading processes and the quality of text displays. In E. Grandjean & E. Vigliani (Eds.), *Ergonomic Aspects of Visual Display Terminals*, pp. 101-114.

Bruce, M., & Foster, J.J. (1982). The visibility of colored characters on colored backgrounds in viewdata displays. *Visible Language, 16*, 383-390.

Fukuzumi, S., Yamazaki, T., Kamijo, K., & Hayashi, Y. (1998). Physiological and psychological evaluation for visual display colour readability: A visual evoked potential study and a subjective evaluation study. *Ergonomics, 41*(1), 89-108.

Grabinger, R.S., & Amedeo, D. (1988). CRT text layout: Perceptions of viewers. *Computers in Human Behavior, 4*, 189-205.

Kember, P., & Varley, D. (1987). The legibility and readability of a visual display unit at threshold. *Ergonomics, 30*(6), 925-931.

Microsoft Corporation (2000). TrueType core fonts for the Web [Online, accessed 8 August, 2000]. URL: http://www.microsoft.com/typography/fontpack/default.htm.

Nimwegen, C. van, Pouw, C., & Oostendorp, H. van (1999). The influence of structure and reading manipulation on usability of hypertexts. *Interacting with Computers, 12*, 7-24.

Pastoor, S. (1990). Legibility and subjective preference for color combinations in text. *Human Factors, 32*:2, 157-171.

Peek, R. (1998). Webpage design: Fiddling with fonts? *Information Today, 15(*4) (April), 52ff.

Prince, J.H. (1967). Printing for the visually handicapped. *Journal of Typographic Research, 1*, 31-47.

Penney, L. (2000). A History of TrueType [Online, accessed 8 August, 2000]. URL: http://www.truetype.demon.co.uk/tthist.htm.

Tinker, M.A. (1963). *The Legibility of Print*. Ames, IA: University of Iowa Press.

Tinker, M.A. (1965). *Bases for Effective Reading*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Van Nes, F.L. (1984). Limits of visual perception in the technology of visual display terminals. *Behaviour and Information Technology, 3*(4), 371-377.

Van Nes, F.L. (1986). Space, colour, and typography on visual display terminals. *Behaviour and Information Technology, 5(2)*, 99-118.

Promoting Awareness of Cultural Diversity via Student E-Mail Exchange

PHILIP L. MCCASLAND
BRENT R. POOLE
Human International University-Japan

ABSTRACT

When students are given opportunities to participate in authentic English dialogue through e-mail, they have a greater incentive to communicate. As they interact with individuals outside of their own cultural context, they find real purpose in studying a foreign language. Additionally, students become aware of their roles as global citizens and learn that culture is in fact a social construct. Hence, students' learning and communication strategies are developed and diversified. As a result, they become more autonomous learners. An e-mail key-pal program is a catalyst for providing students with incentive, purpose, and context for communication. This paper will explain the rationale for a key-pal program, how it is set up, and research findings that indicate how students are motivated to write in English.

INTRODUCTION

Students in academic writing classes are often required to compose topic journals in order to practice writing for fluency. This was one of the techniques used at the institution where the authors teach. The problem with this form of free writing is that students are not involved in real communication. They write merely for a score: a grade on their paper. The audience is the teacher, and the reason for writing is merely to fulfill the requirement that was imposed upon them. With this lack of motivation, it is little wonder that the journal entries often were deficient in focus and creativity, doing little to encourage writing. To address these problems, the authors decided to institute a new program in order to give students a voice (an identity) in which to communicate as well as a clear incentive in a well-defined context. This paper will demonstrate that the key-pal program offers an alternative to topic journals and gives students a chance to communicate with people from other countries, thus providing opportunities for the learning of cultural diversity.

Four Pillars

There were four primary reasons why this project was set into motion. The first reason concerns itself with the real purpose for writing. Before the implementation of this project, everything the students wrote in their journals received a mark. Hence, they were writing for a verdict. With the program in place, students are now given opportunities to write for the purpose of

communication. Support for the above argument can be found in Tebo-Messina & Blough (1989) where it was found that students are motivated to focus on form and content when they have, what they perceive to be, a real audience.

The second reason is somewhat intertwined with the first in that we wanted students to use English in more of a symmetrical environment. Generally speaking, much of the input students receive comes from the classroom where the teacher is a person with unequal status. As a by-product of this power structure, pragmatic development is undermined because the target language students encounter in the classroom lacks the range and emphasis of relevant exemplars (Kasper, 1997).

The third reason concerns itself with authentic communication and the fourth with exposure to the Internet. Most of the input that students are exposed to comes from commercial EFL/ESL texts and teacher talk. Thus, exposure to authentic communication is deficient. The key-pal program allows for such communication to take place. In a self-reported questionnaire, 73% of the students indicated that they had not used e-mail prior to enrollment at this institution. Obviously, this mode of communication is real-life English that will be important to their future. They will need to use it in future academic settings, as well as in business, when they graduate.

THE KEY-PAL PROGRAM

The key-pal program is basically a glorified, technologically improved pen-pal program. Teachers have been using pen-pal correspondence for language and culture exchange for years. With today's technology, in the form of the Internet, it is possible for students to communicate with people from virtually any part of the globe. Taking advantage of the Internet's connectivity and accessibility (from the keyboard in your school's computer lab to any computer user in the world), students can dialogue using English as the *lingua franca*. In contrast to the traditional pen-pal program, e-mail has greatly reduced the wait time. This allows students to engage in a significant amount of authentic communication in a relatively short period of time. Additionally, teachers can eavesdrop on the interaction in an objective and discrete manner without undermining the communication.

THE LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF E-MAIL VIS-À-VIS ESL/EFL LEARNERS

Holliday (1999) contends that e-mail communication for second language learners is similar to that of native speakers of English. The linguistic features of e-mail tend to concur with those for personal letters and telephone conversations. E-mail is more interactive than letters and similar to conversations that are not face-to-face. "In general the English of computer-mediated communication via e-mail is similar to that of first language speakers of English" (Holliday, 1999, p. 15).

SETTING IT UP

The basic process of setting up a key-pal program is relatively simple. To begin with, each student is given a handout with a list of web sites where he/she can search and request key-pals (for example, http://peterweb.com). The first task of each student is to access these various pages. They then choose one or more of the key-pal web pages and fill out the required information on the page. Here they give some basic personal information such as name, age, nationality, list of interests, hobbies, and leisure activities. At the end of this form the students write a short introductory message giving additional information about themselves and an invitation for a key-pal relationship. When all of this is completed it is submitted to the web site and immediately posted to be accessed anywhere in the world. The preferences and general information submitted are used as key search words for potential key-pals who are searching to write to a particular type of person. The search words may look something like this: Japanese, female, 19 years old, (who likes) shopping and R&B music. At this point, students are encouraged to do their own searches on the web sites in order to find key-pals. They must send two or three messages to individuals who have recently posted profiles on the web. Students look for someone with similar interests listed in their profile and send a short introductory message inviting them to reply. The next step is simply to wait about twenty-four hours. By the next day, there are usually several responses waiting for the students in their e-mail boxes. This puts the keyboards of communication in motion. These new e-mail responses from potential key-pals are also self-introductory, with questions about the students' particular hobbies and interests. Now all the students have to do is answer the questions, add more information, and ask some of their own engaging questions. This begins a key-pal relationship that, if properly maintained, will last for the entire semester, and frequently for an even longer period of time.

Goals

The general goal of this project was to motivate the students to write, with the underlying theory being that the more students write in an authentic communication situation, the more fluent they will become at writing. It was designed to help the students realize that writing is directly related to communication, not just the verdict that they received or a score dictated by their instructor. The following objectives strongly reflect the theoretical influence of Merrill Swain's "Three Functions of Output" (1995).

The key-pal program was designed with these specific goals: 1) Promote authentic communication. 2) Promote intrinsic motivation for reading and writing skill development. 3) Encourage learner autonomy. 4) Provide students with opportunities to notice their own gap in language knowledge, as well as what they need to know for global citizenship. 5) Give students opportunity for hypothesis testing. 6) Develop and diversify communication strategies. 7) Provide exposure

to informal forms of English, i.e., slang, idioms, and reduced speech. 8) Promote opportunities for using metalanguage. 9) Promote awareness of cultural diversity and encourage international friendships. 10) Promote interest in other countries and peoples, which in turn motivates students to research and study more ardently about other countries. 11) Promote writing skills in dialogue fashion. Questions require answers, which in turn, prompt more questions, spurring on communication of a direct and somewhat immediate nature. 13) Develop and diversify own strategies for decoding meaning in reading. 14) Improve basic typing, word processing, and Internet-related skills.

CULTURAL DIVERSITY VIA REFLECTION

A reflection worksheet was designed to help the students consider what they had been writing and to help them discover appropriate topics by themselves. This was in reaction to a need of the students. Some seem to quickly run out of content within their range of fluency. The general problem here was that students were either failing to ask appropriate and specific enough questions or they were failing to answer the questions of their key-pal with additional information. The Country Profile was designed to help students notice the gap that they had in their general world knowledge. It was intended to encourage students to develop their own questions for their key-pals in order to spur on meaningful dialogue. When learners began to perceive their own gap in general world knowledge, they are more motivated to research the answers to their questions. Additionally, this helps them ask more specific questions when corresponding with their key-pals.

Geography questions from the Country Profile included: What country is your key-pal from? What are the neighboring countries? What is the population, capital city, religion(s), economic system and political system? The Country Profile also included questions of comparison and contrast: What differences have I found between this country and my own country? What similarities? What generalizations could be made? How can I test these generalizations by asking my key-pal?

RESEARCH METHOD

Subjects

The first-year students at Human International University-Japan were asked to answer a self-reporting questionnaire about their e-mail key-pal experience. A total of 30 students responded. The subjects were predominately female (F=25; M=5) and the average age was 19.4.

Materials

A self-reporting questionnaire was administered. (See Appendix I). The first half of the instrument was based upon a four-point Likert scale. The second half consisted of four open-ended questions.

Procedures

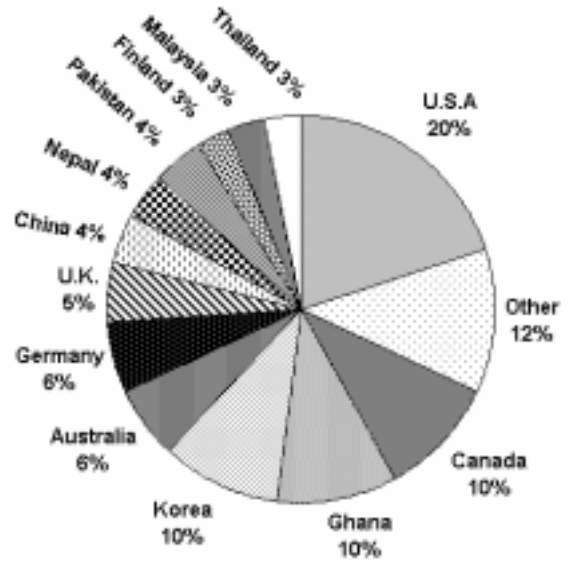
The questionnaire was administered during the last week of Summer Session 2000. Thirty minutes were allocated for the students to fill out the questionnaire under normal classroom conditions. Students were allowed to ask the teacher questions and to use an English-to-Japanese dictionary for vocabulary clarification.

Analysis

The raw data was entered into Microsoft Excel and the mean and standard deviation was calculated for questions based upon the Likert scale. The answers to the open-ended questions were coded and received a numerical identification.

During the previous semester, students primarily corresponded with native English speakers. This was not the case for Summer Session 2000, in that only forty percent of our students' key-pals were from Australia, Canada, the UK, or the USA. The average number of key-pals that students corresponded with was student 3.2.

FIGURE 1.
WHAT COUNTRIES ARE YOUR KEY-PALS FROM?



Other = Austria, France, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Slovenia, Spain, Taiwan, and Yugoslavia.

RESULTS

Three significant findings from the Likert Scale section of the survey were revealed: a) "I am going to continue to communicate with my key-pals even after this course is over" (3.4). This may be indicative that the program promoted intrinsic

motivation to read and write. This result is consistent with Kauffman (1998), Cassidy (1996), Grosz-Gluckman (1997), and Wang (1996). b) "Made me aware of the differences between my culture and other cultures" (3.5). This suggests that the program served to raise the level of consciousness vis-à-vis cultural differences. c) The item (3.4) "Motivated me to communicate with people from other cultures" is intertwined with the previous questionnaire item in that it indicates awareness, but it goes a step further. It also suggests that communicating in a culturally diverse arena increases students' interest level. And as alluded to earlier, this can lead students to independently research issues that are relevant to their ongoing communication.

Next, the answers to the open-ended section of the survey will be discussed, and actual student examples will be used to help make the concepts more concrete. For the sake of privacy, the individuals who composed the examples will remain anonymous. The examples are reproduced in their exact form with all of the mistakes in order to preserve the authenticity of the samples.

The first question that will be addressed is, "What was the most interesting cultural concept that you discussed with your key-pal?" Due to the limited sample size and vast array of answers given for this question, 33% were coded as "other". Examples one and two illustrate this point.

(** In all examples, "S" refers to students' e-mail or response and "K" refers to keypals' e-mail or response.)

Example (1) S: *Now I talk about weather in Japan. The climate of Japan is mild. However. it different between the north and south part of Japan. Northern Japan has much snow in winter, but southern Japan is very warm in summer. Kagawa (my hometown) and Osaka (where I live in now) are located in middle of Japan, so hardly have snow even if in winter.*

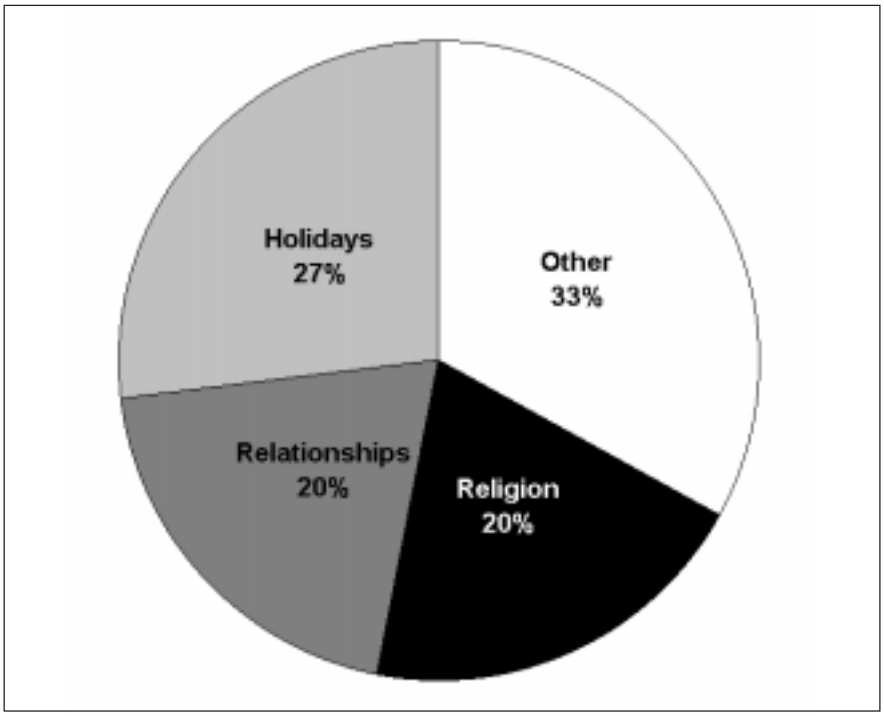
Example (2) K: *Wow getting a drivers lisence in Japan is EXPENSIVE. I cannot believe that. In Canada you have to take a written test and then in a year you take a driven test and then in another year you take a final driving test. It is really hard to get a lisence now.*

The respondents indicated by 27% that the topic of "holidays" was an interesting topic for discussion. As the examples indicate, most of this kind of interaction consists of describing and/or comparing and contrasting what holidays are celebrated in the key-pals' respective countries.

Example (3) S: *On May 3rd, our constitution was started, and became holiday. On May 4th, this is for nation. It's name "Holiday for Nation." On October 9th, this is named "Day of P.E. "Novermber 3rd is for culture . . .*

Example (4) K: *You asked about American customs. That is very hard to explain because there are many different kinds of people in America, and it is hard to apply one custom to all …We have Easter. The Fourth of July, a time at which we celebrate with all kinds of fireworks, is to celebrate the anniversary of our freedom from Britain.*

FIGURE 2.
WHAT WAS THE MOST INTERESTING CULTURAL CONCEPT THAT YOU DISCUSSED WITH YOUR KEY-PAL?



The respondents indicated that relationships and religion were equally interesting. In relation to the former, most of the discourse concerned itself with an explanation of the main religions in the key-pals' respective countries, and about his/her personal beliefs.

Example (5) S: *So, change the topic. How about the religion? What kind of religion do you believe in your country? In Japan, some people believe Buddhism, and other people believe Christianity or some minority religions. However, to yell the truth, most of Japanese, especially young people including me, don't believe any religions. However, we enjoy Christmas or New year's day as a funny events.*

Example (6) K: *It is my profound pleasure to receive your mail inquiring many things about our country, thanks. . . okay. My relegion is not ISLAM. In Bhutan there won't be such religion. Our country is Buddhism and partly Hindusium. I am belongs to Hindu but then I followed the Buddhism too.*

When it came to the discussion of relationships, most of it concerned itself with cultural differences in relation to dating and marriage. Also, within this categorization was discussion of problems that the key-pals were having with their current girl/boyfriend or spouse. The following is just such an example.

Example (7) S: *Last night I was angry to him because he has been nervous about our future since satuday's night, I don't wanna hear negative thinking. . . I believe that everything gonna be OK, and to think always about partner's and my happiness produce the best choice.*

"What is something that you learned about your key-pal that you think will help you in the future?" This question was coded into six fairly evenly distributed categories. Respondents indicated that they learned pragmatics from their key-pal. The following illustration is indicative of that category.

Example (8) S: *For example, she always finished with sentence, "I'll talk to you soon" so I use it too.*

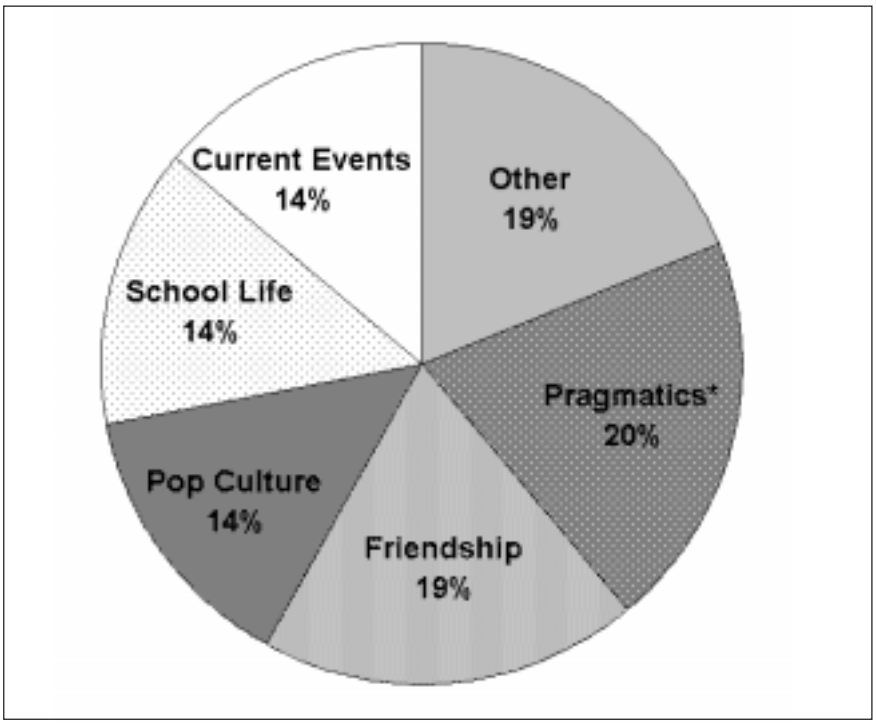
The categories "friendship" and "other" represented the second most important "thing" that they learned. In relation to the former, the category is rather nebulous in that through the interaction students learned about friendship. At other times, there was an explicit discussion. In the following example, the student discusses the cultural definition of friendship.

Example (9) S: *So, I felt we could be more friendly. But I couldn't realize her worry. It makes me a little sad. What do you think about the relationship of best friend? How the person can be your friend? Japanese might say "friend" means people who have same way of thinking. I don't know whether they really say or not. But I think Japanese intend to act together. Could you tell me about the average Canadian?*

The category "other" covered a vast range of topics such as instructions on how to cook a particular dish, the weather, or tourist attractions.

Example (10) K: *Hmm.. I can't think of what Toronto has that's really impressive. I guess the CN Tower is impressive, though it's not my favorite place. It is the tallest free-standing tower structure in the world, I think, unless someone has built something higher recently.*

FIGURE 3.
WHAT IS SOMETHING THAT YOU LEARNED FROM YOUR KEY PAL THAT YOU THINK WILL HELP YOU IN THE FUTURE?



The third most statistically significant categories are "pop culture," "current events," and "school life." Much of the discourse in the category of pop culture concerned itself with movie stars, pop musicians, latest fads in fashion, animation, or popular TV sitcoms.

Example (11) S: *By the way, I bout new album yesterday. It's my favorite Japanese artist's album. It's really exciting! This music heal my tiredness. My favorite artist name is "LUNA SEA". Probably you don't know… They are famous Japanese Rock Musician. They are more popular in Hong Kong than Japan. I don't know why.*

Example (12) S: *I can understanded your Japanese. How did you know V6 ro kink kids? In America, have you watched Japanese TV? What's your favorite person about juhnny'S?*

The category of "current events" was rather interesting to eaves- drop on because it presented various perspectives on global and local issues. During the recent Olympic Games in Sydney, Australia, much of the interaction revolved around the key-pals' favorite athlete for a particular competition.

Example (13) S: *Now heads of some country come to Okinawa, Japan, you know. I watch many news about it on television everyday. We call it, "Okinawa Samite." How do you call it? I watched your president, Clinton and speech about problem of military base in Okinawa. In spite of I am Japanese, I don't know about it. People who live in there have many trouble about it. This summer I'll visit there, so I want to think about this problem seriously. It is a difficult problem.*

Example (14) K: *I would also like to go to college somewhere abroad, but I don't have money for that! I live in the most miserable country in the world! I hate Serbia, I am sick of our people and president! I think I have much potential, but no opportunity to go anywhere! I am very sad because of that! I live in a very small town, where almost everyone knows everyone, and I hate that!*

Example (15) K: *By the way I read in newspaper that some poisoned milk appeared in your part of Japan. If I have right, also in Osaka. Please be careful and stay away from it.*

The last category that will be addressed is "school life." Much of this interaction revolved around describing their countries' educational systems. There was a great deal of discussion about American universities because most students at Human International University-Japan transfer to such institutions.

Example (16) S: *This time, I'd like to write about Japanese school and college or university system a little. In Japan, every schools and companies start from April. We have the vacations in summer for about one month, in winter for about two weeks, and in spring for about two weeks or one month.*

Example (17) K: *Wow we must really have a lot in common because New York was where I wanted to go to school!! That is my favorite state. In fact if my test scores were high enough that is where I would be going to college. My two personal favorites are Columbia University and New York University. There are a lot of other great Universities there.*

FLUENCY VS. ACCURACY

The authors of this text can imagine the cringes of some teachers as they read these examples from the students and their correspondents. Some may even feel inclined to get out the red pen and mark the mistakes within these samples. Indeed every kind of mistake in the book could be found if one were to go through to mark and categorize them. The point is that students did communicate on a variety of topics with differing levels of complexity in spite of all their mistakes. Students were able to express meaning through text. They were willing to get out of their

textbooks and the comfort of their classrooms to use the language in order to learn the language.

One of the best ways that we can use e-mail is as a type of free-writing practice. The e-mail environment encourages students to put their ideas down in writing without overemphasis on the form of the language. Therefore, students can get acquainted with free writing and practice for fluency by concerning themselves with communication. It provides them with another context in which they can develop their skills. By providing this opportunity for students, we are preparing them for a communication environment that is based on real-world needs.

CONCLUSION

One can certainly surmise from the above examples that students are exposed to a multiple of perspectives on real-world issues. Through interaction with individuals from different cultural backgrounds, opportunities are given to grapple with the notion that reality is, in fact, a social construct. This may lead students to question some of their ethnocentric views. This is one of the few ways that technology can be harnessed to promote the development of contentious global citizens through raising the awareness of cultural diversity and by being the preferred median through which people can communicate cross-culturally.

THE AUTHORS

Philip L. McCasland has been teaching at Human International University-Japan for three years. He teaches English for academic purposes and content courses such as public speaking and world religions. He holds an M.A. in TESOL from Biola University. His research interests include CALL, SLA theory, and sociolinguistics. Although he does not need any more key-pals, you can e-mail him at: mccaslandpl@rocketmail.com

Brent R. Poole started his English teaching career in Korea. Most recently he has been teaching English, public speaking, and sociology at Human International University-Japan. He holds an M.A. from the University of Wisconsin and will soon complete his second one in TESOL from Temple University-Japan. His research interests include global issues, sociolinguistics, and SLA theory. You can e-mail him at: poolebrent@yahoo.com

REFERENCES

Cassidy, J. (1996). Computer-Assisted Language Arts Instruction for the ESL Learner. *English Journal, 85*(8), 55-57.

Grosz-Gluckman, V. (1997). *A look at the use of electronic mail (e-mail) as a learning tool in the writing skills of adult LEP female students*. Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education, FL 801 212. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 416 720).

Holiday, L. (1999, March/April). Challenging questions about e-mail for language learning. *ESL Magazine* (pp. 14-15).

Kasper, G. (1997). The role of pragmatics in language teacher education. In K. Bardovi-Harlig and B.S. Hartford (Eds.), *Beyond methods: Components of language teacher education* (pp.113-136). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kaufman, Lionel M. (1998). *Email keypals in zone of proximal development*. Paper presented at the 32nd Annual Meeting of TESOL, Seattle, WA, March 17-21.

Swain, Merrill. (1995) The three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidhofer (Eds.) *Principles and practices in applied linguistics* (pp.125-142). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tebo-Messina, M., & Blough, D.B. (1989). *Penpals and keypals – Networks for student writers*. Paper presented at the Annual Spring Conference of the National Council of Teachers of English, Charleston, SC.

Wang, Yu-mei, (1996). E-*mail dialogue journaling in an ESL reading and writing classroom*. The Proceedings of the Selected Research and Development Presentations at the 1996 National Convention of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology. Indianapolis, IN: AECT. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 397 845).

APPENDIX

Self-Reporting Questionnaire

Age: _____
Gender: _____
Class: _____

This is an anonymous survey. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THIS PAPER. You will not receive a grade or any class credit for completing this survey.

Directions: Please respond to the following statements with the number that corresponds to your opinion.

4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Statements 1-10: *This e-mail key-pal program has . . .*

_____ 1) strengthened my resolve to study English.

_____ 2) motivated me to communicate with people from other cultures.

_____ 3) made me aware of the differences between my culture and other cultures.

_____ 4) made me aware of similarities between my culture and other cultures.

_____ 5) caused me to compare and contrast my culture with the cultures of my key-pals.

_____ 6) caused me to reflect on my own culture, so that I can explain various aspects to my key-pal.

_____ 7) caused me to question some of my own stereotypes about other cultures.

_____ 8) made me more aware of the global community and my responsibility as a citizen of this community.

_____ 9) demonstrated the fact that English is an international language.

_____ 10) motivated me to go beyond superficial topics, such as of hobbies and music, and occasionally discuss topics such as religion, politics, economics, and social cultural issues.

Statements 11-15: *Because of this e-mail key-pal program . . .*

_____ 11) I have become more interested in international issues.

_____ 12) I have read the international sections of a newspapers or magazines more often than before I participated in this project.

_____ 13) I have looked at a map, atlas, or encyclopedia to research information about my key-pal's country at least one time this semester.

_____ 14) I have discovered new topics and techniques that help me communicate via e-mail.

_____ 15) I am going to continue to communicate with my key-pals even after this course is over.

Basic Information: Answer the following questions with a number and/or a short written response.

1) How many key-pals did you have this semester?_____

2) What countries were your key-pals from? _____
_____

3) What was the most interesting cultural concept that you discussed with you key-pal?
_____
_____
_____

4) What is something that you have learned about your key-pal that you think will help you in the future.
_____
_____
_____
_____

Using The Internet To Complement Classroom Instruction

ADRIANE MOSER
Mun Hwa Language School

ABSTRACT

Today we know that language learners can benefit from receiving instruction that matches their personal learning styles. The Internet can be used to meet these individual student needs. Two media through which this can be accomplished are online bulletin boards and HyperText Markup Language (HTML) quizzes. These activities can be designed by teachers with no HTML knowledge and can be used to meet the diverse learning styles of students. They are customizable and can be used with students of all ages and levels.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, researchers have found that language learners use different language learning strategies according to their general learning styles. Oxford (1989) states that "language learning styles and strategies appear to be among the most important variables influencing performance in a second language."

While students' learning styles will influence the learning strategies they choose, other factors, including the task at hand, ethnicity, level of language proficiency, and gender can influence their choice of language-learning strategy.

It is evident that not every student in the same class learns best in the same way. Teachers are faced with the challenge of presenting the same material in a variety of ways to meet the needs of all students. One way to meet the varying needs of students is to offer alternative methods of instruction. The Internet makes possible two simple solutions: online bulletin boards and HyperText Markup Language (HTML) quizzes. These activities can be designed by a teacher with no HTML experience and limited time and computing resources. They can be designed to accompany any curriculum or text at any level and can help to meet the diverse learning styles of students.

LEARNING STYLES

Many studies have been undertaken to explore the importance of student learning styles. Students have their own personal approaches to language learning, which may differ widely from person to person. O'Connor (1997) explains that "people rely on personally constructed filters to orient their relationships toward the world." These filters determine their learning styles. Learners are most

motivated and successful when they learn language through activities compatible with their own learning style.

Oxford (1989) uses the term learning style to talk about personal aspects such as cognitive style or patterns of mental functioning, attitudes and interests, and the use of certain preferred learning strategies. This definition of learning styles includes cognitive, affective, and social/behavioral elements.

One dimension introduced by Oxford (1989) is analytic processing/global processing. This division is closely tied to theories of brain hemisphericity. Language learners who favor the left side of the brain use analysis and abstraction to process language, while the right-side dominant learners perceive language in terms of auditory or visual patterns.

Oxford (1989) also discusses the cooperation/competition division. Cooperative learners work with their peers or interlocutors to increase their language skills, but competitive learners are motivated by a desire to surpass their classmates.

Another dimension of language learning style is tolerance for ambiguity. Some students can better tolerate the ambiguity found in realistic language, while others desire strictly controlled language input.

Still another dimension of learning styles is reflectivity/impulsivity. Reflective students like to take their time to construct their responses, while impulsive students respond immediately.

Gardner' s Multiple Intelligences

Gardner (1983) describes seven intelligences, later expanded to eight (Dickinson, 2000): Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence, Logical-Mathematical Intelligence, Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence, Visual-Spatial Intelligence, Musical Intelligence, Interpersonal Intelligence, Intrapersonal Intelligence, and Naturalist Intelligence. These intelligences, or talents as Gardner sometimes refers to them, are analogous to learning styles and can be observed and assessed early in life. It follows that the key to effective education is to harness and take advantage of these natural strengths when teaching new skills.

People with Verbal-Linguistic intelligence think in words, primarily spoken but also written. They have a great capacity to use words effectively. These people master new information most effectively by listening, reading, and verbalizing (Edwards, 1995). Verbal-Linguistics learners obviously have a great advantage when it comes to language learning, but other intelligences can be harnessed for language learning as well.

Learners with a strength in Logical-Mathematical intelligence learn best by observing and analyzing the relationships between groups or sets. They have well-developed reasoning skills. They can learn successfully by manipulating logical and numeric symbols on a computer.

People with Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence are talented at using fine and gross motor movements to work with objects. People with Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence often need to "act out" what they are learning.

Visual-Spatial intelligence involves recognizing patterns and perceiving the visual world accurately. People with this intelligence are able to transform, modify, and recreate things they see. They need to have visual input to learn new material.

People with Musical intelligence have the ability to repeat, recall, and create pitch, rhythm, and timbre. They are especially sensitive to these variations in sounds, including language.

Interpersonal intelligence involves understanding the relationships between people and how to use this information. Students with this intelligence like to socialize and learn best by interacting and cooperating with or teaching other people.

People with Intrapersonal intelligence have a strength in identifying and using their own emotions, strengths, and weaknesses. These people learn best by linking their responses to new information. They can monitor their own reactions to plan a future course of study and have a great capacity for self-discipline.

Learners whose strength lies in Naturalist intelligence are talented in the area of Man's interaction with and experience of the natural world.

Various tools exist to determine a student's learning style, including the Educational Cognitive Style Map described by Nunney (1977). This can be used to create a profile or map for each student. The Educational Cognitive Style Map can be used to determine the student's unique learning style and to match their style to an appropriate form of presentation. Nunney claims a 90 percent achievement level can be reached when instruction is personalized to match to students' learning styles.

A self-administered questionnaire like the Edmonds Learning Style Identification Exercise described by Reinert (1977) can also help students and teachers determine where their learning styles and preferences lie, as well as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning mentioned in Green (1995), a pencil-and-paper instrument that students can score on their own.

Gardner (1983) claims that five to ten hours of observation of an individual completing a variety of puzzles should be sufficient to construct a profile of the individual's intelligences.

Students tend to use significantly different learning strategies based on their stronger and weaker language learning styles. When students have identified their stronger learning styles they can seek out activities that match these styles which will likely cause them to be more successful.

Green (1995) summarizes previous research which shows a consistent pattern that students who use a wide variety of learning strategies tend to perform better than students who limit themselves to only a few strategies. For this reason, once students' language learning styles have been determined with one of the previously-mentioned instruments, it is important to introduce the students to strategies that reinforce their strengths as well as remedy their weaknesses. Students should be given opportunities and encouraged to experiment with a range of different strategies.

Classroom instructional methodologies usually lean towards one side of each of these learning style dimensions. The teacher's teaching style may or may not match the learning styles of the students and rarely meets the needs of all students in the classroom.

LEARNING STRATEGIES

Oxford (1989) describes language learning strategies as the behaviors or techniques that language learners use to acquire, improve, and use new language. Learning strategies are chosen by learners and teachers for a variety of reasons. Factors that influence the selection of language learning strategies can include the material being covered, the task, the learners' goals, needs, purpose of the learning, ethnicity, gender, level of proficiency, and, without a doubt, learning styles.

Just as learning styles include many different elements, learning strategies can include metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, and compensation strategies (Oxford, 1989). These different types of strategies are often used in combination, supporting and reinforcing each other (Oxford, 1994).

Students use certain strategies for particular language skills or tasks. (Oxford, 1994) For example, when writing, students may use strategies like planning, self-monitoring, deduction, and substitution. In a speaking situation, language learners may choose strategies such as risk-taking, paraphrasing, circumlocution, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. For listening tasks, students choose from strategies such as elaboration, making inferences, selective attention, and self-monitoring, and with reading tasks the strategies of reading aloud, guessing, deduction, and summarizing are often chosen.

APPLYING LEARNING STYLES AND STRATEGIES TO INSTRUCTION

"Teachers can help their students by designing instruction that meets the needs of individuals with different stylistic preferences and by teaching students how to improve their learning strategies." (Oxford, 1989) When teachers and students gather and share information about learning styles and strategies, they can negotiate activities that are more likely to lead to successful results for the language learners.

While it is extremely difficult to meet the needs of all learners all the time in the classroom, Internet activities can give students the necessary practice in their preferred media. Activities can also be easily designed to offer alternate modes of instruction (i.e., written, aural, graphic.) The Internet can be used to create "opportunities to engage in our subjects from a variety of orientations." (O'Connor, 1997)

Teachers can use a variety of activities, including those based on the Internet, to reconstruct the learning environment to address the different learning styles of their students. These tasks can be used in place of or in addition to traditional activities. When students have available to them more than one approach to the

material being taught, they can choose the method that they find most successful to learn the information, which will in turn positively affect learning outcomes.

O'Connor (1997) suggests that "One general strategy that an educator can use to create increased opportunities for students to use different styles is to offer additional alternative activities that supplement or replace traditional ones." Online bulletin boards and HTML quizzes are ideally suited for this kind of alternative or supplemental approach to addressing different learning styles in the classroom.

ONLINE BULLETIN BOARDS

Online bulletin boards, also known as message boards or forums, are a place where students can interact with each other, their teacher, and the world. Students can answer questions posted by the teacher, make their own new posts, or respond to posts by their classmates.

Online bulletin boards are asynchronous; they do not require students to participate at a particular time. This makes them ideal for out-of-class assignments, as well as collaborative projects between students in different time zones. They can also be used by students in turn in a single-computer classroom.

Students need Internet access to use these online forums, but they do not need a personal e-mail account. Most forums ask for some identifying information. Teachers need to address the issues of Internet security with their students, especially younger learners. Students who are uncomfortable with posting their work on the Internet may need to be encouraged to use pseudonyms or to post anonymously.

Teachers can use online bulletin boards to complement the curriculum and meet the needs of students with different learning styles in several ways. One is by simply posting the types of questions that appear at the end of a textbook reading selection to the board. These questions then become interactive as students post their answers and the teacher can then give them individualized feedback and a chance to revise their answers.

Another possibility is posting discussion questions. Students can be required to state their opinion as well as respond to postings by their classmates. Most message boards can show these discussions as message threads, which can be read like a transcript of a live conversation.

Message boards make an ideal forum for collaborative "authentic learning" or problem-solving projects where learners work with other students, classes, or nationalities to contribute to the collaborative knowledge base of the group based on their own knowledge, research, or observations (Dickinson, 1998).

How to Create a Message Board

A number of web sites offer remotely hosted bulletin board services. These are typically free in exchange for an advertising banner which appears at the top of each page. Other options include paid services which are free of advertising and locally-hosted applications available to teachers with access to applications on the server which hosts their web site.

The service which the author has chosen for class message boards is Bravenet Forums, available at http://www.bravenet.com/samples/forum.php This service is free and easy to set up, maintain, and customize to match the look and feel of an existing homepage. Other desirable features include spell-check, an obscenity filter, and the ability to password-protect forums.

Teachers and students posting to the board can also choose from a variety of icons to identify their post. These can be used to convey content, as, for example, a teacher may respond to a student's post with a "thumbs-up," "thumbs-down," or "smiley face" to graphically indicate their response to the student's work. Bravenet also offers other useful free website services, such as guestbooks, counters, greeting cards, and chat rooms.

Even a teacher inexperienced in web design can set up a Bravenet forum in less than 30 minutes. An online form asks questions about the title and sub-title of the Web Forum, the web address of the teacher' s main homepage, and locations of optional images and backgrounds. The teacher can also specify colors for headlines and backgrounds, any extra information to be elicited from students, the set of icons to be used, and whether or not to allow the obscenity checker to automatically screen messages.

Teachers can choose to add their message board to the Bravenet Forum Index. This allows outsiders to easily access the message board if interaction with the Internet public is desired. However, some teachers have found that the quantity of unwanted messages from non-class members seriously disrupted their message boards, and it is a simple matter to remove a forum from the public index. Message boards can also be password-protected to further discourage uninvited guests.

After the message board has been set up, it takes less than a minute for the teacher to add new assignments. An additional 15-30 minutes each week is needed to respond to student postings and delete any inappropriate messages.

Message Boards and Learning Styles

Message boards are simple to set up and can help meet the needs of students with a variety of learning styles. Green (1995) shows that the more successful students were those who employed active language learning strategies, especially in natural or naturalistic situations. The message board is an opportunity for students to practice the target language by putting it to use for a communicative purpose.

People with strong Visual-Spatial intelligence may have difficulty in a conversation class where the material is not explicitly written down. These learners can benefit from interacting with others in a style similar to that of spoken language but presented in a visual form on a message board before or after the oral conversation in class. The icons that are available with most message board programs are also a valuable device for visual-spatial learners.

Cooperative learners will benefit from using message boards as they respond to and interact with their classmates and work together to negotiate meaning.

Keyboarding and mousing are dependent on hand-eye coordination. This physical activity of typing or manipulating the mouse or other pointing device makes the Bodily-Kinesthetically intelligent student an active participant in the learning process. (Dickinson, 1998)

Interpersonal learners will benefit from assignments on a message board because in this forum their writing is not a private thing, or something to be shared only with the teacher, but rather a means to communicate and share their ideas with their classmates or the world. The medium of the message board makes it easy and inexpensive to communicate with others at any distance.

Students with intrapersonal intelligence need their own quiet space and learn more easily with independent study and self-paced instruction. Participating in a message board independently on their own time can be an effective way for them to practice and master new language. (Edwards, 1995) Reflective learners also can participate in discussion through the medium of a message board with out feeling pressure to perform "on the spot."

Students with a high tolerance for ambiguity can appreciate the natural and authentic language of a message board, especially if it involves the interaction of both native and non-native speakers.

Because message boards have benefits for students with many different learning styles, they can interact in ways which may not happen in a face-to-face situation. The "faceless" or anonymous aspect of communication via the message board also helps to reduce affective filters such as anxiety in many students.

Examples of message boards can be found at Dave's ESL Cafe Discussion Center on the World Wide Web at http://www.eslcafe.com/discussion/ and the Bravenet Forum Index on the World Wide Web at http://www.bravenet.com/forumindex/fmindex.php

HTML QUIZZES

HyperText Markup Language (HTML) quizzes are based on traditional evaluation activities converted to online format. However, when placed online, these quizzes become an interactive experience and can include graphics, audio, and video, provide tailored feedback for wrong answers, and give students their score immediately.

Like online bulletin boards, HTML quizzes do not require students to participate at a specified time. They can be distributed over the Internet, or in certain cases, can be stored on a floppy disk, hard drive, or network for access by students on an offline computer.

Teachers can use HTML quizzes to administer various versions of a test or activity tailored to the learning styles of individual students in the class. In this way students who are auditory learners, for example, can take a test tailored to their needs without disturbing other students in the class.

HTML quizzes can be used to replace in-class tests, as an alternative to them, administered to a group in a lab setting, or used as a practice activity before an in-

class evaluation. Students receive immediate feedback on their answers, making the test-taking experience itself a learning activity.

HTML quizzes can be simple or complex, utilizing extensive readings, links to outside web sites, graphic images, and audio and video to meet the needs of a wide variety of students.

How to Create HTML Quizzes

An excellent resource for building HTML quizzes is the Hot Potatoes software from Half-Baked Software and the University of Victoria Language Centre on the World Wide Web at http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/hotpot/ This software is free to non-profit educational institutions who make their quizzes publicly available. Commercial licenses are also available.

Hot Potatoes is a collection that currently includes modules for creating multiple choice, matching, short answer, gap-fill (cloze), jumbled sentences, and crossword puzzle activities. The teacher only needs to type in the questions and answers. The program automatically generates the HTML code to administer and score the quiz.

One remarkable benefit of HTML quizzes is that in creating the test the teacher can provide customized feedback. For example, in a multiple-choice test, the teacher can provide a hint or extra information depending on the wrong answer the student has chosen, such as, "This verb has an irregular past tense," or, "Refer to the first paragraph on page 23 of your textbook."

Teachers can also add web links, graphics, sound files, and video to their quizzes. Like the message boards, the look and feel of the quizzes can be modified to match an existing home page, through the use of graphics, backgrounds, and links back to the home page.

After the test content has been written and any necessary media gathered, the time required to create an HTML quiz in Hot Potatoes is about 15-30 minutes, with 5-10 minutes to upload the quiz to the Internet. Afterwards, the teacher spends virtually no time administering and grading tests.

Teachers can also create quizzes to add to the Internet TESL Journal Interactive Java Script Quizzes for ESL Students on the World Wide Web at http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/js/. Teachers with advanced programming skills can also write their own HTML or JavaScript quizzes from scratch.

HTML Quizzes and Learning Styles

HTML quizzes can meet the needs of students with many different learning styles. The immediate customized feedback is beneficial for analytical learners, especially if they are permitted to re-take the test. Bada (2000) cites a study in which analytical learners agreed with the statement "I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes."

The latest versions of the Scrambled Sentences module of Hot Potatoes allows students to use the mouse to manipulate words or sentences by dragging and

dropping them to put them in order, meeting the needs of kinesthetic as well as visual-spatial learners. Again, the very activity of typing or controlling the mouse brings the student with kinesthetic intelligence into the learning process.

Quizzes that integrate audio and visual input cater to the needs of right-hemisphere dominant learners and Verbal-Linguistic and Visual-Spatial learners.

Both the matching and jumbled sentences modules of Hot Potatoes can be used to create ordering exercises for students with logical-mathematical intelligence.

If HTML quizzes are being used as practice activities, the interpersonal learners can benefit by working on the activity with a partner and "talking out" the thought processes behind finding the correct answer. This is an excellent way for students with different learning styles to collaborate and learn from each other's innate strengths.

Intrapersonal learners who work best on their own while monitoring their own progress, can use HTML quizzes as diagnostic tools or take them whenever they feel they have mastered the material through their own self-study.

An excellent example of HTML quizzes with instructional modes for auditory and visual learners is available at LiteracyNet, a project of the San Francisco bureau of CNN. These activities are based on current authentic news stories and are available at Learning Resources from the Western/Pacific Literacy Network and CNN San Francisco on the World Wide Web at http://literacynet.org/cnnsf/

Half-Baked Software maintains a list of sites built with their Hot Potatoes software on the World Wide Web at
http://web.uvic.ca/langcen/rnd/comprog.html#hotpotsites

CONCLUSION

Regardless of the nomenclature used to describe learning styles and strategies, every classroom contains an assortment of students who are most successful when learning in different ways.

One way to meet the needs of these diverse students is by using the Internet to individualize instruction. Two types of activities which can be delivered over the Internet and customized to any situation are HTML quizzes and online bulletin boards. These activities are easy to design and can be used as alternatives for students with different learning styles and needs.

As technologies change and advance, more modalities will become possible. As the fields of speech and handwriting recognition and virtual reality develop, students will be able to interact with these Internet activities in new ways.

THE AUTHOR

Adriane Moser is an instructor at Mun Hwa Language School in Kwangju, Korea. She completed a B.A. in Linguistics from the State University of New York at Stony Brook and has taught in Mexico, Korea, and the Cabarrus County Schools in Concord, North Carolina, Her interests include Internet-based language teaching, integrating content with language, and teacher training. Email: AdrMoser@aol.com

REFERENCES

Bada, E. and Okan, Z. (2000). Students' Language Learning Preferences. *TESL-EJ* 4 (3) A-1 May 2000. Retrieved September 28, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej15/a1.html

Dickinson, D. (1998). *How Technology Enhances Howard Gardner's Eight Intelligences*. Seattle, WA: New Horizons for Learning. Retrieved October 31, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.america-tomorrow.com/ati/nhl80402.htm

Edwards, J. (1995). Multiple Intelligences and Technology. *About FACE,* 10 (3). Florida Association for Computers in Education, Inc. Retrieved October 31, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.firn.edu/~face/about/dec95/mult_int.html

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences.* New York: Basic Books

Green, J. and Oxford, R. (1995). A Closer Look at Learning Strategies, L2 Proficiency, and Gender. *TESOL Quarterly* 29 (2), 261-297.

Lepke, H. S. (1977). Discovering Student Learning Styles through Cognitive Style Mapping. In R. A. Schultz (Ed.) *Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction: Learning Styles and Teaching Options* (pp. 15-20) Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company.

Nunney, Derek N. (1977). Educational Cognitive Style: A Basis for Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction. In R. A. Schultz (Ed.) *Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction: Learning Styles and Teaching Options* (pp. 1-14) Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company.

O'Connor, T. (1997). *Using Learning Styles to Adapt Technology for Higher Education*. February 1997. Terra Haute, IN: Indiana State University. Retrieved September 28, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://web.indstate.edu/ctl/styles/learning.html

Oxford, R. (1989). *The Role of Styles and Strategies in Second Language Learning*. Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Retrieved September 26, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed317087.html

Oxford, R. (1994). *Language Learning Strategies: An Update*. Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Retrieved September 26, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed376707.html

Reinert, H. (1977). ELSIE is No Bull! Or: On Utilizing Information Concerning Student Learning Styles. In R. A. Schultz (Ed.) *Personalizing Foreign Language Instruction: Learning Styles and Teaching Options* (pp. 21-28) Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company.

Are Human Teachers Obsolete?

STEPHEN K. RONEY
Hoseo University

ABSTRACT

The paper posits the possible effects of computerization on the ESL/EFL field. Three specific issues are examined:

1. Will computers soon make it unnecessary to learn a language because of the availability of machine translation?
2. Will computers soon make teachers unnecessary to learn a language because of the availability of Computer Aided Instruction, or CALL?
3. Will computers soon make it unnecessary to import *native speakers* to model speech because of the offerings of distance education?

This paper concludes that all three technologies will eliminate the necessity to study the basics of any foreign language. However, even native speakers must study English composition, rhetoric and literature. It is argued that the net result of computerization will, therefore, increase rather than decrease the need for EFL/ESL teachers, albeit of a different sort.

Computerization is transforming the white-collar world, as entire industries die out, and new ones are born. Rawe (2000) pinpoints teaching as one of ten professions expected to be obsolete in ten years. The boom in distance learning through the Internet makes it needless to learn in the presence of a native speaker. At the same time, computer translation may make using a foreign language as simple as punching a pocket calculator. Should we all be looking for a new line of work?

Not even technological experts have successfully predicted the future in this field. While Bill Gates could not foresee the need for more than 640K of computing power for anyone, the president of IBM saw a world market for perhaps five computers. Anyone who trusts expertise in such matters is referred to *The Experts Speak* (Cerf & Navasky: 1984), whose subtitle, *The Definitive Compendium of Authoritative Misinformation,* explains that experts get it wrong as often as the common man. Let us examine the first question posed in the introduction: Will computers soon make it unnecessary to learn a language because of the availability of machine translation?

MACHINE TRANSLATION

Workable machine translation offering simultaneous interpretation is, according to experts, only ten years away. The C-STAR Consortium, including participating

ETRI in Taejon, Korea, claim that they have already developed speech translation systems that accept spontaneous, unrestricted speech within a given domain of discourse. Such systems will allow... expressing the common needs of travelers and visitors to foreign countries... in naturally spoken spontaneous speech. Commercialization in a 5 to10 year time frame of these technologies seems likely. The tourist will wear *a light weight computer*, allowing him to chat with locals in real time (C-STAR, 1999).

This claim may shock many experts who have stated that workable machine translation will never be established because of the intractable ambiguities of language (Wordnet, Inc., 1999).

A few examples of this ambiguity follow:

1. She dropped the glass on the floor and it broke. *What broke?*
2. The chickens are ready to eat. *Who eats?*
3. He saw the girl with the periscope. *Who has the periscope?* (Wordnet, Inc., 1999).

These experts claim that language, even at basic levels, is not a closed system because understanding a language requires an understanding of the context in which the language occurs as well as a knowledge of the real world which computers lack.

While this argument cannot be lightly dismissed, it may be overly influenced by an old, failed model of computer translation, the *cryptography* approach, which tried and continues to try to translate word-for-word. Several translation engines available for free on the Internet such as *Babelfish* are based on this approach. However, their occasionally comic mistranslations are not the best machine translations possible.

Two breakthroughs which avoid the above mentioned limitations are being exploited: (a) the database approach and (b) the Interlingua approach. In the database approach, the operator crunches an unlimited number of successful translations, and corrects each new computer translation manually; with each attempt the computer learns how to translate better, and even how to read context better. In the case of an ambiguous word like *pen*, a computer can gradually learn that, if it appears within ten words of *pig*, it is likely to mean *fenced enclosure*. If it appears within ten words of *ink* or *paper*, it probably means *writing instrument*. The possibility for further refinement seems theoretically unlimited.

Interlingua, an artificial computer language used as an intermediate step in translating, distills *meaning* at the sentence or paragraph level before attempting to recast it in the target language. It ensures that the sentence does not contain any comic errors before translation into the target language. If a traveler can have anything instantly translated into their L1 by a hand-held universal translator, why should they expend the effort to learn English or any L2? It can be argued that the world will have far fewer language instructors as a result of the universal translator just as the locomotive and the automobile led to a decline in the number of farriers in today's world. On the other hand, it can also be argued that the pocket calculator

has not eliminated many math teachers. However, neither of these arguments carry much weight if teaching itself becomes obsolete.

COMPUTER AIDED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Teachers *are* obsolete (Rawe, 2000). "Distance learning is becoming more popular, and through the miracle of online classes and electronic grading, today's faculty lounge could become tomorrow's virtual help desk. Though a complete conversion is unlikely, outsourcing our education system might cost less than installing all those metal detectors" (Rawe, 2000).

Unlike machine translation, all the technology for CAI is available with only five years required to develop the required software and to train the operators. According to a study at the University of Pennsylvania, ". . . [computer] technology ... will be part of routine teaching within the current decade at any institution at the leading edge" (McMahon, 1995).

The questions to answer are:

1. Does a computer teach as well as a human teacher?
2. Do computers cost less than a human teacher?
3. Will consumers resist computer-lead instruction?

Let us examine the first question: Does it work as well? The results of controlled experiments suggest computers teach as well as or better than humans. Oppenheimer (1997) states that the promoters of computers in schools ...offer prodigious research showing improved academic achievement after using their technology. Schulman (2000) claims that some studies have shown that the use of computers in schools improves everything from academic performance to classroom attendance while Hammond (1999) writes that the results of most studies are generally positive.

Perhaps the question to ask in this paper is can computers teach language well? Yes. In fact, basic language learning, being largely memorization, for example of formulae, vocabulary and collocations, can be learned especially well through computers, and does not require the computing power of an up-to-date machine. Indeed, drill and practice is a computer specialty.

A large West Virginia project (The Milken Exchange on Education Technology of the West Virginia Basic Skills/Computer Education [BS/CE] Program) used computers to develop basic skills in reading, language arts, and mathematics. The project reports significant gains in the areas of focus (Hammond, 1999). As a result of the endeavor, West Virginia moved from 33rd place academically on standard tests across the 52 states to 17th place while its expenditures on education remained 40th.

Computers have advantages over human teachers. For example, they can respond to each individual student, thus, tailoring a one-on-one lesson, especially important for conversation, and essentially impossible in a conventional classroom. Indeed, numerous studies have found that computer-assisted discussion features

participation which is dramatically more balanced than face-to-face discussion, with far less domination by the teacher or by particularly vocal students (Chun, 1994; Kelm, 1992; Kern, 1995; Sullivan & Pratt, 1996; Warschauer, 1996; Warschauer & Healey, 1998).

Some opponents argue that computers cannot accommodate the diversity of methods available in the real classroom offered by a living teacher with other students, most notably full-body response. However, computers allow teaching approaches such as DDR not available through conventional chalk-and-talk routines: realistic simulations, smells (now digitized), and 3/D imaging. As McMahon (1995) states this method produces as extraordinary improvement in the speed and accuracy of comprehension of complex topics.

Critics ask a second question: Do computers cost less than human teachers? A Rand Corporation study puts the cost of computerizing a classroom at $1,384 (won 1,557,277) per workstation which includes the cost of repair and maintenance personnel (Hammond, 1999). The average salary for an EFL/ESL teacher in Korea is won 1,700,000 per month. In North America, the true cost of an employee is reckoned at about twice the salary, or won 3,400,000. That figure multiplied by 12 yields won 36,000,000, which divided by won 1,557,277 yields 23. So, at any class size smaller than 23, a computer is cheaper than a foreign professor (without even considering the fact that the computer does not demand coffee breaks, lunch breaks, a good night's sleep, vacation time in Thailand, or *unsplit* shifts). In fact, the typical schedule of a university EFL/ESL teacher is only 12 to 15 hours per week for 28 weeks or seven months a year. Computers are available for work 24 hours per day, or 168 hours per week for 52 weeks per year, which offers unlimited flexibility in scheduling. Hence, it can be argued that the computer is more cost effective for any class smaller than several hundred.

The cost of computing per se is better than quartering every two years, says Moore's Law. Hardware cost is only one-fourth the total cost of the computerized classroom (Hammond, 1999). Technical expertise and software are declining in price because consumers are becoming more familiar with computers while computers are becoming more user friendly. In ten years, these figures will be even more favorable for computers.

Critics pose a third question: Will consumers resist computer-lead instruction?

Because a technology is possible does not mean it is wanted. Despite the fact that the videophone was a popular piece of technology at the New York World's Fair in 1964, it has not become a feature of everyday life due to consumer resistance. Might this also hold true for computers in language teaching? Might our students enjoy being taught by humans so much that they will not countenance seeing living instructors replaced with a machine?

Certainly, resistance to the computer exists among teachers. The recent manifesto, "Fool's Gold," by an ad hoc organization of educators calling themselves the Alliance for Childhood, warns of *serious health hazard such as repetitive strain injuries, eye strain, obesity and social isolation.* The study urges

that, as an alternative, money be put into higher salaries for teachers (Alliance for Childhood, 2000).

Among students, however, greater enthusiasm for studies is one of the strongest effects of computer instruction; the consumers are on the side of the new technology. What is most clear as a result of research is that students tend to enjoy using computers (Warschauer & Healey, 1998).

So why should institutions hire teachers? Actually, valid reasons will always remain, no matter how good, cheap and popular computers get. Teachers, contrary to some current educational philosophies, can keep discipline, and instill morality. To leave a roomful of young students alone with computers is irresponsible. Even adult learners require teachers to inspire disciplined scholarship. Secondly, teachers can also repair computers, and often need to because the real world is unpredictable (a theme, indeed, of this paper). Finally, teachers cannot be stolen by students, the importance of which should not be underestimated.

In 1922, Edison predicted that film strips would supplant largely, if not entirely, the use of textbooks (Schulman, 2000). However, film strips, television, and educational TV have not replaced textbooks, even though they are inexpensive, good quality, and preferred by students. Interestingly, film strips and video have often dominated the corporate training world. Why have film strips and educational TV not replaced living instructors in schools? Perhaps because teachers resist these two innovations and teacher resistance may not be unreasonable. If requisition, setup and use of a piece of technology requires a considerable investment of time, it will not replace a lesson conducted by a human teacher, especially if the medium is non-interactive. But perhaps computers, being interactive, can. If so, it will soon be more attractive financially to hire a good mechanic than a good teacher. And if the computer and its maintenance become the responsibility of the student and not the teacher, it seems that teacher resistance ceases to influence the situation.

DISTANCE LEARNING

Computers and the Internet are making distance learning more feasible now than a few years ago. Is it still necessary to bring living teachers to Korea from their home countries? University administrators in the US and Europe expect distance education to be a major part of their business within ten years. McMahon (1995) states that there is really no choice for a university that wants to be competitive in the long run, and the long run will be measured in years, not decades. Schools now going online are: NYU ($30 million committed); UCLA (in partnership with Onlinelearning); University of Wisconsin; a British consortium including Oxford, Cambridge, London, and Open University.

The first question critics ask is does it work? The majority [of studies] showed no difference in the effectiveness for the two media [classroom vs. Internet] (Young, 2000). Thomas L. Russell, Director Emeritus of Instructional Telecommunications, North Carolina State University, states that there is so much research on this matter that he finds it incomprehensible that any reasonable, knowledgeable, unbiased,

and professional person could deny the fact that technology can deliver instruction as well as traditional modes (Young, 2000).

Some studies show a high dropout rate in online courses, resulting perhaps more from the ease with which participants register than from disinterest or isolation. A bigger commitment is required of a student to relocate to attend an institution than to sign up for a course on the Internet.

Secondly, critics ask if distance education is cheaper and more popular than traditional education. Distance education allows learners the freedom to choose when and where they study, thus, freeing more people (employed people, poor people living with parents, isolated people, and invalids) to study, so Koreans and Bulgarians can aspire to study at Harvard, Cambridge or Queen's. Distance education should boom with an aging population seeking to fulfill educational pursuits delayed because of prior responsibilities or increased leisure time, and workers in a rapidly changing job market train for new challenges. In a similar manner the printing press centuries ago increased the number of writers (including professionals), instead of reducing the need for professional scribes. Accordingly, distance education will increase the demand for professional teachers with an MA in TEFL or TESOL to satisfy the increasing enrollment of EFL/ESL students.

Moreover, students still want to see a living teacher of English with whom they can interact. As computers drive down the price of educational necessities, they may improve the market for educational conveniences and special attractions. Students may need an educator to address their specific language difficulties and cross-cultural problems as they interact globally through the Internet. A computer program is not sufficiently flexible for this purpose, nor it could be argued, are most native speakers in North America sufficiently familiar with Korean culture or cross-cultural issues to answer such questions. Concepts and attitudes cannot be translated by substituting one word for another as translations of rhetoric from China demonstrate. Such examples can sound odd or even comic to a North American ear. For instance, what does the statement, *running dogs of US imperialism,* mean? Or, when President Lee of Taiwan suggested that negotiations with Beijing be state-to-state, the Chinese media declared him *a rat hated by everybody* and *a rat running across the street*. In fact, *his name stank* and he was *the number one scum of the nation as well as a deformed test tube baby cultivated in the political laboratory of hostile anti-Chinese forces* (Reuters, 1999). As Churchill observed, two nations can be separated by a common language. Cultural concepts require explanation. In my own Intermediate classes, the study of recent news stories have prompted questions from my students on the following: the Amish, the Prairies, playing devil's advocate, and Prohibition.

To sum up, I think that language instructors will always be necessary. Creative writing and the study and appreciation of literature is often claimed to be the highest-level intellectual pursuit of man. Language does not just shunt facts or meanings back and forth between people like a train. Language affirms feelings, creates and reinforces group solidarity, offers emotional reassurance, actually does

things (so-called performativity—"I now pronounce you man and wife"), is an art form, and always has an aesthetic dimension; it persuades one person to the point of view of another. Therefore, I look forward to the future of language teaching not just with hope, but with confidence and considerable excitement.

THE AUTHOR

Stephen K. Roney holds a BA from Queen's University in Canada, an MA from Syracuse University, and a certificate in journalism from Ryerson University. He is completing a Ph.D. from Syracuse University and a TESL certificate from the University of Toronto. He is a former software developer for the Ontario Ministry of Education, a Senior Member of the Society for Technical Communications, and guides the Seoul Mystery Tours. Contact him at sroney@bigfoot.com.

REFERENCES

Alliance for Childhood (2000). *Fool's Gold: A Critical Look at Computers in Childhood*. Retrieved September 28, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.allianceforchildhood.net/projects/computers/computers_reports.htm

Cerf, C. & Navasky, V. (1984). *The Experts speak: The Definitive compendium of authoritative misinformation.* New York: Pantheon.

Reuters (1999). China says Taiwan president a rat hated by all. (1999, August 22). *Excite News,* August 22, 1999. Retrieved August 22, 1999 from the World Wide Web: http://news.excite.com/news/reuters/990822/

C-STAR (1999). *Press Release*, July 22, 1999. Retrieved September 12, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.c-star.org/main/english/noplugin/press/press.html

FXM Traduction Ltee. (2000). *Computer translation: The Status today.* Retrieved September 12, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.fxm.ch/English/TraductionOrdinateur.en.htm, 9/12/00.

Hammond, L. (1999). Computers in our schools: Challenges and solutions. A Background Paper for The Anchorage School Budget Advisory Commission. Retrieved September 13, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.alaska.net/~timevalu/

Hovancik, J.R.. *Experimental Psychology* [PSYC-3311], class materials. Retrieved September 13, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://users.erols.com/hovancik/exp/flaws/bork.htm

Hutchins, J. (1997). Fifty years of the computer and translation, *Machine Translation Review* 6, October 1997. *MT News International* 14. Retrieved September 12, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.bcs.org.uk/siggroup/nalatran/nalamt67.htm

McMahon, C.J. (1995) Talk about teaching *Almanac*, 41, 25. Retrieved September 16, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.upenn.edu/almanac/teach/tatmcmah.html

O'Donnell, J.J. (1994). Review of Richard A. Lanham. The Electronic word: Democracy, technology, and the arts. *Bryn Mawr Classical Review* 94.6.13. Retrieved September 16, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://ccat.sas.upenn.edu/jod/lanhamrev.html

Oppenheimer, T. (1997, July). The Computer delusion. *Atlantic Monthly*, pp. 45-62.

Rawe, J. (2000, May 22). What will be the ten hottest jobs ... and what jobs will disappear. *Time*, p. 73.

Schulman, A. (2000). Computers invade schools! Will education survive? *Family Education.com*, *The Learning Network*. Retrieved September 13, 2000 from the World Wide Web:http://familyeducation.com, http://create.familyeducation.com/article/print/0,1303.5-1918,00.html

Walter, G., Stickle, J., Henkel, K., Anderson, C., & Tvedren, H. (2000). Computer-based instruction versus instructor-based instruction of interpretive clinical pathology case analysis, *Journal of Veterinary Medical Education* 20, 3. Retrieved September 16, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JVME/V20-3/tvedten.html

Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An Overview. *Language Teaching* 31, 57-71. Retrieved September 13, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.lll.hawaii.edu/web/faculty/markw/overview.html

Wordnet, Inc. (1999). *Why not let the computer do your translation?* Retrieved September 12, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.wordnet.com/nf_computer.html

Young, J.R. (2000). Scholar concludes that distance ed is as effective as traditional instruction. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 10, 2000. Retrieved September 13, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://chronicle.com/free/2000/02/2000021001u.htm

Classroom related

Learning Strategies For English Acquisition in Korea

DOUGLAS PAUL MARGOLIS
Dong Seoul College

ABSTRACT

Teacher development, curriculum decisions, and "teaching" are important to second language acquisition, however, such efforts only comprise 50% of the education equation. Learner development, study choices, and "learning" also comprise 50%, though this portion is often neglected when teachers think about how to make their classrooms more effective educational environments. This KOTESOL Teacher Training (KTT) presentation helps teachers prepare to teach learning strategies, identifies learning strategies useful for Korean students, offers activities for teaching students learning strategies, and provides a list of text and web-based resources for more information.

INTRODUCTION & DEFINITION OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

Good teachers attend conferences, keep up with the literature of their subjects, learn the latest teaching techniques, and conduct research, endeavoring to ensure that students receive a good education. To improve our teaching skills, we, in short, work hard. But no matter how hard we work to improve our teaching, we are addressing only 50% of the learning equation. Learning—the students' activity—comprises the other 50%; yet students rarely attend conferences or read materials to help them improve their learning skills. Eventually students must be responsible for their own learning, but until students develop their learning skills, teachers should aim to educate students about how to learn. Successful or effective learning requires specific strategies, or methods, such as, setting goals, organizing one's knowledge, brainstorming, problem solving, managing emotions, cooperating with others, time management, note-taking, memorization, self-evaluation, and the like. We can help our students gain more from our classes by embedding learning strategies training within our regular course content.

Before going further, let's first distinguish learning strategies from learning styles. According to Reid (1995), learning strategies are the conscious choices students make to receive and integrate new knowledge with their prior experience. To her, these learning strategies are different from learning styles, which she defines as inherent, unconscious preferences and competencies for learning new material. Learning styles arise from the multiple intelligence theories (Gardner, 1983), which claim that all people do not learn in the same way, but that we each have certain preferred and innate styles by which we understand new knowledge. As a result of learning styles and multiple intelligence theory, teachers are told to vary their

instruction methods to better address the variety of learning styles amongst our students and avoid unfairly advantaging one style while disadvantaging others. Learning Strategies, however, are about what students do, not teachers. Learning strategies are methods and approaches to learning. If students become adept at using them, they can better grasp the essentials of a lesson and more quickly utilize the new knowledge. Effective learning means success in the education system and probable success throughout life. Unfortunately, few students have been "taught" how to learn. Therefore, few students understand how to make their learning or study time most effective. Sometimes, when we teachers think students are lazy, the problem may actually be that they are studying a lot, but ineffectively.

PREPARATION FOR LEARNING STRATEGIES TRAINING

Oxford (1990) reports that to train students in learning methodology requires some preparation. For example, students and many teachers are unfamiliar with learning strategies and the concept that students should take a more active role in directing their own learning. Therefore, as part of the learning strategies training, teacher and learner roles need to be discussed. In addition, teachers should attempt to assess what learning strategies students currently utilize. Based on this information, a learning strategies training plan can be developed that best addresses particular needs and capitalizes upon the particular strengths of the students (Oxford). One problem with language learners is that many see second language acquisition as merely memorizing words and grammar. Such a strategy provides immediate gratification because learners can quantify their learning and identify progress. Unfortunately, however, language is an interaction task. Students must learn to interact, to handle the stress of the interaction, and to intelligently guess and compensate for unknown words and structures to effectively communicate their ideas. Therefore, another part of preparing to teach learning strategies must include discussing the nature of language and language acquisition. Oxford, for example, identifies six main areas of learning strategies in language learning: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. If students are primarily using only one or two strategies, they are failing to address other important aspects of language learning that can increase their learning potential and second language acquisition. Helping students to realize this expanded perspective of language learning is important preparation for strategies training and often empowers students with the realization that they can succeed.

CHOOSING STRATEGIES TO TEACH

This paper cannot cover the whole myriad of language learning strategies in detail. Rather, it will attempt to identify some specific strategies useful for Korean students. In the author's experience teaching in Korea, students appear to know and utilize fairly effective memory strategies. Learning strategies that might help

Korean students best, therefore, would cover other areas of language learning, such as managing emotions and lowering their affective filter, developing compensation skills, raising their tolerance of ambiguity, and interacting with others.

MANAGING EMOTIONS AND LOWERING AFFECTIVE FILTER

An important language learning skill to which Korean students commonly need to attend is what Oxford denotes as "affective strategies." These strategies include methods for lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself, and increasing one's sensitivity to emotions. For example, when teachers call upon students, they often may know the answer but suddenly become tense and nervous and unable to respond. In such instances, if students are aware that deep breathing can help relax them , they might discover that one calming, deep breath could be enough to help them produce the proper response (which in turn could lead teachers to rate their ability higher and then give them more encouragement, which in turn may produce a higher grade and more language learning—all from a simple breathing technique!). Oxford also identifies meditation, progressive relaxation, and the use of music and laughter as other strategies for lowering anxiety. Adult students often report that a glass of wine before language class makes them more comfortable and open to learning and practice. (But not too much!)

Additionally, students need to tap into the power of positive thinking. If students tell themselves that English is too difficult and they are not good enough, then such thinking will be difficult to overcome. Barrett (1992) suggests that we can boost our brain power by identifying negative thoughts, writing them down, and throwing them away (or burning them). Then, we should replace the negative thoughts with positive ones, such as: "I can learn English," "I am smart enough," "I'm making good progress," etc. Oxford suggests that language learners must also learn to reward themselves for progress and help build their motivation by setting clear and achievable goals.

DEVELOPING COMPENSATION SKILLS

Communicating in a foreign language always requires some effort to compensate for unknown or forgotten words and expressions. Korean students often freeze and withdraw from the communication when they face an unknown item. This strategy tends to break down the interaction and stop communication altogether—which does not help in learning the new language. Therefore, providing students with strategies that maintain the interaction and facilitate communication will increase their practice time and reduce their frustration. Oxford offers two primary categories of strategies in this area: guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. For improving student guessing strategies, she suggests that students could benefit from learning how to use their contextual information and other linguistic clues. For overcoming limitations in speaking and writing, she offers the following strategies: switching to the mother tongue,

asking for help, using mime or gestures, changing the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining new words, and using circumlocution or synonyms. In addition, other strategies might include using metaphors, associations, common experiences and stories to convey the missing knowledge. Such strategies as using the mother tongue might raise questions after so much has been written about avoiding first language use in the classroom. But if using Korean to fill in a missing word or expression can maintain communications and English practice, it should be encouraged.

In this area of compensation skills, focusing on problem solving and creativity building strategies is also worthwhile. For example, the human brain uses pattern thinking to help us filter information, however, Barrett reports that this same pattern thinking aid can sometimes prove to be an obstacle. Making our students aware of the brain's capabilities and limitations can help them become better learners. In addition, we can boost student creativity by offering more divergent thinking problems rather than convergent thinking tasks. In other words, instead of questions that demand one correct answer (convergent thinking), give students tasks that have no single correct answer, but many possibilities (divergent thinking). For example, ask them for ten possible dialogues in a given situation, or ten ways to greet people, or ten ways to apologize. In this way, students develop divergent thinking skills that replicate communications in a foreign language, where there often are few limitations to the manner in which ideas are communicated. Further, teaching brainstorming techniques can also help increase student creativity. Barrett offers the following "creative thinking checklist"—a list of questions to expand creative problem solving:

Substitute: What could be used instead?
Combine: What could be added?
Adapt: How can it be adjusted to suit a condition or purpose?
Modify, Magnify, or Minify: How could the form be changed?
Put to other uses: What else can it be used for?
Eliminate: What can be removed or taken away?
Reverse or Rearrange: How can the pattern or sequence be changed?

While these specific creativity building ideas might not immediately improve students' ability to compensate in second language interactions, generally addressing their creativity skills will help them become quicker at jumping the hurdles.

RAISING TOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY

McLain (1993) found that individuals who are more tolerant of ambiguity are also more willing to take risks. Ely (1995) interprets McLain's finding as important to language learning because students often must face ambiguous situations, such as "vague, incomplete, fragmented, multiple, probable, unstructured, uncertain,

inconsistent, contrary, contra dictory, or unclear meanings" (Norton, as quoted in Ely, p. 88). Increasing student willingness to take risks can greatly improve their language acquisition. One way to increase student tolerance of ambiguity, is to increase their awareness of the language learning process. This could be accomplished via self-reflection and language journal activities. Another technique is to focus their attention on tolerance of ambiguity through the use of a survey or questionnaire. A third technique is to ***not*** give students translations, transcripts, or "answers" all the time. Instead, help guide students to interpret texts as they see appropriate and let them face multiple, probable interpretations, rather than one correct answer. Moreover, as discussed above, activities that require students to brainstorm multiple possibilities, focusing on divergent thinking skills, can help to increase tolerance of ambiguity.

IMPROVING SOCIAL INTERACTION

Whether through writing or speaking, language serves the purpose of social interaction. Yet many students try to learn foreign languages alone and without conceiving of the interaction element. Oxford identifies three sets of two strategies each in this important area of language learning. The first set is asking questions, one strategy aiming at questioning skills for clarification or verification and the second strategy aiming at questioning skills for asking others for correction. Oxford's second set of social strategies pertain to cooperating with others, one focusing on cooperation with peers, the second targeting cooperation with proficient users of the new language to accomplish learning objectives. Her third set of social strategies relate to empathizing with others, the first revolving around developing cultural understanding, and the second learning to become aware of others' thoughts and feelings (Oxford, p. 145).

These social strategies can be taught through using group and pair work in class, grading group work, and holding each member of the group responsible for each other. Then, after doing group work, have students discuss the frustrations and difficulties of group work. Identify behaviors that make for good group collaborations. Let students identify behaviors that obstruct the process. Language learning journals are also a good place to reflect on these issues.

In addition, physical games can develop interaction skills. For example, **Trust Falls**, **Untie the Knot**, and **Blindfold**. Trust Falls is a partner game where one partner falls backward in a free fall, trusting that the other partner will catch them to stop the fall. This activity builds trust and helps break the ice between people. Untie the Knot is a group game where people put their hands into the center of the group, grab the hands of two different people, and then the group tries to untangle the knot without anyone letting go. To succeed the group must effectively cooperate and communicate. The game can be conducted as a race between groups or simply a fun, cooperative game with one group. Blindfold is another partner game, where one person is blindfolded and led around the room by the other. The blindfolded person is forced to rely on the seeing person for information. Communication is

essential. Games such as these focus student attention upon interaction, reliance upon others, and cooperation skills.

FOR MORE INFORMATION

Learning science is a relatively new field. Oxford's 1990 publication provides an excellent foundation for learning strategies in the ELT field. Her book, however, is not exhaustive and more development of learning strategy approaches for ELT are needed. Barrett's book is not focused on ELT, but provides good information and activities for problem solving, creativity, and memory skills. In addition to the references listed below, the following web-sites offer a good place to start in looking for materials on the Internet:

http://jac.sbs.ohio-state.edu/cable/pedagogy/Philosophies/Learning_Strategies/learning_strategies.htm

http://www.mtsu.edu/~phil/CCAT/Leon/learn.html

http://braindance.com/bdi.htm

http://web.syr.edu/~maeltigi/Cognitive/index.htm

http://www.uwf.edu/coehelp/club_id/lesson/strategy/acquire.htm

http://www.eduplace.com/rdg/res/literacy/st_read2.html

http://www.dls.co.uk/

http://reach.ucf.edu/~fctl/strategies.html

http://www.duq.edu/coned/scresourcectr/learning/learnindex.htm

http://www.uwf.edu/coehelp/club_id/lesson/strategy/strategy.htm

http://www.k12.nf.ca/fatima/copsstra.htm

The New School For Learning Science: http://www.nsls.com/indexalternate.html

THE AUTHOR

Douglas Margolis currently teaches at Dong Seoul College. He was president of KOTESOL Seoul Chapter last year and currently coordinates the KTT proj ect. He earned his BA from Syracuse University in New York and his MA from the University of Hawai'i. In addition to learning strategies, his research interests include developing online teaching techniques, and incorporating multiple intelligence theory into curriculum development. Email: douglas@haksan.dsc.ac.kr

REFERENCES

Barrett, Susan L. (1992). *It's All In Your Head; A Guide to Understanding Your Brain and Boosting Your Brain Power.* Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing, Inc.

Ely, Christopher M. (1995). "Tolerance of Ambiguity and the Teaching of ESL" in J. Reid, ed. *Learning Styles In The ESL/EFL Classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Gardner, Howard. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences.* NY: Basic Books.

Lewis, Marilyn. (1999). *How to Study Foreign Languages*. Great Britain: Macmillan Press LTD.

McLain, D. L. (1993). "The MSTAT-1: A new measure of an individual's tolerance for ambiguity" in *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 183-189.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies that every teacher should know* . Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Reid, Joy M., ed. (1995). *Learning Styles In The ESL/EFL Classroom* . Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Merger and Acquisition of Culture

DAVID MCMURRAY
The International University of Kagoshima

ABSTRACT

The learning of another language can introduce students to other cultures. Lessons can also be designed to encourage and to demonstrate to students how they can share their own culture with others. When two or more cultures are merged in the classroom for the purposes of study, there are ample opportunities to compare the similarities and differences between the cultures, and this encourages language acquisition to occur. This process is called the merger and acquisition of culture. In addition to the intercultural study of different countries, this article takes into account the need to teach different corporate cultures because of the tremendous number of international company mergers that have occurred over the last decade and that continue into the new century. When French-based Renault merged with Nissan Motors in Japan the company changed its corporate culture and widely introduced English throughout its work force. Korean car makers are likewise searching for foreign partners. This process is being emulated in other Asian countries at an increasing tempo, and language teachers can use this opportunity to help their students prepare for change. The article includes practical ideas for teaching intercultural communication in the classroom by developing a syllabus, preparing lesson plans, re-arranging one's desk, livening-up the first class, encouraging creativity and student individuality, and helping students think of cross-cultural topics for a final presentation.

There are a growing number of opportunities for students of English as a Foreign Language in Korea and Japan to come in contact with foreign cultures - whether it be the Olympics or World Cup Soccer, key pals they meet via e-mail on mobile cell phones and the Internet, popular TV shows about fashion, music and travel, or because their company has merged with an overseas corporation and the employees need to speak English and adapt to another culture (McMurray, 2000c: p 5-6).

To take advantage of these new opportunities, language teachers are identifying new or more appropriate ways to teach intercultural studies. The diffusion of new language teaching ideas in Asia is taking place in our teacher staff rooms, being proposed from the ministries of education down to the schools, and being championed by academic research. It is often led by teachers sharing their action research. Innovations in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language are a result of the work of change agents, the school administrators, government officials and politicians, researchers, and classroom teachers who have the power or ability to encourage changes.

During the past decade, language teaching change agents were effective in meeting the demands of the changing economy in Asia as well as meeting their students' demands to learn communicative forms of English of practical use in global communication. The teaching innovations that were created to meet these demands included task-based learning, team-teaching, teaching of English at elementary levels, introduction of computer-based testing, dropping of entrance examination requirements, proposing English as a second language in Asia, the partnering of professional language teaching associations, and the meeting of Asian ministers of education.

Realising that foreign language teachers are capable of developing innovative answers to the needs of our students, and noting the ongoing vibrant debate on how to teach intercultural communication in this new century, I began thinking seriously about how I could effectively teach my students to converse across cultures. I attended plenary speeches about intercultural communication, for example the one given by Professor Kensaku Yoshida of Sophia University at the second Pan-Asian Conference in Seoul organised by KoreaTESOL in 1999 and directed to English teachers from Thailand, Korea, Taiwan and Japan. Teachers from all over Asia are looking for ways to improve the intercultural communication abilities of their students.

I concomitantly began searching for textbooks intended for EFL students who want to build their vocabulary and communication skills by using personal and cultural issues as starting points for discussion. I also started to evaluate the way I teach and pinpointed the activities that I have always used in my regular language classrooms that I thought I could adapt to teaching with an intercultural focus — such as the encouragement of my students to do presentation projects and to study in teams of three or four.

I started out by thinking about how to change my classes to best teach my students about other cultures. A motivational way is to include their own culture as a starting point for discussion and then to move on to other cultures. When two or more cultures are merged in the classroom for the purposes of study, there are ample opportunities to compare the similarities and differences between the cultures and this encourages language acquisition to occur. This process is called the merger and acquisition of culture. My university classes are composed of Japanese students who major in cross-cultural studies, and my company classes are composed of Japanese business people from various companies that are in the process of merging or acquiring companies in Europe. During a needs assessment interview, these students asked me to teach them different corporate cultures because of the tremendous number of international company mergers that have occurred over the last decade and continue into the new century. Some of the students work for an automobile company. When French-based Renault merged with Nissan Motors in Japan the company changed its corporate culture and widely introduced English throughout its work force. Korean car-makers are likewise searching for foreign partners. This strategy is being emulated in other Asian countries at an increasing

tempo, and language teachers can use this as an opportunity to help their students prepare for the change.

One problem I knew that I had to overcome is that culture itself is a barrier to change. Deal & Kennedy (2000: 159) note that "The stronger the culture, the harder it is to change." Culture protects the organization from responses to fads and short-term fluctuations. The move toward global communication in English seems to be for the long-term and the mergers and acquisitions of Japanese, Korean and other Asian companies also seem based on long-term viability of the firms.

Based on what my students needed, I developed some practical ideas for teaching intercultural communication in the classroom and included them in a syllabus and in my lesson plans, used them to re-arrange my desk, in the first class, and for a final presentation topic.

I started the semester by preparing a syllabus for my intercultural studies courses. Most high school principals and university deans require teachers to prepare a syllabus outlining the content of the course they plan to teach and how they plan to assess the students during one or two semesters. The syllabus sometimes ends up being printed in student registration guidebooks, particularly if the students have a choice of classes. I generally award 50 points for classroom work and homework assignments, 25 points for four or five occasional tests given during the term and 25 points for a final presentation depending on the requirements of the school.

An effective syllabus and efficient lesson plans take into account the differing learning styles of students. Some students like to analyze words and grammar closely. Other more sociable students are not afraid to talk openly to classmates in English. Some are creative and like to run with ideas such as presentations. And others are hard-driving students who need to try things out like making a cup of tea while talking about how they personally make a really delicious cup of tea. Some students are good at paper tests. Others seem to excel at remembering how to fit new words together in certain grammatical forms. And some can speak in a lively active voice. But it is rare to find a student who is good at all of these activities.

I plan a syllabus that will at some time appeal more to some students than others. Learning style is a "reflection of an individual's behavior style and personality traits within the learning environment" (McMurray, 1998: 32). These learning styles are not often known when planning a syllabus for the whole term. So I leave flexibility into the individual lesson planning until I get to know the students better after actually teaching a few classes. Textbooks usually provide an overview to each lesson, list essential words, provide clear examples of lesson plans, and offer lots of ideas that I can pick to suit the personality of my students, so I never feel the stress of not having something ready by the time the classroom bell rings.

I prepare a plan before each lesson, but one key thing I have learned from experience is never to prepare a lesson plan more than three days ahead of the

actual class. Otherwise you'll end up preparing it a second time the day before the class. I look for a textbook that allows me to add in lots of my own teaching ideas that I am comfortable with and that I feel my students will benefit from. Hoelker' s (2000: 13) "perfect lesson plan is one that maximizes participation in the learning activity", and she recommends that teachers of cross-cultural studies understand the preferred learning styles of their students.

Teachers often wonder why some students in their classrooms do not learn with as much enthusiasm as the rest of the group. The reason for this is often that a student's learning style conflicts with the way the teacher provides input to the lesson. For example, some students who prefer to learn by doing, like to ask the question: "*Why?*" They expect the teacher to provide the reasons for learning a particular unit. These students are most often encouraged by their peers to become group leaders (McMurray, 1998).

Some students are most comfortable asking "*What?*" They need factual information and clear directions, meaning the teacher needs to model what they want these students to do. These students have no particular preference for any position on a team. Some students want to know "*How something works*." They often become the team writer or secretary and prefer well-structured lessons. And some students have good imaginations and like to ask "*If*." They like to experiment and are creative and therefore want their teacher to give them room to learn on their own and with each other. They opt most often for the artist position on a team, the person who makes posters or provides supplemental visual aids to the textbook.

All students have the potential for considerable creativity. In the classroom, spontaneity is usually encouraged, but other than active junior high school students, most students of foreign languages don't often put up their hands or jump to answer. As students get older their interest in English can intensify internally, however quiet and reserved they may seem on the exterior. Therefore, engagement is what really counts: positive, whole-hearted, energetic commitment while at work to produce a result.

As a classroom teacher I don't expect students to develop a novel approach or to come up with a unique answer but I also don't want them to memorize pat answers to questions by rote learning. I try to develop the personalities of individual students and to strike a balance between imparting knowledge about English vocabulary and grammar, and enjoyment of sharing cultures. I ask my students to take photographs of creativity in action. I also try to infuse some poetry into the classroom and ask students to write 10 poems per term and ask students to try 10 new things each week.

I rearranged my desk and purchased some new materials for my culture classes. The resources I have handy on my office desk, and the materials I take with me to the classroom now include two copies of a textbook (*J-Talk*, 2000); a picture dictionary; a few academic reference books such as *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*; a world map, books on how to do business in sixty countries

(*When Cultures Collide*, 1999); a computer connected to the Internet; and a tape recorder.

I mark up one copy of the classroom textbook with personal notes and penciled-in answers. I keep the other copy fresh in case a student drops by my desk, or if a colleague wants to borrow it, or for the rare occasion that a student forgets her own copy in class.

Although most modern textbooks are generally well illustrated and often contain a translated word list, I also keep a picture dictionary handy for expanding my students' repertoire of words on a particular theme. Students can retain words longer if they learn them by grouping words by topics such as food, plants and animals rather than learning them by memorizing the Ministry of Education's essential list of words for junior high school students from "A" as in apple to "Z" as in zebra.

I also keep a few academic books on my shelf that explain the Communicative Approach, Task-based learning, Learner Styles and Experiential Learning for when I need back-up theoretical support for the practical ideas I try in the classroom or for when I start up an action research project to talk about in staff meetings and teachers' conferences.

In this age of frequent border crossings, Kramsch (1998: 30) foresees learners who are likely to "engage their teachers in a voyage of discovery that they had not always anticipated and for which they don't always feel prepared." I have visited forty-four countries around the world and studied geography as an undergraduate student, but country names have been changing so rapidly in Europe and Central Asia during the last five years that I often refer to an up-to-date large-size detailed world map to refresh my memory about these.

I copy out notes about these countries onto cards, and pin them on the world map that I keep on my desk. When students drop by to talk, or when they seem particularly interested in a country I tear off one or two of the cards from the map and give them away.

At university when students really get interested in a particular country that they say they may even want to visit during the summer, they sometimes ask me very detailed questions. The book *Kiss, Bow, or Shake Hands?* (Morrison, Conaway & Borden, 1996) helps me to answer some of these interesting questions that the students come up with. It provides an easy-to-read explanation of the history, cultural orientation, greetings, gestures, food and gift-giving protocol in sixty countries.

In business classes, students of English have a more intense interest in overseas business cultures and I refer to the text *When Cultures Collide* (Lewis, 1999). My students often surf the Internet in their free time to study government tourism sites for the countries they are particularly interested in. Sometimes they will print out the web pages in color and bring them to class to share with other students and to impress me. I also have a computer linked to e-mail and the Internet on my desk and I always invite the students to send me a message suggesting a website to look

at. A good intercultural textbook and the above-mentioned resource materials and equipment are all that I really need in between classes. I usually take a lesson plan, some props and the two texts to class, but sometimes I'll take the world map, and the Picture Dictionary with me too.

On my first day in class I usually walk in, put my books on the teacher' s table, bow and speak in the most polite Japanese I can muster introducing myself by name. Because I am Canadian this gets the students' attention immediately. Then I slump my shoulders a bit, smile and say Hi! My name is David McMurray, and I'm Canadian, pointing at my chest. The students seem to relax a bit with this more expected, if more stereotypical approach. And then I loosen my tie a bit and have some fun pronouncing "Good Day" in Australian, and asking the students to just call me by my nickname "Mack." Finally, I'll straighten up my tie and backbone and say "but if I were German perhaps it would be better to address me as 'Mr. McMurray', right until the end of the course". That sets up an introduction to the topics I will teach in my first two classes, names and body language.

From this point on there are various ways teachers help all the students get to know each other and their teacher. Some teachers start out by having pairs of students ask each other their names and then expand a more detailed study of names to groups of four. Some teachers like to have all the students stand up as if they were at a cocktail party and introduce themselves, asking the names of at least three other students.

I prefer a first class that I can refer back to again and again during the course. So I write about 12 words and numbers on the blackboard that relate to myself that come from each unit of the textbook. For example my middle name "Christopher", my country "Canada", the name of my prized possession, my son and nieces, "7-5-3," the name of my first girlfriend "Mary," first part-time job "waiter," and so on. Then with these single words, numbers and phrase clues I ask the students to ask me questions. They might not volunteer right away, so depending on their grade, I might quickly review the 6 "W's" who, what, where, why, when, and which or tag questions "Your name is _____, isn't it?" and "You are from _____, aren't you?"

As quickly as I can, I try to veer the focus away from me and to put it onto the student and their classmates. To do this I pass around A4-sized sheets of paper and ask them to write 12 words about themselves. Not whole sentences, but single words and numbers. Then placing them in pairs, student to ask questions to the student who wrote the words and numbers. This activity takes about twenty minutes, but just before they are finished (it is usually best to stop an activity while the students are still feeling interested in it rather than to let it slow down) I ask them to turn over their papers and I explain to them how the text book is going to explore the 12 different topics I had written words and numbers about, and many different countries. Then I ask them to get ready for the next assignment.

To reinforce my introduction visually I show the students how to fold their A4-sized papers twice, making three sections and then to flatten the page out

again so as they can write on it. On one section I ask them to use a black pen to write their "last" or family name, their "first" or given name on the middle section, and finally their nickname on the third section. Then I ask them to refold the page along the lines so that it will sit upright in the shape of a triangle on their desks. I ask them to place upright and in full view, the name that they feel comfortable with and would like their classmates and I to call them. This is a great time to take photographs and to try and associate their names with their faces, personalities or whatever memory aids I can employ. A veteran teacher once told me that the students that a teacher can call by name tend to score ten points higher than those students that the teacher never seems to be able to remember the names of.

With the time remaining of this first class I have the students dive into the textbook from page one. By now their interest in the book has perked and they know a few more things about names and countries. Before the end of the class I collect their A4-sheets of paper that contain valuable information for me to get to know them a bit better before next class when I will hand them back so they can use the sheets as name tags once more.

The vocabulary and sequence of grammar required to explain how to make something is important so I use this topic once or twice in class and have the students repeat it as part of a term project too.

If I have a morning class, I surprise the students by bringing in a hot water pot, a few packs of instant coffee and some paper cups that I had picked up from the convenience store on my way to school. In the afternoon, I bring in tea in packets and simply start by asking students "How do you make a great-tasting cup of tea?" By answering that question, the lesson in J-Talk provides a personal experience of immediate value to the students. With real ingredients three or four students at a time can make a cup of tea in front of the class. Invariably a leader will emerge and step forward to take charge of the task with helpers who write words on the blackboard, speakers who use the grammar from the book, and an other to pass around the tea asking with a smile "Would you like some Japanese green tea or some British orange pekoe?"

In all my intercultural classes I introduce international haiku to my students. I enjoy teaching haiku and believe it helps my students, so I try to fit a lesson or two into my syllabus. Motivating the students to compose haiku in English is one way to help students to remember vocabulary and to experience a practical means to share Japanese culture and to promote communication on a topic that students from other countries are really interested in and are also studying in their schools abroad.

Haiku uses season words, so the first step of the lesson plan that I prepare before class is to divide the blackboard into four sections, one for each season. I ask the students to draw two lines on a sheet of paper to divide it into four rectangles. I then ask the students what the names of the four seasons are and to write these in the boxes.

As step two, I ask the students to place certain words that I read aloud from the text in the appropriate rectangle according to their season. For example "chocolates" is often associated with Valentine's Day that falls in winter. Flower are easy to classify, weddings often fall in June, Halloween is in October, Christmas is in December, etc. At this point I might have the students repeat each word, then I show them how to divide the words into syllables and repeat each word aloud again.

As step three, I write three or four haiku from different countries. International haiku can be readily found on the Internet at http://www.asahi.com/english/haiku/ and at http://www.mainichi.com

It is useful to show how the vocabulary targeted in the unit can be effectively used in haiku. For example some new word lists for students includes "cell phone." Here's an intriguing haiku composed in 17 English syllables by one of my students from Tokyo who visited the countryside and thought she had received a phone call from her boyfriend.

Not from my cell phone
in the flooded rice paddies
sound of croaking frogs

Then as step four, I ask the students when their birthdays are and what their favorite season is. Then they are asked to write one short sentence (not in the form of haiku) for each of the season words they have in their notebooks from Step One and Step Two. Although haiku is generally written in the present and present progressive tenses, they can also employ the past and future tenses. Students realize that they can express a lot of meaning with just a few verbs and nouns. Then it is time to write haiku and I explain to the students there is only one seasonal word per haiku. They can use one of their sentences from step four, but must add two more lines. Haiku is generally written on three lines. I don't feel it is necessary that it follow the 5-7-5 syllable pattern used for Japanese haiku (McMurray, 2000b: 90).

The sixth step is to have students exchange their notebooks with the students next to them. I ask them to explain their haiku to that student and make a few changes to it so that it can be better understood later by the whole class. Then I have three or four students read their haiku to the class. The other students try to copy it into their notebooks. Homework can be to write another haiku using the words or phrases from the unit and to submit it to the newspapers. The following poem was created in that manner.

Leaving on a trip
mother asks me to bring back
some delicious fish

Team presentations during the final one or two weeks of class are often a highlight for most of the students. This classroom activity requires the students to have prepared as a team outside of the classroom. It also makes for a good review of the course.

By the end of term the students are pretty confident working in groups of three to four. That is an optimum size for most group activities. Throughout the term I usually give the students the chance to choose their own partners, and assign students to groups if they are having a difficult time deciding which group to join. I sometimes try grouping students of similar abilities, and have also tried assigning one top student to each group to serve as a leader. That often encourages peer teaching and collaborative learning.

When teams form and start working together over the first few weeks of the course I ask them to decide who will be the leader, who would like to be an artist, a writer and a main speaker for the final presentation. Group leaders often start the presentation projects or select a particular topic or unit for the other team members to carry out. Leaders generally are able to coordinate and motivate their teams because they usually take an interest in what the members are doing and in getting a satisfactory grade from the teacher for the whole team. Artists tend to observe most lessons, but often come up with lots of creative posters for their team to talk about by presentation day. Writers choose to do the writing exercises in their textbooks rather than doing a lot of speaking, but they do tend to take responsibility for checking the grammar of the others on the team. Speakers are generally not afraid to act and carry out presentations. The students in the audience who listen to the presentations are assigned the task of answering questions asked of them at strategic points during the presentation and also to ask questions of the presenters when they are finished. To encourage these questions, points can be awarded as part of the overall assessment. Together the team and the rest of the class effectively share personal opinions and ideas as they examine customs, practices and cultural values.

Please allow me to conclude this article with a haiku that I composed during the KOTESOL2000 conference under its theme Casting the Net for Diversity in Language Learning.

The farmer
casting his fish net
flooded fields

THE AUTHOR

David McMurray, M.B.A. is an associate professor of intercultural studies at The International University of Kagoshima where he teaches foreign affairs, poetry and English. He writes the popular Asahi Haikuist Network column that is published weekly in the Asahi Evening News and on the Internet at http://asahi.com/english/haiku. McMurray's international publications during 2000 included the Teacher's Guide to J-Talk with Oxford University Press; the Japan Quarterly Journal; The IUK Journal of Intercultural Studies; The English Connection and the PAC2/KoreaTESOL Proceedings. He is a past-president of JALT, The Japan Association for Language Teaching and is the Pan-Asian Conference at JALT2001 Co-chair. He welcomes haiku by e-mail at mcmurray@fka.att.ne.jp

REFERENCES

Deal, T., Kennedy, A. (2000). *Corporate Cultures*. Cambridge: Perseus Publishing.

Hoelker, J. (2000). Kolb Applied to Three Classrooms. *The Language Teacher*, 24, 11.

Kramsch, C. (1998). The Privilege of the Intercultural Speaker. In *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lee, L., Yoshida, K. & Ziolkowski, S. (2000). *J-Talk Conversation Across Cultures*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lewis, R. (1999). *When Cultures Collide*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

McMurray, D. (1998). *Learning Styles and Organizational Behavior in Japanese EFL Classrooms*. Journal of Fukui Prefectural University, 13 (pp. 29 - 45).

McMurray, D. (2000b). A Whole Universe in a Few Words. *Japan Quarterly*, 47, (4), 82- 91.

Morrison, Conaway & Borden.(1996). *Kiss, Bow, or Shake Hands?* New York: Pergamon Press.

Cultural Awareness Through Movies

JIWON PAEK
Taejon Girls' Commercial High School

ABSTRACT

Most contemporary CD titles using movies try to teach words, phrases and idioms in the dialogues. This approach usually makes students feel that movies are "just another form of a textbook," and they lose interest. However, an alternative approach is using movies to expose students to different cultures. In this manner, students don't think they are studying while watching movies, so they learn naturally. English then becomes fun!

INTRODUCTION

What is learning English? Why do we learn English? These questions may seem simple, but they're not easy to answer. It seems clear that learning to communicate in a language involves more than acquiring the pronunciation and grammar of that language. Students need to learn how to ask questions, make suggestions, greet and thank other speakers. In other words, they need to learn how, where, and when a certain language can be used.

Through English, students can learn diverse ways of thinking and life-styles of English-speaking people, in essence their culture. They come to understand that learning the English language can make a difference in many aspects of their own lives.

What, then, is the most effective way for students to learn about a foreign culture? The best way is to expose them directly, for example, by living there and experiencing it. Since this is not always possible, using movies as alternatives can expose students to different cultures. We can learn many things from movies, and they can be fun as well.

Students are initially enthusiastic and ready to absorb everything they learn about English. Yet they later become bored and some even come to hate it. When this occurs they need motivation, a powerful incentive for learning. There are several ways we can use movies as a teaching tool to motivate less enthused students.

Some teachers at universities or prep high schools may think they have no time for extra activities in the class, as they have many books to cover in a short period. However, the "Video Clip" activity below need not be for the whole class hour but only for the first ten or fifteen minutes, once a week.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Language, Thought, and Culture

Misunderstandings frequently occur between members of different cultures. While perceptions underlying cultural differences are complex, they are nonetheless real, and we must learn to deal with them in situations when cultures come into contact.

It is apparent that culture, as an ingrained set of behaviors and modes of perception, becomes highly important in the learning of a second language. Culture and language are intricately interwoven, so one cannot separate them without losing the significance of either or both. Acquisition of a second language, except for specialized, instrumental acquisition, is also the acquisition of a second culture, an observation supported strongly by linguists and anthropologists.

Both learners and teachers of a second language, therefore, need to understand cultural differences, to recognize openly that everyone in the world is not 'just like me,' that people are not the same beneath the skin, and that real differences exist. We can learn to recognize these differences, appreciate them and, above all, respect, value, and prize the unique qualities of every person.

The process of acculturation runs even deeper when language is considered. While culture is ingrained in our being, language is the most visible and available expression of that culture. Hence a person's worldview, self-identity, and systems of thinking, acting, feeling and communicating can be disrupted by a change in culture.

It seems intuitively clear that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes regarding culture, while negative attitudes can lead to decreased motivation and unsuccessful proficiency attainment resulting from reduced input and interaction. Yet the teacher should be aware that negative attitudes can be changed, often by exposure to reality. This may occur, for example, by encounters with actual persons from other cultures. Teachers can aid in dispelling what are often myths about other cultures, replacing them with a realistic understanding that while each culture is unique, it should be respected and valued.

While most learners can find positive benefits in cross-cultural living or learning experiences, many experiences create psychological blocks and other inhibiting effects. Teachers can help turn them into ones of increased cultural and self-awareness by being sensitive to fragility of students, and by using techniques that promote cultural understanding. Numerous materials and techniques including readings, films, simulation games, culture assimilators, "culture capsules," and "culture grams" are now available to language teachers to assist them in acculturation processes.

HOW CAN WE USE MOVIES AS A TEACHING TOOL?

Culture is really an integral part of the interaction between language and thought. Cultural patterns, customs, worldviews and ways of life are expressed in

movies as well. Movie scenes can be used to show cultural differences, or sometimes cultural resemblances. Below are some examples, introduced by topics and movies that use them.

Holidays

I usually give a short explanation about a specific holiday that falls on a teaching day, and I show illustrative scenes from movies. Students then watch them carefully and look for differences or resemblances to Korean holidays.

1. St. Patrick's Day (March 17th): *The Fugitive*

Saint Patrick's Day is an Irish holiday honoring Saint Patrick, the missionary credited with converting the Irish to Christianity. It is said that St. Patrick had an unusually winning personality, and it helped him win converts. He used the shamrock, which resembles a three-leafed clover, as a metaphor to explain the concept of the Trinity (father, son, holy spirit). He drove all the snakes out of Ireland — they went into the sea, where they drowned.

In America, St. Patrick's Day is basically a time to wear green and to party. The first American celebration of St. Patrick's Day was in Boston, Massachusetts in 1737. As the saying goes, on this day "everybody is Irish!" Over 100 U.S. cities now hold St. Patrick's Day parades, with the largest held in New York City. Green is associated with St. Patrick's Day because it is the color of spring, Ireland, and the shamrock. There are three main facets of St. Patrick's Day: first, good luck can be found on a four-leaf clover. Second, wearing green has become a tradition. (School children have started a little tradition of their own — they pinch classmates who don't wear green on this holiday). Third, kissing the Blarney Stone helps wishes come true.

In the movie, *The Fugitive,* there's a scene showing a river dyed with green paint, policemen talking about St. Patrick's Day and the Irish, and people wearing green in a St. Patrick's Day parade.

2. Easter: *Steel Magnolia* (We see a family gathering, a big dinner, and an Easter egg hunt.)

Easter is celebrated on the Sunday following the first full moon after the spring equinox. In ancient Egypt and Persia, friends exchanged decorated eggs at the spring equinox (they have always been symbols of creation, fertility and new-life) which symbolized the beginning of the new year. These eggs symbolized fertility because a live creature emerging from an egg was so mysterious to people of ancient times. Christians in the Near East adopted this tradition, and the Easter egg became a religious symbol, representing the tomb from which Jesus emerged. Also, they were often colored red to represent the blood of Christ.

Early Christians customarily celebrated Easter Week as days of joy and laughter. They would tell jokes, play pranks, feast on lamb, dance, sing and express humor and joy. Before eating the eggs, people would tap their own against

another's. According to custom, the person who cracked the other egg first would receive good luck. In many countries, eggs would be exchanged on Easter Sunday with the greeting "Christ is risen."

The custom of hiding the eggs now appears universal. Little children believe in the Easter Bunny, who has filled many baskets with colored eggs and candy. He then hides the baskets, and children hunt for them on Easter morning. They play games with the eggs and roll them up a hill. They also have Easter egg or jelly bean hunts.

3. Mother's Day (the 2nd Sunday of May):

Children make cards, gifts or thank-you letters, and think about all the work their mothers do. On Mother's day, they willingly do their mother's work and often serve breakfast to her in bed. In this way the mothers get a day to rest and have fun.

4. Father's Day (the 3rd Sunday in June): ***Father's Day***

Children make cards, gifts or thank-you letters, and think about all the work their fathers do. On Father's day, the family spends time together and often barbecues hamburgers or steak in the backyard or at a park or beach.

5. Independence Day (July 4th): ***Independence Day***

More than two hundred years ago, England had thirteen colonies in America, making laws for them and collecting taxes from them. When the American colonists would not pay all taxes and broke some laws, England sent troops to punish them. The Americans, however, offered resistance, and declared formal independence on July 4, 1776. Although fighting ensured which triggered the American Revolution, Britain in 1783 later signed the Peace of Paris, making The United States a truly independent nation.

Americans now celebrate their birthday every July 4th. They have parades and picnics in the day, band concerts and fireworks at night. It is a very happy and noisy holiday.

6. Halloween (October 31st): ***Romeo and Juliet, The Karate Kid, Perfect World***

(In these movies, there are Halloween parties with people wearing various costumes—usually as ghosts. However, people now wear any type of costume.)

The word "Halloween" actually has its origins in the Catholic Church, coming from a contracted corruption of All Hallows Eve. All Hallows Day (or All Saint's Day) is November 1, a day of observance in honor of Catholic saints. But in the 5th century B.C. in Celtic Ireland, summer officially ended on October 31. People believed then that the disembodied spirits of all those who had died during the preceding year would come back on that day in search of living bodies to possess for the next year. They believed this to be the spirits only hope for an afterlife.

Those living understandably did not want to be possessed, so on the night of October 31 villagers would extinguish fires in their homes in order to make them cold and undesirable. They would also dress up in ghoulish costumes and noisily parade around the neighborhood, being as destructive as possible in order to frighten away spirits looking for bodies to possess.

Irish immigrants brought the Halloween custom to America in the 1840's. At that time, favorite pranks in New England included tipping over outhouses and unhinging fence gates. Today, children wear costumes and masks and go to their neighbors' houses. They knock on their doors saying "Trick or Treat!" to receive candy or money. Families also make a Jack-o'-lantern by carving out a large pumpkin, engraving a face on it, then placing a candle inside.

7. Thanksgiving (the 4th Thursday of November): ***Home for the Holidays***

Thanksgiving Day in America includes family gatherings, holiday meals, and a time to offer thanks for blessings bestowed. It is a time of turkeys, stuffing, pumpkin pie, Indian corn, holiday parades and giant balloons.

8. Christmas: ***While You were Sleeping*** (When a man and a woman are caught under the mistletoe, they have to kiss), ***Miracle on the 34th Street*** (An American classic shown on Christmas Day, helping children believe in Santa Claus), ***Home Alone II*** (The biggest Christmas tree in Rockefeller Center, New York), ***The Grinch who stole the Christmas*** (a traditional fairy tale)

9. New Year's Day: ***Sleepless in Seattle, While You were Sleeping, When Harry met Sally*** (Americans usually have a party on New Year's Eve)

New Year's Eve on December 31 is a happy time, with revelers blowing horns and ringing bells at midnight. Centuries ago, people thought that spirits of the dead would return on the last night of the year, and made loud noises on New Year's Eve to scare them away. They beat drums, rang bells, and exploded firecrackers or guns. In ancient Rome there was a whole week of wild behavior and drinking before the new year. Now, as we are not afraid of spirits of the dead, New Year's Eve is a fun holiday but still noisy.

10. Groundhog Day (February 2nd): ***Groundhog Day*** (a TV weather forecaster comes to Punxsutawney to deliver the 5:00 p.m. weather report. The movie is about what happens.)

The legend of Groundhog Day is based on an old Scottish couplet: "If Candlemas Day is bright and clear, there'll be two winters in the year." Every February 2, people gather at Gobbler's Knob, a wooded knoll just outside of Punxsutawney, Pennsylvania, to watch the world's smallest, furriest weather forecaster emerge from an electrically heated burrow. It looks for its shadow and then utters a prediction to a Groundhog Club representative in "groundhogese". The representative then translates the prediction for the general public. If

Punxsutawney Phil sees his shadow, it means six more weeks of winter. If he does not, it means spring is just around the corner. Phil sees his shadow approximately 90% of the time.

Residents contend that the groundhog has never been wrong. Since the ceremony in Punxsutawney was revealed, Phil's fearless forecast has become a national media event. The original Phil began in 1887, and predictions by his successors are now an American institution.

11. St. Valentine's Day (February 14th): *The Simpsons*

There are many different stories about the origin of Saint Valentine's Day. Valentine was a good, likeable priest in ancient Rome. Claudius, then Roman emperor, did not want young men to marry but to go to war, and decreed that no one could marry without his permission. Valentine, however, married young couples in secret. When Claudius found out he had Valentine killed on February 14th. Two hundred years later, the church made February 14 a special day to remember Saint Valentine, who later became the patron saint of lovers. It is now a day to express love and friendship to any person we love or admire. Valentine's Day cards and gifts are given not only from men to women but also from women to men, or to family, friends, and teachers.

12. President's Day (The third Monday in February): *The Simpsons*

This day is set aside to honor Presidents George Washington and Abraham Lincoln, two of American' s greatest presidents. Washington was born on February 22 and Lincoln was born on February 12, so it was decided to combine their two birthdays into one legal holiday.

Gestures

From my experience, this is the most effective part of the "Video Clip." Students are interested in the actors' gestures to express meaning, since the Korean language uses very few gestures. Moreover, although we have some of the same gestures, they have different meanings (e.g. "I got your nose," "O.K." and "Good bye."), or different gestures but the same meaning (e.g. "Money").

1. **Give me five! No!:** *Terminator II*
2. **Shame on you, tick-tock, the way to annoy somebody (Neah-Neah-Neah):** *Peter Pan*
3. **Money:** *Home Alone II*
4. **So-so:** *Pretty Woman, Wedding Singer*
5. **I got your nose:** *Look Who's Talking, too*
6. **Freeze!:** *Mask*
7. **Cross one's fingers:** *The Hand that Rocks the Cradle, The Simpsons*
8. **Rock, paper, and scissors:** *Tremors, The Simpsons*
9. **To quote something:** *The Simpsons*

Culture

It's very hard to edit selected short scenes from movies in order to teach about culture in general. So, it's more effective to use whole movies, but it's not always possible to watch a whole movie in class. I therefore use the following movies when my students are tired and want to relax (e.g. the day after an exam, the day before a vacation), or when I am so sick I cannot teach the class.

1. **Funeral:** *My Girl, Beaches*
2. **Wedding:** *Four Weddings and a Funeral, Muriel's Wedding, Wedding Singer, My Best Friend's Wedding*
3. **In the theater:** *Curly Sue, Look Who's Talking, too.*
4. **Pee-poo:** *Look Who's Talking, too.*
5. **Windchime:** *The Hand that Rock the Cradle, Dying Young*
6. **IRA:** *Crying Game, The Patriot Game*
7. **Irish immigrants in USA:** *Far and Away, Devil's Own*
8. **To be an American citizen:** *Green Card*
9. **Hotdog:** *While You were Sleeping*
10. **School dances (prom):** *Footloose, 16 Candles, Pretty in Pink*
11. **Teenagers in classroom:** *Dangerous Minds, Dead Poets' Society, Sister Act II*
12. **Sports teams in school:** *Hoosiers*
13. **Snowman, snow angel:** *Dumb and Dumber, Love Story*
14. **Dental floss:** *Pretty Woman*
15. **How babies are born:** *Dumbo*
16. **Big Foot:** *The Simpsons*
17. **Merry version of ABC song:** *Sesame Street*

CONCLUSION

Students love watching movies. When they don't think they are studying when seeing them, they learn naturally and never forget what they see. For example, I taught the gesture 'high-five' several times, but few students remembered whenever I asked what is a 'high-five'. However, all them remembered after they watched the movie *Terminator II.*

One thing to remember when choosing films and editing scenes for the "Video Clip": select contemporary movies in order to attract student interest. That's not easy, but think about this: Do you think teenagers know Vivien Leigh or Yule Brenner? Do you think teenagers show any interest in movie stars they don't know? Most teenagers are not likely to be interested in *Gone with the Wind* or *The King and I.*

You can also teach useful expressions from movie dialogues. You shouldn't do this often, though, because students will feel that 'movies are just another form of a text book' (although it's true). Once they think this, they lose interest and will no longer view them as fun.

Be careful when you teach phrases, words, and idioms. Although teaching expressions from movies is valuable, the students' motivation is most important. Intrinsic motivation is a powerful factor in the learning of a second language and a keystone in one's approach to language teaching. Movies are useful for that purpose.

Language and culture are inextricably entwined. So, I have my students watch movies to get them more interested in English. Movies increase their chances for success in both second culture learning and second language learning. Once motivated, they are eager to learn. After that, they are more receptive to learning grammar and other parts of the language.

Showing movies has worked much better than my initial expectations, and you, too, can have the same experience. Don't let students to lose their interest! Keep them motivated!

THE AUTHOR

Ji-won Paek has been teaching English for 12 years at high school. She presented on this topic at the KOSETA annual conference and placed in the top three contestants. Given this placement, she later attended the IATEFL annual conference in Scotland, presenting as a representative of Korea. She strongly believes that both teaching and learning have to be fun, and is interested in different methods to motivate students. She also has developed several CD-ROMs suitable for middle & high school classes. Her Homepage: http://i.am/k&p , Email: flytop@korea.com

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brown, Douglas H. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Claire, Elizabeth (1990). *ESL teacher's holiday activities kit*. West Nyack, N.Y.: The Center for Applied Research in Education.

Richard-Amato, Patricia A., and Snow, Marguerite A. (1992). *The multicultural classroom: readings for content-area teachers*. White Plains, N.Y.: Longman.

Madsen, Harold S., and Bowen, Donald J. (1978). *Adaptation in language teaching*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers

Student Generated Materials and Activities

MICHAEL J. PRONKO
International Christian University

ABSTRACT

Motivating students by having them generate their own study materials has significant advantages for improving students' sense of responsibility, engagement and active participation in the language learning process. It also increases the amount of language practice. When students are required to write questions, make outlines, prepare focused responses and then use those materials as the basis for classroom group learning activities, they are better prepared, more creative and can more fully enact their basic sense of curiosity and criticality. Types of materials and activities that help create an entirely student-centered classroom are provided, along with reflections on what changes this brings to the atmosphere, position of the teacher and type of language used and learned.

INTRODUCTION

Over the course of several semesters, I became increasingly dissatisfied with the questions in most textbooks and with questions that I myself created on readings. Or rather, I became dissatisfied with students' reactions to these questions. The questions themselves were typically good, but I was always puzzled at why student reaction to even the best questions was less than enthusiastic. Gradually I surmised that the questions, no matter how clever or exciting, simply because they were being asked by me or the textbook, felt like test questions, copying practice or fill-in-the-blank busy work. Students perceived, rightly, that this authority-based approach was less critical than predictable, and asked only for a highly circumscribed type and degree of input from them. This approach gradually seemed to be "textbook-question-based" or "teacher-question-based" rather than student-based.

As a result of their dissatisfaction, and my own, I started to think of ways to get students truly at the center of the class, to re-position who asks questions and who creates materials. This led me to develop ways in which students start to take full responsibility for generating all questions, outlines, forms, blanks, sketches and materials. Classes organized around these student-generated materials tend to be more dynamic, motivating and effective, if initially slower and occasionally more chaotic in approach. I then developed a series of guided activities that put students in the position of asking questions, finding structures, and reflecting and arguing on readings.

QUESTION ASKING

When assigning a reading, students are asked to write ten questions on the reading and bring them to class. In class, groups are formed and students ask and answer the questions. While students tend to feel confused at first about what kind of questions to ask, simply having to write out the questions for use in class requires that they think about the material more actively than with "just" reading. They must at least locate points of particular confusion or misunderstanding. With practice, students learn to ask very substantial questions which, over the course of several readings, focus increasingly on the reading and less on their own lack of understanding.

While students work in groups, the teacher helps to answer questions which are especially troublesome. This lets the teacher focus energy on particularly difficult points while allowing other students to contribute answers and explanations on "simpler" points. The teacher also helps to re-frame questions or to explain questions, which often is enough to elicit answers from other students in the group. If a question can not be answer by one group, then the question automatically becomes a group question, which encourages a different type of communication amongst the group members, and considerably reduces individual anxiety about not knowing the answer individually.

Students are then asked to re-read the reading and write more questions. These secondary questions typically become more complex and more directed towards generating opinions from other group members, and from the teacher. Once students become sufficiently skillful at generating their own questions, the teacher should ask students to divide their questions into types: sentence level or vocabulary questions, meaning questions on one section or paragraph, and opinion questions based on students' own views. This classification of questions helps students re-think how they read in different ways and at different levels. It also helps them to become more active and critical by articulating questions in a less embarrassing framework. Students find it satisfying to ask a question that no one can answer, and far from being discouraging, it requires a more complex and extended response. Generating a tough question becomes as respectable as knowing the right answer.

The questions that students ask are also an important clue to how well students have understood a reading. Questions are collected regularly as a piece of graded homework. Usually, a pass/fail grading encourages more experimentation. Another option is to occasionally have questions be asked one by one to the teacher, so that the entire class can receive more elaborate explanation and more substantial listening practice. Students use the questions to take notes, and can copy the good questions of other students. It also helps if students cross-reference questions to particular lines or paragraphs of the reading.

OUTLINING

After writing questions, students are much better prepared to outline the reading. The questions often clarify what one particular part of a reading says and does,

and gives a substantial basis on which to build an outline. Teachers can provide samples of types of outlines, but in general, students are visually creative if left alone to outline in their own way. The most important element that the teacher can emphasize is distinguishing between general and specific points. In groups, students pass around their outlines for comparison, asking why particular points were included or excluded, and making changes to their own outlines. These comparisons are especially helpful to ensure more comprehensiveness in understanding, and often catch points that were left out or skipped over when writing questions.

Outlining is also effective, especially initially, if done as a jigsaw type of activity, having different groups outline different paragraphs or sections of a reading to present to other groups with a different paragraph. Writing the outlines on the board also helps at first, as does organizing the questions in order according to the reading before outlining. Outlining need not involve the traditional patterns of Roman-lettered-numbered form. Very often tree diagrams, flow charts, and other visual representations of the reading are more effective as they can incorporate points from the questions.

To help start outlining, students can be asked to first mark on the reading where the general, very general, specific or very specific parts of a reading are located exactly. This activity is preparation for the next set of questions, by showing students that there are different areas on which to ask questions, and different ways, either specific or general, to state those questions. Another variation on marking specific and general sections is to have students decide what each paragraph or each section of a paragraph says and what it does. This distinction focuses even more attention on the formal qualities of organization, while re-emphasizing the content. Outlining readings on a regular basis helps students to make the transition between organization in their reading and in their own formal writing.

FOCUSED WRITING

Students are asked to respond in free but focused writing by choosing one of the discussion or opinion type of questions, either their own or another student's, and writing an answer. This type of partially free, partially restricted writing produces material that students bring to class and share with others. Especially if students are having a hard time stating their own opinions quickly in spoken words, taking a few minutes of class time to write first, or assigning focused writing as homework, significantly improves a discussion. These writings are shared in class and collected for a pass/fail evaluation.

Another more group-oriented activity is to have students select five of the most difficult questions from their group, then assign one to each student to write on for the following class. In the next class, students pass around the writings, and then respond orally, or in writing, depending on what type of class it is. This activity helps to develop a more structured and more individual response to readings. Having students read other students' writing in particular provides an

understanding of different possible critical approaches to a reading. It also allows them to incorporate critical and creative responses from the previous questions and answers in an unrestricted framework.

AGREEING AND DISAGREEING

To further develop student-based critical thinking on a reading, students are asked to choose three points on which they agree and three points on which they disagree. These points could be particular sentences, a paragraph topic, or even a secondary point. Students then re-read the reading and write out briefly why they agree or disagree with those points. The following class is based on students explaining which points they chose and why. In groups, after reading or listening to a student's three points of agreement or disagreement, the other students are asked to orally state their opinion on that students' choices and reasons. These points are easier to locate with the outline in hand and could be taken from the focused writing.

This activity can be made more complicated by asking students to choose three points for expansion and three for refutation. These terms are roughly the same as agreeing and disagreeing, but involve a slightly more complicated and sustained response. Expansion involves extending the reading's arguments to other areas, with other examples or by simply elaborating on the reasons why a certain point makes sense. Refutation involves supplying counter-examples, finding logical mistakes or simply explaining the failure of the argument. Another variation of this is to ask students to locate the strengths and weaknesses of the article. Also, students can be asked to respond in writing to other students' writing on the points. This also serves to encourage more extended and more critical ways of thinking on the ideas in a reading.

FORMAL WRITING

Especially with courses that integrate reading, speaking, and writing, the types of activities above secure the foundation for more formal writing by providing important transitions and connections between skill areas. Teachers need to make the important point that asking questions is the basis of starting and sustaining a piece of critical writing, that speaking helps develop ideas and that a structured response is more critical. Formal writing can be thought of as a series of answers to unstated questions. The focused writing is a good way to begin brainstorming and also to find related, but distinct directions for a train of thought. The activities of agreeing and disagreeing are an essential aspect of all writing, and indeed, in many essay tests form the central type of response. More importantly, the series of guided activities in approaching the reading altogether form a method which moves from responding in different ways towards finding and developing an individual writing topic.

Conclusion and reflections

The main benefit of basing the class on student generated materials is that students feel much less alienated from the entire process. They realize that their active participation forms the central core of the class, and on days when a large number of students are unprepared, that realization becomes especially apparent. The class also becomes more truly student-centered, since the materials originate entirely with students. Students actively create the class, rather than passively attend the class.

This constant focus on students helps to pace the class with more sensitivity to where students actually are, rather than where they should be, which is often a source of frustration. When students take over primary responsibility for the input in the class, the teacher is positioned to help work on issues such as pacing, level of complexity of discussions, degree of input and maintaining a tolerant questioning atmosphere. Teachers also quickly determine individual student differences, and have more class time to address any problems particular students might be having.

Teachers are also positioned much less as the authority which needs to be answered, and more as another person trying to construct meaning from a reading. Rather than being in charge of the correctness of answers, the teacher helps to make connections between questions, between points in the outline, and with other readings and language use when students are most ready to listen, that is, after students have already generated questions and started to understand the structure of the reading.

Students are put into a situation where meaning and understanding are created in a series of interrelated activities involving different types of interactions: between student and text, student and student, student and self, and student and teacher. This taps into students' basic, though often well hidden, curiosity and individuality at all stages of the process, without losing a critical framework.

The Author

Michael Pronko currently teaches English, film and composition at International Christian University in Tokyo, Japan. He has an M.A. in Comparative Literature from the University of Wisconsin at Madison and another M.A. in Education from the University of Kansas. His B.A. from Brown University was in Philosophy. His primary research interests include film, composition and content based courses. Email: pronko@icu.ac.jp

Size matters: Creating dictionaries from the world's largest corpus

RAMESH KRISHNAMURTHY
COBUILD (University of Birmingham and Collins Dictionaries)

ABSTRACT

Language corpora are now widely used in many aspects of language learning and teaching. Do corpora provide more useful and reliable linguistic evidence than traditional sources? What types of corpora are available? What is the relationship between corpora and linguistic theory? This paper will review the development of corpora, and discuss the importance of corpus size.

How are corpora used in the compiling of dictionaries? How are specific lexicographic tasks assisted by corpus software? This paper will look at the ways in which lexicography has benefited from the use of corpora, and examine the relevance of corpus size.

How useful is corpus data for language learners and teachers? What can you do with a small corpus, and when do you need larger corpora? This paper will discuss various uses of corpora: for finding quick answers to specific language queries, for research, in the classroom, and for preparing teaching materials.

1. THE LANGUAGE LEARNER'S SOURCES

When language students have a doubt or a problem, they traditionally ask their classmates (who may give a wrong answer), their teacher (whose answer may still be challenged), a native-speaker (if available), or an older member of their family (whose knowledge may be out-of-date). They often remain unconfident or dissatisfied with the answer.

Students are told to consult dictionaries, coursebooks, grammars, etc, but may lack the necessary reference skills, as very little training is ever given. Also, reference books are written for general use, so often will not tackle all the questions, uncertainties and problems that individual students will have. In recent times, students may even try the Internet. Where should they look? How reliable are the answers, if they find any? How long will it take? In the course of this paper, it will be argued that corpus-based dictionaries are among the most reliable of sources and that ultimately, the corpus itself is the best source of information.

2. TRADITIONAL SOURCES OF LINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE

The first and main traditional source of linguistic evidence is intuition (or introspection). We can sit and think about language, based on our own experience of it. But intuition has its weaknesses. Firstly, it assumes that each of us has accurate

and complete knowledge. Secondly, it assumes that all the other users of the language have the same knowledge of the language as us. Thirdly, as Johansson (1995:20) has pointed out, there is the problem of bias: *But introspection is fallible. It may be biased towards the point that is to be proved, i.e. linguists may see what they want to see.*

Despite these weaknesses, for thousands of years linguists, language teachers and lexicographers have relied on their own linguistic intuitions to generate linguistic theories and rules, teaching materials, and dictionaries. Why should they start using language corpora instead? Professor John Sinclair has compared the impact of corpora on language studies with the effect of the invention of the telescope on astronomy. After all, for thousands of years, astronomers and sailors observed the stars in the sky with their eyes alone, generated astronomical theories, and sailed to most parts of the world. However, they still thought that the Earth was flat and that the Sun orbited round the Earth. Only after using telescopes did they realize they were wrong. Similarly, only after we analyse large language corpora do we realize that many of our previous linguistic theories and rules were incorrect.

For example, the old Latin-based models of English grammar are simply inappropriate. The relationship between Tense and Time is not the same for Latin and English verbs. In English, we often use present tense forms to express future meaning: *I'm going to Korea tomorrow* (present progressive) or even *I'm in Korea next week* (simple present). Other incorrect intuitions about English include the description of sentence adverbs, the subjunctive, question tags, and conditionals.

Dictionaries often enshrine our mis-intuitions. In traditional (i.e. non-corpus-based) dictionaries, the entry for *take* will usually give the definition for the literal meaning first, e.g. 'get or lay hold of with the hand(s)…' (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 3rd Edition, 1974). A corpus shows us that that much more common is what is sometimes called the *delexical* or 'empty' usage, as in phrases like *take a bath, take a driving test, take an interest, take an examination, take notice*, etc, which cannot be explained simply as an 'extension' of the literal meaning.

Another traditional source of linguistic evidence is the citation, an authentic example from a known text.

We can choose citations from texts written or uttered by other people, that contain features of the language that we think are important in some way. This method also has problems: which people or texts should we choose? How do we decide what is important? Again, are we biased by our own ideas and interests? Thus, citations as a source of linguistic evidence are also often flawed. Citations are arbitrary. We choose the author, the text, and the citation to support whatever point we wish to make. We may alter the original citation, by mistake or even deliberately. And we do not know how common or rare the example is even within that text, let alone how representative it is of general usage. Another weakness in the use of citations is the fact that we often notice the unusual, but overlook the

commonplace. Rare words and usages are obviously more psychologically salient for us than common and typical ones.

A third traditional source of linguistic evidence is native-speaker informants. We can ask other people for their opinions about language points. How many people should we ask in order to get an accurate picture? What questions should we ask? What do we do if people give us different answers to the same question?

3. Problems of Modern English

Some countries have established National Language Academies that try to regulate changes. There is no Academy for English. So who can we look to for authoritative statements about English? As English becomes a global language, vast amounts of English language data are being produced and recorded on a daily basis. So how can we get an overview?

The immediacy of access via phone, radio, TV, and Internet means that we are exposed to more and more spontaneous, and therefore error-prone, language. We live in the era of the "soundbite", when immediate responses to crises, and instant interviews are relayed across the world by radio, TV, and Internet. We consume many less carefully prepared chunks of language. Editing and proofreading are no longer possible. So we can no longer rely on the evidence of a politician's broadcast utterance, or a journalist's published text, as examples of common, typical, or even correct language use. Also, with the arrival of the Internet in particular, language changes in English are taking place too fast for our intuitions to assimilate them. No individual or group can keep up with language change on a worldwide scale.

The worldwide spread of English has given rise to a large number of varieties of English. There are more non-native speakers than native-speakers. Native-speakers are estimated at 375 million, ESL speakers also at 375 million, and EFL speakers at 750 million. Some linguists see in this the seeds of danger. The language may become fragmented and mutually unintelligible to speakers of different varieties (as happened with Sanskrit and Latin in the past).

Other linguists worry about the effect on smaller languages - not just the increasing use of English loanwords or even changes in grammar, but about the very survival of those languages. One small benefit: English often acts as the mediating language in translation activities. A novel written in Swedish, Thai, or Arabic is much more likely to be translated into Korean if an English translation already exists. However, this does raise other concerns: how much more is lost by this double act of translation?

Finally, every language has cultural connotations and an innate ideological agenda, and English is no exception. In a previous research paper (Krishnamurthy, 1996), I analysed the usage and connotational differences between *ethnic*, *racial* and *tribal*, and showed that *ethnic* has high status and *tribal* has low status. So African statesmen talking about *tribal conflicts* in their countries are colluding in

downgrading their own people. There are dangers in using English as a global language without identifying and rejecting such ideological baggage.

4. Changes in Learning Goals and Teaching Methods

In reflecting on this topic and glancing through some recent language teaching materials, I have noticed several trends. There are too many to discuss in detail, but broadly I perceive the following shifts. Away from academic and intellectual interests such as literature and civilization and towards practical activities such as business, media, and tourism. From universities to language schools, from the classroom to the real world, from mainly written language to include much more spoken language, from passive and receptive tasks such as reading towards more active and transmissive ones such as conversation, from grammar-translation to communicative methods, from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred environment, from teacher-based to technology-based activities, away from sentence-level focus to include word-level and text-level features, from made-up texts to authentic texts, from accuracy and grammar to fluency and communicative competence.

The use of corpora in language teaching and learning is the natural outcome of many of these changes: the focus on real world language, authentic texts, spoken as well as written language, active (and interactive) tasks, learner-centred and technology-based activities, and word-level access. The increasing interest in corpora is evident in the rise of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) and DDL (Data-Driven Learning, see the website of Tim Johns at Birmingham University: http://web.bham.ac.uk/johnstf/), in the TALC (Teaching and Language Corpora) conferences at Lancaster in 1996, Oxford in 1998, and Graz in 2000, and in the online newsgroup CLLT (Corpus Linguistics and Language Teaching; see http://listserv.linguistlist.org/archives/cllt.html)

5. Why Bother With a Corpus?

The latest source of linguistic evidence has developed out of recent technological advances in computers. We can now collect a very large amount of language, a corpus, written and spoken by hundreds or thousands of people, and examine it. Because it involves large numbers of examples, few statements will be 100% valid, so we are likely to use probability-based arguments. The use of a corpus also raises problems. How much language do we need? What sort of data should be included? And we still have to use our intuition about what to examine and how to interpret what we find. So why bother with a corpus?

All of us, even native speakers or "expert speakers" of a language, have only a partial knowledge of that language, depending on factors such as where we live, our parentage, social class, education, linguistic competence, personal interests, and so on. A corpus can be more comprehensive and balanced. We tend to notice the unusual and think of what is possible (and we are very creative and are able to contextualize even the most atypical utterances). A corpus can show us what is

common and typical. None of us can quantify our knowledge of language: we cannot confidently state how many words we know, how often we use them, etc. A corpus can give us accurate statistics. We cannot remember everything we know, whereas a corpus can store and recall all the information that has been input. We cannot make up natural examples, but a corpus can provide us with a vast number of real examples.

People often have difficulty in accepting this last point. But when we make up examples, we focus on grammaticality and pedagogic purpose, and often generate unnatural-sounding examples. The main features of invented examples seem to be an excess of informational content, and a lack of cohesive devices, especially pronouns. The following examples are all taken from non-corpus-based EFL dictionaries. They all seem plausible at first glance, and they are all grammatically correct: *It was too late to save the sick woman and she died… "I will try to save your leg," said the doctor to the injured man…We've been saved a lot of expense by doing the work ourselves… It will save time if we drive the car instead of walking… He argued well… Don't hold the gun by the business end.*

However, each example has its flaw: in the first, it is unlikely that "the sick woman" would be introduced at this stage of a natural text. The sentence carries too much information. The woman would have been mentioned already, in the previous sentence or paragraph. So a more natural version would be *It was too late to save her and she died.* Similarly the second example would sound better without "*to the injured man*". The third uses the passive unnecessarily, and *expense* jars : *We saved a lot of money by doing the work ourselves* would sound more natural. The fourth is unnatural because we rarely say "*drive the car*". We either just say *drive,* and omit *the car,* or we say *take the car*. A highly imaginative person might think of a very rare context such as *It will save time if we drive the car instead of pushing it.* Unfortunately, the concept of naturalness is much more difficult to define and verify than grammmaticality.

Only the corpus can really point out what is unusual about such examples. For example, corpus data shows that *argue well* never occurs, whereas *argue successfully, passionately, forcefully, convincingly* etc are frequent. Similarly, the example *Don't hold the gun by the business end.* is clearly invalidated by corpus evidence, which shows that by far the most common pattern is *the business end of* something:

```
e example at the business end of the season
lbert primed for business end of season. AN
 it comes to the business end of the meal,
oard home is the business end of the Brisba
ailenders at the business end of proceeding
e moment, at the business end of the game,
is calf with the business end of his lathi.
nvolved with the business end of things.
as well. <p> The business end of the upper
```

A few further points in favour of corpora. Even expert speakers have their personal prejudices and preferences. A corpus can give you more objective evidence. Expert speakers are not always available to be consulted. A corpus can be made permanently accessible to all. Even expert speakers cannot keep up with language change. A constantly updated corpus can reflect even recent changes in the language. And even expert speakers lack authority: they can be challenged by other expert speakers. A corpus can encompass the actual language use of many expert speakers.

6. Corpora and Linguistic Theory

Michael Barlow (1996) has contrasted the problems of native-speakers using intuition to make grammaticality judgments with the benefits of using corpora:

> Since the 1950's, much of modern linguistic theory has been based on the use of intuitions about the grammaticality of sentences in a language… Data based on intuitions has also influenced the theory of second language acquisition … and language teaching methodology. The wisdom of using grammaticality judgments as the basic data in formulating linguistic theory has often been questioned… The use of text analysis tools and corpora allows everyone to become researchers: from the theoretical linguist to the student learning a second language… Corpora can reveal not only the range of patterns of a language that the learner must assimilate … but also their frequency, which is an important factor in materials development and syllabus design.

Michael Stubbs (1995) has criticized Chomsky's objections to corpora: "Chomsky's (1957, 1965) rejection of induction, by machines or humans, is still widely assumed to be valid … But he provides no real arguments against such methods, merely stating that linguistic theory is not `a manual of procedures'."

And John Sinclair (1991) has offered us a starting position: "Linguistics usually operates with … abstract categories. But … it is good policy to defer the use of them for as long as possible, to refrain from imposing analytical categories from the outside."

7. Types of Corpora

There are some problems in defining "corpus", "archive", "text collection", etc. But it is generally agreed that a corpus is specially designed and put together for linguistic purposes. A corpus is "a collection of naturally occurring language text, chosen to characterize a state or variety of a language" (Sinclair 1991) or "a collection of linguistic data, either written texts or a transcription of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistic description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a language" (Crystal 1991).

Most corpora are designed "a priori", i.e. we assume that we know what types of language exist, and we decide in advance how much of each type should be included in the corpus. The COBUILD corpus at the University of Birmingham was initially designed in this way. However, we later adopted an "a posteriori" design strategy, i.e. we regularly look at the corpus, note any gaps or imbalances,

and collect new data to remedy those weaknesses. Synchronic corpora deal with current language, diachronic corpora cover a longer historical period. Static corpora are never changed once they have been created. Dynamic corpora are constantly updated.

So far, most corpora have used external and library classification criteria. In future, it is anticipated that some corpora will be built using internal linguistic criteria. External corpus criteria include size (of the corpus), vintage (date of publication of the texts), gender and age of text authors, genre of texts, and so on. Internal criteria will involve selecting texts which share similar lexical features, grammatical features, etc.

There are many problems in corpus creation: validating the categories of data and their proportions, unavailability of data which we wanted to include, the emergence of new data types (e.g. email) which were not in the original design model, problems in obtaining permission from authors or publishers to include their texts in the corpus, and the costs of data acquisition and processing. Recently there have been major developments in multilingual corpora, including parallel corpora (source texts and their translations) and comparable corpora (corpora in different languages, consisting of the same type of texts).

8. CORPUS SIZE

Size does matter, depending on the purpose of the corpus. Small corpora are acceptable for initial research on any aspect of language, for genre-specific studies, or for creating language learning materials for beginners. However, large corpora are necessary in order to make robust, general statements about a language, to analyse rarer items, and to detect the finer details of language use.

How large should a "large" corpus be? Renouf (1986) states that informal conversation produces c. 4000 words per hour. In the COBUILD Bank of English corpus (323 million words, 1996), the average size of a book is c. 80,000 words, and of a broadsheet newspaper is c. 100,000 words. Stubbs (1995) estimates that "If you experience 200 words per minute for 5 hours per day, you would get through 600 million words in 30 years". Gottlieb (1992) arrived at similar figures in his calculations: "In 30 years you might experience 330 million words of speech and 260 million words of writing". The Bank of English Corpus of 323 million words can therefore be reckoned as equivalent to a non-stop conversation lasting 10 years, a library of 4000 books or 9000 magazines, 25 years of a tabloid newspaper, or 10 years of a broadsheet newspaper.

A major benefit of a larger corpus is that fact that it will contain more "types". There is a need to use the technical terms "types" and "tokens" at this point, because the term "word" is ambiguous. The sentence "<u>The</u> cat sat on <u>the</u> mat" contains six "tokens", but only 5 "types", because the "type" *the* is repeated. Unfortunately, the number of "types" increases much more slowly than the number of tokens. Also, you need several examples before you can start to detect any patterns of use.

TABLE 1A.
GROWTH OF THE BANK OF ENGLISH CORPUS

	1986	1993	1995	1996
words (TOKENS)	18m	120m	211m	323m
forms (TYPES)	250,000	475,000	650,000	800,000
with 10+ examples	45,000	100,000	135,000	165,000

This number would be further reduced when considering entries for inclusion in a dictionary, because in English, there are c. 2.2 "types" per lemma (dictionary headword). So, for more highly inflected languages, the corpus would need to be even larger.

TABLE 1B.
GROWTH OF THE BANK OF ENGLISH CORPUS (CONT.)

	1986	1993	1995	1996
lemmas/headwords	20,000	47,000	50,000	75,000

In fact, Sinclair (1993) suggests that "ten is a poor sample; you need 50 at least to appreciate the meaning profile of a word, and 150 for any reliable account of its meaning". In which case, only 46,627 types in the 323-million-word corpus would be eligible for analysis, representing 21,194 dictionary headwords. And this is without omitting the proper nouns, numbers, and other items in the corpus which would not be considered as dictionary entries anyway.

Yet, if we look at the number of headwords in four EFL Advanced Learners' Dictionaries (1995 editions), all of which claim to be corpus-based, we find:

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF FOUR DICTIONARIES

Oxford	COBUILD	Longman	Cambridge
63,000 references	75,000 references	80,000 words/phrases	100,000 words/phrases

So they are certainly not using Sinclair's figures! Native-speaker English dictionaries obviously contain more headwords than the EFL dictionaries: American Heritage (1992): 350,000 entries/meanings, and Collins English Dictionary (1992) 180,000 references. And bilingual dictionaries claim to include even more headwords than the native-speaker dictionaries.

Corpora have grown considerably in the past 30 years or so. The Brown Corpus (1960s, Brown University, USA; Written American English) and LOB Corpus (1970s, Lancaster, Oslo, and Bergen Universities; Written British English) were both 1 million words. In the 1980s, the Birmingham Corpus (Birmingham University and Collins Publishers; Written and Spoken English; British and American) was 18 million words, and the Associated Press Corpus (AT&T Bell Labs; Written American Journalism) was 40 million words per year. In the 1990s, we have seen the British National Corpus (Consortium - Oxford, Longman, Chambers, DTI, etc; British Written and Spoken) of 100 million words, the Longman Corpus Network, the Cambridge Language Survey, and the Bank of English Corpus (Birmingham University and Collins Publishers; World English; Constantly Updated; Written and Spoken) of 330 million words. Developments are now taking place so fast, that we must refer to websites to keep track of them: Michael Barlow's Corpus Linguistics page (http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~barlow/corpus.html), and the major corpus distribution agencies' sites, ICAME (http://nora.hd.uib.no/text.htm), LDC (http://www.ldc.upenn.edu/) and ELRA (http://www.icp.grenet.fr/ELRA/home.html).

9. THE BANK OF ENGLISH CORPUS

This corpus, created by Birmingham University and Collins Publishers, is probably the largest corpus in the world, currently consisting of 330 million words and representing thousands of texts by different writers and speakers. It is constantly updated, so now contains mainly 1990s texts. It is an international corpus, covering British, American, Australian and other varieties of English. Written texts include books, newspapers, magazines, journals, and ephemera (information brochures, advertising leaflets, newsletters, personal letters and so on). Spoken texts include informal conversations, interviews, service encounters (in shops, banks, etc), phone calls, public meetings, academic lectures, classroom interactions, radio phone-ins, and TV discussions. It has recently increased to over 400m words, and continues to give us reliable information about which words and usages are common and which are rare, about new words entering the language, new meanings of existing words, and typical contexts and grammatical patterns, and tells us which people use a word and in which type of text or situation.

10. CORPUS SOFTWARE FUNCTIONS, AND HOW THEY ARE USED IN WRITING DICTIONARIES

There are some problems in defining the relevant language units: word, lemma, text. A word (or *token*) usually means any sequence of characters separated by spaces. When we say the corpus has over 400 million words, we mean tokens. Obviously the same words occur many times in such a large corpus. When we want to say how many different words (or wordforms) occur in the corpus, we use the term *types.* A *lemma* is a word family, such as is often represented by a dictionary headword (so *take, takes, taking, took* and *taken* all belong to the lemma *take*).

The first software function used in dictionary compiling is frequency, i.e. how often does a particular word or feature occur? This information can be displayed in frequency order (i.e. the most frequent word first, then the next most frequent, and so on), in alphabetical order, etc. The order of the very common words remains roughly the same, whatever the size of the corpus (e.g. *the, of, and, to, a, in, that, was, it* are usually among the top ten most frequent words in any corpus of English). Frequency can be used as a quick check for spelling (e.g. if you are unsure whether the correct spelling is *portuguese* or *portugese*, the Bank of English corpus will tell you that *portuguese* occurs much more frequently, and is therefore likely to be the correct spelling).

People often judge dictionaries by the new words they contain. An up-to-date corpus can show which words have been used by several authors in different texts, and are therefore candidates for inclusion in the dictionary. For example, new technology of the 1990s introduced us to the words *camcorder, email, helipad, hypertext, keyhole surgery, laptop, mobile phone, satellite dish, smart card, teleworker* and *virtual reality*. Other new words of the 1990s included *alcopops, bull bars, clone, gridlock, karaoke, pro-choice, shell suit, snail mail,*and *snowboarding.* The corpus therefore helps us to decide which words and meanings to include in a dictionary: e.g. *accessory* has 3813 examples and *acclaim* has 1379 examples, so both must be included, but *accessorize* has only 54 examples and acclamation has only 77 examples, so both may be omitted. The size of the corpus is again relevant: even ordinary words are better represented in a larger corpus, so we can make statements with more confidence, and describe rarer meanings and patterns.

The corpus software also tells us about the *distribution* of a word or feature in the corpus: is it used only in certain types of texts or does it occur in a wide range of texts? For example, the corpus tells us that the plural form *accommodations* is used mainly in American texts, that some uses of *actually* occur only in spoken texts, and so on, and this information can be added to the dictionary entries.

The corpus supplies with many authentic examples for each word, meaning, and usage in the form of *concordances* (see below), from which dictionary examples can be chosen. The Cobuild Dictionary (1995) example for *access* was: *The Mortimer Hotel in Shepherd's Bush offers easy access to central London.* The corpus *concordance* for *access* included the following examples:

```
in Shepherd's Bush offers easy access to central London and
 of London as well as the easy access to Europe. We never
f North London and within easy access of Highbury and London
e town is well placed for easy access of London and
 s motorway network gives easy access to London and many of
 railway station offering easy access to London. Access
     are too far away for easy access to London. And the
centre of the estate with easy access to London but far from
 and is now threatened by easy access from South London: the
orld and London is within easy access." Wouldn't it be
```

The corpus also informs us about *collocation*: which words are regularly used together. For example, in the concordance above, we notice phrases such as "*offer* easy access *to*" and "*within* easy access *of*". Such collocations can be identified by the software and displayed in various ways, and can also be used to disambiguate near-synonyms. For example, the collocation list for *electric* includes *light, fire, fence, bulb, motor*, and *razor*, whereas the list for *electrical* includes *system, energy, appliances, equipment, goods, apparatus* and *devices*, so we can say that electric is used with specific nouns and electrical with more abstract nouns.

The corpus software can also tell us about grammar. Every word in the corpus is grammatically tagged, so for example we can look at the word *report* used as a verb separately from *report* used as a noun, and note that its verb uses (89 examples out of 100) are much more common than its noun uses (11 out of 100). More sophisticated parsing software can also tell us the clause function of a word (subject or object of the sentence, main verb or auxiliary verb, and so on).

11. Students, Teachers and the Corpus

While a corpus-based dictionary will provide a more accurate and reliable general description of the language, any printed dictionary is restricted in size, and therefore will not be able to answer all the questions that students will think of. I therefore suggest that students should begin to access corpora for themselves. They can resolve some problems quickly, for example spelling. They can see which words or patterns are common, and that they should therefore learn thoroughly, and which words and patterns are rare, and can therefore be passed over. They can find far more examples than any dictionary can provide. They can check the information given to them by reference books, teachers, etc. And they can learn to do autonomous research. Above all, they can increase their language awareness substantially. Access to a corpus gives students access to the breadth and depth of language experience that native-speakers take a lifetime to acquire. Teachers can help the students to select sensible items for investigation, share in the excitement of their discoveries, and use the corpus to prepare teaching materials for future classes. There will be a steep learning curve on both sides, but the benefits will far exceed the efforts required. Suggestions of what to do, examples of what can be done, and explanations of how to do it, are available at many of the websites mentioned earlier.

The Author

Ramesh Krishnamurthy is an Honorary Research Fellow at Birmingham University. He has worked on the Cobuild project since 1984, contributing to many of its publications, and developing its corpora and software. He has taught at Birmingham and Wolverhampton Universities, and supervised postgraduate research in lexicography, corpus linguistics, collocation, semantics, and translation. He is a freelance consultant on corpora and dictionaries, and has participated in several EU and international linguistic projects. Email: ramesh@cobuild.collins.co.uk

REFERENCES

Barlow, Michael (1996) "Corpora for Theory and Practice". *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 1,1, 1-37.

Crystal, David (1991) A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, *Blackwell.*

Gottlieb, Henrik (1994) "Idioms in corpora: Types, Tokens, Frequencies, and Lexicographical Implications" in *Symposium on Lexicography VI*, eds. K. Hyldgaard-Jensen and V.H. Pedersen, Lexicographica, Series Maior, Band 57, Max Niemeyer Verlag, Tubingen.

Johansson, Stig (1995) "Mens sana in corpore sano: on the Role of Corpora in Linguistic Research". *ESSE Messenger*, IV, 2, 19-25.

Krishnamurthy, Ramesh (1996) "Ethnic, Racial and Tribal: The Language of Racism?" in *Texts and Practices*, eds. C. Caldas-Coulthard and M.J. Coulthard, Routledge, London.

Renouf, Antoinette (1986) "The elicitation of Spoken English" in *English in Speech and Writing: A Symposium*, eds. G.Tottie and I. Backlund , Studia Anglistica Upsaliensia 60, University of Uppsala.

Sinclair, John (1991) *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation, OUP.*

Sinclair, John (1993) "Text Corpora: Lexicographers' Needs". *Zeitschrift fur Anglistik und Amerikanistik*, Jahrgang 41, Heft 1, 1993; pp 5-14.

Stubbs, Michael (1995) "Collocations and Semantic Profiles: On the cause of the trouble with quantitative studies". *Functions of Language*, 2, 1: 1-33.

Effectively Teaching Large Classes

JOHN SKYE
Honam University

ABSTRACT

This workshop presented a solution for the problems associated with teaching and learning in large classes. Topics included classroom management; teacher- student tasks and responsibilities; a sample lesson; and considerations for designing activities for the large class. Attitudes and motivations were discussed as a way for teachers to reduce stress and strain while producing happier students who are interested in learning English. Help came from a variety of disciplines. The traditional classroom was abandoned for a student-centered, cooperative classroom. Students are actively engaged in meaningful communication for 95% of the class time using subgroups, team leaders, and mini lessons. The result is a class in which every student participates, motivation is high, meaningful learning occurs, grades improve, and laughter is heard. The class becomes fun and a joy to attend for both the teacher and the students.

INTRODUCTION

Large classes are a challenge for the teacher to overcome the adverse conditions presented, while maintaining quality education. These classes also provide large opportunities. This workshop offered one solution to the problems associated with teaching large classes. Although this idea has worked well with different classes and with different age groups, it will need to be adapted to your particular situation. Observation and experimentation will solve this task. A little hard work and leadership by the teacher before class will result in the *joy of education.* The arbitrary figure of 60 was used as the size of a large class for this workshop. Some of the teachers present at the workshop considered a class of 30 students to be a large class. So both figures were used in mathematical calculations. The workshop assumed that the classes taught were English conversation classes, but this solution can also be used for other subjects as well.

Understanding the problems that we find in a large class, leads to solutions. Brown (1994, p.416-417) lists several problems found in a large class: students probably have different levels of ability; the teacher' s time is limited for individual work with students; and speaking time is limited.

Experience has shown us additional problems: students not participating by socializing or speaking their native language; participating on the wrong page; and boredom, just to name a few of the many problems found in a large class. Let's eliminate these and other problems by using an interdisciplinary approach to teaching.

OVERVIEW

If we were to observe a classroom using this approach to solve some of the problems found in a large class, what would it look and sound like with all of the various elements working together? At first, one might see general chaos and pandemonium. A model class is active and noisy.

The teacher enters the classroom a couple of minutes before the start of class. Some students have arrived early and they are rearranging the chairs into circles of five chairs each. One student is cleaning the chalkboard. The teacher selects two students and hands them a paper with typed sentences on it. The students begin to copy the sentences on the chalkboard. Almost all of the students have now arrived for this beginner-level, freshman English conversation class. The students have quickly joined their subgroups and are preparing for class. Some are copying the notes on the chalkboard into their notebooks. There is a sense of routine while preparing for serious work. It is class time. The teacher hands the attendance sheet to a student who walks to the front of the class and calls the names to mark attendance. The team leaders have gathered off to one side of the classroom where the teacher is handing out the mini lessons. The teacher explains the lessons and reviews the answer keys for the team leaders. Questions are answered. The team leaders join a subgroup and sit down. The teacher introduces the lesson as an extension of the homework, models the forms, and perhaps demonstrates with a student. The class is about eight minutes old and it is time for the team leaders to guide the students through a mini-lesson. The team leaders guide, explain, or ask questions depending on the lesson. The mini-lesson might be a 'concentration' type game, or a board game, sentence completion, guided conversation, or listening activity. The session is intense. Every student participates. The classroom is noisy because 20-25 students in a class of 60 are simultaneously talking or participating in an activity. Some groups are having more fun than others. This arouses a sense of expectation and excitement. The teacher circulates around the classroom observing and listening to different subgroups. The teacher might then teach a subgroup, sit in and listen to the team leader, or do a biweekly one-on-one with some students to check that they have learned the previous week's material. This allows the teacher to fine tune the mini-lessons and redo or eliminate lesson forms that do not work. Every fifteen minutes the teacher reminds the team leaders to rotate to a different subgroup. The reason is twofold. First, some team leaders are not as able as others, so the quality is spread throughout the class. Secondly, the teacher usually prepares four different mini-lessons that will take one hour to rotate around the entire class. Eight different mini-lessons take two class periods to reach all of the subgroups. With this procedure, the teacher can comfortably talk to about 22 students each class period. This means that the teacher will talk to each student about every third class. The last five minutes of class can be spent on closure by answering any questions, assigning homework, or letting the team leaders work until the end of the class period. The students have just completed an intense class with an hour of speaking, listening, reading, and

practicing English. Normal problems are simply extinguished by applying the methodology. All students are participating in meaningful learning. There is no time to sleep, skip out, use a cellular telephone, or be bored. Now let's look at the specifics of classroom management.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The first problem is managing the large numbers of students in the class. So make the class smaller. The key words are *divide and conquer*. Whittle the class down to manageable pieces and conquer the problem. The solution comes from education and the military. Education offers us a solution from interactive methodology: subgroups. For a discussion of interactive methodology versus the traditional classroom, see Brown (1994). The U.S. Marine Corps teaches that a leader cannot effectively manage more than three or four people at a time. Therefore, in a class of less than 36 students, divide the class into subgroups of four students each. Subgroups of less than four students loses energy and approaches pair work which results in different problems. In a class of more than 36 students, divide the class into subgroups of five students each. For example, in a class of 60 students, the teacher divides the class into 12 subgroups. The students are arranged in small circles with room for the teacher to walk around the room. If possible, disperse the subgroups throughout the classroom so that they are not bunched up.

The next part of the solution is to get help. This is one of the positive benefits of a large class: abundant help. The Boy Scouts of America teaches the scouts to always look to and use whatever resources are available. They also teach the use of boy leadership. This is similar to education's concept of the student-centered classroom. In our example above, we have 12 subgroups. The teacher now needs to select a team leader for each of the subgroups, or 12 team leaders, from the students in the class. The selection of the team leaders is critical. The job of the team leader is to guide a subgroup through a mini lesson or mini activity. The traits of a good team leader are first helpfulness, then maturity, and lastly above average ability in English. These are relative terms for any group of students. At the start of a new semester, observe the students who are working together in subgroups. After about two weeks, identify those students who help their classmates during an activity. Next, identify those students who have a higher level of maturity. These are usually the same students who are also helpful. Finally, identify the students with the best ability in English. The best team leaders are not necessarily the best speakers of English. Additionally, identify the trouble-makers who are often those students who crave attention, because they also make good team leaders. When you make an attention-getter a team leader, he gets the attention that he craves, but he also bears the responsibility of that position and ceases to cause trouble for the teacher or his classmates.

Once the team leaders are selected, the teacher must work with these students to help them to understand their purpose and function in the class. It is important to help them to succeed. In a way, the teacher is focusing on the development of

leadership among the team leaders. As you teach business concepts of accountability and leadership, you indirectly teach English.

LESSON PLANNING

The key concepts for this section are divide and conquer, put the students to work, collaboration, and cooperation. Planning the lesson is the teachers most important task because the course objectives are taught and learned through the presentation of the lesson. Let's take a typical lesson for a single class period. We want to chop it up into many smaller pieces: divide and conquer the lesson. These smaller lessons, or mini-lessons, will be self-contained lessons lasting approximately twelve minutes each to maintain the interest and motivation of the students. They present the student with a single teaching point. Use meaningful, real life material. Make the mini-lessons fun.

There are several elements to consider before making the mini-lessons. First, the teacher needs to decide how many mini-lessons are needed to teach the lesson objectives. In our example of 12 subgroups, we can have any number of different mini-lessons. Since each team leader is responsible for one mini-lesson, and he rotates from subgroup to subgroup on a fifteen minute cycle, the teacher has to consider the number of mini-lessons and the number of rotations. For example, the teacher decides that the objectives for the next class can be presented with four different mini-lessons. There are 12 team leaders, so the teacher makes three copies of each of the four mini-lessons. Therefore, three team leaders are presenting the same mini-lesson at the same time during the class, but to different subgroups. After fifteen minutes, the team leaders rotate to another subgroup that has not seen their particular lesson. So all four mini-lessons will be presented to all 12 subgroups in one hour.

Secondly, the teacher needs to observe what the students pay attention to. Do the students like games and physical activities, but dislike role playing? Then, give the students what they like. Present the mini-lessons according to the preferences of your students. It does not matter whether a student learns through a board game or an activity as long as meaningful learning occurs. There are many lesson ideas presented for all of the four skills in the book *TESOL Techniques and Procedures* (1985).

This brings us to the third point, student learning preferences. Although there are many to consider, design the mini-lessons to please every student by making the lesson visually appealing with designs or colorful pictures for the visual learners; typed questions for the visual learners to read out loud for the benefit of the auditory learners; and put the mini lesson in a page protector or mounted on a poster board for the kinesthetic students to hold in their hands and touch. This way the teacher appeals to the broadest range of learning preferences. At this point, the classroom is picking up positive energy from the simultaneous mini lessons, the action of students moving around the classroom, English sounds, and laughter.

A SAMPLE LESSON

The teacher is preparing to teach the next class. The textbook for this class is *New Interchange: English for international communication, Students Book 1A* (Richards, 1997). The students are about to begin unit five which is titled *The Family*. The teacher decides to teach pages 28 and 29 for the next class. The teacher has decided to prepare 8 different mini-lessons. Two of the mini-lessons will be pictures of families mounted on poster boards about 14 inches square. The students will describe the family relationships among the people in the pictures as a vocabulary building exercise. The team leader will ask each of the students in his subgroup what the relationship is between the people in the picture: father-son for example. One of the mini-lessons will show pictures of an extended family and introduce some new words like step-daughter and brother-in-law. Another lesson will be the listening exercises found on page 29. The teacher prepares the answer key for the team leader, cues the tape, and checks the tape player for proper functioning. This team leader will play the tape and guide the students through the exercise. He cannot make a mistake because he has the answer key. It is vital to provide team leaders with all of the resources that they need to do a good job without embarrassment.

The next lesson will be an exercise from the textbook found on page 28, section 1B. The students will describe their immediate family. Another lesson is a drawing exercise. The students are asked to draw an extended family tree in their notebooks and put in the names of their relatives. The students now practice using words like cousin and uncle. Another mini-lesson is for the analytic students. It is the story of a family with questions about the relationships in the story. Another lesson is the Interchange Activity for unit 5: *Family Facts* on page IC-7. The last lesson is a guided conversation to prompt the student to describe various family relationships in their real life. The lessons either prepare or reinforce teaching points and overlap each other. So if a student does not grasp a language skill, that skill will be presented several times in different ways to adapt to his learning pace and preference. The mini-lessons advance from easy (for warm up and to inform those students who did not do their homework) to more difficult exercises that lead to free talking and language production that extends the material being studied.

ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION

When the teacher is happy and positive, the students will also enjoy the class. Reflect on the things that cause irritation and stress in your classroom. For example, suppose calling attendance was an aggravating experience. End this and all other conflicts by finding the opposite, not calling attendance, and then find a third alternative- have a student do it. The teacher wastes much time with things that the students can do. For example, putting class notes on the chalkboard is good writing practice for the students who would be bored watching you doing the work. So put the students to work. Give them the learning opportunity whether it be writing practice or leadership practice. Additionally, resist nothing and confront

nothing. Ignore everything outside of your control. Use humor. Be an example of great etiquette. And do not rob someone of a learning opportunity by taking false responsibility yourself. If the teacher gets out of the way, you will empower the students who will amaze you. Remember to do nothing, when there is nothing to do - like over correcting.

In the classroom described above, the teacher has three tasks: facilitate the learning, be the expert resource, and evaluate for quality and grade. As the students are taught to cooperate and collaborate in the class, traditional methods like testing, almost seem to be a rude breach of faith. It places the center back on the teacher. Testing is easier with the above idea because you will meet often with the students for face to face conversations and you will know their ability level. This could give you a basis for grading by verbal testing, but do not tell the students that it is a test. This also gives the teacher time to help students with individual learning difficulties such as pronunciation problems. The end result is the creation of a classroom that supports learning, is safe, and student-empowering.

CONCLUSION

At first, the students will not understand what you are trying to do. You will need to teach them this style and give them time to adjust. The students will rise to the challenge and develop confidence and intrinsic motivation for learning. Ability levels will improve through the freedom in the classroom, the volume of practice time, and collaboration. Advanced students will gladly teach the slower students. The old problems evaporate because the new methodology does not permit those problems to exist in the new classroom environment. Besides, if you keep the students busy, they will not have the time to cause any problems. In the end, the classroom becomes a fun, exciting place to learn. As the class ends, the students will be shocked at the speed of the class, feel that the time was well spent practicing meaningful, real life English, and feel tired, but happy to have attended the class.

THE AUTHOR

John Skye teaches at Honam University in Kwangju, Korea. He has taught English for 27 years including six years in Korea. He has presented workshops at several previous conferences. His area of research is the interactive, cooperative classroom. E-mail at zskeye@hotmail.com.

REFERENCES

Bowen, J.D., Madsen, H. and Hilferty, A. (1985). *TESOL techniques and procedures.* Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Brown, H.D. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Richards, J.C. (1997). *New Interchange: English for international communication, students book 1a.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX

Effectively Teaching Large Classes

Workshop Handout

Large classes represent an adverse condition, which demands maximum use of creativity and resources from the teacher. The teacher needs to change the atmosphere of the classroom in order to enjoy a fun and positive class with excited and responsible students. Imagine an exciting class in which all students are participating *happily* in producing English.

Large Class

Problems	Good Points
Teacher-Student contact time	Diversity
Lack of Participation	Much Interaction Potential
Limited individual time	Lots of Energy
Boredom	Teams
Reaching all Students	Volume
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Identify Teacher aggravations, irritations, bothers, and stresses

Conflict Areas	Opposite	Solution
Taking Attendance	No Attendance	
Writing Examples on Board	No Writing	
Written Homework		
Distractions		
Hand-phones		
Testing		

Key Words: Have no opposites; Confront Nothing; Do not Take False Responsibility; Resist Nothing; End Conflict; Drop Agendas; Put the Students to Work.

Classroom Tasks

Teacher	Students
Prepares the Lesson	Does Homework
Takes Attendance	Studies/ Learns
Writes on the Marker Board	Takes Tests
Plays cassette tapes/ video	
Leads/ Demonstrates	
Evaluates	

Key Point: Teach accountability, confidence, leadership, responsibility, intrinsic motivation, *and* English.

Divide and Conquer

Classes
Total number of students in your largest class _____
Divide by 5 _____
Answer _____
(This number is the total number of Subgroups and Team Leaders.)

For example: A class of 60 students has 12 subgroups of 4 students each. There are 12 Team Leaders in this class.

Traits of a Good Team Leader: Helpful, Mature, Above Average Ability in English.
Geography: Arrange the subgroups in the classroom in circles with room to walk around the groups.
Classroom Atmosphere: Safe, Supports Learning, Everyone Participates, Meaningful lessons related to Real Life, Student-Centered, Fun, Noisy, Action Packed.

Lessons

Divide the lesson into 7-9 components or mini-lessons. Chunk size of the information per student ability level. The lessons will cover 1 or 2 points from the unit being studied. There will be repetition and overlap within the mini-lessons and from class to class. Use this to vary the presentation of the material to appeal to the different learning preferences of the students: Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic. Each mini-lesson should take the group of 4 students about 12 minutes to complete.

Sample lesson

Mini-lesson options: activities, games, concentration type games, guided conversation, vocabulary building, listening to tapes, exercise completion, skill building, use Discovery learning.
Key Point: Ask yourself what do the students pay attention to.
Slow the teaching down 50-75% for faster learning.

Explanation

Focus the mini-lessons on the real life needs of your students. Rotate the Team Leaders about every 15 minutes to limit boredom, keep the action going, and share expertise. The Teacher has 4 options in this classroom: teach a subgroup yourself; do student-teacher one-on-ones; circulate around the room; or listen in on a Team Leaders discussion. The Teacher should be able to spend time talking with about 1/3 of the students in a class of 60 students each class period. Therefore, the Teacher would have contact with each student twice in 2 weeks.
Key Words: Divide and Conquer; Get Help; Do Nothing When There Is Nothing To Do.

Summary

The Teacher prepares the mini-lessons; acts as resource and facilitator in the classroom; and evaluates the quality of the lessons and the students. Therefore it is important for the teacher to set an example: (1) positive attitude, fun, humor; (2) excellent etiquette.

The students will need some time to adjust. Endure the chaos. Laugh at problems with the students. Enjoy the end result. Let the students surprise you. They will learn decision making, confidence, leadership, and meaningful language. You will learn some things from them. The classroom will have much energy, noise, and fun. General pandemonium. My students usually end the class tired, but smiling and energized.

ESP (English for Special Purposes)

Designing Case Studies for Kazakhstani Companies

LARISSA AKIZHANOVA
Soros Language School

ABSTRACT

This is a real case study for a real Kazakhstan Company. The purpose of the present project is to familiarize local students with the nature of business in the country by designing a case study based on a local company. It was developed to meet specific needs of Insurance English learners. Local students now have the chance to study Insurance English through familiar business documents: texts based on local material. I began designing the case study by developing written and oral exercises to give students the skills and greater confidence needed to operate effectively in a business environment which is very, very new within the Republic of Kazakhstan. The case study is based on the critical thinking development strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Kazakhstan is a newly born independent developing country. One problem of the past with teaching Business English was that there was no need for it. However, since 1995 teachers of English in Kazakhstan as well as in other former Soviet republics started facing great problems with teaching this very course. We didn't have enough ESP textbooks; we didn't know how to teach ESP. We attended special seminars held by the British Council and USIS and learned more and more about the methodology of teaching ESP. At last it occurred to me that my students would most likely study better if they worked on very familiar material, and I decided to design a case study based on a local company.

THE TENGRI INSURANCE COMPANY CASE STUDY

The aims of the case study were to familiarize local Business English learners with nature of Kazakhstani business, to practice learned skills, and to give them strategies and confidence in operating in a very new business environment in English. The main emphasis was on the students' performance and communication in the classroom. The case study contained the history of the company, real business documents, business letters, and texts of an insurance company recognized and famous within the CIS countries. The students had the chance to study fundamentals of insurance, relevant to the global insurance business. The case study increased students' efficiency in insurance vocabulary within the context of a real insurance company. More importantly, the case study taught ESP learners how do business effectively.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE CASE STUDY

The case study included ten tasks aimed towards student progress in the following areas:

- in becoming more efficient at reading business texts
- in using functional language that was known but not used previously
- in broadening their range of vocabulary
- in improving their ability to link and express ideas in a coherent way

The learning emphasis was on gathering needed information from the texts, and there were opportunities for students to communicate about these texts. And this emphasis was maximized through problem-solving questions given at the end of the texts and the paragraphs of the texts.

Following are brief explanations of some of the tasks. First, the Tengri Insurance Company organization structure exercise focused on the titles of job positions and gave the opportunity to judge and make a decision. Second, to make the reading activity (which was boring for students) more interesting, I combined it with questions to develop critical thinking. In addition, the case study provided grammar exercises as well as vocabulary training.

Business letter writing deals with day-to-day tasks, and I think this skill needs to be taught. The case study contained a real business letter written by the vice-president, offering different services provided by the company. This could give an ESP teacher an area for designing different classroom activities. For example, I decided to offer my students role-play. The students liked it and created a great production for this show.

In Kazakhstan there are a lot of foreign insurance companies doing business successfully. International cooperation assists in developing technical and professional businesses in the Kazakh insurance sector. I suggested my students use the information from the given extract of an interview with the president of one of the insurance companies working in Kazakhstan, and consider future collaborations with the Tengri Insurance company as well as the future development of the insurance business in Kazakhstan.

To do business more efficiently, the company provides a wide range of services. The final task, task 10, instructs students to scan the information from their list of services and share it with a group.

To do the last task I divided my students into groups and, utilizing the clustering method, asked them to make use of their previous knowledge and associations, and combining that with the new information, to write their recommendations to the company staff to make the business more profitable. Then students made oral presentations to the class. I invited the president of the company to participate in the class and it was great fun. Students liked it very much.

The appendix to the case study was a glossary on the topic. I created the "BINGO" activity using the definitions provided.

The case study dealt with problem solving, making offers and suggestions, expressing and justifying personal opinions, prioritizing and speculating activities.

The final objective of the case study was to have students produce an effective brochure that describes the work of the company.

THE AUTHOR

Larissa Akizhanova has been teaching Business English for more than 5 years, previously to University students and presently to business people. She teaches General English as well. She is particularly interested in using case studies as a particularly effective means for local students to develop their critical thinking skills. She was the vice-deputy of the Head of the department of Foreign Languages of Kazakh State Academy of Management. She is a TEA (Almaty Teachers of English Association) member, a British Council member, and a Soros Foundation-Kazakhstan coordinator of NATEK (National Association of Teachers of English of Kazakhstan). Her e-mail address is akizhan@mail.ru

Content-based Team Teaching

ROBIN NAGANO
Nagaoka University of Technology, Japan

YUKIE KOYAMA
Nagaoka University of Technology, Japan

ABSTRACT

A team-taught approach to content-based foreign-language (English for Specific Purposes) classes is described. An English teacher and subject (engineering) teacher jointly plan and conduct English classes for university students in Japan, using subject-specific materials, with the aim of acting as a bridge between general English courses and future needs in their studies or career, and in an attempt to improve student motivation. Student responses from three classes showed higher interest in team-taught classes than in standard English classes. Students reported gains in some English skills, and also in their knowledge of the engineering subject. Another benefit of the collaboration has been improved communication between English and engineering teachers.

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is a problem in many foreign language classrooms, not only in Japan, but throughout the world. Students tend to have difficulty seeing the relevance of language studies to their future careers, especially in relatively monolingual cultures. This may be particularly true of students in engineering and the sciences, whose interest in communication skills, even in their native language, is often rather low. With low interest and little recognition of the instrumental need for foreign language skills, motivation in the university language classroom tends to be very low among the engineering students in our institution. Additionally, as most have gained their earlier education in schools specializing in technology, English studies have been given little stress, and their English level is relatively low upon entrance to the university.

On the other hand, needs for English are relatively high. Those who go on to graduate studies in engineering must be able to read specialized journal articles in their field of research, and are often required to give presentations at international conferences. Our own survey of workplace use (Shimizu, Nagano, and Koyama, 1999) shows that English skills are needed by our engineering graduates. Therefore, a large gap exists between students' abilities and future needs.

By tying English skills to engineering studies, it was hoped that English would seem more relevant to our students. However, the use of subject-specific materials

has an obvious drawback – the language teacher typically does not have the background to understand the content fully. Various strategies have been discussed for dealing with this problem (see Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). In our case, while also trying other approaches, we decided to invite engineering teachers to participate in a collaborative venture, team-teaching English classes for engineering students.

COLLABORATION IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Teacher collaboration is often praised for its benefits for students, and for teachers' professional development as well. In language classrooms, one pattern is for two (or more) language teachers to collaborate, as is now common in Japanese junior and senior high schools, with native-speaking Assistant Language Teachers and Japanese teachers of English working together, to various extents. Another type of collaboration is that between a language teacher (LT) and subject teacher (ST), the situation in this case.

In any collaboration, there can be varying degrees of cooperation (Crandall, 1998). For instance, LT-ST collaboration could begin outside of the classroom, with the ST acting as a background informant who can answer the LT 's questions, explain content, or recommend other resources. More actively, the ST can supply authentic texts, samples of required tasks, lists of common vocabulary, or practice exam questions. In the classroom, collaboration can begin with the ST acting as an informant, responding to questions from the class and involvement increases as the ST moves to guest speaker (see Adams-Smith, 1980, for an example), culminating in team teacher.

There are different patterns in the relationship of subject to language, and the roles of the ST and LT. In one type, the language class is linked to a certain subject class. Students taking the subject class then take an "adjunct" language class which uses the subject class as the basis for materials and activities. In this case, the teachers are "parallel teaching", and in the language class, the LT tends to be the main teacher, coordinating to various degrees with the ST (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980). This pattern is most often seen in ESL situations, with the language class acting as a support for second-language learners in dealing with English-medium subject classes.

Another pattern is an independent class with a combined focus on language and content. Teachers can take turns to teach the class (joint teaching) or can be in the classroom interacting together (co-teaching) (Crandall, 1998). The classes described in this paper are independent, co-taught classes.

It is worth noting that the environment — ESL or EFL – influences the approaches chosen. In ESL situations, there is a tendency to focus on immediate and urgent needs, helping students succeed in their chosen courses of study. This is also true of English-medium universities. EFL situations, on the other hand, are more likely to be focused on future needs. An added factor in EFL is the foreign

language skills of the ST; many teachers who normally lecture in their native language lack confidence in using English in front of students.

The success of a collaboration as complex as team teaching is affected by many factors. Administrative support is needed, for budgeting, scheduling, and other matters. The educational orientation of different disciplines may vary greatly in areas such as teaching methods and the evaluation of students, and conflict can arise from these differences. In general, teachers must be willing to be flexible, take risks, and cooperate with each other.

Several benefits of collaboration in general and team teaching in particular have been reported. Increased student motivation is generally attributed to the use of relevant content, enriched context (Graham & Beardsley, 1986), the variety in delivery styles, the opportunity to observe teachers' interaction (in a co-teaching situation), and the implicit recognition that subject teachers value language skills (Jordan, 1997). Students are also reported to demonstrate a better understanding of the value of communication skills (in a first or second language) in their subject studies. Teachers (both LT and ST) also report an increased understanding of language-subject links, improved communication between LTs and STs, and increased knowledge of other fields. In many cases, they find the exposure to different content areas, teaching methods and materials to be stimulating.

SOME BACKGROUND ON NUT

As the character of an institution affects the possibilities for innovation, we would like to briefly describe the teaching situation at Nagaoka University of Technology (NUT). NUT is a national university in Japan, consisting only of a faculty of engineering, with six departments. The Language Center is a separate entity, responsible for English and other foreign language classes for the 1,200+ undergraduates and optional classes for the 800+ graduate students. The bulk of the students enter in the third year, after graduating from 5-year 'colleges of technology'. In addition, a large percentage of the those entering in the first year are from technical high schools; in technical schools and colleges, English tends to be de-emphasized, and the English level is low (the TOEIC average for third year students was 327 points in 1999).

First-, second- and third-year students are required to take one or two English classes (90 minutes, meeting once a week) per 15-week semester. There are currently integrated classes and skill- or theme-centered classes. However, there is no standardized curriculum per se, and each teacher chooses his/her teaching materials, approach, and evaluation criteria. While this has definite drawbacks, the flexibility allowed team-taught classes to be slotted into the third-year skill/theme-centered classes, for regular English credit, as part of the English teachers' normal class load. We have been fortunate to have administrative support for this initiative.

A survey of faculty members revealed that the vast majority were concerned by the poor English skills of our students, and thought they ought to be taught basic skills, with a particular focus on reading and also on grammar. Reading is seen as the highest priority activity, because of the need to read journal articles for research. Engineering teachers feel that the content should deal with technological or scientific subjects (45%), "practical" English (27%), business English (11%) or preparation for TOEIC or other proficiency tests (11%). The team-taught classes, with their focus on subject-specific content, seem to fit into the engineering teachers' expectations, and there has thus been at least passive support from the three departments that currently participate; in some cases, engineering teachers were released from teaching engineering classes in order to participate in the team-taught classes.

OUTLINE OF TEAM-TAUGHT CLASSES

English teachers proposed team-teaching on an experimental basis to the departments, and initially three expressed interest. STs either volunteered or were assigned to the class by their departments. Several meetings among LTs and STs were held to identify the issues involved, introduce non-lecture approaches to teaching, and discuss appropriate materials. Eventually, the following aims were clarified and each team settled on their approach.

The aims of the team-taught classes are: (1) to increase student motivation by providing a clear and direct link between the students' course of study and English; (2) to activate students' previously acquired knowledge of the topic and allow them to approach the topic through English; (3) to act as a step between general English and specialized subject-specific reading materials; and (4) to familiarize engineering faculty members with the techniques and goals of the language classroom.

In the first year of the program, three classes were team-taught, with the number rising to four in the second year. As can be seen in Table 1, the majority are reading-centered, while task- and listening-centered classes have also been designed. Each pair of teachers chooses materials and designs activities, and therefore each class is different. In addition, the roles of the teachers and the amount of English used in the classroom also vary between classes.

> Example 1 - Civil Engineering class ('99): This class was reading-centered, using 4-5 page articles over three weeks. The teachers met each week to plan for the class. Typically, the ST introduced the topic in Japanese, in a mini-lecture, and then students were given an article on the topic, and worksheets were used for exploring comprehension, language features, and vocabulary. While students in small groups were completing the worksheet, both teachers were available for help. The LT then went over problems with the whole group. In this class, the ST was unwilling to speak English in front of the students, and rarely did so.

TABLE 1. OUTLINE OF TEAM-TAUGHT CLASSES AT NUT (1999-2000)

TYPE	CLASS	TOPICS	FEATURES /EMPHASIS
reading-centered	Civil Eng'g '99	Akashi Kaikyo Bridge *(Popular Science)* tunneling under buildings (tech. journal) global warming *(Nat'l Geographic)* phytocover (tech. journal)	a) content worksheets b) vocab /grammar WS c) summary writing d) self-paced reading
	Civil Eng'g '00	stained glass window preservation *(gen.sci)* dynamics (college intro textbook) TBA	a) content worksheets b) vocab / grammar WS c) summary writing d) student presentations
	Env'n Eng'g '99	population & food supply (*Nat'l Geogr.*) cloning (general science) causes of global warming (*Nat'l Geogr.*) rain forests (general science)	a) content WS b) vocab / grammar WS c) self-paced reading d) extensive vocab lists
	Chem Eng'g '00	atomic structure periodic table etc. (excerpts from science encyclopedia)	a) short texts b) vocabulary c) sentence structure
task-centered	Mech Eng'g '99 & '00	advertisements (trade mag.) conference announcements (trade mag.) instructions titles of technical articles (tech. journals)	a) short texts b) content WS c) group projects d) vocab from titles
listening-centered	Env'n Eng'g '00	Texas driver's license handbook advertisements for cars choosing classes (college catalog) registering for a conference etc.	a) listening first b) stress on words of foreign origin c) general tech. vocab

Example 2 - Mechanical Engineering class ('99): In contrast, there were less clear-cut roles for the LT and ST. The ST felt that the emphasis should be on situations students might encounter in the workplace, and a task-centered approach was chosen. The teachers had jointly planned an outline, the ST had collected possible materials, and the LT chose from them. Worksheets and other activities were primarily designed by the LT. Teachers met before beginning each new topic to discuss tasks. In class, the LT handled the overall management of the class, signaling the ST to take over at times. However, both LT and ST felt free to make spontaneous comments even while the other was holding the floor. In this class, the ST spoke primarily English (in fact, the LT sometimes asked him to translate).

The actual form that the class takes, then, seems to depend greatly upon the personalities, ideas, and interests of the two teachers, and also upon the relationship between them. As Swales notes, "So much seems to depend on the personalities

involved, on whether there is mutual educational and intellectual respect, and on circumstances that may encourage or discourage the maintenance of a team-teaching initiative" (1988:138). Thus, flexibility is required, not only from the participants, but also in the system.

REACTIONS FROM STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

Student and teacher reactions reported here are for the three '99 classes. Students were asked to fill out an anonymous questionnaire at the end of the class. When asked to rate the class compared to regular classes for difficulty, the answers varied by class, predictably, but many students ranked team-taught classes as more difficult. On the other hand, a majority of students ranked team-taught classes as more interesting, as well (see Table 2).

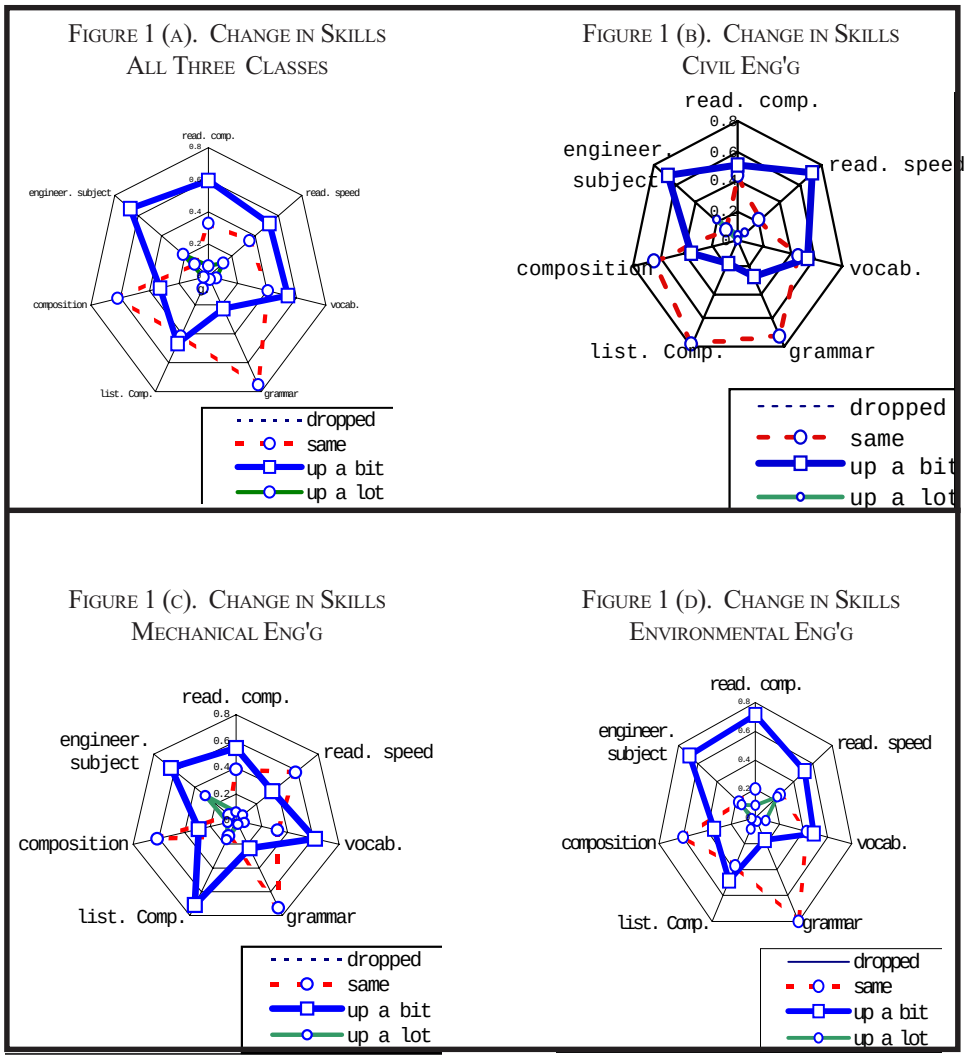
TABLE 2. STUDENT RATING OF INTEREST IN TEAM-TAUGHT CLASS COMPARED WITH REGULAR CLASS, IN PERCENT (N=97)

Class	Less	--	Same	--	More
Civil engineering	3.6	3.6	32.1	39.3	21.4
Mechanical eng'g	0.0	5.9	23.5	35.3	35.3
Environmental eng'g	5.7	2.9	42.9	31.4	17.1
Total	3.1	4.1	33.0	35.1	24.7

Free, written responses revealed that many students found the material too difficult, the homework load too heavy, wished for more extensive vocabulary lists, and wanted more detailed comprehension checks. We speculate that this last shows their insecurity with dealing with complicated material without the security of translation into Japanese. Other comments indicated that they enjoyed the new experience of a team-taught class, found it interesting to learn more about engineering through English, and felt they had made progress in their English.

Students were also asked to mark any change in their English skills that they felt were due to the class (Figures 1a-d). While this is of course a very vague and inaccurate measure, the student perceptions revealed some encouraging points. The students reported making some progress ("up a bit") in the skill areas that their teachers had intended to stress, and not unexpectedly, listening comprehension was perceived as improved by students in classes where English was spoken most. Few students felt their knowledge of grammar had increased; although English teachers had focused on several grammar points in worksheets, it was grammar in context. Perhaps these were points that students felt they were already familiar with, or possibly this treatment did not match their perception of grammar as rules written on the blackboard. Finally, in every class, students reported that they had learned something about their engineering subject, which was somewhat of a (pleasant) surprise.

FIG. 1 (A) - (D) CHANGES IN SKILLS REPORTED BY STUDENTS ('99 CLASSES)



Teachers agreed that, in many cases, the material chosen was too difficult, not simply in terms of the English involved, but the content. Students were found to have less background knowledge than had been assumed. Engineering teachers said that they were unclear at first of their role in the classroom. Being used to lecture classes, they found it hard to imagine a classroom with two teachers working together. One suggested that including more than one ST would be better, because he felt uncomfortable working with materials outside his area of specialization. Both English and engineering teachers felt that the course had had a positive effect on student motivation and interest. In addition, all teachers acknowledged that the lines of communication between English and engineering departments had been considerably strengthened.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Based on the largely positive experience in 1999, NUT has continued with the three classes, and added a fourth. Because the reading materials were felt to have been too difficult, and too dependent on relatively specialized knowledge that students turned out not to have, more general materials were chosen. Some of the teaching partners were rotated or changed, in the hope that new combinations would lead to new ideas, and to expose other teachers to the experience. The classes are no longer considered experimental, but have been incorporated into the curriculum, and we hope that other departments will participate in the future.

One direction worth future exploration is adding adjunct classes to the current independent classes, to reinforce student learning in language and in a specialized subject, while assuring that the background knowledge is available to the students. Another future project is refining materials in the hopes of producing a textbook or multimedia materials for the classes.

THE AUTHORS

Robin Nagano, an assistant professor at Nagaoka University of Technology, Japan., earned a Master of Applied Linguistics from Macquarie University. She is interested in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, and does research in vocabulary acquisition and academic writing. Email: robin@vos.nagaokaut.ac.jp

Yukie Koyama, MA TESL from University of Illinois, is an associate professor at Nagaoka University of Technology. Her interests include English for Specific Purposes and language testing. Email: koyama@vos.nagaokaut.ac.jp

REFERENCES

Adams-Smith, D. (1980). Cooperative teaching: Bridging the gap between E and SP. In *Team teaching in ESP*, (pp76-85). ELT documents 106, British Council.

Crandall, J. (1998). Collaborate and cooperate: Teacher education for integrating language and content instruction. *English Teaching Forum, 36*(1), 2-9.

Dudley-Evans, T. and St John, M. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Graham, J. & Beardsley, R. (1986). English for specific purposes: Content, language and communication in a pharmacy course model. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*(2), 227-245.

Johns, T. & Dudley-Evans, A. (1980). An experiment in team-teaching of overseas postgraduate students of transportation and plant biology. In *Team teaching in ESP*, (pp. 6-23). ELT documents 106, British Council.

Jordan, R. (1997). *English for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP Today: A Practitioner's Guide*. Hertfordshire, UK: Prentice Hall International.

Shimizu, Y., Nagano, R., & Koyama, Y. (1999). *Needs for English in the Japanese workplace: A survey of engineering graduates*. Conference presentation, 12th World Congress of Applied Linguistics (Tokyo).

Swales, J. (1988). *Episodes in ESP*. Prentice Hall.

English Learning in Vocational Universities in Taiwan

TIEN, CHING-YI
HOU, HSIAO-I
Shu-Te University

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to investigate vocational university students' attitudes and their needs with respect to English learning in southern Taiwan. The research focused on four categories: (1) student background information, (2) goals or objectives of the English program in vocational universities, (3) student's needs and learning attitudes, and (4) other factors affecting English learning, including motivation, beliefs, and learning styles.

For this study, the two participant groups included two groups of vocational university students, totaling 203 students, from a national and a private vocational university in the second-largest city in Taiwan, Kaohsiung. One questionnaire was designed for both groups to inquire into participant opinions or perceptions related to the four research focuses stated above. The data from all the questionnaires were analyzed and displayed by using frequency counts and percentages. In addition, tape-recorded oral interviews with a selected group of students, based on the questionnaire, were conducted.

INTRODUCTION

English programs in vocational universities in Taiwan are varied. In this study, we chose two vocational universities in southern Taiwan – one is a national university, the National Kaohsiung Fist University of Science and Technology (NKFUST), and the other is Shu-Te University (STU).

At Shu-Te University, the English program is a four-skills-in-one, non-major English course, which means each class has to teach four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Besides that, students who are studying at STU have to take a placement test to determine the suitable level of English classes they are to attend. According to the score on the placement test, students are placed into four different levels, which are level I (the lowest level), level II, level III, and level IV (the highest level). In addition, for the textbook selections, the school assigns textbooks for each level, which means that the teachers do not have the freedom of choosing textbooks of their preference.

At National Kaohsiung Fist University of Science and Technology, the non-major English courses are designed in a different way. It also requires students to take a placement test. After the placement test, students are also placed into four different levels: level I (the lowest level), level II, level III and level IV (the highest

level). In addition, students have to re-take the placement test every year and the school will re-place students into suitable levels. The language skills taught at NKFUST are speaking, listening, and reading. Teachers have the freedom to choose suitable textbooks for their students.

CURRICULUM DESIGN

I. The Placement Test: Both the national and private universities require students to take the placement test before schools start, and then place the students into suitable levels of English classes.

II. Level of Students

The national university (NKFUST)	The private university (STU)
All colleges	All colleges
Level 1	Level 1
Level 2	Level 2
Level 3	Level 3
Level 4	Level 4

III. Required Years of Study of Non-Major English

The national university (NKFUST)	The private university (STU)	
College of Engineering	College of Management	All colleges
3 years	1 1/2 years	6 credit hours

IV. Language Skills

The national university (NKFUST)	The private university (STU)
All colleges	All colleges
Speaking, Listening and Reading	Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing

In this study, we investigated vocational university students' attitudes and their needs with respect to English learning in southern Taiwan. The research focused on four categories:

(1) Student background information
(2) Goals or objectives of the English program in vocational universities
(3) Student's needs and learning attitudes
(4) Other factors affecting English learning, including motivation, beliefs, and learning styles.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section has been divided into three parts. Part I discusses related studies of English education in vocational universities in Taiwan. Part II focuses on current

literature relevant to program evaluation. In Part III, current literature concerning factors such as motivation and teacher language proficiency will also be discussed.

I. The English Education in Vocational Universities in Taiwan

The English programs for non-English majors (EPNMs) have always been a concern for many EFL researchers and teachers in Taiwan. Over the years, the curricula offered have consisted mainly of a required freshman English for non-English majors (FENM) course, in addition to a few other English courses for sophomores, juniors, and seniors at some universities (Su-yueh Huang, 1997). This means that the college freshman English courses are becoming more flexible in terms of curriculum design. Moreover, the Ministry of Education also announced that eight credit hours of general college English courses would be changed to six credit hours of foreign language courses (Chen, Chauo-Lan, 1993). From the mandate students were to have more freedom in taking foreign language courses because English is no longer to be a required course. Even so, most schools in Taiwan still require students to take at least six credit hours of English courses.

Since freshman English courses are compulsory at most colleges and universities in Taiwan, students' needs and attitudes are varied. Most language teachers think that students are quite passive in learning English. Sun (1993) said that students never change their poor or even bad learning habits; they never show a positive attitude towards language learning. This is true among many college students here; however, on the other hand, students who are eager to learn English do have very clear goals of what do they want to lean and what skills do they want to improve. Besides, for most students, the purpose of learning English is not only learning a language but also using the new language to communicate with others, extend public relationships and gain new knowledge (U-lin Cheng and Pay-wun Tsai, 1993). Both Chen (1993) and Yang (1993) have shown that most recipients have a highly favorable attitude toward learning English conversation and oral skills. Chen (1988) showed that 76.5% of students' needs in learning English are for the college entrance examination. Over the decades, much research has been done on examining students' learning needs and attitudes. The findings are quite the same. This paper attempts a more in-depth analysis.

II. Program Evaluation

Before discussing literature relevant to program evaluation and material selection, it may be helpful to define some terms used by various authors.

The first term is "evaluation". According to Lynch (1996), evaluation is "the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgments or decisions" (p. 2). The information can be qualitative or quantitative forms and can be gathered by methods such as tests, questionnaires, and observational data.

The second term is "material". According to Brown (1995), "materials will be defined as any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be

used in classroom teaching" (p. 139). This means materials includes all the activities, texts, audiovisual devices, and educational resources used to teach the language content and the subject matter.

Evaluation is a process of gathering information and making decisions (Brown, 1995). In recent years, Lynch (1996) has developed a program evaluation model called the context-adaptive model (CAM). As Lynch (1996) mentioned, this model is not a rigid form but a flexible and adaptable heuristic – "a starting point for inquiry into language education programs that will constantly reshape and redefine itself, depending on the context of the program and the evaluation" (p. 3).

In the Lynch model, there are six major steps:

1. Identifying audience and goal

The audience involved in the evaluation process is composed of the people who request an evaluation and people who will be affected by the evaluation. The process of identifying the audience leads to the process of identifying the goals or purpose of this evaluation. After the audience and goals are identified, the role of the evaluator can be determined.

2. Context inventory

This step is designed to help the evaluator to investigate the features of the program and its setting. This procedure acts as an early guide or indicator for the subsequent steps in the evaluation.

3. Preliminary thematic framework

From Steps 1 and 2, the evaluator probably will get too much information. Step 3 can help the evaluator to focus only on the salient issues for the evaluation and will guide the evaluator to the appropriate methods for collecting data and analyzing data procedures.

4. Designing data collecting methods

Based on the previous three steps, the evaluator has to decide what kind of methods should be used (questionnaires, tests, or interviews) and what kind of data should be gathered (quantitative and/or qualitative).

5. Collecting and analyzing data

In this step, the evaluator has to conduct an appropriate data collecting procedure and to interpret the results from the data. As Brown (1995) suggests, whether the data is quantitative or qualitative, the evaluator has to analyze it in such a way that "patterns can emerge so that sense can be made of the results and the quality of the program can be evaluated" (p.232).

6. Summarizing the evaluation report

To write a useful report, the evaluator has to be sensitive to the audience and goals of the evaluation. Sensitive issues will cause misunderstanding among the audience. Thus, Lynch (1996) suggests that the evaluator might provide different reports that focus on different aspects of the results for different audiences.

Other professional scholars in the field of program evaluation, Brown and Pennington (1991), also provide guidance for developing an effective program evaluation system for researchers, program designers, and administrators. They

suggest that an effective program evaluation will occur under the following conditions:

1. Information should be gathered from various sources, and different types of instruments should be used for data collection.
2. All parties understand that evaluation is an ongoing process. They all have the same understanding of the evaluation system and goals and objectives of the program.
3. Instructors believe that evaluation results can help them to improve their teaching, and administrators believe that the results improve educational leadership.

In this study, Lynch's model and Brown and Pennington's guidance as mentioned above were mainly adopted.

III. Characteristics Contributing to Language Learning

Many of us have gone through the process of learning a foreign language in our lives. As a result, we all have built a language learning belief system based on learning experiences, such as motivation, methodology, and materials. In his study, Wright (1987) states that there is a significant relation between the instructor and learner. If the instructor and the students share similar attitudes and beliefs, students and instructor can be motivated to learn and teach (p.11).

Another important factor linked with students' attitudes in learning style. Wright (1987) believes that if the students' learning styles do not coincide with the teaching styles, a negative learning experience will occur. In her research, Spada (1984) focuses on the relationship between learners' attitudes and instructional methodologies. Her studies show that students who were placed in classes that matched their learning styles were more successful in listening and oral achievement. In addition, students show more interest in language learning and present a much more positive attitude toward the teaching methodology.

To summarize the research results mentioned above, opportunities for learning, motivation, the relationship with the instructor, and individual differences are also important in affecting and determining success in learning.

RESEARCH METHODS

For this study, the two participant groups consisted of two groups of vocational university students, totaling 280 students, from a national and a private vocational university in the second largest city in Taiwan, Kaohsiung. One questionnaire was designed for both groups to inquire into participant opinions or perceptions related to the four research focuses stated above.

RESEARCH RESULTS

This section presents the results and findings that correspond to each set of the statistical analyses mentioned in the above section. A presentation of the results is followed by a discussion of the findings relating subject responses to the four

research questions of this study. Frequency counts and percentages form the base for analyzing the results.

I. Background Information

TABLE 1. STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION

	National University Total=89 students (43.84%)				Private University Total=114 students (56.16%)			
Sex	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	63 (32.03%)		24 (11.82%)		28(13.79%)		86(42.36%)	
Colleges	Eng.	Manag.	Social	Design	Eng.	Manag.	Social	Design
	65	24	0	0	0	67	23	24
	32.03%	11.82%	0%	0%	0%	33%	11.33%	11.82
English Ability	Low	Intermediate	High		Low	Intermediate	High	
	48	38	3		28	23	63	
	23.65%	18.72%	1.48%		13.79%	11.33%	31.03%	

(280 questionnaires were administered to students. Only 103 were returned)

Table 1 shows that, of the total of 203 subjects, approximately 56% of the subjects are from the private university and 44 % of the subjects are from the national university. Students in private university are from Management, Social Science and Design colleges. Students in the national university are from the engineering and management colleges. There are subjects in all the different English proficiency levels. Most Taiwanese college students have learned English for over six years, from junior high school years to university years. In addition, some students have learned English for over 10 years. Some students have learned English since elementary school years.

II. Goals and Objectives

TABLE 2. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THEIR OWN GOAL OR OBJECTIVE IN LEARNING ENGLISH

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
I don't have the choice because it is part of the curriculum	40	19.7%	9	4.43%
To prepare for my future job	40	19.7%	40	19.7%
To prepare for studying aboard in the future	3	1.48%	12	5.91%
To be able to read professional textbooks in English	7	3.44%	2	0.99%
English is an international language, so everyone should learn it	34	16.75%	50	24.63%
Other	1	0.5%	1	0.5%

This data shows that 41% of the total survey population stated that English is an international language and everyone should learn it. In addition, 39% of the subjects claimed that they learn English to prepare for a future job.

TABLE 3. STUDENT OPINIONS ON WHETHER THE GOALS OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM MATCH THEIR OWN GOALS

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	60	29.56%	70	34.48%
No	29	14.29%	44	21.67%

According to Table 3, around 65% of the subjects agreed that the English classes provided by their school match their own goal or objective. The other 35% of the subjects did not agree with this statement.

III. Student Needs and Learning Attitudes

TABLE 4. THE IMPACT OF THE ENGLISH COURSE ON STUDENTS

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
No impact	27	13.30%	19	9.36%
I am learning another language	48	23.65%	55	27.09%
I feel more pressure now than before	12	5.91%	36	17.73%
Other	2	0.99%	4	1.97%

Regarding the impact of the English course on students, the majority of the subjects stated that they are learning a new language now. In addition, about 23% of the subjects reported that they feel more pressure now than before. Around 22% of the subjects reported that the school English program does not have any impact on them.

TABLE 5. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE MAJOR FOCUS FOR THE SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAM

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English for daily life	82	40.39%	99	48.77%
Academic English	3	1.48%	4	1.97%
Professional English related to my major	3	1.48%	10	4.93%
English literature	1	0.49%	1	0.49%
Other	0	0%	0	0%

Most students believed that the school English program should focus on English used in daily life. Around 6% of the subjects hoped that the school program could focus on professional English related to their own majors.

TABLE 6. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTOR THAT INFLUENCES THEIR ENGLISH LEARNING

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Teacher's teaching methods	24	11.82%	28	13.79%
The curriculum and materials	3	1.48%	8	3.94%
My own interests and needs	61	30.05%	76	37.44%
Other	1	0.49%	2	0.99 %

Around 68% of the subjects stated that the most important factor affecting their English learning is their own interests and needs. In addition, 25% of the subjects reported that the teacher's teaching methods is the most important factor influencing their English learning.

TABLE 7. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE MOST DIFFICULT PART FOR THEIR ENGLISH LEARNING

	National University		Private University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Vocabulary	19	9.36%	36	17.73%
Grammar	15	7.39%	35	17.24%
Pronunciation	32	15.76%	17	8.37%
Lack of interest	14	6.90%	11	5.42%
The use of strategies	7	3.45%	14	6.90%
Other	2	0.99%	1	0.49%

Taiwanese vocational university students reported that for them vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are the most difficult areas in learning English.

TABLE 8. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE PLACEMENT TEST, HAVING MORE ENGLISH HOURS IN SCHOOL, AND THE CLASS SIZE

	National University		Private University	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Are you satisfied with the English placement system conducted by your school?	71 34.98%	18 8.87%	65 39.41%	49 16.74%
Would you like to have more English classes in school per week?	50 24.63%	39 19.21%	40 19.70%	74 36.46%
Are you satisfied with the English class size in your school?	48 23.65%	41 20.20%	61 30.05%	53 26.1%

Table 8 shows that most of the students have positive attitudes toward the placement test which was conducted by their school. Around 55% of the students did not wish to have more English classes per week. Also, 54% of the students stated that they thought the school's English class size was too large.

TABLE 9. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE MATERIALS CHOSEN AND USED BY THEIR TEACHERS

	National University		Private University	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Are you satisfied with the teaching materials chosen and used by your teacher?	61 30.05%	28 13.79%	65 32.02%	49 24.14%
Do you agree that the teaching materials used by your teacher match your needs in learning English	55 27.09%	34 16.75%	57 28.08%	57 28.08%
Do you agree that the teaching materials used by your teacher match your proficiency level?	62 30.54%	27 13.3%	71 34.98%	43 21.18%
Are you satisfied with your teacher's teaching methods?	80 39.41%	9 4.43%	95 46.8%	19 9.36%
Overall, are you satisfied with your school's English program?	75 36.95%	14 6.9%	77 37.93%	37 18.22%

As for the materials that were chosen by the teachers, most students were satisfied with the materials. In addition, the students were satisfied with their teacher's teaching methods. Overall, students were satisfied with the school's English program.

IV. Other Factors

TABLE 10. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE MOST EFFECTIVE WAY TO LEARN ENGLISH

	National University	Private University
Listen to English songs	19 (9.36%)	19 (9.36%)
Watch movies	25 (12.32%)	44 (21.67%)
Read English magazines or newspapers	8 (3.94%)	13 (6.4%)
Use the Internet	0 (0%)	3 (1.48%)
Practice with a native speaker of English1	4 (6.9%)	17 (8.37%)
Listen to the radio programs or watch English programs on TV	17 (8.37%)	13 (6.4%)
Go to a language school in an English- speaking country	6 (2.96%)	5 (2.46%)
other	0	0

Taiwanese vocational university students surveyed stated that they prefer to learn English by watching movies and listening to music.

TABLE 11A. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE LANGUAGE THAT THE TEACHER SHOULD USE IN ENGLISH CLASSES

	National University	Private University
Mainly English	4 (23.65%)	50 (24.63%)
Mainly Chinese	7 (3.37%)	9 (4.43%)
Both equally	34 (16.35%)	55 (27.09%)

TABLE 11B. STUDENT OPINIONS REGARDING THE TEACHER' S FOCUS

	National University	Private University
Listening	42 (20.82%)	25 (12.62%)
Conversation	42 (20.82%)	64 (31.53%)
Reading	1 (0.49%)	10 (4.93%)
English structure and grammar	3 (1.48%)	11 (5.42%)
Writing	1 (0.49%)	4 (1.97%)

Around 48% of the subjects reported that they thought their English teachers should mainly use English in the class. On the other hand, 43% of the subjects stated that their English teachers should use equal amounts of Chinese and English in the class. Furthermore, over 50% of the subjects responded that their teachers should focus mainly on English conversation.

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this section is to put forth some conclusions concerning the major findings of this study. Next, some pedagogical implications for English learning and teaching in vocational universities in Taiwan are proposed. Finally, some suggestions for future relevant research are made.

Conclusions

This study aims at investigating the current situation of English learning and teaching in two vocational universities in southern Taiwan. Based on the reflections of the students in the questionnaires, four major findings corresponding to four research questions were found.

First of all, most young Taiwanese college students have learned English for more than six years. Their English learning experiences were very different. Some had studied it in private English institutions and some had studied it in secondary schools, such as junior and senior high schools. Thus, among young Taiwanese college students, English abilities are varied because of their different learning experiences and the number of years they have studied the language.

Secondly, most students agreed that the goals of the current English program at school matched their own goals of learning English. However, the students'

own goals varied. Some reported that their goal was to prepare for future jobs. Some reported that English is an international language, thus everyone should learn it. In addition, it seemed that the English course had a positive influence on most students. Half (50%) of the students reported that the major influence of their English classes was that they learned a new language.

Thirdly, the students were fairly satisfied with the teaching materials that were chosen by their English teachers. The students' main learning objective was focused on listening and speaking skills. In addition, most students (89%) reported that they wanted the school's English program to focus on English for daily use and professional English related to their majors.

Lastly, some other crucial factors of college student English learning were investigated to assess the motivation and opinions of the students. It was found that:

1. The current class size for the English classes is too large.
2. The students agreed that the current instruction time in English courses at school was sufficient.
3. Approximately half of the students agreed that their teachers should mainly use English in class.
4. Students preferred that their teachers focus on English conversational skills.
5. Around 35% of the students believed that watching movies and listening to English songs would be the best way to learn English.

In summary, the formative evaluation of the English program, through the opinion survey, shows the current situation of English education in two vocational universities in southern Taiwan. Every aspect of the evaluation suggests that students were satisfied with the English program. Each fact of the formative evaluation provided insight as to how the expectations of students might be met. In an attempt to improve the English program at vocational universities in Taiwan, the following implications and recommendations are put forward.

Implications and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, four pedagogical implications and recommendations for young college students in vocational universities in Taiwan are put forward.

1. Teachers should adopt appropriate teaching materials and make good use of teaching aids. The use of one set of textbooks throughout the country has been a traditional source of guidance for classes. Therefore, the selections of teaching materials by teachers are very important. At best, teaching materials and aids must be varied to reinforce what is to be taught.
2. Teachers have to pay more attention to what their students are interested in and what their needs are so as to modify and evaluate their own teaching at

any time. To motivate college students and to achieve their communication goals are the most important tasks for teachers in vocational universities. Therefore, it is hoped that teachers reexamine their understanding of how to teach adult English appropriately and effectively.

3. The teachers' communication abilities affect the establishment of an authentic language learning environment as well as success in achieving a communication goal. Therefore, teachers have to establish an authentic environment of speaking and listening.
4. An English placement test for most vocational universities and colleges in Taiwan is strongly recommended. Since English proficiency levels of the college students studied are so diverse, developing a placement test can help the English teacher to effectively implement proper materials for classes. At the same time, teachers are empowered to manage their teaching in every aspect. If teachers are able to teach students of a similar level, then their lesson plans and teaching objectives can be developed accordingly.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study has yield several findings regarding the current conditions of English learning in two vocational universities in southern Taiwan. It is hoped that the findings can serve as a reference for future research on college student English education in Taiwan. These suggestions for further research are presented in the following:

1. *Population of subjects*
   In this study, the subjects were limited to two vocational universities in the second largest city in Taiwan. However, students of other areas, such as Taipei and Taichung, should also be investigated to understand the current implementation of English education at vocational universities in Taiwan as a whole.

2. *Other assessing instruments*
   In addition to using questionnaires, classroom observation and interviews with teachers and parents may be adopted in any future study. This method of probing into a greater range of related opinions can provide a wider variety and more objective views of English education in Taiwan.

3. *Length of research process*
   The time that elapsed in conducting this study was about four months. If more time had been available, more information could have been provided by subjects about the situation of English education. Future research should be conducted over a longer period of time. One year or more is suggested.

In conclusion, it is hoped that this evaluation may contribute in a modest way to the design and expansion of the English program in Taiwan in the future.

THE AUTHORS

Ching-Yi Tien and Hsiao-I Hou are currently English instructors of the College of General Education at Shu-Te University in Taiwan. Their current research focuses on English program evaluation and computer assisted language learning. Email: t2929@mail.stu.edu.tw and hsiao@mail.stu.edu.tw

REFERENCES

Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Brown, J. D. & Pennington, M. (1991). Developing effective evaluation systems for language programs. In M. Pennington (ed.), *Building better English language programs: Perspectives on evaluation in ESL* (pp.3-18). Washington, DC: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 331 285).

Chen, Chauo-Lan (1993). Where does freshmen English go from now? *Papers from the Tenth Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 521-528). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Chen, Ming-Hwa (1988). Question discussion between vocational and non-vocational schools English teaching. *Papers from the Fourth Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 131-138). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Cheng, U-lin & Tsai, Pay-un (1993). The comparison of English learning attitude and methods between English major students and Medicine major students. *Papers from the Tenth Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 451-475). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Huang, Su-yueh (1997). Changes in freshmen English programs for non-English majors at Universities in Taiwan. *The Proceedings of the Sixth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 305-321). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Sun, T. W. (1993). Values and attitudes in foreign language teaching. *Papers from the Tenth Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 379-396). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Lynch, B. K. (1996). *Language Program Evaluation.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Spada, N. (1984). *The interaction between the type of instructional and second language proficiency.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto.

Wright, P. C. (1987). *Roles of teachers and learners.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yang, Y. L. (1993). Problems in freshmen English teaching. *Papers from the Second Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 109-117). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.

Developing Job-oriented Material for Group Learning

ZAIRA UTEBAYEVA
Kazakhstan Institute of Management, Economics and Strategic Research

ABSTRACT

Having no special training in particular job areas, the EFL teacher usually faces a lot of problems in conducting vocational courses. One of them is the absence of an appropriate job-oriented textbook that could be of great use for the teacher, and effective for ESP students. Available authentic materials are not tailored for group practice and therefore don't facilitate language learning. In this situation students can be motivated to produce textbook units for themselves. I involved my students in a writing project called "Designing the ESP Coursebook". Authentic texts in accounting were abridged and arranged into paragraphs, synonyms were substituted for unknown words, active vocabulary was elicited and a number of tasks were composed to consolidate the material and to discuss the theme.

INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a new subject in Kazakhstan. Because ESP is still developing, there is a lack of good teaching materials. Materials that are well written are often very expensive, and therefore, not affordable. In order for teachers to prepare students for specific jobs, they need to be creative with limited resources. The material that I now present is a result of my struggle to develop instructional material with limited resources.

There is a Russian proverb that states: "There would not be happiness, without unhappiness." This means that unhappy things often bring about changes for the better. I faced such a situation while teaching my junior students. I had a very hard-working group that was motivated and had a high level of English. They demonstrated their expertise when discussing certain problems in accounting and were able to express their opinions. They argued with me on economic issues, and sometimes won. They were very proud of themselves. I was proud too, because they forgot that I was an English teacher, not a teacher of Economics. During this period of time, we completed several excellent economics books.

In the third year, a decision was made to add another term of English. This was a good decision, because in the third year, the students are divided into groups according to their major. My group specialized in Accounting. We had completed the economic books the year before, and had no available textbooks on accounting. I found a general textbook on economics from which we studied one unit. However, the rest of the units were not interesting, because they were not related to their major.

THE PROCESS

I was really frustrated and didn't know what to do. Then one incident made me realize that something needed to be done. During a lesson, I found my best student reading a book that had nothing to do with the class I was teaching. I was upset and hurt that he was so bored with this class that he didn't want to participate, but I understood, because the material wasn't appropriate.

I had much authentic material, so I decided to have my students use this material to develop their own textbook units and to present them to their classmates. I called this project, "Designing a Textbook in Accounting."

The following strategies for the project were suggested:

I. Choose a topic and break into groups
II. Develop a unit based upon the topic
III. Proofread the material
IV. Prepare students for presentations
V. Present the projects
VI. Evaluate the projects
VII. Revise the unit

I. Choose a topic and break into groups

At the beginning of this project, the students were informed of the reason for this task - the absence of a textbook in accounting. Then my expected outcome was explained - the students would present the material. The students received material on certain topics, and then they divided into groups according to the topic they had chosen. (Or they could divide into groups and then chose a topic.) I didn't limit the number of group members. Next, each group member was assigned one of the following responsibilities: an editor, a reviser, a typist, an artist, a proof-reader, and a facilitator. This encouraged student involvement and cooperation.

II. Develop a unit based upon the topic

This was the most difficult, but the most important part. First, the students read through the given authentic material. Next, they decided how they wanted to present the material. Then they condensed the material, preserving the main ideas. Each unit included the following:

1. Vocabulary with definitions in English or translations into the native language for terms that were very difficult to define
2. Exercises which reinforced vocabulary
3. Warm-up activities that prepared students for the reading by relating what they already knew about the topic. Brainstorming or asking questions about the topic could do this.

4. Comprehension questions on the text, matching exercises, paraphrasing, writing a paragraph, cloze exercises, etc.
5. Other tasks: drawing charts, finding synonyms, selecting true or false for statements, re-using vocabulary, writing an outline, etc.
6. Answer keys

III. Proofread the material

Proofreading the material was a significant stage of the work. One student was responsible for it; however, other team members also helped. This was done at the end of each stage of the work. The final proofreading followed evaluation. At this stage, I shared the responsibility by checking the work thoroughly.

IV. Prepare students for presentations

Until this point, I stayed "behind the scenes", acting as an assistant to the students. Before the presentation, however, I recognized that students needed some help preparing for their presentations, so I shared some professional secrets and teaching skills with them. I showed them how to plan and structure the presentation, how to use their voice and body language effectively, when to introduce photos, pictures, tapes, etc. I also showed them in what order their presentations should be done.

Two sessions of training in presentation skills was done as an extra-curricular activity, because we did not have enough classroom time. In the first session, I trained the whole group. In the second session, teams or team members came to ask for advice. At these individual tutorials, I helped the students to complete their tasks, answered their questions, and checked their work.

V. Present the projects

After the projects were approved, the presentations took place. Each team had an hour and twenty minutes for their presentation. Usually, one student would teach the lesson while the other members assisted him by explaining the assignments, distributing papers, and facilitating pair discussions. This activity was challenging, but rewarding for the students.

It was interesting for me to watch the students during their presentations, because they did not behave as they usually did. They were active, supportive, and excited about learning English. They helped and encouraged each other. They came prepared for the lessons. They didn't deviate from the theme. They listened attentively. They not only paid attention to how the material was designed, but also to the way the presentation was conducted. Finally, their attitudes towards the teacher and their studies changed for the better.

It was an excellent example of cooperative learning. They collaborated while developing the material for the lesson. Then they saw the immediate results of their team work.

VI. Evaluate the projects

At the end of every presentation, the students were given the homework to evaluate the project. This type of evaluation developed critical thinking skills. They wrote thorough evaluations based upon the following two points:

1. The content and quality of the project
2. The presentation of the team

In the content and quality section, the students pointed out what they liked most about the presentation, what they found difficult to do or to understand, which tasks they thought were appropriate, and whether or not the presentation should be structured differently.

In the presentation section, the students evaluated how the presenters conducted the lesson, how they used their voice and their body language, how they cooperated with one another, and how professionally they acted during their presentations.

VII. Revise the unit

The presenters collected the comments from their fellow students, revised their projects based on these comments, and handed in a final copy for the teacher. Files of the projects were compiled to be used by future students.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the whole project exceeded my expectations. The texts were oriented to the students' future jobs and revealed current developments in their field of study. They were highly motivated and actively involved in the process of learning. Even the weakest students participated. The teams competed with one another to do better presentations. At the same time the team members cooperated with one another. They practiced teamwork for the first time and succeeded. They enjoyed the process and were eager to develop other projects.

Many new ideas occurred to me later. The project could have been more effective had we videotaped the lessons, recorded texts that were used, devised tasks for oral comprehension, or used the Internet as a resource. More exercises could have been added, and the presentation skills could have been further developed.

The Kazakhs say, "You cry while digging a well, but you laugh when you drink water from it." This was a very difficult experience for me, but after seeing the final results, I was greatly satisfied. It was worth all the effort. I would highly recommend this method to any teacher.

THE AUTHOR

Dr. Utebayeva is currently a language instructor at her institute. She was the Head of the Foreign Languages Department at the Kazakh State Academy of Management (6 years) and the Kazakh State University (4 years). Her areas of interest are Communicative Method and BE teaching. She takes an active part in activities of the Almaty Teachers of English Association. Her latest publications are 500 tests in English *(Almaty, 2000) and* Communicative Method in Teaching Languages: Pros and Cons *(Almaty, 1999). E-mail: zaira@kimep.kz*

REFERENCES

Kral, T. (1994). *Teacher Development/Making the Right Moves.* Washington, D.C: United States Information Agency.

Harmer, J. (1998). *How to Teach English.* Great Britain: Longman.

Hutchinson, T. and Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes.* Cambridge: Cambridge Press.

Moussa, D. (1996). Listening: homework and simulation: using student provided material in class. *English Teaching Forum, 34* (3-4), 88-89.

Spiropoulou, M. (1996). Producing ESP materials: from the first draft to the final product. *English Teaching Forum, 34* (3-4), 70-71.

Tomlinson, Brain. (1996). Affect and the course book. *IATEFL Issues, 145*, 20-21.

Symposium, Workshop & Guided Discussions Reports

Symposium on English Pronunciation

DAVID D. I. KIM (Reporter)
Yonsei University

ABSTRACT

Proper pronunciation is an important goal for EFL/ESL students and teachers. To achieve it, they need accurate and reliable assessments of pronunciation characteristics to identify inaccuracies and measure improvement. To this end the symposium discussed several past and ongoing research studies that assess pronunciation of English by Korean students. The first study examined specific pronunciation features from the standpoint of intra-assessor reliability, whereas subsequent research built upon the earlier foundation to examine inter-assessor reliability and assessment of English pronunciation features by native speakers of Korean. In addition, results from a newly developed pronunciation test were shown, including its application.

INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, a shift in emphasis from traditional areas in language learning (grammar, reading, and writing), to the teaching of communicative skills (especially oral proficiency), has brought pronunciation issues to the forefront in Korea. In addition to enhancing understanding, the ability to pronounce well brings additional benefits. As Kim and Margolis (1999) note, good pronunciation leads to increased self-esteem and confidence, promotes enthusiasm for learning the English language, and facilitates listening comprehension, speech production and communicative interaction. Students who are able to produce "good" English pronunciation feel better about themselves, are more motivated to learn English, hear and speak more English, and to engage others in English conversation.

Teachers of English, therefore, want to ensure they teach their students good pronunciation techniques, give effective guidance and feedback, and use correct methods of assessment. Those who are non-native speakers of English are especially sensitive to pronunciation issues, and strive to use the 'best models' for their students.[1] However, although correct pronunciation is understandably important as a communicative skill, mastery by students does not ensure overall communicative competence, nor does it necessarily indicate overall ability to teach the English language.

Given the importance of developing proper pronunciation skills, a question that arises is "How can EFL students improve their English pronunciation?" Although there is an abundance of activities, techniques, and programs to guide both teachers and learners,[2] the effectiveness of these methods has not been examined. Empirical, systematic methods that investigate pronunciation improvement must therefore be introduced.

To this end, the Symposium on English Pronunciation provided summaries of four separate empirical studies that assessed English pronunciation. These were: 1) "A Statistical Interpretation of Student Pronunciation Patterns", by Dr. Peter Nelson at Chung Ang University; 2) "Development of an English Pronunciation Test (EPT) for Korea", by David D. I. Kim at Yonsei University and Douglas P. Margolis at Dong Seoul College; 3) "Validation of the English Pronunciation Test – EPT", by Prudence W. Brooks at Youngdong University and Tory S. Thorkelson at Hanyang University; and 4) "Assessment of English Pronunciation by Non-Native English Speakers", by Sangdo Woo at Kongju National University of Education and Hyang Sook Lee at Yeojoo Technical College.

The symposium addressed the following research questions:

- Can native English-speaking teachers assess English pronunciation well?
- What aspects of English pronunciation can/should be assessed?
- Are intra- and inter-assessments reliable and consistent?
- Can native Korean teachers assess English pronunciation consistently?

1. A Statistical Interpretation of Student Pronunciation Patterns

(Dr. Peter Nelson)

The first speaker presented findings from an earlier study (Nelson, 1998) concerning his assessment of Korean student pronunciation characteristics. Specifically, he examined the degree to which teachers can "… effectively and consistently evaluate speaking characteristics of students in extensive connected speech …." Nelson was therefore concerned with intra-assessor test reliability: whether teachers evaluating the same material more than once achieve similar results.

Nelson's (1998) earlier study assessed several features of English pronunciation: overall naturalness, consonant articulation, vowel articulation, word stress, intonation, and rhythm. These features were evaluated separately on a 0-100 scale after listening to each student's identical reading of two short passages. In addition, he aggregated all specific-feature scores to yield a total (sum) score.

Nelson (1998) found high correlations when total scores from the first and second readings were examined, thus demonstrating intra-assessor reliability. However, correlations were lower when individual phonetic features, such as vowel or consonant articulation, were isolated and tested. These observations led him to conclude that teachers can accurately use macro-indicators for grading purposes, such as fluency or naturalness, but should use micro-indicators, such as consonant pronunciation, for qualitative evaluations only.

2. Development of an English Pronunciation Test (EPT) for Korea

(David D. I. Kim and Douglas P. Margolis)

The researchers presented findings from their research study (Kim & Margolis, 1999) pertaining to development of a new English Pronunciation Test (EPT) for Korea.

Although it was based upon Nelson's (1998) study, it made several improvements. First, they developed a new script-for-reading (Appendix A) specifically designed to assess targeted pronunciation features. Second, they incorporated an *inter-assessor* component (in addition to intra-assessor) into the research design. Third, they added additional pronunciation features (first language interference, past tense/plural morphology, and word endings) and tighter operational definitions for each pronunciation feature. Last, they included specific samples within each of the pronunciation feature categories to allow greater acuity and accuracy within measurement categories.

Procedurally, Korean students read the script-for-reading onto cassette-tapes. Two assessors then individually assessed the readings on two separate occasions one to four weeks apart. Scores for each of the pronunciation features were aggregated to derive total scores for each assessment period, and were used for analyses.

Their results showed high correlations between first and second total assessment scores for both assessors, demonstrating intra-assessor reliability. There were also high correlations between assessors on both first and second assessments, demonstrating inter-assessor reliability. Accordingly, they stated these outcomes enabled their test to be used in the classroom to consistently assess English pronunciation of Korean students. In addition, because the test targeted each pronunciation feature separately using specific samples, it permitted a highly detailed assessment.

3. Validation of the English Pronunciation Test – EPT

(Dr. Prudence W. Brooks and Tory S. Thorkelson)

The researchers presented findings from their own work that partially replicated Kim and Margolis's (1999) study, stating their main purpose was to provide independent validation of it. Both analysts were native English speakers who individually assessed subsets of the original sample used by Kim and Margolis.

They followed the same procedures as Kim and Margolis, examining both intra- and inter-assessor reliabilities. Their results also showed high correlations between total scores, essentially verifying the earlier findings and giving support to the test developed by Kim and Margolis (Appendix A).

4. Assessment of English Pronunciation by Non-Native English Speakers

(Sangdo Woo and Hyang Sook Lee)

The researchers presented findings from their own study that partly replicated the work of Kim and Margolis (1999). Both are native Korean speakers with pronunciation assessment experience. Their main purpose was to show that native Korean speakers also could assess English pronunciation accurately and consistently.

Using a subset from the Kim and Margolis study, Woo and Lee also followed identical testing procedures as they did to examine both intra- and inter-assessor

reliabilities. They also found high correlations between total scores, providing statistical evidence that native Korean speakers are able to assess English pronunciation of Korean students using tests and procedures developed by Kim and Margolis. In their view, given the language differences between native and non-native speakers of English, it was an important finding that non-native speakers could achieve assessment results similar to those of native speakers.

DISCUSSION

The four presentations in the symposium addressed the following research questions.

Can native English-speaking teachers assess English pronunciation well?

It is often difficult to evaluate extended and connected speech in detail because of the rapid stream of auditory information reaching a listener. Evaluators often compensate by forming general impressions of what is, and what is not, "good" pronunciation. However, findings from the presentations above clearly show it is possible for native speakers of English to achieve accurate, consistent, and extensive assessments of English pronunciation by Korean students.

What aspects of English pronunciation can/should be assessed?

Each language has a unique configuration of pronunciation features that overlap with other languages. For example, some phonetic and prosodic features in Korean also exist in English (e.g. consonant and vowel articulations and, to a lesser degree, intonation patterns). However, L1 pronunciation features that do not overlap with L2 are most difficult for L2 students to pronounce, and for this reason should be targeted for assessment. Examples of cross-referenced, vowel and consonant minimal-pair contrasts by selected languages are available in Nilsen and Nilsen (1987), while prosodic pronunciation features in English are available in Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) and Laroy (1995). While indexed references are helpful, a trained teacher is useful for on-site identification and articulation of pronunciation features that do not overlap.

Highlights from the above presentations identified consonant and vowel articulation, word stress, intonation and rhythm. However, they also included first language interference, word endings, and past tense/plural morphology. In the view of these presentations, all these features could and should be investigated to develop a comprehensive inventory of non-overlapping pronunciation features between English and Korean.

Are intra- and inter-assessor assessments reliable and consistent?

Replicated, confirmed findings suggest high assessor reliability characteristics, regardless whether one assessor examines the same material two or more times, or different assessors review identical material. The studies above, however, used

a time period of one to four weeks between assessments. Future studies should examine whether similar patterns arise for longer time periods between assessments.

Can native Korean speakers assess English pronunciation consistently?

The studies above suggest native Korean speakers evaluate English pronunciation similar to native speakers of English. This is an important finding, although Korean assessors who participated in the study have had prolonged exposure to the English language as well as extensive interaction with native speakers of English. Future studies should examine whether Korean teachers with less exposure, interaction and testing experience are equally able to assess English pronunciation.

OTHER PRONUNCIATION ISSUES

Improving methods that target English pronunciation

Empirical studies provide systematic methods to establish activities, techniques, and programs that target pronunciation improvements. Their results help identify the efficacy of different methods, thereby assisting researchers develop better pronunciation tests. Moreover, empirical studies can reduce overlap between tests, as well as extend their range.

Prioritizing pronunciation features

Korean students often find some pronunciation features of English more difficult to learn than others, especially those concerning intonation and rhythm (Nelson, 2000). Future studies should examine these broader issues to examine their role in the language acquisition process, and to help researchers and teachers determine which pronunciation features should receive priority in the teaching of English.

Machine-based analyses of pronunciation

Computer software programs are now available that assess pronunciation characteristics. Although they are limited in application and accuracy, both researchers and teachers need to be informed of developments in language recognition programs.

CONCLUSION

Most EFL/ESL learners and teachers strive for proper English pronunciation, and numerous teaching methods are available to help them achieve this goal. Many have not been empirically tested, however, and are therefore limited in assessment reliability. Assessment tools that are both objective and context independent are needed to verify their usefulness in the classroom. Our symposium provided a

forum for discussion of these issues as well as a platform for presentation of research findings.

The English Pronunciation Test (EPT), presented by Kim and Margolis in this symposium, is one method to assess pronunciation. It can be used both to assess instructional methods and to isolate pronunciation areas that Korean students should target for improvement. It assesses individual pronunciation features with great specificity, and also evaluates intra-and inter-assessor reliability. Finally, native and non-native speakers of English speakers can use the EPT alike to identify and improve their listening abilities.

ENDNOTES

1. Dickey and Han (1999) argue that given the contextualized nature of communicative activities in the classroom, pronunciation difficulties may be downplayed by teachers because the likelihood of confusion from mispronunciation is minimized. In a decontextualized setting, however, chances for miscommunication increase, especially for beginners having little command of important grammatical features (lexical, syntactic, morphological and semantic) that normally provide interactive cues.

2. Two types of pronunciation material are available for students and teachers: activities, techniques, and programs that target improvement of pronunciation (e.g. Baker & Goldstein, 1990; Brazil, 1994; Dale, 1996; Hancock, 1995; Hewings & Goldstein, 1998; Pronunciation Power 1 & 2 [Computer software], 1999); and those that offer theoretical perspectives (e.g. Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994; Kenworthy, 1987; Kreidler, 1989; Lane, 1997; Laroy, 1995; Prator & Robinett, 1985; Roach, 1983; Underhill, 1994).

THE REPORTER

David D. I. Kim has been teaching English in Korea since 1995; his last position was at Kookmin University in Seoul. Presently he is pursuing a Ph.D. at Yonsei University, in the Department of English Language and Literature. His teaching and research interests include cross-cultural issues in language learning, and development of language assessment tools (e.g. pronunciation) and teaching methodology. His bilingual (English and Korean) abilities and bicultural experiences provide experiential foundation for understanding the interactive dynamics of language and culture. Email: kdi@yonsei.ac.kr

I wish to thank all the presenters who participated in the symposium. It is hoped that their contributions will add to the overall quality of English language education in Korea. In addition, a note of appreciation to Dr. Peter Nelson, for lending his editing skills to the final version of this paper.

Email Contacts for the Presenters:

Dr. Peter Nelson – Chung Ang University. Email: peternel@cau.ac.kr
David D. I. Kim – Yonsei University. Email: kdi@yonsei.ac.kr
Douglas P. Margolis – Dong Seoul College. Email: dpm@teacher.com
Dr. Prudence W. Brooks – Youngdong University. Email: summerbrooks@hotmail.com
Tory S. Thorkelson – Hanyang University. Email: thorkor@hotmail.com
Dr. Sangdo Woo – Kongju National University of Education. Email: woosd@kongjuw2.kongju-e.ac.kr
Hyang Sook Lee – Yeojoo Technical College. Email: hsl007@hanmail.net

REFERENCES

Baker, A., & Goldstein, S. (1990). *Pronunciation pairs: An introductory course for students of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brazil, D. (1994). *Pronunciation for advanced learners of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D. M., & Goodwin, J. M. (1996). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference for teachers of English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dalton, C., & Seidlhofer, B. (1994). *Pronunciation*. Tokyo: Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dickey, R. J. & Han, S. H. (1999). Classroom English for enhancing student learning. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, *2*(1), 43-51. Teajon, Korea: Korea TESOL.

Hancock, M. (1995). *Pronunciation games*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hewings, M., & Goldstein, S. (1998). *Pronunciation plus: Practice through interaction.* NY: Cambridge University Press.

Kenworthy, J. (1987). *Teaching English pronunciation*. NY: Longman Inc.

Kim, D. D. I., & Margolis, D. P. (1999). Teaching English pronunciation to Koreans: Development of the English pronunciation test – EPT. *KOTESOL Proceedings PAC2, 1999: The Second Pan Asian Conference.*

Kreidler, C. W. (1989). *The pronunciation of English: A course book in phonology*. NY: Basil Blackwell Inc.

Lane, L. (1997). *Basics in pronunciation: Intermediate practice for clear communication*. NY: Longman.

Laroy, C. (1995). *Pronunciation*. Tokyo: Oxford University Press.

Nelson, P. E. (1998). Student pronunciation: A comparison of evaluation techniques. *The Korea TESOL Journal, 1*(1), 19-30.

Nelson, P. (2000, Sep.). Teaching stress, intonation, & rhythm. Paper presentation at *The Korea TESOL Eighth Annual International Conference and Publishers' Exhibition-Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning*. Teagu, South Korea (September 30-October 1).

Nilsen, D. L. F., & Nilsen, A. P. (1987). *Pronunciation contrasts in English*. NJ: Prentice Hall.

Prator, C. H. Jr., & Robinett, B. W. (1985). *Manual of American English pronunciation, 4th Ed*. Tokyo: Harcourt Brace & Company.

Pronunciation Power 1 & 2 [Computer software]. (1999). Calgary, Alberta: English Computerized Learning Inc.

Roach, P. (1983). *English phonetics and phonology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Underhill, A. (1994). *Sound foundations*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Exploring Title in Gendered Language

BETH ELLEN BARRY
Kanda University of International Studies

ABSTRACT

For Korean and Japanese students of English as a Foreign/Second Language correctly using the title "Ms." versus "Mrs." or "Miss" can be a confusing process. Many native English-speaking women teachers have found it difficult to communicate to their students their preference for the title "Ms." instead of "Miss" or "Mrs." Typically, most of these teachers give up instead of insisting on the title they prefer. As those participating in the KOTESOL 2000 discussion *Gendered Language and ESL Instruction* discovered, cross-cultural mixed messages could lie at the core of this problem. Exploring this issue, participants touched on the evolution of women's titles in English-speaking cultures as they relate to Korean and Japanese cultures. Looking for a bridge to help students cross from one titling system to another, strategies were suggested for teaching towards understanding the social realities that influence the titles women choose.

On July 19, 1999, Carleton (Carly) S. Fiorina was named the new president and chief executive officer of Hewlett-Packard Company. With this appointment, she became the first woman to head the No. 2 computer company in the world and to run the largest public corporation. Unlike her male counterparts, whose gender would not prompt questions as to how they would be addressed, Fiorina's sex made the question of title a national news story in the United States. Although Fiorina explained to the press, "my gender is interesting, but really not the subject of the story here"(*Online U.S. News*, p. 3), her sex was and continues to be the subject of the story. On September 22, 2000 when Fiorina was named to the board of directors of Hewlett-Packard Company, *The New York Times* headline read "President to Add Title of Chairwoman"(*The New York Times on the Web, Archives*). However, Hewlett-Packard's press release used the title "Chairman." When I called Hewlett-Packard Company's corporate offices in Palo Alto, California to clarify this question, it was confirmed that Fiorina uses "Chairman and CEO" on her business cards.

Consistently, in news reports surrounding Fiorina and other women executives, their unique ranks and successes among men are what marks the language used to report about them. *Fortune Magazine* named Fiorina the most powerful "woman" in business, not one of the most powerful people (*Seattletimes.com*, p. 1). Although Fiorina was quoted as saying, "I hope that we are at a point that everyone has figured out that there is not a glass ceiling"(*Online U.S. News*, p. 3), the reality is that she is only one of three women in the entire Fortune 500 who head the

companies where they are employed. Futhermore, according to the New York-based research firm Catalyst, females make up only 11 percent of senior executives (*Online U.S. News*, p. 1). Because women are still coming into their own in corporate America, finding the correct title for each woman becomes a personal choice not, as in the case of most men, a predictable one.

Even though Fiorina would like to see herself portrayed as one more CEO doing her job, the reality is her sex makes it necessary for her to grapple with issues and be high-lighted in news stories that men have never had to experience. Fiorina's decision to call herself "Chairman" and not "Madame Chairman," "Chairwoman" or "Chairperson," is a linguistic choice with socio-political ramifications. As a native English speaker, Fiorina knew that the word choices she had before her were not just different names for the same job. Each term carries with it an ideology that serves to announce the orientation of the person bearing it. Not surprisingly, if Fiorina is trying to keep her gender out of the story, using the term "chairman" to separate the job from her sex is a smart choice. Because men who are "chairman" do not use any other term to signify their position, Fiorina's use of another term would automatically attract attention to her sex.

As English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) teachers, the dynamics of speaking of men and women in separate corporate ranks and the question of choosing one title over another are just some of the issues encountered in confronting gendered language in the ESL classroom. During the KOTESOL 2000 facilitated discussion *Gendered Language and ESL Instruction*, the issue of teaching title to students and the socio-political meanings behind these choices was intensely scrutinized. For the women native-speaking English teachers present at this discussion, the frustration that some of them have experienced trying to get their students to call them "Ms." instead of "Miss" or "Mrs." was looked upon as more than just a word choice problem. These instructors believed that there is a cross-cultural component interfering with their students' attempts to use these titles or others correctly. Bridging the titles the students were comfortable with in their own cultures with the titles they were being asked to acquire and use through their English teachers became an instructional challenge many gave up. As the participants in this discussion noted, what seems to impede the students' correct usage of the name the teacher wants to be referred to is the following:

- students' knowledge of the age and marital status of the teacher and how that impacts their native tongue,
- students' experience exploring gendered language in their native tongue as well as English.

Because in Korea, age, marital status and the presence of children all have a bearing on how a woman is addressed, these cultural factors are imbedded in the linguistic references of the students. In Korea, "agashi" is the generic reference to a seemingly young, unmarried woman without children and "ajuma" would be the linguistic reference for her older, married with children counterpart. Coupled

with this, married women in Korea with children are typically referred to "as the mother of Hyun," for example, and not by their own name and certainly not by their husband's name. Although, it is possible to be referred to, for example, "as the wife of Park," many Korean students explained that in certain cases referring to someone's mother by her full name "Kim, Eun Hee," for example, could be rude. In addition, using the appropriate title for an older sister-in-law, younger-sister-in-law and all other male and female members of Korean extended families is an important linguistic tradition.

The Confucius tradition that outlines a woman's life by her relationships with the men in her family weighs heavily on how women are addressed in Korean. Traditionally, father, husband and then eldest son are those charged with providing for a woman through childhood, womanhood and then old age. Although the rigidity of these steps in a woman's life are loosening, tradition still marks much of the linguistic references of women in their homes. Outside of their home life, Korean women maybe referred to by the title they hold at a job, for example, "Park Teacher," and in a growing number of corporate entities, typically with an international scope, administrative female staff may be referred to as "Miss" plus their family names. In English-speaking cultures, however, referring to women in terms of their relationships to other people in their family is not as pronounced. The two things that tend to be more emphasized are whether a woman is married or not, and if she has a professional name she prefers to use in conjunction with or to replace a more traditional title. This modern preference, however, does counter a past that only viewed women as married or single with a slight variance if their husband had died.

Native English-speaking women instructors in Japan have encountered the same frustrations with teaching title to their Japanese students as those teachers in Korea. As one professor explained, "When I first started teaching, I wanted people to call me Ms. Hawley, and they would always be calling me*, Mrs. Hawley.* I would think, 'That's my mother.' I really hated that. Finally I said, 'Go ahead and call me Nagatomo if you insist on *Mrs*.'" (Barry, 2000) For this instructor, who is married to a Japanese man, Mrs. Nagatomo was a more authentic title, but was still not the title she had wanted to use. In both Korean and Japanese, married titles for women do not exist, and in Korean culture, unlike Japanese, married women do not change their family names.

All of the cultural differences outlined here were viewed by the participants of the *Gendered Language and ESL Instruction* discussion as hurdles for students trying to appropriately use "Ms." instead of "Mrs." or "Miss." Similarly, not having a socio-political understanding of the evolution of words like "Ms." versus "Mrs." or "Miss" made it even more difficult for students to understand why a teacher would prefer or even insist on one title over another. As one participant suggested for the students to understand the present usage of "Ms." in English we have to explain the past.

In a related example, a Korean-American teacher in Japan who married a Euro-American explained,

> I've even wondered what to do sometimes because most of my students call me *Christine*. On the off-hand, I have a student call me *Chai*, my last name. In that case, I'll teach them that in Japan you say your last name, but you don't really do that in the States. I'll ask (my students) to write a research paper and inevitably it comes back with just my husband's name on it. I'm married, so I hyphenate my name *Chai-Nelson*, but ultimately, students, no matter what, would write *Mrs. Nelson*. Always. After that I decided, well my passport still says *Chai* so I'm going to go by *Chai,* and now I just call myself *Christine Chai.* But, I remember looking at those papers and thinking, 'What do I do about that?' Do I write them a little note? 'No, I'm not Mrs. Nelson,' and normally in the States I would go by *Ms*. instead of *Mrs*. (Barry, 2000)

Teaching the culture behind the variations of title options for women in, for example, North America as compared with Korea and Japan can in itself be an insightful and stimulating ESL lesson or series of lessons. The instructors present at the *Gendered Language and ESL Instruction* discussion realized it would open up a vast array of cultural explorations conducive to an ESL classroom.

In order for the students to start to grasp the significance of title variations among women in English-speaking cultures, the students should first be invited to explore the way title is used in their own languages to refer to women. Doing something as simple as listing all the references available for a woman compared to a man and then titles that are shared by both sexes could be a first step in looking at the social and political nature of title in a language. After comparing these differences in their own languages, students could then be asked to list all the titles they know in English. The students could be asked to hypothesize on why one language would have so many or few references for women and what that could reflect about the culture. The teacher could then introduce why "Ms." was introduced into English and how that term's evolution relates to social and political change in English-speaking countries. After the students get the chance to think about their own language, compare it to others, and then learn the reasoning behind a teacher' s title preference, the possibility is greater that they will be able to use their knowledge more appropriately.

As one advanced speaker of English explained,

> It would be very helpful to learn the history as well. If you say, you should use *Ms.* instead of *Mrs*. or *Miss,* then we don't understand this. If we learn the history of this, then we can take it easily and we won't forget it. At the same time we find the language very interesting, because it has an interesting social or historical background. Of course it's not important to focus only on the history, but I think it would make learning more interesting. (Barry, 2000)

To more fully help our students negotiate the relationships they will be encountering outside of their ESL/EFL classrooms, those present at the *Gendered Language and ESL Instruction* discussion believed pausing and exploring title under the umbrella of gendered language would help to empower our students. Just giving

up and allowing students to address their teachers in anyway is depriving the students of a learning opportunity that might benefit them later. Helping them to avoid embarrassing moments or appearing uneducated are two of the major benefits ESL/EFL students will gain by studying the relationship between title and gendered language. Other educational benefits include learning more about their native languages and cultures and furthering cross-cultural communication and understanding. The care with which Chairman Fiorina selected her title speaks of the importance of this linguistic device for native speakers of English. The reasoning behind linguistic choices represents cultural dynamics our students may be unprepared to face unless instructors make the space and time for them to explore gendered language in their classrooms.

THE AUTHOR

Beth Ellen Barry received her graduate training from School for International Training. Her research interests include gendered language, cross-cultural communications and the Community-Counseling Learning approach to second language acquisition. She is currently lecturing in Japan at Kanda University of International Studies in the English Language Institute. She has taught at the English Language Institutes of Sogang University in Seoul and Kyungpook National University in Taegu. To contact her, e-mail bbarry@hotmail.com.

REFERENCES

Ackerman, E. (8/2/99). Silicon Valley girl; Carly Fiorina get a corner office of her own. *Online U.S. News*. pp. 1, 3. Retrieved October 27, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://www.usnews.com/usnews/issue/990802/hp.htm.

Barry, B. E. (2000). *Gender and Language Issues,* Kanda University of International Studies. Chiba: Japan. Taped June 26, 2000. To be published in The Journal of Kanda University of International Studies, No. 13, March, 2001. (Transcripts available through the author.)

Menn, J. (7/20/99). Gender 'is not the subject of the story,' new CEO says. *Seattletimes.Com*. pp. 1. Retrieved October 27, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://seattletimes.nwsource.com/news/business/html98/

Business/Financial Desk. (9/23/2000). Company news: President to add title of chairwoman. *The New York Times on the Web*, Archives. Retrieved October 30, 2000 from the World Wide Web: http://archives.nytimes.com/archives/search/

Revised Protocols for a Series of Rapid Oral Tests

DAVID W. DUGAS
Daejeon University

ABSTRACT

A rapid method exists for evaluating relatively large numbers of students with oral exams. At the 2000 Korea TESOL conference, a workshop was offered to learn such a method. The workshop presented the latest information needed to understand and use these exams. Changes since the second Pan-Asia Conference (Korea TESOL 1999 conference) include use of a single scoring protocol and scoring form for all exams, and refinements to the three test protocols. These refinements to the test protocols are presented in this paper.

REFINEMENTS TO THE RAPID SCORING METHOD

At Korea TESOL 2000, I conducted a workshop to help teachers get familiar with the new ideas I presented at PAC2 for oral testing. (*See Dugas, 2000 for a full description of the workshop presented at PAC2.) My program requires the use of several components. There must be specific content (in my case provided by a dialog study guide). Homework and classroom activities are determined by the overall course objectives, and in detail, by the test protocols. Topic lists allow the teacher to choose a limited set of topics for each test and minimize the scorekeeper's role. The scoring form allows quick evaluation of each student, a reasonable numerical score, and a permanent record of each exam. This program now uses one scoring protocol and 3 test protocols. The scoring changes have simplified the work of the scorekeeper. The changes in the test protocols have clarified the focus of the exams. Below are the three revised test protocols.

Protocol for the Type 1 Test: Question/Answer

Goal: Students ask a single question or give a single answer about ten topics selected by the scorekeeper at test time. **Purpose:** To familiarize students with the test process using an easy first task, and to ensure that they have started learning specific content from the study guide. **Process:** Each of the two students in the team gets one of a matched pair of mutually exclusive topic cards. That is, no topic appears on both cards. Each student asks a single question about the first topic on his list. He then gives a single answer to the question asked about the first topic on his partner's list. This process continues until all five topics on both cards have been covered. During the exam, each student asks five questions and answers five questions covering ten topics. The average time for this test is about

five minutes per team. The nominal high score for this test is 40 points (with current protocols and scoring form).

Protocol for the Type 2 Test: Extended Answer

Goal: Each student asks one question and gives three related answers about five topics selected by the scorekeeper at test time. **Purpose:** To develop the student's ability to support answers during conversation rather than always giving simple, one-line answers. **Process:** Each team of two students gets a single card with a list of five topics. The first student asks a question about the first topic to which his partner gives three related answers. His partner then asks a new question about the same topic which he must answer with three related answers. This continues until all five topics have been covered by both students. During this exam, each student asks one question and gives three answers for five topics. The average time for this test is around eight minutes per team. The nominal high score for this test is 60 points (with current protocols and scoring form).

Protocol for the Type 3 Test: Interactive Chain

Goal: Students use a related series of questions and answers to demonstrate close listening and comprehension of their partner' s conversation, about five topics selected by the scorekeeper at test time. **Purpose:** To develop the students' ability to maintain conversation by interjecting comments and asking follow-up questions about what they are hearing. **Process:** Each team of two students gets a single card with a list of five topics. Student A asks a question to which his partner gives a single answer. Student A then selects a target word or idea from the answer to create a new question, to which his partner gives a single answer. Student A then selects a new target and makes a third question based on the previous answer; to which his partner again responds with a single answer. Each such series is called an interactive chain, and each chain belongs to the person who asks the first question. Each student will make one chain per topic. On this exam, each student asks three questions and gives three answers for each of five topics. I estimate that the average time will be about fifteen minutes per team, if delays are watched closely. The nominal high score for this test is 90 points (with current protocols and scoring form).

SUMMATION

A complete, descriptive manual of testing materials and information was made available at the workshop. The workshop manual contains a rationale and revisions of the study guide, topic lists, all protocols and the scoring form used in this testing system. It includes one scoring form in a format practical for use in exams (after copying). The manual also includes exam support activities, practical advice, and plans for future research. I welcome comments, questions, and research partners

at universities using the OPI (Oral Proficiency Interview) or SOPI (Simulated Oral Proficency Interview).

THE AUTHOR

David W. Dugas was educated at McNeese State University, Louisiana State University and Tulane University, in the southern United States. He is now at Daejeon University in the Department of English Language and Literature in Daejeon, Korea. His research involves creating a robust oral exam for use in university classrooms. Email: dwdugas@yahoo.com

REFERENCES

Dugas, D.W. 1998. Reason, Computers and the Art of Teaching. *Mun Kwa Hak Non Mun Jip, 26* (August), 27-47. [*Humanities Review* (Taejon University Humanities Research Institute).]

Dugas, D.W. 2000. A Program for Oral Testing of EFL Students in Korea. *KOTESOL Proceedings PAC2 1999* (Seoul: October 1999), 75-87.

Dugas, D.W. 2000. *Learning A Rapid Method for Scoring Oral Exams*. A Workshop Manual About Teaching English Using A Program Which Allows Rapid Oral Testing. 35pp.

Underhill, N. 1987. *Testing spoken language - Handbook of oral testing techniques*. Cambridge University Press.

Presentations of the

Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference

Casting the Net: Diversity in Language and Learning
Taegu, Korea, Sept. 30 - Oct. 1, 2000

The Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following people for presenting papers, conducting workshops, and leading discussions at the Eighth Annual KOTESOL International Conference. Listing is in alphabetical order by surname, followed by the title of the session; co-presenters are listed separately.

High Level Panel Discussion English Education in Korea: Perspectives
Catherine Adler I like lice — Improving student pronunciation
Larissa Akizhanova Designing Case Studies for Kazakhstani Companies
Julia Anahory Story-based activities for the EFL classroom
Roger Barnard Course materials for low-level business classes
Roger Barnard Developing the Listening Skills of Pre-Intermediate Learners
Beth Barry Gendered language and ESL instruction
C. Craig Bartlett Using Textbook Dialogues As A Pedagogic Corpus
Summer Brooks Assessment Of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Ronan Brown Extensive Reading in the EFL class
Karen Burrell Teaching English to Children and their Mothers with Storybooks
Cho, Gun-Ho A Report on English Cyber Training Program
Cho, Sookeun What's in the Pot?
Inju, Chung Dialogue Journal Project in Freshman Class
Lawrence Cisar Making your own Web-based CALL program
Miles Craven Business English at the Moller Centre, Churchill College, Univ. of Cambridge
Miles Craven Getting the most out of your coursebook
Miles Craven Getting Students to Communicate with Get Real
Joyce Cunningham Student Generated Small Group Video Projects
Andy Curtis Critical Agents of Change
Andy Curtis Approaches to Professional Development for Language Teachers
Richard Dowling Two Hands Guide to English Grammar, Punctuation, and Composition
Stephanie Downey On the Right Foot: Preparing for the First Day of Class
David Dugas A Rapid Scoring Method for Oral Exams
Benjamin Fenton-Smith Exploring Interpersonal Relationships: A First-Year University Proficiency Project
Patricia Galien Using the Visual Arts in the Language Classroom
Chris Gallagher Aston University's Diploma/MSc in TESOL/TESP
Steve Garrigues Phonological pitfalls for English learners and teachers in Korea
Steven Gershon Culture in the Classroom: Window and Mirror
Michael Gibb The Grammar Surgery
Christina Gitsaki Web-Based Activities: Promoting Diversity in the EFL Classroom
Christina Gitsaki Internet English: Bridging Language Learning and the World Wide Web

Jim Gongwer Evaluating Job Satisfaction: A Survey of KOTESOL Professors
Daniel Gossman Making your own Web-based CALL program
Jerry Greenfield How to Make Web Pages Readable
Michael Guest Stop Making Sentences
Marc Helgeson DIY (Do It Yourself) effective, active listening
Marc Helgeson Personalizing Language Teaching, Firsthand
Jane Hoelker Journal Writing Can Improve Student Language Skills
Jane Hoelker International E-mail Exchange Motivates Students
Sara Holzberlein Analyzing students' responses in the development of a comparative culture course
Barbara Hoskins Getting Your Students to Speak (English!)
Barbara Hoskins Let's Go Readers: The Story Gets Better!
Hou, Hsiao-I English Learning in Vocational Universities in Taiwan
Chung-shun Hsia Small Group-Activities in EFL and Culture Learning
Liangtsu Hsieh Teaching English at the Elementary School: Course Learning and Application
Michael Hunter Conversation controversy: Agreeing to Disagree
Patrick Hwang Internet and Language Teaching/Learning
Patrick Hwang The University of Birmingham Distance MA in TEFL/TESL
Won-Gill Hwang Classroom English
Hyun, Tae-duck Bingo: A New Teaching Strategy
Dong-Bin Jeong Classroom English
Marcela Jonas Let's Get Radical: Back to the Roots
David Kim Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
David Kim The Basics of Action Research
David Kim Investigating Korean Students Exposure to English Speaking and Listening
Dennis Kim Approaches to Reading
Dennis Kim Internet and Language Teaching/Learning
Dennis Kim The University of Birmingham Distance MA in TEFL/TESL
Grace Kim Kinesthetic Instruction in the Classroom
Kim Eunjeong Jazz chant for storytelling
Kim Kyung-yong Crosscultural perception of politeness
Kim Won Myung How to Make Multimedia Lab. Work
Kim Youngim Teaching English to Children and their Mothers with Storybooks
Victoria Kimbrough Listening strategies for low level students
Victoria Kimbrough The Basics and Beyond-Integrated English
Yukie Koyama Content-based Team Teaching
Aleda Krause Super Kids: Listening and Speaking Activities You'll Love
Aleda Krause Starting Out Right With Super Tots
Ramesh Krishnamurthy Size Matters: Creating Dictionaries From The World's Largest Corpus
Gerry Lassche Cyber Language Education
Kelly Seung Lee Children's Activities with New Parade
Kelly Seung Lee Teaching Young Children through Balloons
Lee Hyang Sook Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Lee Junyoung Language Learning Styles of Korean Midshipmen Learning English
Lee Yong Hoon Drama Techniques: A Different Way to Learn English
Lee Yong Hoon Key-pal Activities to Develop Communicative Competence

Galina Lovtsevich New realities in Teacher Development in Russian Far East
Doug Makarchuk Presentation-Practice-Production or Task-based Learning in the Korean University Classroom
Douglas Margolis Learning Strategies: English Practice & Empowerment in the Korean Classroom
Douglas Margolis Investigating Korean Students Exposure to English Speaking and Listening
Douglas Margolis Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Mike McCarthy What aspects of conversation can we teach?
Mike McCarthy What are the most basic words in English and how do we teach them?
Philip McCasland Promoting Awareness of Cultural Diversity via Student E-mail Exchange
Samuel McGrath Communicative Language Teaching In Korean Public Schools - An Overview
David McMurray M & A: Merger and Acquisition of Country and Corperate Culture
Elin Melchior Introduction to the Internet for EFL/ESL Teachers
Larry Michienzi Communicative web-based learning — homepage making the how's and why's
Mike Misner Speaking: Oral Presentations collaboration through computers
Liam Morgan Using Target Language In Beginner Learner Classrooms
Reiko Mori Teachers' Beliefs and Error Correction
Adriane Moser Using the Internet to Complement Classroom Instruction
Robin Nagano Content-based Team Teaching
Mark Nelson Exploring Interpersonal Relationships: A First-Year University Proficiency Project
Peter Nelson Teaching Stress, Intonation & Rhythm
Peter Nelson Evaluating Job Satisfaction: A Survey of KOTESOL Professors
Peter Nelson Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Paek Ji-won Teaching Different Cultures Using Movies
Park Joo Kyung Korean Elementary School Teachers' Perception of American Culture
Giles Parker Analyzing students' responses in the development of a comparative culture course
Tom Pierce New Language and New Ways
Tom Pierce Exploiting the Text, Exploring the Four Skills
Tom Pierce Active Teaching With Children
Tom Pierce Reading Skills: before, during and after
Brent Poole Promoting Awareness of Cultural Diversity via Student E-mail Exchange
Michael Pronko Student generated materials and activities for ESL courses
Michael "Rube" Redfield The Forth Eiga Shosetsu Study
Trevor Reynolds Making the most of your savings
Jack Richards Preparing Students for Conversation Using Springboard
Jack Richards Teaching the upper-intermediate-advanced language learner
Jack Richards Methods in the New Millenium
Jack Richards Teaching Listening Skills with Tactics for Listening
Dusty Robertson How Learners' Learn
Jill Robins Creating Listening Activities from Authentic Materials
Stephen Roney Judith Butler and the Battle for the English Language
Stephen Roney Is Language Teaching Obsolete
Kelly Row The Grammar Surgery

Kevin Sampson Tell Me More!: Student-centered English Textbooks for Korea
Gillian Sano-Giles Conversation controversy: Agreeing to Disagree
Seo Eun-Mi Breaking the Ice in the EFL Classroom
David Shaffer English Fears: Driving Out the Demons
Chris Sheppard Task complexity in language learning and teaching
Rosa Shim Effects of internet instruction on College English at Seoul National University
Asif Siddiqui Content and Critique
John Skye Effectively Teaching Large Classes
Kevin Smyth Getting off to a good start
Mike Stockton Student Centered Action Research OJT (On-the-Job-Training
Andrew Stokes Internet technology
Della Summers The Longman Advanced American Dictionary : Real language, real help
Della Summers The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English on CD-ROM
Richard Taylor Web-Based Activities: Promoting Diversity in the EFL Classroom
Richard Taylor Internet English: Bridging Language Learning and the World Wide Web
Tory Thorkelson Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Tien, Ching-Yi English Learning in Vocational Universities in Taiwan
Andrew Todd Growing and changing: Jigsaw and The Language Tree
Andrew Todd Smile: Beyong Basics
Rodney Tyson Integrating Computer With More Traditional Classroom Activities
Rodney Tyson Teaching Korean Students to Write in English
Yoshiko Usui Metacognitive Awareness and the Development of Discussion
Zaira Utebayeva Developing Professionally-Oriented Material for Group Learning
Richard Walker Developing Confidence and Success in Real World Listening
Richard Walker Open Books, Open Minds
Steve Watson Interactivity java-script and Language Learning on the Net
Regina Weitzel Pronunciation Barriers: Dispelling the myths and addressing the taboos
Sangdo Woo Assessment of Korean Students English Pronunciation
Craig Zettle NorthStar: Using Intergrated Skills to Develop Critical Thinking
Craig Zettle Encouraging Fluency and Learner Independence with Voyages
Ingrid Zwaal Multiple Intelligences — A why and how to reach diversity