KOTESOL Proceedings 2001

The Learning Environment: The Classroom and Beyond

Proceedings of the 9th Korea TESOL International Conference
Seoul, October 13-14, 2001

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

KOTESOL Proceedings 2001

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Edited by Korea TESOL

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The 9th Korea TESOL International Conference
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FOREWORD

The 2001 Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Sungkyunkwan University in the city of Seoul. The two days of the Conference – October 13th and 14th, 2001 – brought us wonderful weather and matching presentations. Under the theme of "The Learning Environment: The Classroom and Beyond," the Conference's plenary addresses were given by Dr. Jane Willis and Dr. Michael Rundell. There were featured presentations by Drs. David Nunan, David Willis, Steven Gershon, and Uschi Felix. More than 100 speakers based in a dozen different countries gave more than 125 presentations. In addition to North America, England, and Australia, presenters came from Japan, the Philippines, Indonesia, Singapore, and Taiwan.

Every conference committee faces complications in conference preparations, but this year's committee faced extraordinary challenges. Last-minute personnel changes and venue conflicts made preparations for the 2001 Conference especially stressful, but in the end, these difficulties, too, were overcome to allow the Conference to proceed smoothly. For this the 2001 Conference Committee should be commended.

The papers presented in this volume are representative of the wide range of presentations given at the Conference. (See the list of presentations at the back of this volume.) This collection of papers begins with Dr. Nunan's contribution on task-based teaching, and is followed by a paper on classroom-based research on compensation strategies. The largest group of papers are on different methods and techniques – from old techniques to alternative techniques, and from Konglish and communicative language teaching to songs, storybooks, and online story writing. Particular to this volume is the section of studies on expatriate EFL teachers living and working in Korea. Also included are papers on second language acquisition in the classroom, and computers and language learning, as well as a workshop report on mnemonics.

It is our hope that the reader of the papers presented here in *KOTESOL Proceedings 2001* will enjoy them as much as the participants at the Conference enjoyed the presentations.

David E. Shaffer
Proceedings Editor/Coordinator
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Conceptual and Practical Aspects of Task-Based Teaching

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this presentation is to provide an update on task-based language teaching. I plan to cover theoretical/conceptual, empirical and practical aspects of TBLT.

THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

Traditional language teaching takes as its point of departure, lists of items drawn from the linguistic systems of the language: syntactical, phonological and lexical. Syllabuses based on a prior analysis of linguistic systems are, according to Wilkins (1976), synthetic in nature, because they require learners to put together, or synthesize, language that has been broken down into its constituent parts.

> different parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up.
>
> (Wilkins, 1976: 2).

In the 1970s and 1980s, this approach came under attack on two fronts. Firstly, sociolinguists such as Hymes expanded our vision of the nature of language, which led to the view that it was a tool for communication rather than a language to be studied, and that the ability to communicate required more than memorizing linguistic elements and systems. Secondly, SLA research indicated that learners did NOT acquire language structures in the discrete step by step fashion implied by the synthetic approach.

The first communicative syllabuses reflecting changing conceptions of language and learning took as their point of departure, not lists of syntactic, phonological and lexical items, but inventories of functions and notions, functions being things that learners wish to do through language, while notions are general concepts such as time, duration, necessity etc.

These communicative syllabuses and the materials and textbooks based on them soon came in for criticism. One criticism was that such syllabuses were just as synthetic and atomistic as traditional syllabuses, in that they broke down and

presented discrete elements of the language. Another criticism was that the syllabuses were really traditional, structural syllabuses in disguise, and that only the labels had changed. Instead of 'the simple past', a unit of work might be called 'talking about what you did last weekend'. In terms of what happened in the classroom, there was very little difference.

In light of these criticisms, some curriculum specialists began to experiment with analytical syllabuses. In such syllabuses

> prior analysis of the total language system into a set of discrete pieces of language that is a necessary precondition for the adoption of a synthetic approach is largely superfluous. … [Such approaches] are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language that are necessary to meet these purposes.
>
> (Wilkins, 1976: 13)

Various units of analysis have been proposed for analytical syllabuses. These include situational, topical, content-based, procedural, and task-based syllabuses. (For a review, see Nunan, 1988; Long & Crookes, 1993). In the rest of my presentation, I will restrict my focus to TBLT.

Task-based language teaching takes as its point of departure, inventories of tasks which involve learners in achieving some communicative goal through language. Achieving the goal will require using a heterogeneous range of language structures, and will result in a non-linguistic outcome. Consider a fairly common task such as "Obtaining a credit card"= Such a task will involve the individual in performing a number of language functions (making inquiries, evaluating options, filling out a form) as well as using a range of grammatical items (wh-questions, comparatives, how much/how many etc.) The outcome, if successful, will be non-linguistic: a credit card.

The question then arises: Where do tasks come from? According to Long (1985), they come from a prior needs analysis. Imagine that a course is being designed for flight attendants. What are the things that they will be required to do? The list could be quite extensive: giving a safety demonstration, serving food and drink, selling duty free etc. Having generated the list of target tasks, the designer develops classroom tasks and then sequences and integrates these.

This procedure might be fine for ESL situations, and specific purpose situations such as the English for flight attendants example given by Long. However, what about most EFL situations in which learners do not have any immediate need to use the language?

When I am creating syllabuses and materials for such contexts, I use as my point of departure the three macrofunctions of language identified by Halliday (1985), namely

1. Obtaining goods and services
2. Socializing
3. Aesthetic (this function does not feature in EFL curricula to any great extent.)

The macrofunctions are elaborated as microfunctions such as:

- Introducing self and others
- Talking about the family
- Talking about likes and dislikes
- Etc.

The functions are then associated with a topic or situation, and used as the basis for developing pedagogical tasks. In this way, functional communication is developed through pedagogical tasks. While there is a large degree of overlap between functions and tasks, the two concepts differ in that tasks are concrete and context-bound. Functions, being more general, can underpin numerous tasks. For example, talking about likes and dislikes can be realized through tasks such as the following:

- Plan a picnic with a group of friends. Decide the food items that you like, and make up a shopping list.
- You are joining a fitness club. Fill out a questionnaire indicating your sporting and exercise likes and dislikes.

The precise realization will be determined by the topical and situational context that has been created for the function.

Activity Recommendation

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Group work. Tell your partners what you're thinking about doing. For each activity, get a recommendation and a reason from three different people. Then write the best recommendations in the chart.

The essential difference between a task and an exercise is that a task has a nonlinguistic outcome. Target or real-world tasks are the sorts of things that individuals typically do outside of the classroom. Pedagogical tasks, are designed to activate acquisition processes.

STEPS IN DESIGNING A TASK-BASED PROGRAM

Pedagogically, tasks are supported by enabling skills (mastery of language systems: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) which are developed through language exercises.

Having specified target and pedagogical tasks, the syllabus designer analyzes these in order to identify the knowledge and skills that the learner will need to have in order to carry out the tasks. The next step is to sequence and integrate the tasks with enabling exercises designed to develop the requisite knowledge and skills. As I have already indicated, one key distinction between an exercise and a task, is that exercises will have purely language related outcomes, while tasks will have non-language related outcomes, as well as language related ones.

These are the steps that I follow in creating task-based language programs.

1. Specify relevant microfunctions
2. Select and sequence real-world / target tasks
3. Create pedagogical tasks (rehearsal / activation)
4. Identify enabling skills: create communicative activities and language exercises
5. Sequence and integrate pedagogical tasks, communicative activities and language exercises

(For an example of how this process is realized at the level of pedagogy, see Nunan, 2000.)

Here is a diagrammatic representation of how I see these various elements fitting together.

FIGURE 1. A FRAMEWORK FOR TBLT
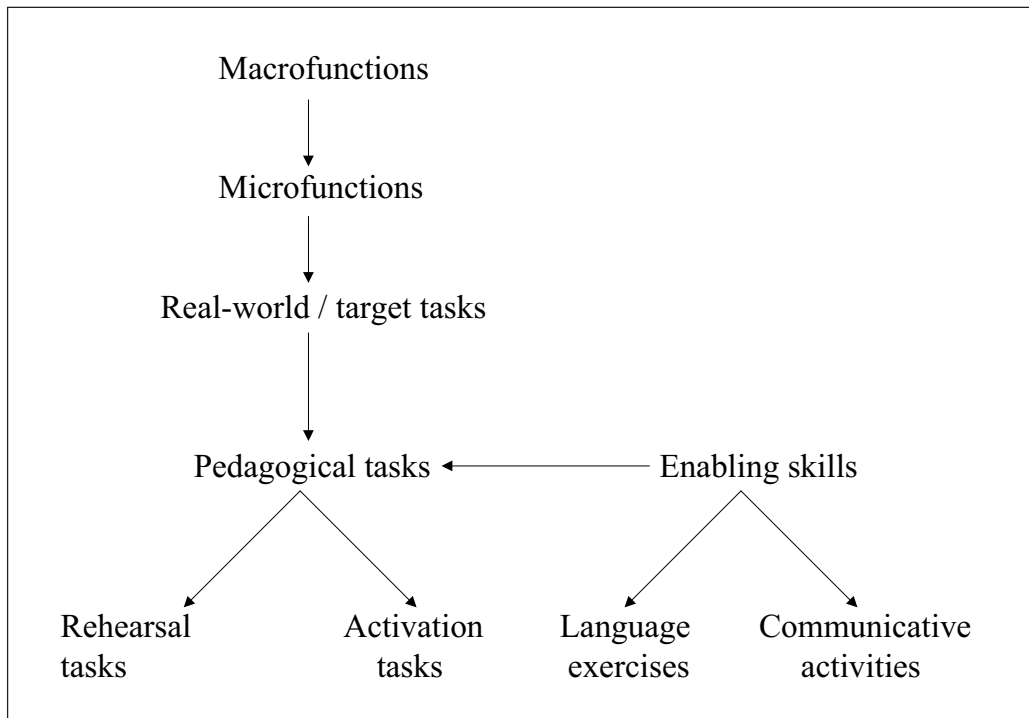
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GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

Real-world or target task: A communicative act we achieve through language in the world outside the classroom.

Pedagogical tasks: A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than forms. They have a non-linguistic outcome, and can be divided into rehearsal tasks or activation tasks.

Rehearsal task: A piece of classroom work in which learners rehearse, in class, a communicative act they will carry out outside of the class.

Activation task: A piece of classroom work involving communicative interaction, but NOT one in which learners will be rehearsing for some out-of-class communication. Rather they are designed to activate the acquisition process.

Eabling skills: Mastery of language systems grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary etc. which ENABLE learners to take part in communicative tasks.

Language exercise: A piece of classroom work focusing learners on, and involving learners in manipulating some aspect of the linguistic system

Communication activity: A piece of classroom work involving a focus on a particular linguistic feature but ALSO involving the genuine exchange of meaning.

Classroom-based Research in Korea

Differences Between Low and Intermediate Level Students in Compensation Strategy Use

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ABSTRACT

Language learning compensation strategy research is relatively new in Korea. Margolis (in press) reported results of a Compensation Strategy Survey (CSS) based on a sample of 61 students. The present study reports the findings of CSS responses from 296 tertiary level students, 184 from a two year college, and 112 from a mid-ranked four year university. The results suggest that beginning and intermediate language learners tend to use different types of strategies and that proficiency level is related to strategy use. Moreover, guessing and code modification strategies were found to be more utilized by higher level students. These findings are consistent with other research that has found a threshold level or differences in strategy use dependent on proficiency level (Bien, 1999; Lugo, 2000; and Sewell-Kasim, 1996), as well as with research that suggests inferencing ability determines strategy selection and use (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980). The alpha was set at .05.

INTRODUCTION

Success in language learning depends on many factors, but most would agree that practice and exposure to the language is vital. Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis provide the theoretical foundation to this assumption. Indeed, the communicative and task-based approach both rely more on students actively communicating in the foreign language than study of language forms and structures out of context. In Korea, however, when students face gaps in their foreign language knowledge or ability, they often quit communicating (Windle, 2000), resulting in embarrassment, discouragement, and sometimes, failure.

Compensation strategies research aims to identify tools to bridge gaps in knowledge or ability to help students maintain communications and thus increase practice.

Oxford (1990) names compensation strategies as one of six groups of language learning strategies. Margolis (in press) defines compensation strategies as conscious tactics that students employ to overcome gaps in foreign language ability. Further, compensation strategies reinforce both receptive and productive tasks.

Better understanding of compensation strategies and training students in their use may be of particular usefulness in Korea given that the government has man-

dated the English through English policy. Effective use of compensation strategies may help students and teachers feel less stress and anxiety when communicating in English. This reduction of anxiety might help learners better access the words stored in memory and provide more experiences of success, which could increase motivation.

Poulisse and Schils (1989), however, report that compensation strategy use is inversely related to foreign language proficiency. They found no relationship between student ability level and the type or quantity of compensation strategies used. One could interpret their findings to mean that training students in compensation strategy use is merely a distraction from language learning. But why would something that promoted practice and communication in the foreign language, not be helpful for learning? Unless the input and output hypotheses are wrong.

Contrary to Poulisse and Schils, a number of other researchers suggest that a relationship between compensation strategy use and ability does exist (see, for example, Bien, 1999; Lugo, 2000; and Sewell-Kasim, 1996). Further, some researchers posit a language proficiency threshold, below which students are limited in their access to compensation strategies (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980; Lugo, 2000). The present study aims to tackle the issue of whether or not foreign language ability level is related to compensation strategy use, and, if so, in what ways.

COMPENSATION STRATEGIES TAXONOMY

There are a number of taxonomies and classification systems for compensation strategies in the literature (see, for example, Chamot, *et al*, 1999; Oxford, 1990; or Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992). This study identified compensation strategies to survey students regarding their use. (See Appendix A for a list of these strategies.) Then strategies were grouped following the method adopted by Margolis (in press). That is, strategies were grouped into six categories: a) disengagement, b) code switching, c) guessing, d) physical compensation, e) interactive, and f) code modification. Disengagement strategies involve leaving the communication context, such as quitting in mid-utterance or avoiding topics altogether. Code switching are strategies where the foreign language gap is bridged by using native language constructs. Guessing refers to inferencing strategies, such as using pictures and headings to guess meaning when reading, or using facial expressions or tone to guess meaning when listening. Physical compensation is the use of gestures, expressions, and body language to obtain or impart meaning. Interactive strategies are those where the gap is filled via interactions, such as seeking confirmation, assistance or repetitions. Finally, code modification is a category to catch all the strategies where the learner modifies the communication in some way to work around the gap. Circumlocution, approximations, generalizations, and substitutions are the primary strategies in this category.

STUDY OBJECTIVES

This study has two aims: 1) to examine earlier findings regarding Korean student compensation strategy use in light of an enlarged sample, in order to assess whether or not the earlier findings are replicable and generalizable, and 2) to answer the question: what are the differences, if any, in strategy use between students at differing proficiency levels.

The following hypotheses were put forth with the alpha level set at .05:

H1—The K college sample's rank order of the means of aggregated compensation strategies will equal or be similar to the rank order found by Margolis (in press).

H2—Due to the influence of a threshold limit, low level students and intermediate students will differ significantly in their deployment of compensation strategies.

H3—Gender, student type, and age will not have a significant interactive effect with proficiency level in explaining compensation strategies use.

METHOD

This study expands the data collection reported by Margolis (in press), obtaining student self reports via a Compensation Strategies Survey (CSS). In the earlier study, Margolis used the CSS to identify compensation strategy use patterns of 61 students at K college. The present study followed the same procedures, using the CSS, to add subjects from the same school and from another school (B university). The first school consisted primarily of false beginners and low proficiency students. The second school had primarily intermediate level students.

The CSS was based on Oxford's (1990) SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), but designed to assess only compensation strategies. A total of thirty-seven compensation strategies observed by Margolis (in press) or published in the literature (Khanji, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992) were included in the questionnaire. These items were written with Likert scales for students to report the frequencies of their use of the strategy (1=Never, 2=Not usually, 3=Sometimes, 4=Usually, and 5=Always). Furthermore, students were asked to rate their overall English ability, and individual macro-skills ability, according to a different 5 point Likert Scale (1=beginner, 3=intermediate, and 5=advanced).

To increase the validity of the survey, open-ended questions were inserted after each section to permit students to identify additional strategies pertaining to that section's macro skill. Then the survey was translated into Korean. Two referees proofread and verified the accuracy of the translation. Then the Korean version of the survey was pilot tested with a class of 24 students at K college. Based on the pilot test, the survey was slightly revised and an administration procedure was developed.

The investigator then trained two teachers to administer the CSS, who in turn had their students complete it during a normal class period. The data was then collected and inputted into SPSS for Windows, version 6.1, and subjected to tests for means, standard deviations, correlations, and ANOVAs. A Cronbach reliability analysis of the CSS found Alpha = .91.

Participant Composition

Two hundred and ninety-six (296) students, 184 from K college, a two-year vocational school near Seoul, and 112 from B university, a four-year, mid-ranked university in Seoul participated in this study. There were 123 male and 169 female students. Table 1 presents participant characteristics of age, gender, and student type.

Two hundred and four participants were regular day students and eighty-three were night students. (All the night students were from K college.) Ages ranged from 19 to 42, with 71% of the participants below age 26.

Table 1. CSS Respondents' Student Type, Gender, & Age

	Student Type[a]		Gender[b]		Age[c]			
	Day	Night	Male	Female	Below 20	20-24	25-29	Above 29
B University (n = 112)	103 35%	0 0%	40 14%	69 23%	1 0.3%	71 24%	28 10%	3 1%
K College (n = 184)	101 34%	83 28%	83 28%	100 34%	17 6%	119 40%	37 13%	8 3%
Combined Totals (n = 296)	204 69%	83 28%	123 42%	169 57%	18 6%	190 64%	65 22%	11 4%

[a] Nine students did not report student type. [b] Four students did not report gender.
[c] Twelve students did not report age.
Note: Percentages equal the proportion of students out of the total number of participants. Due to non-reporting, the percentages do not total 100%.

The survey asked students how many years they have studied English. Table 2 presents a breakdown of student responses to this question. Nine percent (9%) of K college students responded that they had studied English for less than five years. Whereas, only one percent (1%) of B university students responded that they had studied for less than five years. Twenty-eight percent (28%) of K college students responded that they had studied English between 5 and 6 years, forty-eight per-

cent (48%) studied between 7 and 8 years, and thirteen percent (13%) studied for nine or more years. Among B university students, three percent (3%) responded that they had studied English between 5 and 6 years, twenty-four percent (24%) reported studying English between 7 and 8 years, and seventy-three percent (73%) reported nine or more years of English study.

Table 2 demonstrates that, in general, B university students have studied English for a longer time than K college students. This finding suggests that B university students should be at a higher level than K college students. Unfortunately, without access to test scores for comparing proficiency, making such a determination with confidence is difficult. The CSS, however, also asked students for self-assessments of their own ability.

Table 2. Number of Questionnaire Respondents' Years of English Study

School	Years of Study			
	Below 5 years	5-6	7-8	Above 8 years
K college (n = 184)	16 (9%)	52 (28%)	89 (48%)	24 (13%)
B university (n = 112)	1 (1%)	3 (3%)	27 (24%)	81 (73%)
Combined Total (n = 296)	17 (6%)	55 (19%)	116 (39%)	105 (36%)

Note: Percentages express the count in relation to the row total. Moreover, due to rounding and three missing cases, percentages don't necessarily total 100.

Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of these self-assessments. K college overall ability mean is 1.6 on the 5 point Likert scale, suggesting that students perceive themselves to be primarily beginners. B university students, however, rate themselves more than a full grade higher. Their overall ability mean is 2.8, suggesting that they perceive themselves as intermediate level. In fact, in every category—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—B university students rated themselves about one grade higher than K college students.

Interestingly, the scores of the two groups of students basically parallel each other, except the speaking ability score. For K college students, speaking ability was their greatest weakness. The mean score was 1.5. The mean score for B college was 3.8, suggesting ability above the intermediate grade. The rating suggests that for B university, speaking ability is the greatest strength. The suggestion from Tables 1-3, thus, is that the two schools represent two distinct levels in the language learning process: beginners and intermediate students. B university students, in comparison to K college, report a longer period of language study, higher overall ability, and higher ability within each of the macro skills. Thus, the

data regarding compensation strategy use should reflect how the two proficiency levels differ in their employment of compensation strategies.

Table 3. Respondents' Self-Rated Ability Means and Standard Deviations

School	Overall Ability	Reading Ability	Writing Ability	Listening Ability	Speaking Ability
K College (n = 184)	1.6 (.75)	2.0 (.91)	1.6 (.72)	1.8 (.83)	1.5 (.71)
B University (n = 112)	2.8 (.90)	3.4 (.83)	2.7 (.94)	2.6 (1.05)	3.8 (.746)
Combined Means (n = 296)	2.1 (.99)	2.6 (1.11)	2.0 (.98)	2.2 (1.09)	1.9 (.97)

Note: The top values are mean scores. The values in parenthesis are standard deviations.

RESULTS

To determine the strategies most and least utilized by student respondents, frequencies of student responses were examined to obtain means and standard deviations. Then compensation strategies were ranked by these data.

Most Utilized Strategies

Table 4 presents the most utilized strategies. In the first column, the top six most utilized strategies found in Margolis (in press) appear. These results are from a sample of 61 K college students. The larger sample of K college students (n=184) in this study—column 3—nearly duplicated the findings of the original study, suggesting that the findings of the original study are generalizable to the K college population. The second column of Table 4 presents the top 6 most utilized strategies of the combined K college and B university sample (n=296). Four items in this column also appear in the first column, suggesting that these may be generalizable beyond K college. For example, the strategy of avoiding difficult grammar is the most utilized strategy at K college and is within the top six of B university. Two items appear in the combined sample, however, that were not ranked in the first column: 1) using context to guess meaning, and 2) consulting the dictionary.

The fourth column of Table 4 presents the B university students (n=112) top six strategies. Interestingly, all but one did not appear in the K college top strategy ranking, suggesting that the two populations are different in their deployment of compensation strategies. Whereas K college's top two strategies involve disengaging from communication, B university students attempt to bridge gaps via guessing strategies. Moreover, none of K college's top six strategies involve

Table 4. Top Six Utilized Strategies Ranked by Means, Most to Least

Ranked in Margolis (in press) n=61	K & B Combined Ranking n=296	K College n=184	B University n=112
Q38, Avoid difficult grammar	Q38	Q38	Q8, Use context to guess meaning
Q37, Avoid difficult topics	Q22	Q37	Q6, Consult other parts of text to help guess meaning
Q22, Request the speaker to speak slower	Q8	Q22	Q36, Substitute words with similar ones
Q40, Code switch (i.e. speak Korean)	Q15	Q15	Q34, Circumlocution
Q15, Make guesses based on gestures & expressions	Q37	Q40	Q9, Use knowledge & experience to guess meaning
Q29, Use gestures to convey meaning	Q41, Consult dictionary	Q29	Q38

circumlocution or approximations, strategies identified by Tarone and Yule (1989) as most common to native speakers, while B university students have two such strategies in their top six (Q36, substituting similar words for forgotten ones, and Q34, speaking around unknown words by describing meaning or giving examples). K college also resorts to code switching as a top utilized strategy, whereas B university ranks code switching amongst its least used strategies (see below).

Least Used Strategies

Table 5 presents the least used strategies. Again, the K college rankings (column 3) nearly duplicate the original sample reported by Margolis (in press). Only the fourth ranked item (Q13, asking the speaker to express her idea in a different way) varies from the first study, but actually not by much as Q13 ranked 7th on this list in the first study (Margolis, in press). Thus, this ranking too appears to represent the K college population. In addition, the combined K & B ranking has 5 similar items to Margolis (in press), suggesting that these items may generalize beyond K college and possibly represent strategies least employed by Korean students in general. Furthermore, these little used tactics tend to reflect circumlocution-type strategies.

Table 5. Least Utilized Strategies Ranked by Means, Lowest to Highest

First CSS Ranking Margolis (in press) n=61	K & B Combined Ranking n=296	K College n=184	B University n=112
Q23, Brainstorming	Q23	Q23	Q19
Q33, Use antonym to help convey an unknown word	Q19	Q33	Q28, Substitute sounds in pronunciation
Q26, Use metaphor & images to convey meaning	Q33	Q19	Q23
Q14, Ask for examples to help understand unknown items	Q28	**Q13**	Q40, Code switch
Q19, Try to write out unknown words when listening	Q13	Q14	Q35, Coin words
Q16, Use intonation & rhythm to guess the meaning	Q14	Q16	Q13, Ask the speaker to express the idea in a different way

The fourth column of Table 5 presents the least utilized strategies of B university students. Only three of the strategies fall within the K college least used set (Q19, Q23, and Q13), suggesting that these strategies are generalizable beyond K college and B university. Substituting sounds in pronunciation (Q28) and coining words (Q35) are two other strategies of which B university students report little use. These strategies were the 8th and 10th least used strategies amongst K college students, suggesting that these too are typically little utilized by Korean students. One item (Q40, code switching), however, was found in the top used strategy list for K college, but in the least used list of B university, highlighting a difference between the two populations in their employment of code switching strategies.

Aggregated Strategies

As in Margolis (in press) individual items on the CSS were aggregated into six main categories in an attempt to identify larger patterns or tendencies in compensation strategy deployment. These aggregate strategies are as follows: *Interactive Strategies* (items 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 18, 21, 22, 31, 32, and 33), *Code Modification* (items 26, 28, 34, 35, and 36), *Code Switching* (items 25 and 40), *Guessing* (items 8, 9, 15, and 16), *Physical Compensation* (items 17, 19, 20, 29, 30), and *Disengagement Strategies* (items 7, 41, 37, 38, and 27). To discover which of

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these strategies were most and least utilized, means and standard deviations were calculated and simple factorial ANOVAs were performed to assess differences between the two schools. Table 6 presents the results of this process.

The K college subset (column 3) replicates the results of the original study, suggesting the generalizability of those findings to the K college population. As one might suspect, disengagement, code-switching, and physical compensation strategies top the list. These strategies require little acquisition of second language. Beginner students, moreover, least employ guessing, interactive, and code modification, the more language dependent strategies.

<div align="center">

Table 6. Aggregated Compensation Strategy Use Differences

Strategies ranked according to original study (Margolis, in press)	Combined Mean n=296 (Std. Dev.)	K College n=184 (Std. Dev.)	B University n=112 (Std. Dev.)	F Value (Significance)
Disengagement	3.18 (.73)	3.14 (.80)	3.24 (.61)	1.06 (.31)
Code Switching	2.85 (.98)	3.05 (1.00)	2.52 (.86)	21.74 (.000)
Physical Compensation	2.86 (.75)	2.88 (.79)	2.83 (.69)	.215 (.643)
Guessing	3.09 (.79)	2.86 (.81)	3.45 (.59)	44.71 (.000)
Interactive	2.79 (.68)	2.64 (.71)	3.04 (.52)	24.81 (.000)
Code Modification	2.80 (.79)	2.64 (.87)	3.04 (.56)	18.48 (.000)

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The combined mean (column 2) depicts disengagement strategies as the most common within the whole group, followed by guessing strategies, and then physical compensation, code switching, code modification, and finally, interactive strategies. The data suggest that apart from frequent employment of disengagement strategies, the combined group is fundamentally different in their use of compensation strategies from the original 61 subjects reported in Margolis (in press).

This difference becomes more evident in the results for B university (column 4), where guessing strategies move up to first place, disengagement strategies move to second, interactive and code modification move up to third, physical compensation takes fifth, and code switching drops to last place. The complete re-ordering of the strategies suggests that the higher level students of B university

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engage more language based strategies to keep communication going within the second language context, rather than resort to code switching or physical compensation.

The ANOVA results (column 5) highlight the differences between the schools. Disengagement and physical compensation strategy use show no significant difference, but for the remaining strategies, particularly guessing, significant differences were found. The difference between the two samples is also evident in the overall compensation strategy usage score, presented in Table 7. Here, B university students are found to resort to compensation strategies at a significantly higher rate than K college students. This finding underlines that B university students employ more strategies more often. In fact, in every category, B university students reported using compensation strategies more often than K college.

Table 7. Overall Compensation Strategy Use

	Combined Mean n=296 (Std. Dev.)	K College n=184 (Std. Dev.)	B University n=112 (Std. Dev.)	F Value (Significance)
Overall Usage of Compensation Strategies	2.87 (.56)	2.74 (.62)	3.08 (.37)	25.89 (.000)

In addition to the above results, ANOVAs were performed to identify possible interaction effects that might explain the differences between the schools. Gender, age, student type, self-reported ability, and number of years of study were all tested for interaction effects with the school variable. While main effects were found for some of these variables (to be reported in a future paper), there were no interaction effects that reached a level of significance. Thus, although differences in strategy use can be ascribed to some of these other variables, the differences between the schools, herein interpreted as a proficiency level indicator, in part, determines the quantity and type of compensation strategies that students consciously employ to bridge the gaps in their knowledge or ability.

DISCUSSION

This study involved collecting new CSS responses to seek evidence regarding the generalizability of the original CSS study (Margolis, in press) and to explore the role of proficiency level in relation to compensation strategy use. The findings suggest that the original study was generalizable to the K college population, but not outside the boundaries of the campus. Indeed, compared to the students of B university, who were at a higher level of English proficiency, the K college

population uses less guessing and code modification strategies and more disengagement and code switching ones.

The results of this study are consistent with hypothesis one. That is, the K college sample's rank order of the aggregated compensation strategies was found to replicate the rank order published in Margolis (in press). Moreover, the K college sample's least and most used individual strategies also duplicated the original study. This finding suggests that K college students are similar in their employment of compensation strategies. While this similarity may be ascribed to motivation, personality, or other variables, proficiency level is suspected to be the main culprit. The fact that K college students uniformly self-rated themselves a full grade lower than B university in English ability, and reported much fewer years of English study, supports this suspicion.

The second hypothesis—that due to a threshold limit, low level students and intermediate students will differ significantly in their deployment of compensation strategies—also appears consistent with the results of this study. Contrary to Poulisse and Schils (1989), this study found proficiency level to be related to the diversity and quantity of compensatory strategies used. Also contrary to Poulisse and Schils (1989), the type of strategies used appeared to be dependent on proficiency level. Intermediate level students resort to more strategies that maintain communication within the second language, such as guessing, code modification, and interactive strategies, while lower level students rely more on disengagement, code switching, and physical compensation, strategies that do not utilize the second language.

In the case of the third hypothesis—that gender would not have a significant interactive effect with the school variable in explaining differences in compensation strategies—again the findings support the hypothesis. No significant interactive effects were found between gender and school, age and school, student type and school, or any combination of these variables.

The findings of this study contribute empirical evidence and support to a growing body of research, suggesting that beginner level students are restricted from many compensation strategies until they surpass a certain threshold of ability (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980; Bien, 1999; Lugo, 2000; Sewell-Kasim, 1996), and that inferencing ability—or guessing strategies—play an important role once that threshold is reached (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980).

Future studies, however, are needed to assess whether the K college sample is representative of all low proficiency students and B university representative of all intermediate students. Moreover, whether or not training students in compensation strategy use can advance language acquisition remains a question to answer. Nevertheless, knowing the strategies that students tend to use can help teachers introduce new ones. Understanding student limitation in using some strategies, can guide teachers to provide pre-requisite knowledge for strategy use. At K college, for example, teachers might want to discuss guessing strategies and

provide scaffolding for use of circumlocutions and approximations, but not demand too much from students in terms of deployment of these strategies. Whereas, at B university, teachers could raise compensation strategy issues and actively encourage their use.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study supports the threshold hypothesis. Proficiency has a relationship to both the type and quantity of compensation strategies used. Further, this study found that intermediate students, compared to beginners, report using more circumlocution and approximation strategies (*cf.* Tarone & Yule, 1989). Guessing strategies also appeared to play a more important role for intermediate level students, compared to beginners. The fact that compensation strategies can possibly aid students in maintaining foreign language communication, and thereby increasing practice and both input and output, should be a compelling reason for teachers to strive to develop student compensation strategy adeptness.

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APPENDIX A. COMPENSATION STRATEGIES

(Numbers coincide with CSS item numbers)

When Reading:
5. Use charts, pictures, and graphics to help understand meaning.
6. Look in other parts of the text for clues to meaning.
7. Immediately consult an English-Korean dictionary for unknown words.
8. Use the context to help guess the meaning of unknown items.
9. Use background knowledge and experience to guess meaning.
10. Repeat reading several times when faced with difficult passage.

When Listening:
11. Ask the speaker to confirm your understanding.
12. Ask the speaker to repeat what was said.
13. Ask the speaker to express the idea in a different way.
14. Ask the speaker for examples.
15. Use physical cues (like gestures) to guess the meaning.
16. Use intonation, rhythm, and sound cues to guess the meaning.
17. Use gestures or facial expressions to inform the speaker that you do or don't understand.
18. Tell the speaker that you don't understand.
19. Write words that you hear to help you catch the meaning.
20. Silently repeat a word or expression to understand it better.
21. Ask the speaker how to spell confusing words.
22. Ask the speaker to slow down.

When Writing:

23. Brainstorm a list of words about the topic.
24. Use a general word when you can't remember the specific word. (For example, using "toy" instead of "doll.")
25. Use a literal translation from Korean to fill a gap in the English expression.
26. Use a metaphor or image to express your idea.
27. Limit your writing to avoid making mistakes.

When Speaking:

28. When you can't pronounce a sound well, such as /v/ or /f/, use a similar sound, like /b/ or /p/.
29. Use gesture to help convey your meaning.
30. Use facial expressions to help convey your meaning.
31. Ask the listener how to pronounce a difficult word.
32. Ask the listener how to say the correct grammar.
33. Use an opposite word and ask the listener for the correct one.
34. When you don't know a word, try to describe the idea or situation.
35. Make up a word when you can't remember the correct one.
36. Use a similar word for one you can't remember.
37. Try to avoid difficult topics.
38. Avoid grammar expressions that you don't know well.
39. Gain time to fill the gap by using expressions such as: "well," "hmm," "umm," "you know," "I'm not sure," and other fillers.
40. Switch to Korean for words & expressions unknown in English.
41. When you want to express an idea that you don't know in En glish, consult the Korean-English dictionary.

Methods and Techniques

What Are We Doing with CLT (Communicative Language Teaching)? A Korean Case Study of a Secondary EFL Classroom

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Research suggests that many innovations prompted by implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in such EFL countries as Korea have generally been proved difficult (Brindley & Hood, 1990; Anderson, 1993; Ellis, 1994; Li, 1998) while such innovations have been widespread in ESL countries (Li, 1998). As the direct export of educational methodology across culture can cause enormous problems (Penner, 1995), it has been observed that many Korean teachers of English have encountered difficulties since pedagogical re-orientation towards a CLT-based curriculum was introduced in EFL teaching in Korea.

It is understandable that Korean teaechers are under great pressure to update their knowledge and skills in their teaching to meet the new curriculum requirements. This is particularly difficult for teachers who still largely operate in the traditional framework of their mind. Inasmuch as many teaching methodologies developed in the West are apparently difficult to introduce into such a different reality where the emphasis is on teacher control, grammatical manipulation, and etc., CLT needs a place to negotiate its survival learning as much about the Korean educational culture. To that effect, this pilot study intends to identify the Korean classroom culture in EFL teaching and learning, and examine how the culture restricts pedagogical changes prompted by the application of CLT. It examines the perceptions held by Korean secondary school teachers of English in this regard.

CLT in Korea

Considering further effects of recent wave of globalization, the Korean government has addressed new policies concerning English teaching and learning in order to introduce a more communicative approach with all four-macro skills of communication included. The Ministry of Education first issued a CLT curriculum in 1990s with prescriptions regarding the aims, principles and methods of English language teaching and learning, its contents, approaches and evaluation methods. The Seventh National Curriculum, a national guideline for teaching at Korean secondary schools as of 2001, highlights communicative competence as "the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers of English in real-life situations" (Development Committee, 1997). It encourages a learner-centred

approach in the focus on the learning process as essential features of the language classroom (Scarino, et al., 1988). In this new curriculum, the objectives of learning should reflect the needs of the learner, and learning activities should involve real communication, learning tasks meaningful to the learner.

This government initiative to restructure the traditional English language curriculum, by emphasizing more the communicative competence, has encouraged Korean classroom practitioners to apply CLT. However, many of them have perceived difficulties in the process of the CLT application as identified and described under four main categories in Li's (1998) case study: 1) those caused by the teacher, 2) the students, 3) the educational system, and 4) CLT itself. From a mismatch between the instrumental aims of CLT and their own situation, then it follows that an investigation of the Korean classroom culture is necessary in order to understand the process of EFL teaching and learning. It is argued that resistance to the pedagogical change is to a large extent resultant from an established notion of teaching and learning in Korea.

CONCEPTUALIZING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND CLT

The key concern for proponents of CLT is the development of 'communicative competence' (Pachler, 2000). The emphasis on communicative competence was prompted by a redefinition and broadening of the concept of linguistic proficiency from structural knowledge of language towards a focus on the language functions that linguistic items perform, and the implicit theory of communicative competence is that of language as communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1995; Pachler, 2000).

Hymes (1972) was among the first to use the term communicative competence stating that "the ability to speak competently not only entails knowing the grammatical rules of a language, but also knowing what to say to whom in what circumstances and how to say it" (in Scacella, 1990). Savignon (1972) also defined communicative competence incorporating linguistic competence as one of its components: "Communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors". Her view of the notion of communicative competence emphasises the negotiative nature of communication (Hadley, 1993).

In the early 1980s, Canale and Swain's (1980) description drew heavily on work of Hymes and proposed a clear theoretical framework for communicative competence which comprises four interacting areas of knowledge and skill (Pachler, 2000): grammatical, sociolingusitic, discourse, and strategic competence. Recent formulation of Bachman's communicative language ability model (1990) provides a much more inclusive description of the knowledge required to use lan-

guage than Canale and Swain do and separates strategic competence completely from what he calls *language competence* (Bachman, 1990; North, 1997; Li, 1998).

Bachman's framework took insights incorporated from both functional linguistics and sociolinguistics to broaden the theoretical view of language ability in which "the user's knowledge of the language rules is interlocked with his knowledge of when, where, and with whom to use them" (Ellis, 1985). In addition to the knowledge of grammatical rules, it includes the knowledge of how language is used to achieve particular communicative goals, and the recognition of language use as a dynamic process (Bachman, 1990).

With the definitions of "communicative competence" came new insights into the various components of language ability that needed to be developed in order to know a language well enough to use it. Models of communicative competence have since been advocated and generally accepted as the aim of language teaching and learning (Zhang, 1997). As the need to increasingly focus on communicative competence, this accordingly demands changes in teaching methodologies that saw the push for CLT in the second and foreign language classrooms (McKay, 1994). The characteristics of CLT is summarized as follows:

> (1) concentration on use and appropriateness rather than simply on language form, (2) a tendency to favour fluency-focused rather than simply accuracy-focused activities, (3) communicative tasks are achieved through the language rather than simply exercises on the language, (4) an emphasis is placed on student initiative and interaction, rather than simply on teacher-centred direction, (5) there will be a sensitivity to learners' differences rather than a "lockstep" approach, and (6) there is an awareness of variations in language use rather than simply attention to the language (Maley, 1984, in Anderson, 1993).

In spite of neat definitions, CLT in practice is very much a fluid and dynamic concept (Zhang, 1997). CLT "is a broad assembly of ideas, from a range of sources (some linguistic, others more broadly educational), which have together come to be accepted as 'good practice' by many contemporary teachers" (Mitchell. 1994). CLT is best viewed as an approach with different permutations derived from a multidisciplinary perspective including, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research (Savignon, 1991). Therefore, instead of searching for one definitive method of CLT, researchers and practitioners have tended to look for appropriate organizing principles (Mitchell and Myles, 1998).

The study

This case study of Korean English teachers' perception aims to investigate EFL teaching and learning in a Korean secondary classroom.

Subjects

Fifteen Korean secondary school teachers of English, from five schools in Seoul, Korea, were invited to participate in this survey and interview study. They ranged

from 25 to 45 years in age. Their experience in teaching English varied from 1 to 18 years, with an average of 7 years. Some participants had taught at both middle and high schools (public school teachers in Korea must transfer schools every 5 years; middle school teachers commonly transfer to high schools and vice versa). They provided a wealth of information based on their teaching experiences with all different grades and levels of students whom they had taught at different secondary schools.

Data collection

Data was collected utilizing semi-structured interviews with five of the 15 survey participants currently teaching English in Korean secondary schools, as well as through completed questionnaires.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit information about, and teachers' perceptions of, English teaching in Korean secondary classrooms, especially using CLT. Some open-ended questionnaire items were included to identify their perceived difficulties in applying CLT.

Interviews with five teachers were conducted to explore further issues arising from analysis of the questionnaire, particularly relating to the process of applying CLT. Some specific questions were formulated after initial data analysis, and the teachers were questioned on aspects of the process of teaching and learning in the Korean English classroom context.

The interviews were conducted in their mother tongue, Korean, to ensure a comfortable atmosphere and a free flow of information. Each interview was audio-taped. After the content of the tapes were transcribed, translation of the material was undertaken. Existing documents were also used as a source of data collection. These data helped clarify and triangulate findings in the interviews and questionnaire responses.

Methods of data analysis

A qualitative method, triangulation, was used to analyze the data. As this study attempts to examine how the Korean EFL secondary classroom culture restricts the pedagogical changes prompted by CLT application, the use of an interpretive methodology was preferred.

In keeping with the triangulation method, data categorisation, analysis and interpretation were adopted. Completed questionnaires were first perused for initial investigation of difficulties the teachers perceived in their CLT classroom practices. Interview transcripts were then perused in an attempt to identify qualitatively dissimilar difficulties perceived in the process of the CLT application across participants, and to categorize in terms of the predominant constructs. Initial categories formed the basis for distinguishing a number of difficulties that were then

used as an analytical framework for additional readings of each questionnaire and transcript in order to further test the validity of the categories that had been developed. This resulted in further slight modifications to the categories (see Table 1). All transcripts and the other data sources were then re-examined in terms of the categories of the dominant perception the teachers held which has been interpreted and described within a framework of classroom culture used for this study.

Results

The procedure described above resulted in the emergence of valuable insights concerning a variety of conflicts that arose in attempting to implement CLT into a traditional Korean EFL classroom. The conflicts were classified using a culture of the classroom framework. Classroom culture is manifested through at least three basic elements: beliefs, pedagogy, and structure (Werner, 1991; Penner, 1995). They are interrelated and pose as difficulties and challenges faced by Korean secondary school EFL teachers in applying CLT.

Belief: Teaching as transmission of knowledge/skills

"In the same way I learned English, my students learn by my instructing knowledge-based content through explanation. Students are tamed by this traditional teaching style".
(*teacher's transmission role*)

In a traditional way of teaching in Korea, the teacher has a full responsibility for making decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, and when it will be learned. Teacher-oriented instruction places students in a submissive role and requires them to obey the teacher's instructions, as it is commonly known (Sims, 1995). Therefore, teaching is perceived as a passing of the teacher's knowledge and experience be taken in, where the teacher and the knowledge is in focus and students are somewhere in the background. It is based on the assumptions that students need to know only what the teacher teaches them. This results in the complete dependency upon the teacher. Efforts need to be made to move away from this model to a CLT model that requires more student involvement in his or her own learning.

"Although the new textbook is far more communicative than before, there are lots of things to explain about English. Explaining requires me to talk nearly all the time in class and I always try to develop an easier way to pass on my knowledge to students".

"Students mainly listen and try to memorize grammar and vocabulary knowledge about English in the classroom as I teach".

In the Korean approach, the teacher has authority that comes from holding all the knowledge to be transmitted to students. In other words, if the teacher is wrong, it is assumed that the teacher does not have sufficient knowledge and therefore might lose his/her authority in the classroom. The overall viewpoint of teaching is

explaining passages and contexts, giving answers to controversial questions, lecturing on the content the teacher teaches, and so on. The influence on philosophical foundation for education in Korea laid by one of the greatest thinkers in China, Confucius, still requires the teacher to be a model for students to follow (Rao, 1996).

Table 1: **A Korean Classroom Culture**

Elements	Description	Examples	*No. of mentions
Belief	Teaching is transmitting knowledge or skills.	Tell, explain, give answers, lecture on the content	12
	Learning is for students to take in knowledge/skills.	Listen to, learn, memorise and accumulate lexical and grammatical knowledge, read the text	11
	Role of the teacher is knowing and passing knowledge	Hold knowledge to be passed on to students	10
	Role of the student is receiving knowledge the teacher passes	Students should pay attention to what I teach and listen to me.	11
Pedagogy	Teaching and learning for exams are guiding principles of school life	The aim of schooling is for students to achieve good results in exams.	9
	Teacher-oriented instruction to meet the demands of exams (backwash effect)	I focus on providing lexical/grammatical knowledge to let students be able to pass many exams.	12
	No efficient assessment instruments for macro-skills of communication	I have no reliable tools to test students' speaking abilities.	13
Structure	Large-sized classrooms hinder a learner-centred approach.	I find it difficult to check students whether they are doing tasks given during the class.	13
		Lack of classroom interactions (teacher-student, student-student)	12
		Impossible to evaluate each student's performance and give them feedback during classroom activities	12
	A class with mixed abilities of students hinders meaningful learning to all.	I find difficult in providing students with meaningful tasks to keep them interested and motivated.	14
		I think it is almost impossible to meet the needs of all the students.	13

* The number of the times to an example in either questionnaire or interview. The maximum number of mentions possible for each of the examples included within the three elements is 15.

"When I teach students knowledge about linguistic features, I am really confident enough to make myself feel I am a good teacher. I knew what and how to explain …. CLT gives me a pressure of that I should teach more in English. And the fact that my students will pay a lot of attention to my English makes me stressed. I do not want to lose my authority in front of students by making a mistake in spoken English which I do not feel confident with".

CLT views learning as a skill development rather than a knowledge receiving process (Penner, 1995). It is believed that students learn through using and experimenting with English, which is viewed as a means for communication (Littlewood, 1984). Errors are tolerated because they are viewed as indicators of development (Penner, 1995). This CLT requirement, of students' taking on much more responsibility for their own learning, leads the teacher to focus on providing the conditions for the process of student development, that is, initiating the process, observing it, trying to understand it, giving guidance, helping it along, analyzing and evaluating it (Li, 1984). These new roles imply a different set of skills than merely a knower role. The teacher needs to make a conceptual shift in order to succeed in understanding and carrying out these new roles required by CLT.

"In CLT, I think that teachers have to be active and encourage students to speak English as much as they can. It is a very different role from the one in a lecture kind of setting. When CLT was not introduced in a secondary school classroom, it was just okay for me to know and explain about what to teach in the textbook. But now it seems that CLT requires me to perform various roles for making students actively participate in more communicative activities in class and developing their communicative skills".

The framework of passive learning has allowed Korean students to be introvert in their learning, making them unable to use English as an effective communicative tool, reluctant to engage in critical or independent thinking, and content with being passive receivers of knowledge. There is not much of teacher-student or student-student interaction in Korean EFL classrooms. As a result of studying English for several years in that way, students might have learned how to analyze sentence structures and how to translate and appreciate English literature, but they remain at a loss when they meet English speakers (Rao, 1996). This inability to apply what they have learned in the classroom greatly limits Korean people in communicating effectively with English-speaking people.

"My students have little motivation to become an active learner. This is partly because there are not many opportunities [where they need to use English actively]. Reading comprehension, writing, and even listening comprehension do not require them to be active. This learning environment hardly stimulates students to participate in classroom interaction with the teacher or other students".

As Korea continues to have more frequent contact with English-speaking countries and people, the English language classroom needs to aim to develop students' communicative skills. The development of skills for communication is the main focus in many language classrooms, since CLT started from research in the 1970s towards "communicative competence" (Hymes, 1972), is suggested to be more than the knowledge of the grammatical system of language. CLT has as its

ultimate aim, communication in language learning. Classroom interaction and student participation should be thus focused as ways of learning and developing skills related to the functions and uses of language.

Pedagogy: Exam-based curriculum and the effect on teaching

> *"Schooling seems to be for achieving good results in the exams to access to further education at decent universities and ensure social advantages."* (*Exam-oriented curriculum*)

Although both the new national curriculum and CLT aim to meet the needs of students, many teachers in the Korean school context aim to provide lexical and grammatical knowledge to let students be able to pass many exams they must take in their academic career. Since 1994, school exams have had an additional part called "Listening comprehension", but the overall English exams still contain a structural view of language. Teachers, students, school authorities and parents are all forced to recognize that passing or doing well in exams is the single most important aim of schooling, no matter what is stated in the curriculum. Therefore, teaching and learning for exams have become the guiding principles of school life (Zhang, 1997).

> "When students enter middle school, they get so stressed out taking regular mid-term and final exams. What I teach should be in the exams they take and vice versa. Also the exams mainly test their grammatical knowledge and reading comprehension, so my teaching has to keep up with their exam preparation to make them feel secure".

With getting high marks in exams as the main purpose, the backwash effect determines that teachers have to be 'exam-wise' and teaching and learning approaches and strategies are tailored to meet the demands of tests (Zhang, 1997). The backwash effect leaves no room for CLT in developing all four macro-skills of communication.

> "Performing well in school exams is a big pressure, especially when the exam period is approaching. I ask them to study hard enough to get good marks and students even explicitly ask me to inform them what questions will be in the exams. Exams control teaching content and methods".

Gradually, the need to focus on modifying the content of exams ultimately compromises CLT, which has led the Ministry of Education to announce that students' speaking ability be measured to be credited as a part of their overall academic achievement. However, there are no reliable and efficient assessment tools designed and provided for testing speaking, as a teacher comments,

> "I let my students speak for five minutes in English about the topic given and assess their speaking abilities in class. I do not think it is reliable because there is no accurate criteria to measure their speaking ability. I wish I would have well-made prescribed assessment tools provided for testing students' speaking ability".

This is a result of a great emphasis on evaluating grammatical competence, which comes from the structural view of language. In this situation, a more learner-centred CLT with students in meaningful and interactive activities in learning English does not seem to have a place though it is sorely needed (Zhang, 1997).

Structure I Class size: Large classes as the rule

> *"I feel so difficult to adopt CLT because there are too many in the classroom". (large-sized classroom)*

On account of class size, it is said by some that it poses insurmountable problems for teachers. First of all, there is a problem of control and management that a large class creates. Additionally, it is felt that the teaching-learning process itself is a problem in large classes, as teachers are unable to provide individual attention to students or to organise the kind of interactive activities considered so essential to CLT. Teachers are concerned about control and discipline in large classes and not being aware of everything that is taking place. The ability to physically reach all students is necessary for the teacher to accept the learning environment as meaningful.

> "I teach in classes of over 45 students. There is a lack of individual contact between my students and me, and it leads to inattentiveness. Teaching in front of groups of as large as 45 students does not allow me to stay sensitive to each of them. I sense a remoteness between the class and myself. And I also find it difficult to check they are doing tasks given".

> *"When I start moving away from an "up-front" position in class during group or pair work, the class gets chaotic. Some make noise talking to one another without paying attention to activities at all while others motivated by some interesting classroom activities become overenthusiastic and difficult to control. I worry about that the noise affecting neighbouring classes. To make the class managed, I had better stand up in front of the class to control all the students' behaviours".*

As some teachers point out, large classes "*make it difficult for each student to participate in the learning process".* Increased class sizes can certainly reduce the possibility for individual responses from the viewpoint of time. Poor student attention decreases the effectiveness of CLT that assumes that students are willing to be active participants.

Another major concern for many large class teachers involves monitoring and giving feedback necessary in a learner-centred approach. As a teacher says, "*It is nearly impossible to carefully evaluate all homework, and I find it difficult to give students feedback that responds to specific needs during classroom activities, because I have to take care of too many students in the classroom*". This expresses a concern to correct homework thoroughly, to provide maximum feedback to students. The time required for such would probably result in homework being assigned only rarely and less frequently than the teacher sees as necessary.

If feedback is possible during the class, the attention paid to one or a few students may cause other learning activities to stop, and result in the other students losing interest in the lesson.

The large-class culture exists as the rule rather than the exception in Korea where the continual increase in the number of students has put enormous pressure on available resources and has made large classes an inevitable fact of academic life. Starting CLT in a large-sized classroom limits teachers in obtaining detailed knowledge of the learning problems and styles of their students, except for in a very general way. A learner-centred communicative approach aiming to meet the needs of students is not likely to succeed in large class teaching. As experienced teachers point out that CLT is impractical in large EFL classes, class size is regarded as a significant variable in the development of fluency in the language.

Structure II Class composition: Mixed levels of students

> *"Another big concern to me is that many different levels of students learn English under the same tasks in the same classroom at the same time. Their motivations are also different".* (*Mixed abilities and motivations in the classroom*)

Another feature of Korean secondary school is that one class contains 35 to 50 students and frequently the students bring to the classroom mixed abilities, motivations and experiences of learning English. Consequently teachers experience difficulty in ensuring that all students can benefit from learning in class, preventing students' from losing their motivation and interest, subsequently not taking the English lessons seriously.

> "Students studying in the same classroom have very different abilities, motivations and interests in English language learning. Some are highly motivated, but there are also quite a number of students that do not have any interest or motivation. Seriously, this mixture of class does not provide students with a meaningful learning environment. Besides, I very much worry about their losing the motivation and interests they might have had".

The need to increasingly focus on meaningful learning in CLT relates to the need to keep all students busy for as much of the time as possible to ensure that attention and concentration is not lost. With highly motivated students this perhaps is not a serious concern, but with the generally low motivation perceived to persist in classes it becomes a problem and would prohibit the use of a variety of available materials and tasks in class. Tasks may have to be repeated, if the lessons provided by the teachers are not grasped by all or not grasped in the same manner by all. In repeating and redoing materials to make sure that materials are thoroughly learned, advance students seem to get bored and lose contact with a class.

> "A class in Korean secondary schools consists of multi-levels of students. Some are really advanced and others are at beginners' level. If I stay at a task till every student understands, able students get bored and this would result in poor in-class learning for them".

Another concern in teaching multi-levels of students is the difficulty to attend to weaker students. It involves two aspects, identifying weak students and then finding opportunities to attend to them. The time the teacher spends with a class is quite limited, and becoming aware of who needs what kind of special attention will take time, particularly for teachers teaching in large classes.

> "I think that it is needed to pay more attention to less able or poor students, but there are too many students with different levels. It takes time me to sort out who are in which levels. Even though I figure out who I should pay more attention to, it is not so easy to spare time for each of them during the class".

Similar to the situation arising for large classes, the needs of students studying in the classroom are not met.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The results of the present study indicate that elements, such as the established notion of teaching and learning, the impact of exam-oriented curriculum and multi-levels of students in a large class which manifest in the English language class-room culture in Korea restrict pedagogical change prompted by implementing CLT. Apparently and undoubtedly, it is a challenging endeavor that will take time for educational theories of Western countries to be localised in a country with very different underlying teaching and learning theories and practices, social and cultural background, and teaching environment exist as constraints (Penner, 1995).

A program plan or curriculum is more than a list of teaching strategies and materials, but is also a set of assumption and implied roles which do have implications for the teacher (Werner, 1988). Teaching practices should be consonant with teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, so the Korean teachers' conceptual shift of the feasibility of CLT is a key to benefit from and eventually integrate CLT into the classroom. At the time of major social changes in the 'global village' world of today, the most fundamental and important factor in successful implementation of educational innovations, is the teachers' perception on what they can do about those new movements rather than taking the difficulties they perceive for granted. Teachers are central to long-lasting changes (Frymier, 1987; Fullan, 1993; Li, 1998).

CONCLUSION

The constraints as identified in this study are interrelated and together they form a formidable reality facing teachers mandated to adopt CLT in their class-rooms. In addition, the Ministry of Education of Korea announced a gradual introduction of TEE (Teaching English in English) in early 2000, which requires secondary school teachers to use English as a medium of instruction in their classrooms. It is necessary to implement pedagogy-induced changes in both teachers' perception and classroom practices. To ensure its success, it is imperative that teachers should be supported to move towards a CLT-oriented classroom, and

CLT has to negotiate its survival in the dilemma between dealing with the Korean classroom culture and addressing the needs and expectations of its local users.

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Oldies but Goodies: A New Look at "Old" Techniques

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Practitioners in the field of ELT can be accused (sometimes quite rightly) of having short memories. Methods and techniques that were once popular are discarded as old-fashioned and ineffective to make way for the latest trend. In recent years, however, voices have been raised against this tendency. Teachers are beginning to realize that some "old" techniques have much to offer, and are based on sound pedagogical principles. In this paper, three "old" techniques that are currently being reappraised will be described: dictation, reading aloud, and repetitive practice. The author will first present background information about the techniques and explain why they fell out of favor in CLT. Then, ways in which the techniques can be utilized in CLT, in addition to empirical evidence regarding the effectiveness of the techniques, will be presented. Finally, the author will describe how he makes use of the techniques in his own classes.

INTRODUCTION

English language teaching (ELT) is a "fashion-conscious" field. Fashion, of course, refers not to what is worn in the classroom, but what is done in the classroom. While perhaps not quite as fickle as their counterparts in the real fashion world, ELT "authorities" dispense with previously lauded techniques in favor of the latest trend with disturbing regularity. In recent years, however, voices have been raised against this tendency. Maley (2001, p. 5) laments the "collective professional amnesia" he observes in the field, and argues that we have much to learn from those who came before us. Cook (1994) makes a strong argument for the revival of two techniques currently "outlawed" by communicative language teaching (CLT), and goes on to conclude that that new theories in the field should be regarded as "additions rather than alternatives" (p. 139).

While the theory-makers in ELT engage in sometimes acrimonious debate on the pages of journals in the field, teachers occasionally find themselves at a loss for what to do in their classes. In many cases, they experiment with the latest trends, and may gradually integrate them into their teaching. Nevertheless, faced with the daily reality of educating their learners, it is not surprising that they often find themselves falling back on the tried-and-true techniques that they have found to be effective. Because these techniques may be regarded as "old-fashioned" and contrary to current thinking, some teachers may not want to admit that they use them, and may even feel guilty for doing so.

In this paper, I will examine three old-fashioned techniques that, in the era of CLT, teachers may feel guilty about using: dictation, reading aloud, and repetitive practice. Given the gradually growing consensus that the constant changing of

fashions in the field is counterproductive, I will argue that teachers need not feel guilty about using these techniques, and will show that close examination reveals them to be based on sound theoretical and pedagogical principles. Addressing each of the techniques in turn, I will first provide background information about the history of the technique and explain why it fell out of favor in CLT. Then, I will provide support for the technique, including ideas for how it can be implemented successfully in CLT approaches, evidence from second language acquisition research and classroom-centered research, and finally testimony from my own experiences as a teacher.

DICTATION

In his enlightening book *25 Centuries of Language Teaching,* Kelly (1969, p. 94) writes that "(d)ictation is one of the few exercises consistently employed throughout the history of language teaching." As is evident from the title of this book, language teaching has a very long history, making dictation very old indeed. The author goes on to explain that prior to the Middle Ages, dictation was the primary method of transmitting information from teacher to pupil in L1 settings, and that it was not until after the Middle Ages that it began to be used for teaching foreign languages.

Teachers today most likely associate dictation with the grammar-translation method. Less well known today, perhaps, is that dictation was also utilized in the Direct Method, which arose in the late 19th and early 20th centuries as a challenge to grammar-translation. In the Direct Method, with its focus on speech and phonetics, the technique was used primarily to teach the sounds and spellings of the language (Montalvan, n.d.). The audiolingual method went even further than the Direct Method with its emphasis on the spoken language, and a result found little use for dictation.

Like the audiolingual method, CLT also rejected dictation, although for different reasons. First, in an approach that stresses using authentic, communicative activities for language learning, dictation was seen to be just another drill, inauthentic and uncommunicative. Another strike against the technique was that it was considered to be too teacher-centered. This made it unwelcome in a methodology that places emphasis on interactive, learner-centered activities that foster creativity.

Despite the apparent clash between dictation and the principles of CLT, some practitioners in the field have risen to its defense. Morris (1983) argues that dictation can help learners focus on their errors, develop their short-term memory, and reinforce their knowledge of structure and grammar. Davis and Rinvolucri (1988) extend the defense to book-length form in a handbook for teachers that is full of ideas for ways to use dictation in communicative, interactive, and learner-centered ways. Finally, Wajnryb's (1990) book-length treatment of the "dictogloss" technique demonstrates that having learners reconstruct dictated texts can encour-

age interaction and cooperation, in addition to fostering creativity. For anyone with reservations about the suitability of dictation in CLT, a quick glance at these two books should dispel any doubts. Considering the number of novel ideas for using dictation in communicative ways that they contain, it is obvious that dismissing dictation as an "old-fashioned" drill is shortsighted.

Dictation can also be supported with evidence from research into second language acquisition (SLA). One of the more interesting ideas that has come out of SLA research, at least in terms of its relevance for language teaching, is that of "noticing." In a study of his own experiences acquiring Portuguese, Schmidt and his co-author Frota (1986) argue that learners must consciously notice forms in the target language in order for acquisition to take place. This, and a subsequent paper by Schmidt (1990) on the role of consciousness in language learning, has led to renewed focus on the role of grammar instruction in language teaching, reincarnated as "focus on form." While the grammar instruction of old and the new focus on form do have some similarities, they are not entirely the same. Focus on form instruction maintains the key CLT principle of using language for meaningful communication in the classroom, but in the process of doing so adds the idea of drawing learners attention to structures that they might not have noticed by themselves. In a paper often cited by supporters of focus on form, it is very interesting to observe that Fotos (1993) utilizes dictation as one of the two "noticing exercises" in her study. While she does not make specific mention of the benefits of dictation, it is clear that the technique certainly has the ability to draw learners' attention to structures in the target language.

A classroom-centered study that makes a link between noticing and dictation was conducted by Lynch (2001). While Lynch uses the word "transcribing" instead of "dictation" in his paper, the two are fundamentally the same in that the learners are taking in aural data and transferring it to written form. The author had his learners work together to transcribe a speaking activity that they themselves had recorded on tape. After transcribing the conversation, they were asked to identify any errors in their production and correct them to the best of their ability. The results of the experiment revealed that the learners noticed many of their own errors, and in addition, had a positive attitude about the usefulness of the activity itself. While this study suggests that the activity was effective as a "productive route to noticing" (p. 131), as the author concedes in his conclusion, this does not necessarily mean that it has any long-term benefits for learners' language acquisition.

A classroom-centered study that examined the benefits of dictation over a longer period of time was conducted by Takeuchi (1997). The experiment was carried out at a junior college in Japan with three treatment groups. Over a period of 13 weeks, the subjects watched portions of the American movie "Ferris Bueller's Day Off" in a language laboratory and completed dictation exercises as they watched. At the end of the 13 weeks, the subjects took a listening comprehension

test. Comparing the results of this test with a pretest administered at the beginning of the 13 weeks, Takeuchi found statistically significant gains in the subjects' listening comprehension. He concludes that this demonstrates the effectiveness of dictation as a pedagogical tool; however, he concedes that other variables, such as learners studying on their own outside of class, could also have played a part in improving test scores.

In addition to the support cited above from SLA and empirical research, my own experiences as a teacher have led me to believe that dictation deserves greater recognition as a useful and effective teaching technique. When teaching relatively large classes in a university setting, I have found that using dictation as a lead-in activity for a story or video is an excellent way to focus learners' attention at the beginning of class. In a course that made use of the movie "Jurassic Park" and a graded reader of the same story, doing dictated comprehension questions at the beginning of class before reading the book or watching the movie was rated highly by the learners in a questionnaire at the end of the semester (Crawford, 2001). Part of the reason why the learners may have enjoyed the dictation is that is provides a "change of pace" from activities more commonly employed in CLT. Especially for learners accustomed to a sense of "structure" in their classes, dictation may be seen as a welcome change from CLT 's inventory of free practice techniques. In another course taught at the university level, a textbook (Kumai & Timson, 1998) that teaches reductions in English through the use of cloze dictations of sentences and music was well received by learners. Pre-test and post-test scores from the beginning and the end of the semester revealed significant gains in comprehension, and the learners also appeared to gain in confidence with respect to their ability to understand English spoken at natural speed.

READING ALOUD

Reading aloud has a history as old as that of dictation. In ancient Rome, as Kelly (1969) reminds us, the reading aloud of poetry was equivalent to publication. During the Low Latin period, he writes that reading aloud in the classroom maintained its prominence because "classical literature was never meant to be read silently" (p. 97).

Grammar-translation made use of reading aloud, often in the form of learners reading their translations aloud. The Direct Method borrowed the technique from grammar- translation, but used it for a different purpose. Similar to the way in which it adapted dictation for the teaching of sounds and spellings, it used reading aloud to teach stress and intonation. In audiolingualism, not only reading aloud, but also the teaching of silent reading was de-emphasized. This was criticized as a weakness of the approach as the tide began to turn against it (Saville-Troike, 1973).

CLT has for the most part viewed reading aloud in a negative light. In the early 1970s, research into the psycholinguistic processes involved in L1 reading sug-

gested that fast readers had higher levels of comprehension than slow readers because they processed language in "chunks" rather than word by word (Been, 1975). CLT, which has always placed importance on the centrality of meaning, presumed that this also applied to L2 readers, and from there concluded that the word-by-word processing involved in reading aloud handicaps learners and slows their progress. Also, it is probably fair to say that some CLT practitioners viewed reading aloud as a old-fashioned, pedantic technique that is simply a way for un-prepared teachers to "kill time" (Rees, 1980).

While some of the criticisms of reading aloud cited above may be valid, these criticisms are best leveled against *how* the technique was used in the past, not the technique itself. One possibility for the technique that seems to have been over-looked is having the teacher read aloud rather than the learners. If the material to be read aloud consists of stories, news, and the like, clearly the criterion of mean-ingful communication is met. Recently in CLT, there has been renewed interest in the use of stories in language teaching, to the extent that the idea of arranging an entire curriculum around the telling of stories has been proposed (McQuillan and Tse, 1998). This proposal, called the Narrative Approach, starts with the teacher telling very simple stories to the learners, then gradually moves to things such as adolescent literature and popular fiction. Another aspect of reading aloud that has been overlooked by many in CLT is that there are ways of making the technique interactive and learner-centered. Helgesen (1993) acknowledges that reading aloud has fallen out of favor, but then goes on to describe a number of interactive and learner-centered ways to use the technique. The fact that these ideas appear in one of the books from TESOL's *New Ways in Teaching* series shows that with a little creative thinking, reading aloud can easily fit into CLT's repertoire of techniques.

It has already been mentioned that CLT, with its emphasis on meaning, inter-preted research into the link between reading speed and comprehension as sup-port for favoring silent reading over reading aloud. The model of reading that this line of research draws on emphasizes the importance of top-down processing in reading, which includes such things as activation of background knowledge, guess-ing, and predicting. Paran (1996), in a look at "facts and fictions" in EFL reading, argues that SLA researchers and ELT practitioners have adopted this model with-out recognizing that it was never considered a solid theory among L1 researchers, and in fact, has been strongly brought into question by subsequent studies. Al-though he concedes that "interactive" models of reading, which stress the impor-tance of both top-down and bottom-up processing, have become more popular in ELT in recent years, he maintains that there has been an overreliance on top-down models. He then proceeds to cite research into word recognition and automaticity and argues that the results of this research can be used to make a case for greater use of practice with bottom-up skills in L2 reading curricula. Paran's arguments are persuasive, and if it is indeed true that CLT practitioners need to develop the bottom-up reading skills of their learners, then it can be claimed that reading aloud deserves a larger role in ELT.

Classroom-centered research that provides empirical support for the pedagogical effectiveness of reading aloud in second language contexts is, unfortunately, rather hard to come by. In one of the few studies available, Amer (1997) divided 75 sixth-grade Egyptian children into two groups. The first group read a story in English silently and then answered comprehension questions about it. The second group read the same story, but the teacher read the story aloud while the children followed along in their books. Results from comprehension tests revealed that the second group had higher levels of comprehension than the first group. Studies from L1 learning contexts are more numerous than those from L2 learning contexts. Elley (1989), in one such study, investigated whether 7-year-old children, whose first language was English, could acquire new vocabulary incidentally by listening to stories. He found that not only did the children acquire new vocabulary, but that the learning was relatively permanent.

In my own teaching, I have found reading aloud to be very useful. In large university classes, I became concerned about the fact that quiet learners, or learners who may lack confidence in their abilities, would sometimes go the entire class without even opening their mouths. I also noticed that some learners would participate actively in pair or small-group work, but appeared reluctant to speak in front of the whole class. While calling on learners is one way to address this problem, unfortunately there is no guarantee that they will actually say something when called upon. It was in attempt to solve this problem that I hit upon the idea of using reading aloud. By using this technique, I found that I could easily get quiet or unconfident learners to speak in front of the class. I also found that there were times when doing a few minutes of reading aloud works well to get learners' attention when concentration may be lagging.

REPETITIVE PRACTICE

Turning again to Kelly (1969), we learn that repetitive practice has been used throughout the history of language teaching. Unlike dictation and reading aloud, however, it has not fallen in and out of favor as methods come and go; rather, it has been molded to fit whatever method may be in vogue at a certain time. This may be due to the importance of repetition for the development of any skill. As Kelly (1969, p. 91) puts it, "by repetition one builds on the knowledge imparted, trying to establish the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing." If Kelly's analysis of the centrality of repetition in language education is accurate, then it may very well be that the years following the publication of his book in 1969 represent the first time in the history of language teaching that repetition has *not* had a significant role. In the early days of CLT, repetitive practice was seen to be the epitome of everything that was wrong about the audiolingual method. The repetitive drills that formed the core of audiolingualism were seen as behavioristic, uncommunicative, inauthentic, and just plain boring. The kind of teaching found in audiolingual methods began to be referred to as "drill and kill," and repetitive practice fell thoroughly out of favor.

The degree to which repetitive practice fell out of favor in CLT is evidenced by Cook (1994)'s referring to it, along with learning by heart, as an "outlaw" activity. In his paper, he criticizes the "fashion-consciousness" of ELT, and makes a strong case for reviving both repetition and learning by heart. His argument rests on the notion of "intimate discourse," which he explains includes such things as conversation between intimates and between adults and children, as well as talking to oneself, prayers, and so on. Cook cites studies in this area that describe intimate discourse as highly repetitive and redundant, and then argues that neglect of this research by linguists has led to a distorted view of real language use. This view, he claims, has been carried over into the field of language education, and reinforced by the theories of Chomsky that emphasize creativity in language acquisition over imitation. As a result, one of the "most pleasurable, valuable, and efficient of language learning activities" (p. 133) has been forgotten.

Another paper that rises to the defense of repetitive practice is Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988). Drawing on research linking linguistic fluency with automaticity (to be discussed in greater detail below), the authors propose a framework for designing activities that allow for repetition while remaining communicative. They also criticize previous approaches for emphasizing the repetition of structures instead of meaningful utterances. It is through the repetitive practice of meaningful utterances in meaningful contexts, they argue, that automatization, and hence fluency, will develop.

Brief mention was made in the previous section about research into automaticity that supports more emphasis on developing bottom-up skills in second language reading education. While going into much detail about this complex field of study is beyond the scope of this paper, let us briefly look at how it can be used to support a role for repetitive practice in second language learning. Drawing on research in cognitive psychology, McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983) examine second language acquisition from the perspective of the information-processing model. With respect to languages, this model proposes that fluent speakers can take in language, process it automatically, and respond quickly. Less competent speakers, on the other hand, cannot process the language automatically, if at all, and may either respond slowly or not at all. According to McLaughlin (1990), what learners require in order to achieve automatic processing is massive amounts of practice and repetition. While this model of how the mind works is still being developed, it suggests that repetition may be critical for successful second language acquisition.

Classroom-centered studies also provide support for the use of repetitive practice. Nation (1989) conducted a study using the 4/3/2 technique, in which learners take 4 minutes to tell a story to a partner the first time, 3 minutes to tell the same story a second time to a different partner, and then 2 minutes for the third time. He found that 7 of the 8 subjects increased the fluency (measured in terms of words spoken per minute) of their delivery between the first and the third time. In a study

of native English speakers studying Spanish, Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, and Fernandez-Garcia (1999) found that subjects who repeated an exercise three times (in this case watching a video segment) demonstrated greater improvement in their Spanish than subjects who performed three different exercises. They claim that this experiment gives some support for the idea that repetitive practice can lead to gains in performance.

From my own experiences working with primarily CLT-based curricula, I have observed some learners express frustration with the pace of their progress. While these feelings are certainly not unique to CLT classrooms, I suspect that because of the degree to which CLT emphasizes free practice, some learners do not get the sense that they have "mastered" the material they have covered. Repetitive practice, and indeed memorization, are effective ways to give learners a feeling of mastery of content, and in turn, confidence about their progress learning the language.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have attempted to show that dictation, reading aloud, and repetitive practice have been, in a sense, condemned without trial. One reason for this is that the field of language teaching draws on so many research areas for ideas, including linguistics, psychology, and education, that it tends to latch on to new trends and ideas before it really understands them. It also may be true that language teachers become frustrated with the methods they are using because their learners seldom make rapid progress. Unfortunately, the fact of the matter is that language learning is a huge task, and no methods or techniques exist that will produce competent users of the language in a short period of time. That includes, of course, the three techniques described in this paper. Nevertheless, this "new look" at the techniques has shown them to be highly worthy of rehabilitation. Let us hope that in the future language teachers will be less "fashion-conscious," and will recognize that not all that has come before is bad.

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Teaching English to Children with Storybooks

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes a multi-age, multi-level English class at Foreign Language Center in which storybooks were used to teach English to young learners as the primary teaching material. The class of twenty elementary school students was team taught by a Korean/English bilingual teacher (Korean) and an English monolingual teacher (American) for 10 weeks. The class focus was on 1) various learning activities based on simple storybooks (intensive reading) and 2) the supplementary read-alouds which were used to increase the students' language exposure and provide motivation (extensive reading). Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills were combined during lessons based on the Whole Language Approach. The author's ideas should help teachers who wish to use storybooks as supplementary material in classes primarily based on textbooks or teachers who wish to completely use storybooks in classes.

INTRODUCTION

Students' actual storybook reading inside or outside class is very rare in Korea. As Bamford pointed, "the rather curious situation has arisen whereby, despite universal acceptance of the view that one becomes a good reader through reading, reading lessons where most time is actually spent on reading (as opposed to discussion, answering questions, etc.) are relatively rare". Therefore, students' reading habits are considered to be very difficult to develop in Korea. (Chris Moran and Eddie Williams (1993, p. 66 in Bamford, J. & Day, R, p. 32)

CHALLENGES IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS IN KOREA

Young learners exposure of English in Korea is quite limited as to (1) classroom time, (2) classroom situations, and (3) classroom study materials. Therefore, they need to be more exposed to interesting materials such as storybooks to get many opportunities to extend both the amount of time and the range of their exposure to contextualized English.

BENEFITS OF STORYBOOK READING

* Vocabulary: Multiple exposures provide incremental learning. Illustrations provide support for word meanings. (Picture Dictionary)
* Spelling: Storybooks increase memory with multiple exposures

* Grammar: Storybooks promote grammar use rather than knowing the labels.
* Reading comprehension: Listening comprehension: storybooks can help students comprehend more from the context.
* Reading speed (Fluency): Storybooks can help reading speed.
* Writing: Multiple exposures can let readers be familiarized to the words and they can imitate or they can create their own stories.
* Conversation: Storybooks have many conversational patterns, so that students can increase their conversing skills.
* Understanding culture: Storybooks can help students to understand other cultures.

RESEARCH ON EXTENSIVE READING

The backgrounds of 101 students from different countries and with different first languages showed that:

> 1. The variable which correlates most highly with TOEFL (scores) is extracurricular reading" in English.

> 2. ... reading outside class has a strong direct effect on the TOEFL scores. ...the single most important factor in improving (English) proficiency as reflected in the TOEFL is outside reading."

(Gradman & Hanania, 1991)

> Extensive reading (with Japanese university students) proved to be superior to traditional (English teaching) approaches on measures of reading comprehension, as well as on measures of writing and reading speed, and according to teacher observations, was much more popular with students.

(Mason & Krashen, 1997)

Collin Davis has worked with high school ESL extensive reading programs in the United Kingdom, in Singapore, and in Cameroon for over 18 years. He states that,

> This experience has convinced me that extensive reading is a crucial adjunct to classroom teaching, in helping to expose pupils to far more 'good' English than the unassisted English teacher could ever hope to do-and that it can do this ... enjoyably...

He reports that his students have improved in reading skills, language skills, personal growth and they obtained better exam results." (Davis, 1995)

> Students who read a lot will not become fluent overnight, and it may take a year or two before you notice a marked improvement in their productive skills (speaking and writing): but then it often comes as a breakthrough that results in their progressing at increasing speed and far outstripping their classmates who have not developed the reading habit.

(Nuttall, 1996)

Therefore, "the best way to improve the knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it." (Nuttall, 1996)

How to Choose Storybooks: 5 finger method

If there are five unknown words on a page, that book is difficult for the student. So students must choose the storybook in which there are less than 5 unknown words on a page.   It is important for students to start to read an easy storybook.

How to Teach Storybooks

1. Intensive Reading: A Korean teacher is in charge of the intensive reading class where the teacher teaches English using simple storybooks. Students have these books and tapes.

2. Extensive Reading: An American teacher is in charge of the extensive reading class where the teacher chooses some storybooks whose topic is as same as the intensive reading storybook.

3. Activities: Activities are accompanied by storybook reading.
  - Listening to the story with words covered
  - Asking about the objects or actions in the picture
  - Interactive reading aloud
  - Reading (speaking) with peers
  - Brainstorming
  - Making a Story-map
  - TPR (Total Physical Response)
  - Game: Swatting game, Spinning game, Group writing game, Missing game, Survey game, Matching game, etc.
  - Practicing conversation pattern
  - Drawing an impressive scene from the book
  - Sequencing
  - Recording a favorite story
  - Making their own books
  - Song
  - Role play, Play
  - SSR (Sustained Silent Reading): Extensive Reading Club
  - My Favorite Book: Book Report
  - Related experiential learning activities

RESEARCH RESULTS

Student Questionnaire

Students showed that they loved listening to the extensive reading stories read by an American teacher, performing a play, making a story-map and making their own books. They also liked swatting game, tests, and SSR.

Most students preferred to take the storybook class next session as opposed to the traditional conversation class. But some children didn't like the storybook class mainly because they were so shy that they didn't like to act in front of other students and audience.

Vocabulary Growth

Students took the diagnostic test during the first week and the achievement test during the last week, based on the storybooks. They gained more vocabulary at the end of the session. We did not intentionally teach vocabulary in the storybook, but just let children be exposed to the stories.

CONCLUSION

"It is important to start students off with short, easy books. The achievement will motivate them to start another book and success will build on success, provided they don't move to more difficult books until they are ready." (Nuttall: 142)

"The amount of free reading done consistently correlates with performance on reading comprehension tests, a result that confirms the hypothesis that we learn to read by reading". (Stephen Krashen 1988, p. 291 in Bamford, J. & Day, R, p. 32) Reading inside and outside class can give students a love for reading in the foreign language, and the reading habit will remain throughout their lives. Children can learn more and have more fun by reading storybooks.

It also seems important that teachers must spend time in developing various interesting activities based on the storybooks. It seems that reading more storybooks is the only way to become a successful learner.

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APPENDIX - GLOSSARY

Whole Language Approach

1. Language is presented as a whole and not as isolated pieces. The approach is thus holistic rather than atomistic, attempts to teach language in real contexts and situations, and emphasizes the purposes for which language is used.

2. Learning activities move from whole to part, rather than from part to whole.

3. All four modes of language are used, thus lessons include all four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, rather than a single skill.

4. Language is learned through social interaction with others, hence students often work in pairs or groups instead of individually.

Extensive Reading

- It means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read.

- It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading.

- It means rapidly reading book after book.

- A reader's attention should be on the meaning, not the language, of the text.

Intensive Reading

- It is generally at a slower speed, and requires a higher degree of understanding than extensive reading.

- It means to take a text, study it line by line, referring at every moment to our dictionary and our grammar, comparing, analysing, translating, and retaining every expression that it contains.   - Palmer, Harold (1921/1964, pp. 111) -

From Dictation to Online Story Writing Through Pictures

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ABSTRACT

In Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, a five-year college, freshmen take "English Listening and Writing" in which teacher-controlled dictation is the main writing task. It is believed that dictation helps learners write down what they hear, yet dictation appears threatening to most students. Thus, the presenter made a slight change in her teaching style. Learners are invited to make stories based on the pictures in the textbook, those supplied by the instructor, and from their collections. The stories generated turn into the materials of dictation and their works are then published on the website. Being involved in the material design, learners become much more motivated writers and the surprising endings of the stories reveal the teenagers' creative ability. In this workshop the presenter will discuss such a change and present the learners stories on the teacher-made website.

INTRODUCTION

Wenzao Ursuline College, the institute where the writer is teaching, is a language college for teenagers and adults to learn foreign languages. It is an all-English teaching/learning environment. Freshmen take a basic listening and writing course entitled English Listening and Writing. Dictation is the medium used to put the two skills. The so-called dicto-composition has been used in Wenzao first-year courses as a traditional method for about a decade. Nevertheless, it is also threatening to students in that the rules of the dicto-composition and the grading system are strict. As a result, it is not easy for most students to gain a satisfactory grade. When the learners' anxiety is high, learning is less productive.

In order to lower learners' anxiety and increase their motivation and active involvement, the presenter encouraged learners to create their own stories based on the fixed pictures in the textbook: their creation became the text for the teacher to read for the dictation. Thus, the teacher-controlled dicto-composition became more student-centered creative story-telling. In this presentation, the writer shows the changes that were made to lead learners from traditional dictation to online story writing through pictures.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Dicto-composition originally was used to help learners acquire meaning and form from dictation. Pictures are used as powerful visual aids that help learners maintain the story line in language learning. Wright (1989) states that pictures have played important roles in writing. Firstly, they sustain and encourage learners' attention participation. Secondly, the context exists in the pictures. Thirdly, they provide ample language skill practice. Furthermore, they supply learners a great deal of information to create conversation, discussion, story telling, and make inferences. Finally, students may have a chance to develop their critical thinking skills when involved in the activities of picture application. After all, human beings are born interested in stories.

Whether in controlled or free language practice, learners may express their feelings and ideas without worrying about being "right" or "wrong" since the meaning of the pictures can be created and the sequence can be arranged with imagination. Thus, using pictures in writing offers not only challenges but also opportunities.

Incorporating the power of the web in the classroom, Jackson (1999) successfully put the power of information technology into the hands of the learners to construct online collaborative learning projects. Nowadays, students are into-information technology, and surfing the net has become an important medium for language use. Online writing provides an interactive reader-writer relationship. Writers who see their works posted, i.e. "published", on the net have a sense of accomplishement. Readers who have a chance to read different types of texts or different stories based on the same pictures may reflect on them more willingly online than in person. Links existing on the net also give learners a chance to practice language skills as well as promote self-directed learning. Utilizing wonders of technology for searching, writing, recording, taking quizzes, or doing surveys, and publishing on the internet promotes ownership of information, collaboration, and understanding of the writing process (Close & Ramsey, 2000).

TRADITIONAL DICTATION

Beginning Composition through Pictures (Longman, 1975) is the textbook for the four-hour credit course "English Listening & Writing", which including two hours' work in the language lab. Although it takes one to two weeks to work on each unit in terms of writing, freshmen who have had little experience in all-English classes do not have sufficient confidence in their writing.

Normally, it takes four hours to cover one unit which includes pre-, while-,and post-writing stages. In the pre-writing stage, learners are guided to describe pictures by using complete sentences either in groups or in pairs. A comprehension check is made and then a vocabulary web is drawn to summarize the story. Sentence structures are emphasized based on the given structure tables. After exercises in the textbook are completed, dicto-composition starts.

The dicto-composition story comes either from the given text in the book or a revised version made by the teacher. The procedure is as follows:

1) The teacher gives the class time to review the words and the pictures.
2) The teacher reads the whole text once to the class while students keep their pens down on their desks.
3) The teacher reads the title of the story three times and the students listen without writing.
4) The students write down the title when the teacher finishes the reading.
5) The teacher reads three sentences as a chunk three times, and the students listen with their pens down.
6) The students write down exactly what the teacher reads.
7) Each three-sentence chunk is done in the same way.
8) The teacher reads the whole text once more and the students check their writing at the same time and make any necessary changes.
9) The class is given two minutes to do the final check before handing in the paper.

In each dicto-composition, there are about ten sentences. One text is counted as one hundred points from which three points will be deducted for each mistake in each sentence. The grading system of dicto-composition is so strict that the score is normally low and this demotivates those learners who are slow or cannot concentrate on the whole text.

During post-writing, students are required to check their writing after getting the paper back from the teacher who marks the paper with correction symbols. Once the paper is corrected, students write the second draft and hand it in to get the revised grade. If one mistake is found, ten points will be taken from the original score; if not, ten points will be added to the original score.

CHANGES

In this section the presenter points out the reasons for making changes and indicates changes that have been made.

Reasons

Teacher-controlled dicto-composition, while challenging for, in particular, first-year students, somehow forbids students from recalling the story by using their own words. They have to take down every word read by the teacher. Besides, it is kind of dull to do the same thing in the second semester; therefore, the presenter decided to make a change, yet still stick to the system of uniform dicto-composition as stated in the syllabus. The purposes are as follows: first, to release the tension of such writing; second, to involve students as lesson planners and story writers. It is expected that learners may switch from being passive listeners to active participants.

An illustrative change

In the last month of the second semester in 1997, the instructor used pictures from her picture file to invite students to create a story in groups. These pictures were posted on the blackboard and the groups discussed their their storyline and wrote drafts at least ten sentences in length. The instructor circulated and assisted when necessary.

After that, each group was invited to the platform to read their story aloud. The instructor asked listeners comprehension questions to ensure that everyone paid attention.

The groups' first drafts were collected and corrected by the teacher. The next time the class met, the students got their stories back with correction symbols from which they worked out the mistakes and wrote second drafts. Again, the groups read their stories aloud. Inference questions were given to the listeners this time. The follow-up questions challenged students to develop possible endings for their stories.

Pictures successfully promoted learners' motivation to write. The presenter realized that pictures could play an essential role in enhancing the creative writing process.

Here is a sample story written by one group of students, based on some of the images presented in class (class disply is Figure 1).

FIGURE 1: TEACHER'S PICTURES

Halloween

It was Halloween, but the students still had to go to school. Mike was not happy, and he made trouble during breakfast time in the kitchen. His mother was angry about this, and she shouted at him, "Go to school! Hurry up! The school bus is coming." While Mike was sitting near a window on the bus and looking outside, he thought, "Today is really not my day." During the class, he was thinking about the wonderful Halloween party, and the teacher suddenly called him to answer a question. He couldn't answer it. The teacher was very angry and let him stand in front of the blackboard after class. Then she called his father who worked in an office, and said, "Mike is very strange today. He did not concentrate on classes. I think you should take more care of him." His father got a headache about it because he had the same experience when he was at Mike's age.

Yet more changes

In the following sections the presenter introduces different writing undertaken for the 1999 – 2001 school years, from classroom dictation to multimedia laboratory online story writing.

Changes in the first semester

1. Mechanical changes in reading the story

In the first semester the dicto-composition ~~is~~was divided into three parts. Before the midterm exam each sentence is read three times while listening to the teacher's text. After the midterm, two sentences are read three times for one month, and three sentences are read three times in the last month of the first semester.

2. Grading system

Each content word mistake is counted as three points, but every function word mistake is counted as one.

3. Learner-centered story instead of teacher-controlled story

When pre-writing exercises of a unit in the textbook are finished, students work in groups to continue the story after the teacher gives the first sentence on board. After discussion, students give the sentence and the class decides on the best sentence to follow the teacher's first sentence. The same procedure is followed until the story is completed, and discussed orally in groups. Meanwhile the teacher takes down the whole text as the dicto-composition material which is to be read later.

Changes in the second semester

1. Group discussion & Individual story writing instead of dicto-composition

As in the aforementioned activity, this writing activity stems from group discussion of pictures from the textbook (and the instrutor's picture file), and then individual students write stories. Dicto-composition has been changed to story

writing. Students write their first story after group discussion. Each group reads their stories aloud and the audience calls out the good words and phrases used in the story. The teacher then writes them down on the board. The class goes over the words and phrases and deletes the overlapped ones. Based on the information on the board, students write a similar story on their own. Once people finish writing their stories, they peer-edit and comment on each others' stories. The central idea of the story remains, and learners are able to manipulate the words or phrases they have learned or discussed.

FIGURE 2: TEACHER'S PICTURES
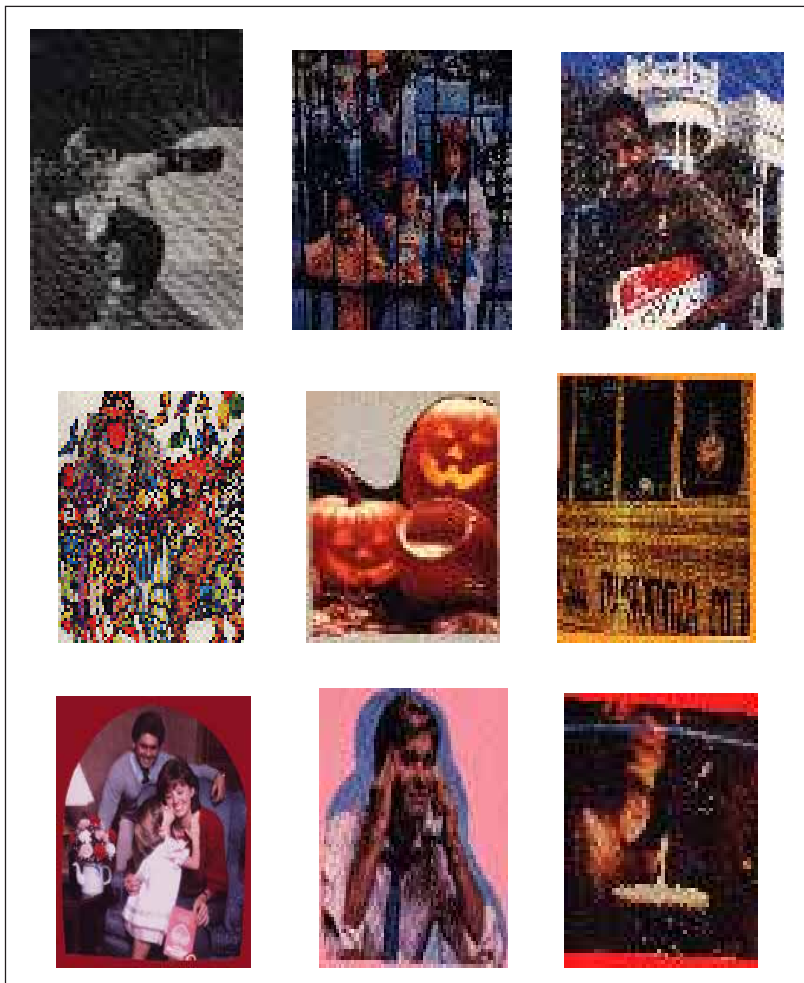
Following is one student's illustrative story, based on the classroom images shown in Figure 2:

A Special Birthday

December second was Irene's birthday. Irene was a smart, talkative, intelligent, and tender girl. She hoped her birthday would be a funny, interesting, and different one. At that night, her parents bought her a peanut cake. She lit the candle herself and stared at the light. She had a dream, a beautiful, and romantic dream. It's her secret, and she kept it so well that no one noticed it. On that occasion she blew the candle with light, the doorbell rang. She opened the door and saw her brother. He held a box in his hand and gave it to Irene. Irene opened it quickly with a smile and saw three pumpkins in it. One of the pumpkins said, "I am a fairy. I can carry out your dream!" Irene was very happy and amazed. She said, Well, I have a wish: I like Mark. He is just like a candle in my dark life. I want him to like me like I do. Will it come true?"

"Of course!" the fairy said, "I can do it with my pinkie. It's so easy to me!" After he said that, everything was shining around Irene. Then she saw Mark coming to her and he gave her a tight hug.

"Oh my dear! Irene's dream came true! It's so wonderful!" said the pumpkins.

Those students who finish earlier than others are invited to read to the teacher. Students get together to read to each other in the green yard just outside the class-room. It is a pleasant atmosphere for the class--as a writer, a reader, a listener.

2. Picture collection for story writing as assignment

In order to make storywriters storytellers, students are asked to write their own story on the poster with the pictures they have collected. The purposes are to give them sufficient time for the arrangement of personal story writing and become storytellers in the class so as to practice their speaking ability. The following section shows the pictures students collected (Figure 3) and the stories they created.

FIGURE 3: STUDENT-COLLECTED PICTURES

ANTONIA HSIU-CHEN LIN
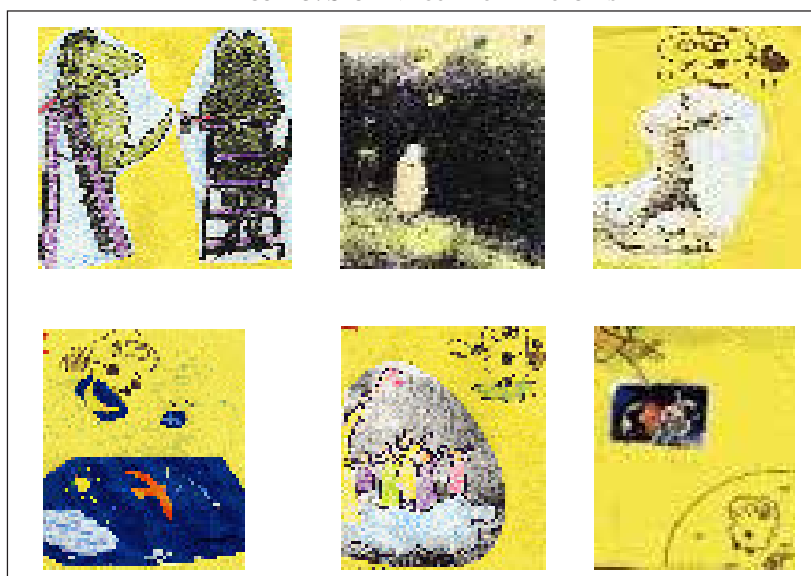
The Moon Adventure of a Sheep

Once upon a time there was a sheep named Woody. Woody was different from other sheep. He was tired of eating grass. His favorite hobby was looking at the sky and imagining about it. Woody wanted to reach the sky very much, so he went to ask his best friends, Alligator brothers. They felt confused, but they gave him a piece of advice, "Go to visit Dr. Rabbit." Maybe he could help you."

Dr. Rabbit was kind. He had a good idea. He could hold Wood, then he jumped as high as he could. They tried again and again. Finally, Woody landed on the moon. He looked around. There were thousand of stars which were shining and very beautiful. Woody decided to live on the moon!

Day by day Wood began to feel lonely. The goddess of the moon was friendly, and he did not worry about anything, but he missed his family. He even wanted to eat grass all day. He knew he had to leave. He followed the astronaut, Mr. Armstrong back to his lovely home. And angels said good-bye to him. He would never forget this vacation, and Woody was the first sheep to visit the moon in the world.

3. Online Story Writing through Pictures

In February 2001, a new multimedia language lab was put in as an extra lab for the students at Wenzao. The presenter reserved the room for the online story writing activity so that students could test the facilities and use up-to-date technology in their language learning.

First of all, students were asked to collect their own pictures as usual and and bring them to class. There they showed their pictures to their partners and told stories to each other. After that, they wrote their first story draft in class and then read to each other in order to peer edit. The paper was then collected for correction and, as usual, marked with correction symbols by the instructor. When the class received their paper back, they rewrote the story and used the pictures and the story to make a mini "storybook" on a B4-sized poster. Students then recorded their stories at the multimedia language lab and listened to other students' stories.

The following sample was chosen from the individual story writing.

Poor Tony

Tony is a senior high school student. Everyday he goes to school by bus. One day, while he was waiting for his bus at the bus stop, something caught his eyes. It was a pretty girl. He though, "She's so cute. I must be dreaming. I want to be her boyfriend." He was totally into her. He always thinks about her in the class. At first, Tony tried to stand out in a crowd with all of those nose rings and that purple hair, but she still did not notice h him. On his way home, he wrote a love letter in the bus. He folded it as a plane and threw it to her. It said, "Hello! Are you taking any applications for a boyfriend? I'll be the best. Please write down your name and telephone number. If you don't want to be my girlfriend, please throw it outside the window." After a moment, the girl threw it to him with a smile. There were some words in the letter: "Sorry, I just can't open the window!" Poor Tony! His heart was broken.

Seeing the students working on sharing stories, preparing for recording, recording the stories, and listening to their stories on the tape, the instructor was very moved by the total devotion of the class.

In order to evaluate unprepared writing skill, every student was required to bring in an A4-sized picture to the lab and there create a story via the computer. Students were paired randomly and, using the pictures they had in hand, wrote stories, and saved their work on disc. The instructor corrected their writing from scanning the monitors at the teacher's control panel. After that, students handed in their discs and the teacher corrected the mistakes by italicizing errors and changing the font color to red. When receiving the discs, students had to write the correct version on a piece of paper and hand it in. The instructor posted revised samples of good writing on her teaching website so that all the students could easily share reading.

In the multimedia language lab the instructor introduced an interactive story-writing web site, http://www.storywriting.com, where students read what other writers had done and could start writing their stories online based on the given categories existing in the website. In order help the class feel familiar with the site, the instructor posted a story there based on an accident that happened to one of the students. When learners entered the site, they were eager to read the story in which the character was someone they knew. One of the students even tried to continue the chapter of the story but failed to log in successfully. Thus, the teacher used her name to post the students' work on the site to save time.

The following sample shows the pair-writing students did in the lab. Italicized words indicate mistakes corrected by the teacher on the disc.

<div align="center">Lovely Friendship</div>

> A man named Mr. Money was very rich and proud of himself. One day, he took a trip to Money Island by his steamboat. The pilot is Mr. Mouse who is very poor and kind. Mr. Money is too proud to love any poor people, so of course he didn't like Mr. Mouse. Then he always *asked* him to do everything just like a servant. But Mr. Mouse never complained and got angry. *At the* end of the trip, Mr. Money noticed *how* kind Mr. Mouse was. Then he felt so sorry. After that, they became good *friends* forever.

4. Other Activities

Beyond the innovations described above, the teacher started a discussion area under the free course tool Blackboard.com for the class to share their writing. Thus, students could access different resources for either reading or writing whenever they liked. This allowed, and allows, both high-level and low-level students to express themselves openly since neither the writer nor the reader has to face either party; therefore, their ideas may be delivered freely.

RESPONSE TO DICTO-COMPOSITION

This section focuses on an informal survey that investigated students' reaction toward dicto-composition and picture story writing from 1999 – 2001. Students' feedback is listed in the table below. Numbers 1-5 in the top row represent the students' preference toward the tasks.

Table 1 Response to Dicto-composition

Statements	Yr.	1	2	3	4	5
1) one sentence read three times	1999~2000	57%	16%	16%	6%	4%
	2000~2001	41%	27%	19%	5%	8%
2) two sentences read three times	1999~2000	8%	51%	37%	4%	0%
	2000~2001	11%	32%	35%	16%	5%
3) three sentences read three times	1999~2000	4%	0%	34%	33%	29%
	2000~2001	8%	14%	30%	35	14
4) Prepare your own pictures to make your own story.	1999~2000	12%	37%	39%	8%	4%
	2000~2001	19%	19%	43%	11%	5%
5) Use the instructor's pictures to choose 4-6 of them and make a story with your partners.	1999~2000	8%	49%	35%	8%	0%
	2000~2001	19%	43%	30%	3%	5%
6) Use the instructor's pictures to choose 4-6 of them and write your own story after discussing with your partners.	1999~2000	6%	37%	45%	10%	0%
	2000~2001	22%	46%	30%	14%	3%

In terms of positive feedback in 1999, 73% of the students liked to hear each sentence read three times, and 10% disliked this method, whereas in 2000, 68% liked to hear each sentence read three times, and 13% did not. It indicates that in the early stage, learners prefer listening to the individual sentence three times. In 1999, 59% of the students liked to hear two sentences read three times, and 4% disliked this method, whereas in 2000, 43% of the learners liked to hear two sentences read three times, and 21% did not. After getting used to dicto-composition, most learners can handle two sentences three times. In 1999, 4% liked to hear three sentences read three times, and 62% of them disliked such, whereas in 2000, 22% liked to hear such, and 49% did not. Surprisingly, students tended to dislike hearing three sentences read thrice. The 2000 group seemed to view the last task of dicto-composition as a challenging exercise in that more people in this group like doing it than in 1999.

As for the picture story writing activities (items 4, 5, and 6), the figures in the table above show students' likes and dislikes. Students in the 1999 year experienced the three activities. Students in 2000 year did not experience items 5 and 6 in that the online story writing activity was scheduled.

In 1999, 49% of the students like to prepare their own pictures for their stories, and 12% disliked it, whereas in 2000, 38% of them liked it and 16% disliked it.

In 1999, 57% of the students liked the way of using the instructor's pictures to make a story with their partners, and 8% disliked it, whereas in 2000, 62% of them liked it, 8% disliked it.

In 1999, 43% of the students liked using the instructor's pictures to write their own story based on the discussion with their partners about the story, and 10% of them disliked it, whereas in 2000, 68% liked it, 17% disliked it.

Students in 1999 show much more preference for preparing pictures for their own stories. In 1999 and 2000, over half of the class liked to use the teacher's pictures to write a story with their peers. However, students in 1999 showed less interest in individual writing after group discussion. It suggests that picture story writing is acceptable. Students seemed to prefer using the pictures prepared by the instructor in that the size was unique and the pictures were colorful. Group writing was much more popular than individual writing. It also indicates that students might gather much more information from the cooperative storytelling and then they might create a story with the words they want and the style they like.

RESPONSE TO ONLINE STORY WRITING IN THE LAB

Since the modern multimedia language lab was available for the students in 2000, a couple of related questions are also listed in the questionnaire:

1) Do you like to work in W002 (the multimedia language lab) for story writing and recording?

2) Do you like to work in W002 for online writing and reading?

Table 2: Response to Online Story Writing in the Lab

Statements	Yr.	1	2	3	4	5
Do you like to work in W002 for story writing and recording?	2000~2001	43%	38%	11%	3%	5%
Do you like to work in W002 for online writing and reading?	2000~2001	41%	30%	22%	3%	5%

With respect to story writing and recording in the lab, 81% of the students gave positive feedback, 8% negative. As for online writing and reading, 71% of the students liked it and 8% disliked it.

Seeing former students' writing, doing pair writing on the computer and then recording stories might be new and interesting tasks for the learners. That their stories can be published and shared might increase a sense of achievement. Having the chance to review the online story writing web site can be fun. However, the students' preference in question 2 is not as high as that in question 1. It might imply that it took time for the students to fill out the form when applying for an account for this web site and that, since all readers could evaluate the level of such writing via a review tool, motivation might go down. In contrast, in the teacher's website, they did not have to take such a risk. Nevertheless, such an online writing task has changed the writing experience, and the learners can explore the vast writing world.

DISCUSSION

Making changes from dicto-composition to online story writing through pictures has made the students experience different types of writing activities. They change roles from students to writers and storytellers. Most important is that they show their imagination, create a sense of community in writing a story, and become interactive storytellers instead of passive listeners. Dicto-composition is no longer the only medium for learners to practice writing and listening skills. Adding their life experience and imagination to develop a meaningful story is also important. After all, students who are treated as whole persons when learning a language become active participants.

Integrating picture collection with the writing helps students go through the stages of information gathering, organizing context, building up, and telling a story. It is a great combination of pictures, linguistic knowledge, life experience, and imagination. Furthermore, cooperative spirit is reinforced while working in pairs, in groups, and sharing each other's stories.

Since these first year students have not taken any computer courses at Wenzao, what they know about computer operation comes from the basic knowledge they learned in junior high. Although every student says that they know how to use a computer, a checklist for online working in doing a project like online story writing should be considered in the future so as to save time and make students feel secure.

Having learners work with the devices in the multimedia language lab not only keeps their learning records as concrete writing and voice data, but also inspires readers at the moment or in the future. They understand information technology is close to their life and language learning. If such a wonderful lab can be managed in the writing class, there will be more opportunities for learners to have instant feedback in writing activities such as story relay with pictures posted weekly online

or other kinds of interactive comprehension checks. The more they are engaged in the process of writing, the more practice they will experience.

In comparing the two groups of students when investigating the activities of using the instructor's pictures in story writing (activity items 5 and 6), the students in 2000 could only show their opinions in that the online story writing experiment was arranged and they could not do both tasks. Perhaps in the future the presenter should consider using a revised survey to find out how learners rank such writing activities and what helps them the most in writing.

CONCLUSION

In this workshop the presenter stated how the traditional dictation activity has been transformed into online story writing. It takes time to make a change, but it is worth making such a change in that the threatening dicto-composition can be disguised with engaging coats: motivating picture-story writing and interactive online writing practice.

Human beings love stories and teenagers love making stories, too. Keeping the learners' stories posted on the net in terms of words and voice not only raises the sense of achievement but also gives a good example to future learners. Through this project, reading and writing skills are reinforced. Listening to different stories and telling stories of their own make writing more appealing for the learners. The first year students who are introduced to such a writing experience may bring such spirit second year writing, developing their writing in making phrasal verbs into a story-like composition and role play.

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Windows of Language and Culture: Song Lyrics as Language and Cultural Text

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ABSTRACT

One little-utilized source of authentic English language materials that can easily be used in the ESL classroom is the publicly accessible corpus of popular song lyrics. There are a number of reasons why the use of popular song lyrics as text can be a fruitful approach in teaching English language and culture. There are many songs which are already familiar to the students, and this helps maintain the students' interest in the materials. Popular songs generally utilize natural idiomatic modes of expression indicative of contemporary colloquial styles of speech, thus providing interesting contextualized material for language study. Additionally, song texts often offer an intriguing view into the historical, political and emotional context of the society. For the purposes of this presentation, one approach to using song lyrics as language and cultural text will be presented and the song *Hotel California* by the Eagles will be examined in detail as an example.

INTRODUCTION

One of the significant developments in EFL/ESL has been the growth of the communicative approach to language teaching. This movement had its origins in the United States dating back to the late 1960s (Hatch and Brown, 1995, p. 406), and by the 1970s it had also begun to be employed in Europe (Richards and Rogers, 1986, p. 65). It wasn't until the 1990s that this approach began to be emphasized by the Ministry of Education in Korea (McGrath, 2000). Simply stated, the communicative approach emphasizes the teaching of English as a medium of communication, with the students themselves doing much of the work and the teacher functioning more as a facilitator rather than a knowledge provider.

The communicative approach continued through the 1980s and 1990s, with the development of various applications (Hatch and Brown, 1995, p. 407), and with this has come an increasing emphasis on the need for authentic language materials. By "authentic" is meant language materials that are used by and for native speakers themselves, and were not specifically generated for the purpose of teaching English to non-native speakers. Along with the growing focus on authentic materials has come a focus on authentic language situations.

Another development in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language has been the growing recognition of the role of culture in language learning. Brown (1980, pp. 129-144) discusses at length the importance of "second culture learn-

ing" along with second language learning, and this is now accepted as a legitimate aspect of language acquisition.

What I would like to do here is to introduce a little-utilized source of authentic language material, and an approach to communicative language teaching that incorporates cultural materials and effectively engages the active participation of the students.

APPROACH AND RATIONALE

The immense corpus of popular song lyrics provides an almost inexhaustible source of authentic English language text materials that can be utilized by the language teacher in many contexts and at different language proficiency levels. For the purpose of this paper, I would like to describe my approach to using song lyrics as text material at the level of advanced EFL learners, with some modification and adaptation this approach could be equally appropriate for intermediate learners.

There are a number of reasons why the use of popular song lyrics as text can be a fruitful approach in teaching English language and culture. First, simply stated, everyone likes songs, so song lyrics are generally more appealing than other types of texts and can be a pleasant alternative or addition in any class. Although this is by no means the major reason for utilizing this approach, it does not hurt that in general students find song lyrics less boring than straight language texts.

In the search for appropriate authentic materials for teaching ESL, contemporary literature has come to be recognized as an authentic language resource, although it seldom takes center stage in the classroom, and the actual number of teachers who use this resource may be relatively small. Valdes (1989, pp. 137-147) points out that the cultural content of literature can also be effectively used as resource material in teaching English as a second language. More to the point, Maley and Duff (1989) developed a comprehensive approach to ESL teaching utilizing poetry, which they propose can be effective at almost any level of language competence. Here is where song lyrics would seem to fit best. Although seldom considered by mainstream literary academics to be "real" poetry, the fact is that songs are indeed poetry, and function as the poetry of the masses. After all, poetry was originally sung and chanted in all societies long before it came to be written and stored away in dusty tomes. Certainly not all pop songs are good poetry, but then not all that is written as poetry is "good" poetry either. The instructor must be selective in choosing appropriate song lyrics, but with a little examination it will be seen that there are indeed many songs which qualify as having real literary quality.

Another reason that song lyrics can be seen as providing authentic language material is the fact that they are generally written in the common idiomatic language, and since they are the "poetry of the common man" the vocabulary is not particularly difficult. Popular songs often utilize highly idiomatic modes of ex-

pression indicative of contemporary colloquial styles of speech, and this provides interesting contextualized material for language study. Here the instructor needs to prepare the material carefully and must be able to explain the socio-linguistic context, the social levels of usage, and the implications and connotations of the vocabulary and grammatical forms used in the song.

While there are certainly universal themes to be found in many songs, there are also themes grounded in the specific culture, which offer valuable insights into the values and attitudes, the passions and preoccupations, the issues and conflicts of the society and the age. This aspect of the use of lyrics as text is especially useful in English courses within programs of Anglo-American studies. Accordingly, song texts can sometimes offer an intriguing view into the historical, political and emotional context of a society. For example, a cultural study of US society in the 1960s could hardly be complete without some reference to, say, the songs by Bob Dylan and the impact his songs had on the social movements of the day. It is for these reasons that I consider popular songs to be "windows" providing us with a unique view onto the culture and the times.

Classroom Application

When I use song lyrics as English text materials in my intermediate and advanced English classes, I do so both for the language content and the cultural content. Song lyrics should be considered as authentic text in that they exist as artifacts of the society itself, not as synthetic language teaching constructs. The approach I use is one of guided discovery. Just as the text itself is authentic, the task of discovery is also authentic language usage. The students make use of their own English competence in an authentic self-motivated task – the interpretation of the text. They are allowed to use dictionaries, but they must speak only in English. At first they are usually unsure of their ability to pursue such an objective on their own, but their actual language competence almost always proves to be greater than their own expectations. They soon discover that they are able to express themselves adequately on topics that they don't even talk about in Korean. Not only does this approach improve their English speaking ability, but it also helps build their self-confidence and shows them that they can indeed function at a relatively sophisticated level of interaction.

My approach to using song lyrics as text requires a minimum of three to four hours (several class periods) to be dedicated to the examination of one song. It is best to prepare the lyrics of the song beforehand and print up enough copies so that each student can have one set. With advanced English learners, I let them listen once without the printed lyrics, and have them note down any words or phrases they can catch. I also have them try to feel the mood of the song. Is it happy, melancholy, or angry? Is it a love song, or a ballad, or a song of social protest? It is interesting how first impressions are often far off the mark. Later,

after we have had a chance to get to know the song better, I return to this point and see how much they have changed their opinion.

After listening to the song once without using the printed text, if there is sufficient time, I sometimes do a cloze exercise with the song. Then I play the song again, this time having the students follow along reading the printed lyrics. I tell the students to mark any words they are not sure about, and then afterward we go over the lyrics again line by line, and I explain any difficult vocabulary.

All of this first activity is just the preliminary stage of getting acquainted with the song (which might be a song they are already familiar with, or it might be totally new to them). What follows is the real focus of the lesson. I divide the class into random small groups of four or five members each. Groups of more than five do not allow all the students to participate fully and are difficult to manage. Without being hurried, the students then discuss the meaning of the song, line by line, verse by verse. Their discussion, of course, must be entirely in English. I allow them to use dictionaries when they need to find the proper words, but they must not rely on Korean to express their thoughts. This is sometimes frustrating for them, but with patience they find that they are indeed able to express themselves adequately in English. While the groups are conducting their discussions I circulate among them, listen and answer any questions they might have.

After they have had a chance to discuss together for some time, and have gotten to know each other to some degree, I ask them all to pause for a moment and for the members of each group to choose one person to be that group's reporter. The reporter's job is to keep track of their group's discussion of the song, and then later (the following class period) to report orally to the class a summary of their group's interpretation of whichever verse I have assigned to them. At the beginning of the final class period, before the oral reports, I allow each group to spend about 15 minutes refreshing their memory and getting the reporters ready to give their reports. Each time, with each different song, a different person is chosen to be reporter, so eventually everyone will have a chance to give their presentations before the class.

After all the reports have been given, I then give my interpretation of the lyrics, line by line, and thoroughly explain all the idiomatic expressions, the historical, social and cultural references, and any symbolic or metaphoric allusions that might have escaped their attention, and the students have the chance to raise any questions that might come to mind.

ANALYSIS

One of the songs I sometimes use in my classes is *Hotel California* by the Eagles. This is a good song to use because most Koreans are familiar with it, but at the same time very few people really have any idea as to its meaning. I will now examine the lyrics of this song in detail, and will spend some time extracting the cultural and social themes that lie hidden below the surface. What does this song

say about American society? While most Koreans tend to think of *Hotel California* as a somewhat romantic or melancholy song, they are usually quite surprised to discover that it is a scathing social commentary on the materialism and hedonism of contemporary American life. California itself is seen as a metaphor for escapism and the never-ending search for fulfillment. It is little wonder that this song became a classic icon for a whole generation. One of the interesting aspects of using such songs as *Hotel California* is that they contain sufficient ambiguity so that various interpretations are possible. When I emphasize this to the students they do not feel so shy in giving their own understandings, since there is not only one "right answer". Now, let us examine the lyrics line by line.

> The first verse gives us the setting.
>> On a dark desert highway, cool wind in my hair,
>> Warm smell of colitas, rising up through the air.
>> Up ahead in the distance, I saw a shimmering light.
>> My head grew heavy and my sight grew dim,
>> I had to stop for the night.

We can picture the narrator driving across the desert in the US Southwest on his long trip to California. Night has fallen, and the heat of the day has cooled off. His windows are open (or maybe he is driving a convertible with the top down) and the warm desert fragrance comes to him on the air. Here we can introduce a little US geography to the students. Probably most Koreans imagine the cities of LA or San Francisco when they think of California, and they imagine arriving by air. But most Americans travel by car, and the trip to California is a long drive through sparsely populated areas, mountains and deserts, with a few small towns, filling stations and motels along the way to break the monotony. As with many drivers, intent on getting to his destination, our narrator has driven all through the day well into the night, and fatigue has begun to set in. As he sees the welcoming light of some human habitation in the dark and empty distance, perhaps a motel or roadside restaurant, he realizes that he needs to stop for the night.

> There is some ambiguity in the second line that has generated a lot of discussion and various interpretations among fans.
>> Warm smell of colitas, rising up through the air.

On the surface of it, colitas can be taken as a night-blooming desert plant of the Southwest, but there is another possible meaning. The Spanish word "cola" means tail of an animal, and with the diminutive ending "-ita" it gives us the word "little tails" which is an obscure regional slang word for marijuana. Consequently this has led some people to interpret the line to mean that he was smoking pot as he was driving along, especially with reference to it's "warm smell ... rising up through the air". But on the true meaning, the Eagles themselves remain silent.

In the next verse we are introduced to the other significant character:

> There she stood in the doorway.
> I heard the mission bell.
> And I was thinking to myself
> "This could be Heaven or this could be Hell."

In English we usually do not use a personal pronoun until after the individual has been introduced into the discourse. In normal speech we would say, "There was a woman standing in the doorway," and then the subsequent reference would use "she". But to go directly to the pronoun without any preliminary reference is a discourse device that places great emphasis on that individual, as if "she" needed no introduction. And as the tale unfolds we begin to see that she is indeed a looming figure.

The line "I heard the mission bell" introduces several features. On the one hand it gives us a sense of place. The Spanish missions established throughout the region long before any English-speaking settlers set foot in the area are among the characteristic cultural icons of Southern California and the US Southwest. Many of the cities and towns of California grew up around these missions, and were named after them: San Diego, Santa Barbara, San Luis Obispo, San Francisco, San Juan Capistrano, and of course Los Angeles, the City of Angels. There is nothing more evocative of the special character of this region than the sound of the ancient mission bells.

A second theme may also be seen in the seemingly extraneous reference to the mission bell, an implication that something spiritual or otherworldly is also involved. And this leads us directly to the next line where the protagonist thinks to himself, "This could be Heaven or this could be Hell." What in the world would make him think such a thing? This seems to be a premonition of things to come, the first hint that all is not what it appears.

The next line is an interesting one:

> Then she lit up a candle and she showed me the way.

On the surface of it she seems to be nothing more than someone working at the hotel showing him the way to his room. But why a candle? Where were the electric lights? He doesn't even question her actions. There are a number of implications here. On the one hand, a candle symbolizes a light of guidance, not merely physical guidance down a hallway, but some sort of journey of the mind is implied. If she switched on the lights, or carried a flashlight, it would have an entirely different feeling, wouldn't it?

On the other hand, candles are used to enhance the mood of a place. Can you imagine a romantic intimate dinner by candle light in a quaint little restaurant? Very cozy and beautiful. But if someone suddenly turned on all the overhead lights, or if you were to come back during the bright light of noon, it would be seen as an

entirely different place. Now you could see the cockroaches under the tables, the drab concrete walls, the frayed cushions and the stained tablecloths. The nice thing about candlelight is that it protects us from seeing the reality in the shadows. And in the Hotel California, no one really wants to see the glaring reality of the place.

As the song continues, he is being ushered down the hallway.

> There were voices down the corridor,
> I thought I heard them say...
>
> Welcome to the Hotel California
> Such a lovely place
> Such a lovely face
> Plenty of room at the Hotel California
> Any time of year, you can find it here.

These enticing, disembodied voices are reminiscent of the Sirens encountered by Odysseus on his journey, offering all that men could desire, but leading to their ultimate destruction. "Welcome," they whisper. "Such a lovely place." There is room here for everyone, and whatever your desires may be you can fulfill them here. The voices promise everything. "Such a lovely face," they say. Does this refer to our mysterious guide? But "face" also implies facade, the outward appearance of things, which as we all know can be infinitely deceiving. For most English classes it might be necessary to explain the expression "you can find it here." The word "it" is often quite troublesome to Korean students of English, who try to find a specific referent for it, a difficulty that is often not realized by native English speakers.

The next two lines reveal more about "her".

> Her mind is Tiffany-twisted, she's got the Mercedes bends.
> She's got a lot of pretty, pretty boys, that she calls friends.

These two lines say a lot. "Tiffany-twisted" implies that she has a distorted obsession for the luxuries and the superficially beautiful things of life. There is a play on words in the phrase "she's got the Mercedes bends." The undisputed king of automobiles, Mercedes-Benz is here changed to "Mercedes bends", both words being pronounced the same. "The bends" (always plural and with the definite article) is a severe and painful condition caused by rapid decompression of the body, as when a deep-sea diver rises too rapidly to the surface, or a high altitude aviator looses air pressure. The implication here is that her taste for elegant and expensive cars is a manifestation of her too rapid (and temporary?) rise in social status. Although she seems confident and self-assured in her position, she is really living above her true state. And as one of the "beautiful people" with seemingly endless resources and appetites, she has attracted an assortment of "pretty, pretty boys, that she calls friends." The repetition of the word "pretty" gives it an excessive and repulsive connotation, not pleasant at all. We can easily picture these

"pretty, pretty boys", vain, self-absorbed young men, all style and affectation, gathering around whoever provides the most lavish distractions. And as if to emphasize the superficiality of their relationship, we are told that they are those "that she calls friends".

> How they dance in the courtyard, sweet summer sweat.
> Some dance to remember, some dance to forget.

This shows us the "scene" (in the pop social sense) at the Hotel California – the frenzied dancing, the smell of sweat. "Sweet summer sweat" is nice alliteration, but it also conveys a rather erotic connotation. "Some dance to remember, some dance to forget" is one of the more memorable lines from this song. People like to dance for many reasons, not only because they just enjoy dancing. This line focuses on the emptiness of people's lives; the frenetic hypnotic activity of the dance lets them momentarily forget their pointless daily existence, and allows them to recapture a bit of some half-forgotten youthful past.

> So I called up the Captain,
> "Please bring me my wine."
> He said, "We haven't had that spirit here
> Since nineteen sixty nine."

As the protagonist edges into the world of the Hotel California, we can picture him sitting at a table in the shadows, observing the activity going on but not yet participating himself. He calls the wine steward and asks for his wine, assuming it to be "on the house". But the Captain replies, "We haven't had that spirit here since nineteen sixty nine." This is a very puzzling answer. What could he mean? For one thing, there is surely a pun on the word "spirit" which not only means alcohol, but also refers to the pervasive attitude, mood or zeitgeist. And why 1969? What happened in that year? For one thing it was the year in which man first set foot on the moon, thereby not only expanding the human realm beyond this earth, but also simultaneously demystifying that romantic silver orb in the night sky. Another possible significance of the year 1969 is that it marked the end of the 60s, a seminal period of social change, expansive hopes and idealism in American history. With the end of the 60s there came a sort of hardening of the spirit in America, a loss of innocence that has proven impossible to recapture. But whatever the Eagles had intended by their reference to 1969, they don't tell us, and it is still open to various interpretations.

> And still those voices are calling from far away,
> Wake you up in the middle of the night
> Just to hear them say...
>
> Welcome to the Hotel California
> Such a lovely place
> Such a lovely face
> They're living it up at the Hotel California
> What a nice surprise, bring your alibis.

Again he hears the Siren call of those mysterious voices. Are they the other minions of the Hotel California, or are they only within his own head? Here the English teacher needs to explain the idiomatic expression "live it up", again with that puzzling "it". The voices are telling him that everyone is having a great time in the Hotel California. As previously the voices had promised that one's deepest desires could be fulfilled here, now they are telling him, in essence, that "anything goes", that he can do whatever he wants to enjoy himself. No concerns with propriety, no inhibitions, no worry about the consequences of his acts need bother him here. "What a nice surprise," the voices tell him brightly. But come prepared to deny any responsibility, they advise him. "Bring your alibis." We begin to see that it is not just an isolated group of people in some wayside desert hotel that is being described, but a whole society, an entire generation, with their hedonistic pursuits and denial of personal responsibility.

> Mirrors on the ceiling,
> The pink champagne on ice.
> And she said, "We are all just prisoners here
> of our own device."

The image presented here makes us picture some luxurious "love hotel." Where else would you find "mirrors on the ceiling"? And the drink of preference is "pink champagne on ice". Champagne is an elegant beverage of celebration, but pink champagne has an implication of crassness and over indulgence. It is the drink of the common slob who has just won the big lottery, the nouveau riche with their sudden access to all the things they had formerly been denied. As our narrator gazes on this scene, his hostess (and temptress) admits to him that they are all "just prisoners here of our own device." Any semblance of freedom is really an illusion, and they have willingly succumbed to their own obsessions, fantasies, compulsions and addictions.

Now we come to the most horrifying vision of the life of the inner circle at the Hotel California. The narrator catches a glimpse of what's going on.

> And in the master's chambers
> They gathered for the feast.
> They stab it with their steely knives
> But they just can't kill the beast.

Behind the scenes lurks the ominous "master", who never really makes his appearance. Whatever they are feasting on seems unwilling to be subdued. Is it possibly their own inner cravings and animal passions that is the focus of their appetites? In any case these are the most chilling lines in the entire song, and the deadly image of the "steely knives" is quite disturbing. Notice the difference between "steel knives" and "steely knives" — a masterful touch. Steel knives are deadly enough, but there is something cold and terrible in the very word "steely". And the powerful rhythm and diction of the line "they just can't kill the beast" give it a special prominence and sense of finality. It is the reference to "the mas-

ter" and "the beast" here that has caused some fundamentalist Christians to brand the song as a Satanist anthem, but their argument is not convincing. Rather than glorifying the denizens of the Hotel California, the song acts as powerful and effective indictment.

Repulsed, and with a sense of horror, the narrator flees the scene. He is so overwhelmed that he blocks the final images of that scene from his mind, looses his bearings, and frantically seeks a means of escape.

> Last thing I remember, I was
> Running for the door.
> I had to find the passage back
> To the place I was before.

He eventually finds himself back where he started, but the night clerk at the front desk informs him nonchalantly that there is no escape.

> "Relax," said the night man,
> "We are programmed to receive.
> You can check out any time you like,
> But you can never leave!"

The terrible irony and finality of these last words make this verse among the most memorable of the whole song. Trapped! Like so many others, he can play at "checking out" but he will never leave.

So, what does all this really mean? Is this a tale of a simple traveler who happens to stop at a desert resort hotel by chance and gets caught up in some local sordid scene? It could be nothing more than that, but I think (and most others think) that this song is a biting commentary on contemporary life in the US. This song helped define a whole generation and touched a cord of recognition within the minds of countless Americans. The Hotel California is a symbol for California as a whole, and California itself is a metaphor for many themes in the American experience: "go west, young man," the search for new beginnings, the land of opportunity, and the purveyor of tinsel dreams. For generations, California has epitomized the American frontier and all that that represents - both hopes for a new start in life, and an escape from oppressive reality. And ironically the theme of escape has come to overwhelm the theme of new beginnings. In many ways California has come to represent much of the very best in American culture, and at the same time much of the very worst. Of this latter, the obsessions with hedonistic pursuits and materialism, with escapism and the indulgence of bizarre fantasies, with status seeking and the lure of being in the "scene", and the denial of personal responsibility, are all portrayed in a most powerful and succinct way in this song. For these reasons we can see *Hotel California* as a cautionary tale and an acerbic social satire.

Conclusion

Through a close examination of the lyrics of one well-known American pop song I have tried to show how song lyrics can be fruitfully utilized as a rich source of language and cultural material. This approach fulfills a number of chronic needs which the language teacher inevitably faces – the need for authentic language materials (assuming one is trying to apply a communicative approach in their teaching), the need for text materials which engage the students' interest (assuming the teacher is concerned about student motivation), and the need for cultural materials (assuming the teacher has the interest, the understanding, and ability to incorporate a cultural and historical perspective into the language classroom). Granted, these are significant assumptions I am making, and we must admit that many teachers would not be interested in this particular approach. But because of the tremendous variety of song texts available, and the familiarity students at all levels have with English pop songs, I feel that this is a rich resource that could be effectively utilized by many English language teachers, at whatever level they might teach, and as such song lyrics should be given serious consideration as appropriate and accessible language materials.

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Teaching Konglish:
Selected Resources for Students and Teachers

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ABSTRACT

All native-speaking English instructors in the Republic of Korea like it or not, find students using Konglish in the classroom. Yet, teaching materials seldom deal with this area of language use. However, in recent years several techniques and resources have arisen that aim to involve socio-linguistic interference within the learning process of false-beginners in a positive manner. These techniques and resources then attempt to go one step further than such methodologies as communicative language teaching (CLT) by not just using English to learn English, but by using the English existent within the South Korean vernacular to assist students with the language learning process. A brief discussion on the use of Konglish in Korea will be presented as well as an overview of select teaching techniques, and multimedia resources, that contain Konglish as an element. Teachers can then decide if such materials and approaches are valuable for inclusion within their classes.

USE OF KONGLISH IN KOREA

Stepping off the plane for the first time most native speaking English teachers arriving in Korea cannot converse in Korean, and may never have heard the term 'Konglish' before. Yet, in a few short weeks the same English teacher, while sipping a 'cola' in Lotteria, may ask their friend to pass them their 'hand phone' to make a call before heading off to do some 'eye-shopping'. Native English speakers then, soon come to use Konglish when living in Korea and when communicating with each other, as well as with their students, and as such abandon the terms they would use in their home nations in favour of the terms their students use on a daily basis. This clearly illustrates how pervasive, and accepted, the use of Konglish has become in Korea. Of course, there is nothing inherently wrong with this kind of communication within the Republic, and indeed the native speaker will trade in their Konglish for the English equivalents of such terms when they return to their home nations on holiday or for good. However, problems may arise when the Korean Konglish speaker without the knowledge of Konglish English equivalents needs to communicate with others outside the nation. In this case, a need for the English equivalent of Konglish terms is a valuable asset for the Korean speaker of English, whether they choose to use them in Korea or not.

To meet the challenge of assisting Korean students in understanding the English equivalents for Konglish terminology many teachers have in recent years given thought to developing several types of activities for use in their classes, these include such exercises as word lists and their variants. Such activities are usually applied to existing curriculums as supplementary materials, and are often made into fun activities or exercises. The proliferation of the Internet in Korea has also led to many web sites emerging that use Konglish as a means of attracting students. However, a great many of these sites tend to focus solely on improving the general English language ability of Koreans or on test preparation for TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), rather than targeting Konglish linguistic usage per se. There also exists multimedia computer programs that contain a Konglish focus, and aim to assist the Korean student in gaining knowledge of the English equivalents for the Konglish terms they commonly use.

TEACHER DEVELOPED RESOURCES

Although there are many methods available to the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher for imparting lexis onto students, among the most popular are such activities that involve word lists. It is also important to remember that any teaching of vocabulary must coincide with revision and practice; revision so that terms are not forgotten, and practice for active use of the lexical items you are trying to impart upon students (Hubbard, 1996, 50).

Konglish Word Lists

Several native teachers in the Republic of Korea develop Konglish Word Lists for use as supplementary activities in their classes, perhaps you are one of them. Developing word lists for use in class is a very easy task, and one that requires very little preparation time. Activities can also be adapted to any unit or material that students are studying, and can be effective introductory tasks or revisionary supplementary tasks. Some teachers prefer to photocopy word lists and distribute them in class, while other teachers write terms on the board. In either case, the aim of the exercise is the same, to teach new vocabulary. These new words then become ones that students can begin to use passively for understanding (in listening and reading comprehension) or actively (in producing conversation and engaging in classroom speaking practice).

A Konglish Word List, similar to that which Appendix A illustrates, can be put to use on the first day of classes. The aim of using such an activity in the first lesson is to establish a classroom environment where students will be able to describe unknown vocabulary rather than rely on Korean language or to ignore the need for communicating their ideas in English. In the example word list a selection of 20 Konglish words are written on the left hand side of the page with room on the right for students to write the equivalent English terms or expressions, or an explanation of the word in English.

As a precursor to this activity, a teacher may decide to pose the question "What is Konglish?" Upon eliciting answers from students the responses will vary and may include 'wrong English', 'Korean English', and so forth. A point that the teacher may like to emphasise is that Konglish does not only incorporate English words but also terms from Japanese and other European languages that if used in English a native speaker may not be able to understand even though the term is used correctly. An example of this is the German word "mess" which means 'knife' in English and is used in Korean to refer to a 'scalpel'. Various other terms a native speaker may not understand immediately, and may need to interpret, such as 'open car' that correlates to 'convertible'.

Some students may know answers to everyday expressions native speakers don't tend to use Konglish equivalents for, such as 'stapler' for 'hotchkiss'. However, for more complex terms or expressions, students may be at a loss for the English equivalent and in such situations, the teacher should assist students in describing the term and in writing an explanation for it rather than simply telling them the vocabulary item. The time required for students to complete the task will vary according to language level but will ideally be 20-30 minutes, with students placed into groups of 4 or 5. A further 10 minutes should be allowed for the teacher to go through the vocabulary list with students eliciting correct answers, or explanations from students, and writing these on the board. This also allows students time to correct any errors they may have made. As such, this kind of activity put to use on the first day of class will allow the teacher to clearly develop a sense of student language level and ability.

As true for all lessons, responses to such activities will vary between classes and groups of students. Some classes may pay only moderate attention to the activity while other classes will show active attention, and this may be due to such things as the innate interest of some students in learning English and others who take the class simply because it is a requirement.

Picture Word Lists

An alternative to word lists that require students to write definitions is one that requires students to create a picture list. Such a technique is particularly useful for teaching an awareness of false cognates. As David Shaffer states "false cognates, a.k.a. 'false friends,' often become barriers to English learning because of the English learner's unawareness of the difference in meaning in Korean from the English language source" (Shaffer, 1999). This technique is effective in illustrating the difference in meaning between the Korean use of English loan words, and Konglish terms, as compared with actual use or meaning in English.

Appendix B illustrates eight examples of false-cognates a teacher may use for this activity. In this situation students work individually or in groups. The teacher may also dictate the terms from the list, or make a handout and ask students to draw their pictures next to the term. Separating the class into groups of 4 or 5

students, and giving a list of 5 terms to each group may work best in most class scenarios particular larger classes. Students are given 10-15 minutes to complete drawings for vocabulary items. As students complete their drawings, the teacher can direct students to replicate their pictures on the board. The board should be divided into sections by the teacher so each student has an area to draw their picture. There should also be enough space next to students pictures for the teacher to draw a picture of their own. All students will be able to draw a picture to represent the term, as all vocabulary items from the list, although holding differing semantic qualities, are evident in both the English and Korean languages.

After a picture for each term has been drawn on the board, the teacher can direct students attention to each illustration, and explain the concept of 'false cognates.' That is, the teacher details English language thinking is different to that of Korean language thinking and that the English listener has a very different picture in their mind when hearing the vocabulary that students have graphically represented on the board. The teacher can then direct student attention to each vocabulary item and draw the English representation on the board next to the Korean representation. For example, the first term may be 'punk' seeing the Korean draw a car with a flat tire or a tire with a 'puncture' in it. The English teacher, though, may draw a head with a Mohawk. Another term may be the word 'mansion' seeing the Korean student draw a large luxury apartment building in which many families reside. The English teacher, on the other hand, will draw a large house for one family. The teacher can then extend the activity by asking questions about the pictures, such as 'what kind of music does a punk listen to?' and 'how many families live in a mansion?' This language extension then further assists in student understanding of the imagery presented and the differences in meaning between the terms when put to use in English in comparison to Korean.

Students may laugh at the teacher's drawings but keep in mind learning should be fun, and students need to enjoy classes, the important point is that the drawing looks similar to what it represents. The board will be erased and none of your drawings will go into an art gallery. If you are worried about drawing as you go, prepare simple pictures that you can copy onto the board instead of drawing the picture for the first time in front of the class. Appendix B also illustrates several example drawings students might make and that teachers can replicate if they so desire.

The central objective of this picture drawing activity is to enable students to clearly visualise differences in meaning and come to an understanding between the use of terms in English as opposed to Korean. Since all terms taught through this activity sound or are pronounced the same or similar in English and Korean, then it must be understood that all students already contain within their minds the lexical knowledge of the term but not necessarily the imagery or semantic quality the term represents in English. This then, is what they will be able to learn. Obviously, such a technique may fair better in classes containing art students or stu-

dents who have a visually oriented learning style. For further drawing activities and their implications in the realm of EFL, and as this relates to learning styles, please refer to Bassano & Christison, 1995, 63-72. However, keep in mind that for any student to remember what they have learnt the learning experience needs to be a memorable and enjoyable one, and one in which they have fun.

Vocabulary List Expansion

Taking the concept of word lists, and picture lists, one-step further teachers may also decide to develop lexical sets based on Konglish terminology. A lexical set is a grouping of words that have something in common, such as meaning, or words that belong to the same situation, word family, and so forth. Appendix C details examples of lexical sets using Konglish terminology.

Lexical sets may be based on any language point the teacher desires to impart. One example is a lexical set that contains noun modifiers. For example, the noun modifier ship can be taught in conjunction with the Konglish term 'skin*ship*' , and extended for use with other related English terms such as friend*ship*, partner-***ship***, and relation*ship*. A further lexical set may be based on Konglish contraction words including agit, clean, clip, complex, coordi, flash, ment, mission oil, night, remo-con, spring note, and y-shirt; then focus upon teaching uncontracted English forms agitating point, clean cut, paperclip, inferiority complex, coordinate, flashlight, comment, transmission oil, night club, remote control, spiral bound note book, and white shirt (dress shirt). Yet the more common grouping of lexical sets, particularly for use in conjunction with an existing curriculum/text-book teaching, is topic based lexical sets. Topic based lexical sets can be tailored according to topics addressed by the unit, for example food lexical sets for Konglish might contain bangul-tomato, buffet, burger, cola, don kass, egg fry, potato, and salad. Another topic based lexical set for cars might include handle, side brake, open car, klaxon, room mirror, back mirror, bonnet, rear car, and bongo.

Any teacher who integrates lexical set word lists within their existing curriculum will find them useful as either introductory materials or topic reviews. Konglish word lists put to use as a topic review allow students to initially attempt to infer meaning of new terms from context through association with the topic of the unit under study, as well as allowing students to infer meaning from lexical items familiar to them from their native vocabulary. On the other hand, as an introductory to a topic, Konglish word lists can benefit students in two ways. First, the student can learn English equivalent terms for Konglish items and at the same time be introduced to aspects of vocabulary they will meet later in the unit. Secondly, as students come across the vocabulary in the unit this will act as consolidation, and students attention will be focused and not distracted by otherwise unknown terms. In such a manner, the various types of word lists discussed can easily be put to use alongside existing curriculums, and expand the active vocabulary students possess.

An alternative to teacher created resources are electronic ones. Some teachers may in fact argue it is far easier to sit down at a computer to find existing Konglish teaching resources than spend time from an already busy schedule creating them from scratch.

INTERNET / PC-BASED RESOURCES

The growth of computers and access to this technology within Korean classrooms (from middle school to university level) sees more students becoming familiar with computers and the Internet, seeing them turn to keyboards and mice to assist them with not only homework and research but also English language learning and practice. Under the same token as more teachers become familiar with computers and the Internet, and more willing to bring the use of computer-based multimedia into the classroom, the chalk face of education will transform. "Innovations continue to be made, and the pace seems to be accelerating. The convergence of once separate media such as videos and computers, moves us toward a multi-user, multi-site environment for interaction and learning, stretching far beyond the confines of the traditional computer laboratory" (Levy, 1997, 44). Indeed already, many teachers within Korea, who do not have the use of CALL (computer assisted language learning) labs at their place of work or computers in their English language classrooms, are in fact still using CALL with students. For teachers in such situations rely on the Internet, and computers as tools, to assist them in developing lessons or for the setting and completion of various homework tasks.

Web Pages

Web page resources dealing with Konglish can be split into two groups, one the native English speaker can access (resources in English) and another Korean students can access (resources in both English and Korean). Let us, however, focus solely on the first group.

English language sites accessible by using the search term 'Konglish' include web pages with news articles about the use of Konglish in Korea, articles concerning Konglish, as well as home pages that contain Konglish lists, and other pages providing downloadable Konglish exercises. These sites include 'Pusanweb Konglish Korner', 'Leon's EFL Planet', and 'Konglish->Wronglish->English!' The perhaps familiar 'Pusanweb Konglish Korner' is a bulletin board that allows people to submit examples of the various types of Konglish that they have seen throughout Korea. 'Leon's EFL Planet' provides a listing of various Konglish terms structured under 5 different lexical sets. Those who have an interest in the lexical sets of Konglish may find the more in depth article "Speaking in Tongues: Chinglish, Japlish, and Konglish" (Kent, 1999) more to their liking. The previous article, available for download from the KOTESOL web site, details not only a discussion on the use of Chinglish, Japlish, and Konglish but also establishes viable support for the use of these linguistic processes within the EFL Classrooms

of North East Asia. Finally, the 'Konglish->Wronglish->English!' web site provides two downloadable shareware programs to assist Koreans in developing English through a series of specifically tailored exercises, one of the programs is a Konglish Dictionary while the other is a Konglish Workbook.

At this point, the reader needs to understand that the Internet is a constantly expanding animal and that search-engines continuously update automatically by changing the amount of links available as a result of weeding out dead links and re-ranking sites accessible by the amount of times they are clicked. As a result, sites that are here today, or easily located now, are gone tomorrow. Teachers who therefore desire to use the Internet for collecting materials to augment lessons cannot always rely on book-marking, and may find that saving data for offline access may be a better alternative. At any rate, web page resources similar to those outlined above can prove valuable to the EFL teacher by providing a range of sources from which to gather data for word lists, and other classroom activities that involve Konglish as a teaching tool, or for students who wish to learn the English equivalents of Konglish terms.

Computer Programs

Computer programs available for download from the Internet dealing specifically with the use of Konglish by the Korean EFL student include the Kent Konglish Dictionary and the Kent Konglish Workbook. These two programs, originally developed in 1996 by this author for use on all Windows platforms, are shareware and do as such require registration. However, one can complete the first activity of each Workbook exercise without registration, and the first letters of the English and Korean alphabet within the Dictionary can also be accessed without registration. This allows teachers to gain access to a series of words from which to compile word lists, or develop other classroom activities, and a series of exercises that after printing are beneficial time-filling exercises or homework tasks.

The Kent Konglish Dictionary contains 1,167 commonly used Konglish terms as headwords. The dictionary allows easy alphabetical access, in both English and Korean, to the terms. Headwords stored in the dictionary are also cross-referenced with other phrases and words that hold similar semantic or lexical qualities. A user may also perform a dictionary wide search for terms in either English or Korean. Further, terms may be accessed according to lexical sets, from which the dictionary offers 30 categories ranging from contractions to false cognates through to written terms. The dictionary provides not only the English equivalent and meanings for each headword, but also a brief background or cultural note concerning word use, as well as example sentences in both English and Korean that detail practical use for each term.

The Kent Konglish Workbook, on the other hand, contains a series of activities with their basis in lexical sets using Konglish terminology. The Workbook contains various exercises that consist of 10 Drag and Drop Matching Exercises, 10

Cloze Exercises, 20 Question and Answer Quizzes, 20 Translating Exercises, 50 What Word am I? Quizzes, 10 Word Search Puzzles, 10 Crossword Puzzles, 10 Review Exercises, and 10 Bonus Exercises, making a total of 875 individual questions for students to complete. Students can select to follow the exercises in order, or follow their own linguistic path by selecting an exercise to complete at random. Each exercise comes with native speaker audio in both English and Korean languages. Students also have the power to record their own pronunciation and play it back for comparison with the native speaker audio files. The instructions for each exercise are in English but immediate translation to Korean, if so desired, is possible by clicking on the language flag. The computer will also store the amount of times a student attempts each exercise along with the score achieved for each exercise undertaken. The student's grade summary can then be viewed from within the program, sent to a printer, or imported to or from a floppy disk.

What is unique about these programs is that they both use Konglish to impart knowledge of English onto students. In addition, both programs contain bilingual drop-down menu bars that show English functions as well as the translation in Korean. This provides easy navigation and access to the language learning material by the student while allowing them to come to an understanding of the menu functions in English. Both programs are ideally suited for use by students in self-study. Indeed a number of Korean elementary, middle, and high school teachers have already added the programs to their classroom CALL libraries. Alternatively, students may use the programs to supplement their existing course with the teacher setting a series of homework tasks from the programs. The teacher may also choose to develop such activities as word lists from the dictionary that can be set for review of various terms, or word lists based on groupings of lexical sets for a review or introductory to a topic of study. Teachers may also direct students to select a series of terms from throughout the dictionary, or one of the 30 lexical categories, and have them be responsible for penning example sentences using the English equivalent for the Konglish expression. Further, exercises can be set from the workbook where teachers may direct students to complete a series of activities per week. Knowledge of the Konglish English equivalents can then form a component of weekly reviews or weekly dictation tests as set by the teacher. A further activity put to use by several EFL instructors is to ask students to obtain the Workbook, print any one of the exercises, and complete it. Then for each Konglish term presented by the exercise write an English sentence containing the English equivalent for the Konglish term, and then submit this in class as homework.

The Konglish Dictionary and Workbook put to use as teaching tools for South Korean students of English aims at developing the learner's use of English through their understanding of the way language is used within their own cultural environment, and in turn how these terms actually relate to English usage and culture. The currency for English language learning that both programs exhibit lays in the

fact that they give special treatment to the cultural factors behind the South Korean language use of Konglish and provide a means whereby such terminology can be transferred back into English language use by the learner. In this respect both the Dictionary, and Workbook, become valuable tools for student lexical analysis and vocabulary building.

The Dictionary and Workbook both provide students with a means from which to avoid lexical errors produced by negative interference from the initial language (L1) by providing lexical distinctions for these terms, and a means for putting students new understanding of the English equivalents for Konglish terms into immediate practice. As such this process goes one step further than communicative language teaching (CLT) by not only "using English to learn it (English)" (Howatt in Richards & Rogers, 1993: 66), but by using elements of English linguistic code found within the native vernacular of South Korea to impart the knowledge of cross-cultural communication skills in the English language to Korean EFL students through the positive use of 'sociolinguistic interference'. In this sense then, the use of Konglish within these programs comes to "function as a cross-linguistic mnemonic key for phrases and vocabulary learnt in the target language" (Kent, 1999, 207).

The inclusion of computer technology in the classroom, or even if still kept at bay by only using computers for assisting in the completion of homework tasks, is a very important step many native speaking English teachers within Korea need to take. It is important because Internet interest and ownership of computers is constantly increasing within Korea. As a recent report in the Korea Herald (September 07, 2001) indicates, in July of this year 45.9% of Korean households possess Internet connection up 3% from a month earlier, with 71.4% of these households using broadband connections such as xDSL lines, and maintaining an active connection to the Internet for an average of 14.7 days per month. This tells us that more and more of our students are gaining access to computers and the Internet and as a result becoming computer literate, even if it is just for web surfing or playing games. Nevertheless, computer technology is becoming a part of students daily life and routine and will change the way in which they not only expect delivery of data and learning but how they will receive information and knowledge in the future. For teachers then to adapt part of their lessons for use with Internet technology is not unreasonable, nor is it impossible these days for students to complete any homework tasks using the Internet or e-mail. Homework can be completed using computers from a range of sources, as well as one of many of the Internet-based e-mail accounts that domains such as daum.net provide free for life, with Korean EFL students able to gain access to computers and Internet connections from home, within schools, or even from one of many Internet Cafes dotting Korean cityscapes.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

As Sheperd (1996, 1) realises "… improper use of foreign words can lead to misunderstanding and confusion, particularly for non-native speakers trying to learn a language". This holds true for our EFL students here in Korea. Although many native speakers come to enjoy using Konglish terminology when living in Korea, and when speaking outside of class with their students, use of such terms impart the notion that there is acceptance for using such terminology when engaging in dialogues with native speakers of English. Of course, such communication within the Republic of Korea is just fine and is often acceptable to many a native-speaking English teacher residing on the peninsula. However, when our EFL students need to communicate with those outside of the nation problems may arise. Our students will communicate with others in countries where English is a native language, or official second language, and Konglish is not understood. It is also our students who will attempt to communicate in English, or at times in Konglish, with other non-native speakers in Europe and Asia for business or pleasure purposes. As such, the language skills that our Korean EFL students display not only reflects upon Korea, but also upon you as one of the native-speaking teachers that are here to assist with the linguistic development of the populace. A sound knowledge of Konglish English language equivalents is therefore important for our students to possess.

Although not all Konglish terminology, or phrases, stem from the misuse of foreign loan words, many terms do. Popular Konglish terms in use by many Korean EFL students also stem from languages besides English, but are put to use in English conversation by these pupils as if the terms are of English origin. Other Konglish favourites also stem from the use of false cognates. While our students may have a right to use Konglish within Korea, "as the Filipino poet Gemino Abad once said: 'The English language is now ours. We have colonized it'" (KASTN, 2001). Yet like many other world Englishes, such as Indian English or Singaporean English, these variants of English although perfectly acceptable in daily use amongst citizens of the nations which use them regularly, are not necessarily readily understood outside of their areas of origin.

Take Singaporean English, or Singlish, as an example. How many Korean students, or native-English speakers for that matter, will understand the Singlish meaning of 'blur' (to not know what is going on) for example 'he was very blur at the meeting', or 'arrow' (given a task you don't want to do) as in 'my English teacher arrowed me into writing a report on Singlish' or even 'action' (show off) and 'ya ya' (boastful or arrogant) as in 'they'd make a good couple as he likes to action, and she's very ya ya. Don't you agree?' How about a Singaporean talking with a Korean who must excuse himself from the drinking table to 'obite' (from overbite, stemming from overeat, and meaning to vomit), or was late to the meeting because the taxi got a 'punk' (a puncture in the tire, or a flat tire).

Some form of standard English is then a requirement for any speaker of Singlish, and Konglish, as well as other 'lishes' like Chinglish and Japlish, to effectively communicate with each other in the spheres of business or pleasure. As EFL teachers there are many ways for us to help our students gain an understanding of Konglish English equivalents, and at the same time increase their lexical ability and the means of expressing not only Konglish terminology, but also Korean terminology, that they don't know the English for.

To finalise, some of the best resources teachers can use with their students are the ones they create themselves. Such activities developed by industrious teachers for teaching vocabulary items include activities like word lists, picture drawings, or even crossword and word search puzzles. Existing curriculums cannot only be augmented by these activities, as introductory or revisionary tasks, but also by incorporating elements of technology within the study of students for homework tasks. An outline of several such teacher developed resources and approaches, along with Internet and multimedia resources for putting these methods to practical use has been presented within this paper. It is now up to the teachers of Korean EFL students to put them to use, or augment them by developing meaningful teaching resources of their own that will assist our EFL students in acquiring and developing an understanding of, and being able to produce when required, the English equivalents of the Konglish terminology they so often practice when speaking in English.

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Appendix A. Example of a Konglish Word List
for Korean EFL Students

What are the English terms for these Konglish terms?

1. One Shot
2. Backu, Backu
3. Dutch Pay
4. MT
5. Hotchkiss
6. Free Size
7. Magic Pen
8. Ball Pen
9. O-Bite
10. Potato
11. Eye Shopping
12. C.F.
13. VTR
14. Talent
15. Lover
16. Remo-Con
17. Audio
18. Handle/Power Handle
19. Service
20. After Service

APPENDIX B. EXAMPLE OF A PICTURE WORD LIST
FOR KOREAN EFL STUDENTS

Mansion

Punk

Cassette

Sofa

Stand

Sand Bag

Manicure

Steam

APPENDIX C. SELECT KONGLISH LEXICAL SET WORD LISTS
FOR KOREAN EFL STUDENTS

Lexical Sets Using Noun Modifiers

Konglish Term: 스킨쉽 (skinship) Close physical contact
Related English Terms: Friend<u>ship</u>, Partner<u>ship</u>, Relation<u>ship</u>.

Lexical Set Word List Using Konglish Contractions or Shortenings

아지트 (Agit)	<u>Agit</u>a<u>ting</u> Point	클린 (Clean)	Clean <u>Cut</u>
클립 (Clip)	<u>P</u>aper<u>clip</u>	콤플렉스 (Complex)	<u>Inferiority</u> Complex
코디 (Cordi)	Co<u>ordi</u>nate	후레쉬 (Flash)	Flash<u>light</u>
미션 오일 (Mission Oil)	<u>T</u>ra<u>ns</u>mission Oil	멘트 (Ment)	<u>Com</u>ment
스프링 노트 (Spring Note)	Spiral <u>Bound</u> Note <u>Book</u>	나이트 (Night)	Night <u>Club</u>
와이 셔츠 (Y-shirt)	Whi<u>te</u> Shirt (dress shirt)	리모콘 (Remo-Con)	Remo<u>te</u> Con<u>trol</u>

ERRATA: THIS PAGE CORRECTED FROM FROM PRINTED ORIGINAL

Lexical Set Word Lists Where Konglish Terms Require –ed Endings

캔 커피 (Can Coffee) — Canned Coffee
콘덴스 밀크 (Condense Milk) — Condensed Milk
후라이 치킨 (Fry Chicken) — Fried Chicken
원사이드 게임 (One-Side Game) — One-Sided Game
카레라이스 (Curry Rice) — Curried Rice
후레아 [스커트] (Flare Skirt) — Flared Skirt
스모크 햄 (Smoke Ham) — Smoked Ham

Lexical Set Word Lists Where Konglish Terms Require –ing Endings

후라이팬 (Fry Pan) — Frying Pan
스케이트 링 (Skate Ring) — Skating Rink
스피드 스케이트 (Speed Skate) — Speed Skating
세트로션 (Set Lotion) — Setting lotion
스펠 (Spell) — Spelling
오픈게임 (Open Game) — Opening Game

Lexical Set Word Lists Where Konglish Terms require Plural –s Endings

하이힐 (High Heel) — High Heels
팬티 (Panty) — Panties
스타킹 (Stocking) — Stockings
골프링 (Golf Link) — Golf Links
슬리퍼 (Slipper) — Slippers
선글라스 (Sunglass) — Sunglasses

Lexical Set Word List for Konglish Terms Missing Word Endings

어나운스 (Announce) — Announcement
오토 (Auto) — Automatic [gearshift]
이러스트 (Illust) — Illustration
로케 (Locay) — Location
미스 (Miss) — Mistake
스냅 (Snap) — Snapshot
테레비 (Televi) — Television
트랜스 (Trans) — Transformer
아파트 (Apart) — Apartment
호모 (Homo) — Homosexual
인푸레 (Inflay) — Inflation
마이크 (Mike) — Microphone
노트 (Note) — Notebook
스텡 (Stain) — Stainless
테러 (Terror) — Terrorism

Lexical Set Word List for Konglish Terms Missing Word Beginnings

뽀이 (Boy) — Bellboy
스피커 (Speaker) — Loudspeaker
그라운드 (Ground) — Playground
트로트 (Trot) — Foxtrot
벤츠 (Benz) — Mercedes Benz
미싱 (Mishing) — Sewing machine

Lexical Set Word List for the Topics of Food or Eating Out

방울토마토 (Bangul-Tomato) — Cherry Tomato
버거 (Burger) — Hamburger
돈까스 (Don Kass) — Pork Cutlet
샐러드 (Salad) — Salad
에그 후라이 (Egg Fry) — Poached Eggs, or Eggs Sunny Side-Up
뷔페 (Buffet) — Buffet
콜라 (Cola) — Coca-Cola (Coke)
포테이토 (Potato) — French Fries

Lexical Set Word List for the Topics of Cars or Travelling

백미러 (Back Mirror) — Side Mirrors
본네트 (Bonnet) — Hood or Bonnet
클랙슨 (Klaxon) — Horn
리어카 (Rear Car) — Trailer
룸미러 (Room Mirror) — Rear View Mirror or Rear Vision Mirror
사이드 브레이크 (Side Brake) — Parking Brake or Hand Brake
봉고 (Bongo) — Mini-Van
핸들 (Handle) — Steering Wheel
오픈카 (Open Car) — Convertible

Teaching Discourse Stress to Asian Students

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ABSTRACT

English utterances contain a main sentence stress or discourse stress which marks new information or contrast in sentences. ESL/EFL students may have difficulties if they fail to perceive or express the main point of utterances by means of stress – obstacles that are especially strong for Asian students – due to the prosodic differences between English and Asian languages. This discourse stress exists to reflect the flow of information, and mark the most salient information of an utterance, namely, new information and sometimes contrast emphasis. Simple linguistic principles account for how stress is placed in the most salient word in an utterance. These principles can be readily taught to ESL/EFL students. The stress system, how it can be taught, and ideas for some communicatively oriented lessons will be described for teaching the various aspects of English discourse stress.

INTRODUCTION

Utterances in spoken English contain what is known as sentence stress or discourse stress which is stronger than other stresses in the sentence. It is used for indicating the speaker's main point, and marking important new information, contrast, and emphasis. For learners of English, managing stress is helpful if not necessary for clear communication. The stress expresses the speaker's attitudes, intentions, what s/he feels is important, and other nuances. Improper stress interferes with the speaker's intended main points, possibly leading to awkwardness or miscommunication for learners and their listeners (Clennell, 1997), while stressless utterances can sound unnatural and thereby impede communication. ESL/EFL learners are often not taught stress and rhythm or their importance. Few ESL/EFL materials, even pronunciation materials, address this adequately or at all, and teachers may not understand how it works or how to teach it. Learning stress can be especially difficult for East Asian students whose L1 backgrounds have very different prosodic systems than English.

Discourse or sentence stress is generally understood in the linguistics literature to mark to the most salient or relevant information, namely, new information in an utterance, as well as contrast and emphasis (Chafe, 1994, van Deemter, 1999, Bardovi-Harlig, 1986, Cruttenden, 1986, Gussenhoven, 1983). The various aspects of stress in marking such information and how to teach stress are discussed below. The following discussion is based on a linguistic analysis and pedagogical applications worked out in Lee (2001), which deals with more details and com-

plexities not addressed here. Because it depends on discourse flow and structure, 'discourse stress' would technically be more accurate; however, for learners, 'sentence stress' is easier and more transparent. Both terms are used interchangeably in this paper.

PRAGMATIC AND PHONOLOGICAL BASIS OF STRESS

The ends of sentences are generally characterized by a final lengthening and pitch drop (see, e.g., Inkelas & Leben, 1990). An item at or near the end of the sentence is stretched out (longer syllable duration), followed by a brief pitch drop, as in this famous phrase from an American politician.

1. I am not a c-r-o-o-k ̄.

In verb-final languages like Korean and Japanese, the lengthened section tends to serve to highlight verb stems or other important sentence final items, while the final drop serves as a useful place for less important verb endings or sentence endings. In English, the final lengthening is combined with an increased pitch change and used for other expressive purposes. This creates a very prominent stress which stands out over other stress in the sentence – a discourse stress (indicated by boldface below). Speakers use it to highlight the most important information and to convey the main point of utterances. The most basic, default usage of stress is at or near the end of the sentence. Since new information generally occurs at or near the end of the sentence, the sentence stress typically marks the most salient new information in this position (2a). But it can be exploited for the special purposes of indicating contrast and emphasis, by stressing other information and putting the rest of the sentence under the final pitch drop (2b).

2a. I am not a **crook**.   (statement of new information)

2b. **I** ̄ am not a crook.   (meaning: but *he* is one.)

Because of the drop in intonation and prominence, the very end of the sentence, intonation after the discourse stress, is suitable for less important information, such as old object pronouns (3a) and information that may be new but is less important (3b).

3a.   I didn't **do** ̄ it.

3b.   I am not a **crook**, ̄ said Richard.

Final items following the discourse stress like *said Richard* in 3b are unstressed, marked by a pitch drop, and are also shortened, i.e., pronounced more quickly. Such final unstressed items are known as parenthetical expressions (Nespor & Vogel, 1986), and are typically pronounced in such fashion. Parentheticals may convey new information, but of a less important kind than the items that are stress marked. These and other unstressed final items convey background or contextual information – minor information to clarify the linguistic or physical context, such

as who is speaking (reporting expressions, as in 3b), who is being spoken to (vocatives or address forms), and the flow of thought (discourse markers like *you know, anyway, though*).

STRESS AND STRESS PEDAGOGY

After addressing some initial pedagogical issues, the essence of the English stress system and how to teach it are laid out in the following sections. The system consists of a few simple principles that can help students understand where to place stress in utterances. These principles basically consist of (1) marking new information with stress, specifically, final content words, compounds, or similar items; (2) identifying what is not stressed – old and background information; and (3) contrast and emphasis. The means and order of presentation of the concepts to students are outlined, and sample activities are suggested.

Pedagogical issues

Gilbert (1987, 1994) points out that pronunciation teaching crucially depends on teaching the prosodic and rhythmic ("musical") features of the language. Besides stress for new information and emphasis, it is also necessary to teach pitch change, the length of stressed vowels and syllables, vowel reduction in unstressed syllables, intonation, and stress. These prosodic aspects require more specific and focused attention in teaching East Asian students. Many East Asian languages do not have stress as a regular linguistic feature, and in fact have very different prosodic systems. Intonation is put to use as a regular phonemic feature of most syllables in tone languages like Chinese, rather than marking information flow. Some languages, like Japanese, have a pitch accent system, which is another lexical intonational system of a more limited scope. In many languages like Korean, which has no stress or tone system, intonation is used for sentence final intonation and for purely pragmatic purposes.

Thus, for many Asian students, the initial difficulty lies in simply pronouncing stress, so a useful starting point may be word stress. After practicing the stress pronounced by means of lengthening and pitch rise or fall in word stresses, and different levels of stresses in words, students would be more prepared for learning stress at the broader level of discourse stress. Since the sentence-final lengthening and downstep are language universals, these can be used as a starting point in stress production. More controlled tasks like repetition exercises with sample dialogues can be used to teach students to exaggerate this lengthening and downstep by adding pitch rises and falls to produce clear stresses. After learning to perceive and produce stress in controlled situations, they can move on later to more communicative exercises, as discussed below.

For beginning perception tasks to teach students to hear the difference between stressed and unstressed items, the teacher can exaggerate pronunciation of the stresses (Jull, 1992), especially for students from non-stress languages. Standard controlled tasks like imitation and recitation from prepared dialogues and texts

can be useful as beginning production tasks, as well as simple interview tasks, simple information gap activities (e.g., describing pictures of familiar objects), and limericks. Freer communicative activities may include more complex interview tasks, role plays, group presentations and discussions. These and other various pronunciation activities are described in McNerney and Mendelsohn (1992), Celce-Murcia et al.(1996), Naiman (1992), Gilbert (1994), Gilbert (1984), Wright et al.(1979), Jull (1992), and Morley (1994).

Stress for new information

Each meaningful utterance contains a discourse stress; a 'meaningful utterance' can be a whole sentence or clause, an incomplete sentence, or even a single phrase spoken in a speaking turn (consisting of at least a content word or syntactic phrase). Each utterance is separated from other utterances by pauses and intonation changes, forming an informational unit (Lee 2001) or a "thought group" (Gilbert 1,987, 1994). Most often, discourse stress falls on a noun or other content word at or near the end of the sentence, because the content word is a new item in the conversation. Grammatically, it is placed there because it is most relevant to the interpretation of the utterance, and discourse stress makes it easier for listeners to perceive it and to understand what the speaker conveys as significant information in a sentence or short utterance.

In learning stress, students can readily grasp the concept of new information, since various languages throughout the world distinguish between old and new information to some degree or another in their word order. New information tends to occur at or toward the end of sentences as much as the syntax allows it in various languages. Some languages also mark the distinctions with morphological endings (such as Korean *-n/-neun* versus *-i/-ga*, and Japanese *-wa*). For students, this most basic and general principle of stress location can be summarized as follows:

> 4. NEW: discourse stress occurs on the final new item.

Another factor for stress is the grammatical word class, namely, whether it is a content or function word. Content words include nouns, main verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, which carry the main meaning of the sentence and the more important semantic information. Since they are more important to listeners in processing and interpreting utterances, they are better candidates for discourse stress. Function words include prepositions, pronouns, pro-forms (e.g., *here, there*), conjunctions, articles, determiners, quantifiers, discourse markers, linking verbs, modals, and auxiliary verbs. Function words carry less information, and so are less salient and are not stressed as new if a new content word is present. New content words usually occur at or near the end of the utterance, as in 5, where they receive stress, while the function word does not.

> 5. Do you have anything **similar** there?

Some short sentences may contain only function words as new information, so then the function words carry the new information. In 6, for example, the last new function word *is* receives the stress because it is the last new item.

6. Who **is** it?

In shortened sentences with subjects or verbs omitted, or in short phrases, some or all of the old information may appear as pronouns or may be omitted (7b). In another type of elliptical sentence, a final auxiliary verb can refer to a previous verb phrase or predicate, in which case the preceding auxiliary or modal is stressed as new (8b).

7a. Who ate the rhubarb?

7b. **Me**.

8a. Have you ever seen 'Little Shop of Horrors'?

8b. No, but I **should** have.

We can formulate two linguistic principles as below, one for stressing content words (CW), and another for stressing function words (FW). Because content words are more important linguistically, the CW principle is more important and takes precedence over FW. In the presence of new content words, CW overrides FW, ensuring that content words are stressed; in the absence of new content words, FW allows a function word to be stressed.

9a. CW: discourse stress occurs on content words.

9b. FW: discourse stress occurs on function words.

Discourse stress coincides with the main lexical stress of a stressed word. Similarly, if the final new item is a compound, phrasal verb, or other phrasal item, the discourse stress coincides with the main stress of the phrasal item, as summarized by the phrase principle below. English phrasal and compound stress is very complicated, and is not addressed in detail here; for students, it will suffice to present and practice some basic common patterns.

10a. I can't figure him **out**.   (phrasal verb: figure o͞ut)

10b. We're seeking greater investor **participátion**.   (compound noun)

10c. Don't just do it willy-**nilly**.   (compound adjective)

11. Phrase: discourse stress on compound or phrasal stress

Unstressed items

Two kinds of information are not stressed: old items, and items that are new but of minor linguistic importance. Old and thus unstressed information consists of items that have been previously mentioned and are thus known to the listeners,

including subjects, object pronouns and other pro-forms. Items that refer to or are synonymous with previously mentioned items are also old, as in 12, in which *Hitchcock movie* has been previously mentioned in the preceding context, and in which *flick* refers back to the movie (vertical bars indicate separate utterance units).

> 12. The **Rise** is a good Hitchcock movie |
> You'd love to **watch** it |
> It's a **cool** flick.   (adapted from corpus in Lee 2001)

Some kinds of new but less salient items can occur at the very end of the utterance, when speakers mention items that are not old but are understood within the context by the listeners; they merely contribute to the linguistic context or background of the discourse. These background items, including general time expressions (13a), various final parentheticals such as reporting expressions (13b), discourse markers (13c), and short descriptive infinitivals, contribute minor background material, as in 13d,where *read* is commonly associated with books and thus not highly informative. These can be called light infinitivals, because of their low informational value. In the following examples from a corpus sample in Lee (2001), backgrounded items are marked with grayed text and underlining.

> 13a.   I saw in the **paper** last night | that they're filming Star Wars episode **two** now.
>
> 13b.   I am not a **crook**, said Richard.
>
> 13c.   I am not a **crook**, you know.
>
> 13d.   I have a ton of **books** to read.

Contrast

Speakers may choose to emphasize any item they wish, or to contrasttwo different items, for various purposes (correction, returning to a previous topic, emphasizing a word that was not properly understood), regardless of its informational status as old or new, or sentence position. In this case, stress placement is not a matter of new information, but another kind of saliency, namely, contrast. Speakers may wish to stress an old item, a function word, a word at the beginning of a sentence, two contrasting items in a single clause or between two clauses, or even a normally unstressed syllable, in order to make a special point.

> 14a. Why don't you get in the **car**.   [default new information stress]
>
> 14b. I told **you** to get in the car.   [function word, emphasis]
>
> 14c. I told you to get **in** the car, not **on** the car.   [function word, pairwise contrast]
>
> 14d. I **told** you to get in the car.   [non-final item, emphasis]
>
> 14e. It's either **this** or **that**.   [double stress, pairwise contrasted items
>   in same clause]
>
> 14f. I said "**in**crease," not "**de**crease."   [contrastive stress on normally
>   unstressed syllables]

Indicating contrast is a more specialized function of discourse stress than its primary function of marking new information, and this specialized function takes precedence over new information stress. Thus, the Contrast Principle below overrides the above principles that govern new information stress.

    15. CONTRAST: discourse stress on contrasted or emphasized items.

While direct contrast involves comparison between two items explicitly mentioned within an utterance phrase, such as *this or that*, the emphasis is not very different, for it involves an implied comparison between two items or ideas. For example, *I told yóu* in 14b implies, "*I'm not talking to myself or someone else, I'm talking to you*", and *told* in 14d contrasts with the listener's misunderstanding of or refusal to heed what the speaker said. So contrast and emphasis can be both treated together under the category of contrastive stress. Contrast or emphasis can also be indicated by words that carry contrastive or emphatic meanings, known as focus markers (König, 1991), such as *too, even, also*, and words like *myself* when occurring sentence finally for emphasis (and not used as pronoun objects). The stress usually occurs on the word modified or marked by the focus marker, or sometimes on the focus marker itself (16a-b). Some common focus markers are listed in 17, plus special contrastive grammatical structures such as clefts and topic transition markers that can be taught to more advanced students.

    16a. John is also **intelligent**.

    16b. John is **also** intelligent.

    16c. I can do it **myself**.

    17. *focus markers:*
        also, as for, as well, each, either, else, even, too, myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves; own, do, just, exactly, precisely, each, respectively

    18. *grammatical markers*:

a. cleft sentences	It's the **yak** that I need to milk.
b. preposing	Milk the **yak**, that's what I'll do.
c. topic shift markers	Speaking of **yaks**, did you know that yak meat tastes just like water buffalo?
	Speaking of yaks, did you know that yak meat tastes just like water buffalo?

The stress principles described above are linguistic statements about how linguistic features are to appear in language, such as those here that define what preferences the language has for placement of stress according to word classes and types of information. The strongest principle is Contrast, which overrides New. In the absence of contrastive items, New determines stress location, and it is still one of the stronger principles. It alone is not decisive, and other principles

must also be considered for stress location – whether the final new item is a phrasal item, a content word, or a function word. The relevant principles Phrase, CW, and FW are considered in their order of importance to determine the stress placement. The relative importance of these principles is summarized below.

19. CONTRAST > NEW > PHRASE > CW > FW

Corpus sample

Having laid out the basic system, we can readily demonstrate its application to an actual speech sample. The system is shown below for a 1.5 minute excerpt from a natural speech corpus in Lee (2001). The right column shows the relevant applicable principle(s) for each utterance in the left column. The model can account for all the stress patterns, including utterances that contain no stresses (line 17) because they do not contain an informational phrase or message unit. The relevant principles are considered in their order of importance, until the stress is located. For line 1, for example, the Contrast principles is not applicable, since no contrast exists. New is considered, followed by Phrase; these two principles suffice to locate the stress, so the other principles need not be considered. For sample dialogues for teaching and practicing stress, naturally recorded speech samples like the following can provide a rich source of examples that can be adapted for classroom use.

20. *Corpus sample[1]*

grayed courier type	= background information
grayed SMALL CAPS	= refers to old information understood from the context
underline	= phrasal item
bold	= stress
italics	= contrasted item

1 K. Do we need to return those **Schnuck's** videos?   New, Phrase
2 M. Oh yeah, they need to go **back**.   New, Phrase
3   Hey, you wanna watch one of those, uh, **Hitchcock** movies tonight? New, Phrase
4 G. *I* don't know.   Contrast (emphasis)
5   You know, I'm not a real **Hitchcock** fan.   New, Phrase
6 M. *I* think Hitchcock movies are *great*.   Contrast (pairwise contrasts)
7   We should watch The Third **Man**   New, Phrase
8   and see if we recognize any of Vienna after the **war**.   New, CW
9   I'm sure we'd recognize St. **Stephan's**.   New, Phrase
10 M. Since we saw it in its burned **out** STAGE.   New, Phrase
11 K. *The **Rise*** is a good Hitchcock movie   Contrast (topic shift), Phrase
12   It's got Paul **Newman** in it.   New, Phrase
13   You'd love to **watch** it.   New, CW
14 M. What **is** it?   Contrast (repair)
15 K. It's *The **Rise***...   Contrast (emphasis), Phrase
16 K. It won a Nobel **Prize**.   New, Phrase
17 M. yeah.   (discourse marker, no stress)

Sample syllabus

Discourse stress can be presented from the most basic and simple patterns, to the more complex and specialized usages. So stressed final new content words are presented first, followed by deviations from this pattern – final old items, final background items, and stressed function words. Then the more complex cases of compounds and other phrasal items are presented, and the specialized contrastive usages of stress. Finally, some holistic and more communicative practice is recommended, in which the various patterns of stress can occur together more freely and naturally.

Stressed final content words

The instructor reads a short sample dialogue or plays a simple example from a recording. Students are asked to discern whether one word stands out more prominently than the others in each utterance, and to identify the words with stronger stresses. Students are then to guess at a general principle for placement of stress, and will likely identify the last important word or new item as the stressed item. The distinctions between old and new information and between content words and function words are discussed. Then students can practice with sample dialogues. One short sample dialogue is given below; in addition to such dialogues, limericks can also be used to illustrate final new stress.

> 21. A. So why isn't Johnny eating his **squid**?
>   B. He thinks it looks **disgusting**,
>   and it's hard to **chew**.
>   A. Can you get him to eat **octopus**?
>   B. No, he doesn't eat seafood besides **shrimp**.
>   How about **Fritz**?
>   A. He only eats octopus or squid with **peppers**.
>   He's so very **picky**.

> 22. There once was a lady from **Bright**,
>   Who could travel faster than **light**.
>   She went out one **day**,
>   And in a relative **way**,
>   Came back the previous **night**.

Chunking

Most students will need extra practice with chunking sentences into smooth utterances and informational units with a sentence stress on each utterance. Rhymalogues (Gilbert, 1984, 1994) and sample dialogues or monologues can be used for controlled practice; for more advanced practice, texts like the "Dear John" letter below (an anonymous piece of humor disseminated by email) may be used to emphasize the importance of proper phrasing via humor.

> 23a. They like pie and apples.

> 23b. They like pineapples.   (Gilbert, 1984:113)

24a. He sold his house, boat, and trailer.

24b. He sold his houseboat and trailer.   (Gilbert, 1994:46)

25a. "Alfred", said the boss, "is stupid".

25b. Alfred said, "The boss is stupic".   (Gilbert, 1984:48-9)

26a.

> Dear John:
>
>   I want a man who knows what love is all about. You are generous, kind, thoughtful. People who are not like you admit to being useless and inferior. You have ruined me for other men. I yearn for you. I have no feelings whatsoever when we're apart. I can be forever happy – will you let me be yours?
>
>   Gloria

26b.

> Dear John:
>
>   I want a man who knows what love is. All about you are generous, kind, thoughtful people, who are not like you. Admit to being useless and inferior. You have ruined me. For other men, I yearn. For you, I have no feelings whatsoever. When we're apart, I can be forever happy. Will you let me be?
>
>   Yours,
>
>   Gloria

Stressed non-final items

Another dialogue is presented with final old items, including function words. Students are asked to identify stressed words, and whether it conforms with the previously guessed principle for stress placement. The principles 'New' and 'CW', and the new vs. old information distinction, can be clarified here. Practice can be done with dialogue samples, jazz chants, and simple songs.

A third sample dialogue is presented with final background information items. Students are to identify them as "new but not really important or informative". The concept of background information is discussed, and the new information principle is revised to exclude background items. Further practice can be done with dialogues and stress production. Students should learn to pronounce backgrounded phrases with reduced intonation, no stress, and quickly as a rush-through. Possibilities for practice material may include embellishing a plain dialogue by adding such background phrases, or using material adapted from the Paul Simon song, "Fifty Ways to Leave your Lover" (e.g., *just hop on the bus, Gus*) for vocatives. These common types of background information can be addressed:

- General time adverbials: unstressed when only contextualizing the general time frame of the conversation – *...now, today, tonight.*
- Reporting expressions (quotatives): *...s/he said, reported, explained,* etc.
- Address forms (vocatives): *I will, sir / Dad / Homer / Mr. Simpson.*
- Discourse markers: *...though, you know, like*
- Expletives: *...darn it.*
- Light infinitivals: *a book to read.*

Stressed new function words

The next dialogue may contain shorter, more conversational style utterances, with final function words, both new and old. Students are to identify the stresses and how to explain them (the instructor may need to point out that the final words are function words). Students learn the function word (FW) principle that applies in the absence of new content words, such that stress can fall on the last new function word. Practice dialogues with short sentences can be used, or activities that elicit short responses like ***should*** *have* (e.g., *no, but I should have*). For new information stress on both content and function words together, classic information gap activities (info-gap) may also be used (e.g., Naiman, 1992), such as describing pictures of familiar items, or drawing pictures composed of odd geometrical shapes, as well as asking students to provide brief explanations of concepts from their other classes or from their own fields of study or work.

Compounds

Students can practice with slightly more academic level English, with phrasal verbs and compound nouns receiving sentence stress. Basic patterns of compound noun and phrasal verb stress are presented. For practice, students can do the following:

- Sample dialogues
- Info-gap definitions: One student has a picture of an item with a compound noun name, and another has a description of the item with no picture; students try to match items with descriptions; e.g., basset hound, hole puncher, baseball, laptop computer, South America.
- Definitions: Students explain more complex or technical terms from their fields consisting of compound nouns or verbs, or common phrasal verb expressions.

Contrast

Dialogues with examples of miscommunication, repair, disagreement, or other cases that easily lead to contrastive stress can be presented. Students should notice numerous violations of the principles learned thus far, and learn that contrastive stress can override the new information stress principles (New, CW, FW, Phrase). For more advanced learners, special syntactic patterns for contrastive stress may be discussed. For communicative practice, activities like these can be used:

- Describing differences between two pictures that are similar except for slight differences (e.g., with pictures from children's magazines like Highlights at www.highlights.com).
- Scolding: pretending to be a parent, teacher, or boss scolding another student.
- Police interrogation: Two students pretend to be police interrogators who interrogate a crime suspect, played by another student.
- Mock debates: The class is split into two opposing groups of students. Students debate real issues, or non-threatening issues trivial issues, such as which of these is the better option:

  > Macs vs. PC/Windows vs. Linux
  > American food vs. Chinese food
  > smoking cigarettes vs. inhaling car exhaust
  > one-humped vs. two-humped camels

- Service encounter: One student plays a clerk, the other a customer, one of whom has difficulty hearing; they use contrastive stress to clarify and correct what they say.

To practice all stress patterns together, some holistic communicative activities can be used:

- Practice sample dialogues from actual natural conversations.
- Narration or description activities.
- Describing ambiguous pictures: Ambiguous pictures (like those found in information gap exercises) or abstract art can be presented to students; students are to describe the picture, what they think it looks like, or what it is supposed to be.
- Map task: Student A asks Student B for directions to locations on a map. B has to give directions, and A must clarify B's directions. A simple campus map may be used for lower level students, and a more complete campus map or a map of a familiar city can be used for more advanced students (especially a larger city like Chicago).
- Persuasive presentation: Students deliver short persuasive presentations about "why you should major in X" or "why you should work for company X" or "why you should choose career X", and why the student's choice is better than other alternatives (especially appropriate for teaching pronunciation within a listening/speaking, oral communication course, or content-based curriculum).

CONCLUSION

Students can be given a few simple principles of stress to be grasped, followed by controlled and communicative types of exercises. The system presented here is linguistically sound, since it is derived from a comprehensive linguistic model that accounts for formal linguistic, pragmatic, and psycholinguistic aspects of discourse stress. The pedagogical model benefits from these new insights in that it is simple, powerful, and straightforward enough to be readily taught. Natural cor-

pora can also be useful resources for teachers and materials writers in developing more authentic and natural-like teaching materials, as has been done in some examples in this paper. Hopefully, this system and these materials can prove useful to ESL/EFL teachers, especially since good materials in this area are relatively rare.

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NOTES

1. Several lines deserve special comment.

Lines 1-2: *return* and *go back*, though synonymous, are informationally different, because different types of transitive and intransitive verbs convey different kinds of meaning (see Goldberg, 1995, Lee, 2001); *Schnuck's* is the name of a supermarket.

Line 4: Special emphasis on *I* entails an implied contrasting counterpart, and in such cases, the implied counterpart can be rather abstract. Here the implicated contrast might be between G.'s own personal "uncertainty" versus M.'s enthusiasm for the films.

Line 5: '**Hitchcock** fan' as one entity is distinct from 'Hitchcock **fan**' and is new here.

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Alternative Teaching Techniques and Materials for Under-Resourced Environments

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Computers, electronic devices, and video screens characterize twenty-first century society. In contrast a typical classroom can, at best, offer only the barest facilities of a learning institution. Some schools do have computers, audio-visual rooms, or even rooms that are equipped with overhead projectors but these are exceptional cases, at least in the Philippines.

Our typical classroom has desks, chalkboards, a teacher's table and chair and an occasional ceiling fan or two.

For students who have access to computers, play stations, CDs and MDs, listening to a lecture and doing traditional classroom drills provide little challenge to their creativity and interest. No wonder then that the present-day teacher constantly complains that students hardly read their books, making teaching more and more challenging, especially if the teacher depends heavily on traditional teaching methods and textbook-centered activities.

Language education in our time, therefore, requires innovative teaching techniques and materials that meet the learners' needs, competency and circumstances. Moreover the classroom experience must develop the student's initiative to learn the language and use it outside the classroom.

In this paper, I shall share with you some language teaching techniques and materials that can make language teaching exciting and meaningful even in an under-resourced environment.

One of my mentors in college happened to pass by my classroom one day and noticed that my students all seemed to be smiling or laughing. When I saw her later that day she remarked that "A happy class is a learning class." I agree with her that a class that enjoys what it is doing has an easier time learning a lesson than one that takes its lessons too seriously.

LANGUAGE GAMES FOR THE CLASSROOM

Here are some of the fun activities I do in my classes at the University of the Philippines. I have grouped these language games into categories that fit specific objectives in my syllabus.

Enhancing Vocabulary

Word Recognition: Spelling

Vocabulary games played by two persons or more are probably the most familiar language learning leisure activity. Among the commercially available vocabulary games are Crosswords, Form a Word, Scrabble, Upwords, Wordy, and Letter Change. The first one, as its name denotes, is a simple crossword game made more attractive by letter tiles that are laid out on a playing board to form words. The next four are modified crossword puzzles. Letter Change, meanwhile, is a letter substitution game.

Skrib-age, Word Factory and Word Master are games that develop word recognition skills and standard or correct spelling of words. Skrib-age and Word Factory work on the principle of finding words in a seemingly jumbled formation. Word Master, on the other hand, uses letters displayed on blocks to form as many words as possible.

One game that has become quite popular in my classes is Squabble. The game consists of letter tiles. The tiles I use for this game are the same tiles that go with an ordinary Scrabble set.

As the tiles are flipped over one by one, players try to form words with them. For example, the first tile has the letter H on it. The second tile is a letter E. The two tiles together form the word HE. The first player who shouts out the word HE claims the word. A third tile is then flipped over. It is an A. It cannot be added to HE to form a new word. A fourth tile is flipped over and it is an S. A second player shouts SHE and gets the word HE from the first player. A fifth tile is flipped over. It contains the letter R. The first player shouts HEARS and gets back the word SHE from the second player and adds A and R to it to form the longer word HEARS. If the letter T is flipped, then the longer word HEARTS is formed and it goes to the player who shouts the word first.

Following is another example.

The first tile is N, the second O. The word NO is formed. A appears then T. One player shouts AT. If no player shouts NOT, then two words have been formed. Letter I appears next, and the word ION is formed. Letter N follows and the longer word NATION is formed.

Word Relationships: Synonymy and Antonymy

Word games can serve different purposes and may be used to develop various linguistic skills. Vocabulary enrichment can be achieved through simple exercises identifying synonyms and antonyms.

The students can be asked to give the synonyms of the following words, with all their answers beginning with letter a: desert (Answer: abandon), diminish (alleviate/abate/assuage), shorten (abbreviate/abstract/abridge), relinquish (abdi-

cate/abandon/abscond), kidnap (abduct), help (assist/abet/aid), hate (abhor/abominate), teem (abound), forgive (absolve/acquit), imbibe (absorb/assimilate), refrain (abstain), misuse (abuse), consent (assent/accede/acquiesce/agree/admit/accept/ avow/acknowledge/approve), hasten (accelerate), escort (accompany/attend/attach/ append/adjunct), complete (accomplish/absolute), worship (adore), join (annex/ add/append/affix/attach), counsel (advise/admonish), worsen (aggravate), farming (agriculture), similar (alike/agreeing/akin/analogous/affiliated/allied/agnate), surprise (amaze/awe/astonish/astound), ever (always), environment (ambience/ atmosphere), mitigate (ameliorate/alleviate), reparation (amends), plentiful (abundant/ample), enmity (animosity/antagonism/antipathy, respond (answer/acknowledge), indifference (apathy), invade (attack/assault/aggression), task (assignment), genuine (authentic), confront (accost/approach/address), excite (agitate), blame (accuse/arraign), change (alter), pacify (allay/appease/alleviate/assuage), rotate (alternate), sever (amputate), ratify (approve/assent), enlarge (amplify/augment), capture (arrest/apprehend), suffering (anguish/agony/ache), peak (acme/apex), performance (accomplishment/achievement/attainment), irrationality (absurdity), benefit (advantage), loyalty (allegiance), philanthropy (altruism), yearning (ambition/aspiration), sufficiency (adequacy), doubtfulness (ambiguity), fear (anxiety/ apprehension), doer (actor/agent), skill (ability/aptitude).

Exercises in antonymy easily convert into a game. Thomas Kral has created a puzzle-like exercise in antonymy in the book *"The Lighter Side" of TEFL* (1994). The resourceful teacher can create similar exercises and put these on cards.

The teacher can write words on separate cards. The students are instructed to give the opposite of the words written on the cards. This time, all their answers must begin with the letter "s". I start with familiar words like fast (Answer: slow), sweet (sour), buy (sell), tall (short), north (south), happy (sad/somber), different (same/similar), dangerous (safe), big (small), dull (smart/sharp/sparkling/ shiny), noisy (silent/ still/serene), sit (stand), receive (send), generous (selfish/ stingy/spendthrift), meaningless (significant/sensible), believing (skeptical), complicated (simple), doubtful (sure), careful (slipshod/sloppy), wakefulness (sleepiness), rough (smooth), objective (subjective), laugh (sob), weak (strong), healthy (sickly), hard (soft), go (stop), finish (start), fat (slim/slender/ skinny), thin (stout), add (subtract), deep (shallow/ superficial), liquid (solid), fail (succeed), failure (success), leave (stay), spend (save), save (spend/squander/splurge), unite (separate/split/segregate/scatter), familiar (strange), relaxed (stressed), honor (shame), freedom (slavery/subservience/servitude/servility/subjugation/subordination/submission), smart (silly/stupid/senseless), expand (shrink/shorten), whisper (shout/ scream), dirty (sanitary/sterile/spotless/spic-and-span), clean (soiled/smeared/ stained), abundant (scarce/scanty), lacking (sufficient), naive (sophisticated), few (several), numerous (sole/solitary/single/singular), fresh (stale/spoiled), fluctuating (stable/steady/stationary/static), deceitful (sincere), lenient (strict/stern/stringent), premeditated (spontaneous), genuine (sham), alert (sluggish/sleepy), chaotic (systematic), moribund (spirited/ spritely), foolish (sensical/sensible/smart).

The first twenty-three words are from *30 Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary* by Wilfred Funk and Norman Lewis (1970). The rest are my own innovations.

Word Expansion: Derivation/Affixation

Lessons in affixation can also be converted into a classroom game. Here is an example. Let us call this game "Hen and Chicks Game". Each student is given a card with a prefix or a complete word written on it. Prefixes (e.g., mal-, in-, ex-, un-, dis-) represent the hens while the complete words (e.g., formation, nutrition, practice, treat; secure, accurate, adequate, action; terminate, change, foliate, press; conscious, scientific, ethical, sound; close, infect, comfort, locate) are her chicks. Several cards are distributed at the same time and the hens and chicks try to find each other.

Another version of this game makes use of folklore. The story of the hawk and the chicken explains the enmity between these two animals. Chicks are generally thought of as a favorite prey of the hawk. In this game, the prefix re- is given to a student who will play the role of a hawk. The chicks must find their mother hen fast in order to avoid being caught by the hawk. As soon as they find their mother, they must hold to on each other's waist behind their mother (Lopez 1980). Since the prefix re- can be attached to some of the words in the different sets (e.g. treat, action, press, sound, locate) the hawk can snatch these "chicks" if they are not quick enough to find their mother hen.

Introducing Outlining

Classification: Grouping Ideas

Scattergories and Outburst are two games that work on the principle of grouping and categorizing. These games provide categories for which items or objects are enumerated. For example, in Outburst, under a category like "things that are red," the students can start naming anything ranging from an apple to tomato to ketchup. Scattergories requires the players to limit their enumeration/listing to words that begin with a specified letter.

Preparing for the Longer Discourse

The Sentence and Beyond: Defining, Explaining, Clarifying, Describing, Narrating

The first one was a favorite in my class of foreign students composed of Koreans, two Japanese, a Bangladeshi, an Indonesian, an Italian, and a Chinese. This is an ordinary guessing game. Each student picks an object from a bag and makes the class guess what it is. A one-sentence clue is given. The rest of the class start to guess. More clues are given until the class is able to guess what the object is. Another version is for the class to ask Yes/No questions which the student holding the object answers one at a time until the correct answer is given.

Taboo, a game commercially available abroad at Toys R Us outlets, is a modified version of the guessing game. The game is played in teams. A player from one team picks a card and gives clues to her/his teammates. This player, however, is not allowed to say any of the taboo words or items found on the card. For example, for the word *actor*, the taboo words are *performer*, *star*, *movies*, *theater*, and *television*. For the word *revolution*, taboo words are *government*, *people*, *French*, *America*, and *uprising*. The context may not be familiar to the Filipino student, for example, because the game was invented by a foreigner. The teacher, therefore, has to adapt the game to a Filipino situation. A card can be prepared by the teacher where the players have to guess the word *actor* but without saying the taboo words *Joseph Estrada*, *FAMAS*, *Academy Award*, *Robin Padilla*, and *Fernando Jose*. For the word *revolution*, the taboo list can include *Andres Bonifacio*, *1896*, *Cory Aquino*, *1986*, *EDSA*, *July 14*, *1789*, *Mao Zedong*, *Cultural*, *Green*.

The next game is one which I play with the help of some teaching aids. For example, I bring a doll, one that looks like Little Red Riding Hood. The students are asked if they are all familiar with the story of Little Red Riding Hood. They take turns telling the story.

As the story is narrated, the doll is passed from student to student. Each one gives a sentence while holding the doll. In my class last semester, I noticed that the students seemed to have found it easier to construct their sentences while holding the doll for whatever reason, or perhaps the doll might have served as some kind of a security blanket, very much like Linus' blanket. The students must have released their tension and anxiety by just holding the doll.

Occasionally, I bring an unfamiliar doll in a native costume. The students then create their own stories about this doll. Sometimes they try to recall a folk tale that corresponds to the dolls they are holding.

WHY GAMES?

By transforming my classroom into a "playground" or a virtual play station, I feel that the students become more relaxed in class and become more eager to learn a new lesson which, on the surface, is but another game to play. What do I hope to achieve by doing these activities? Why use games?

1. *Learning ceases to be cumbersome and instead becomes fun for every student*. These innovative techniques and materials facilitate the learning process by allowing the students to enjoy the classroom tasks.

2. *Learners get to use language in an authentic situation*. The school environment is brought closer to the home environment and classmates become playmates. The school becomes an extension of the neighborhood.

3. *Collaborative learning is encouraged*. Learners are trained to work in groups, a step towards preparing them to work in organizations and with peers.

4. *Activities are learner-centered* (even if the teacher sometimes initiates these activities). Moreover, the materials are so-designed as to enable the learners to proceed with the tasks on their own. And because the students work in small groups, everybody gets a chance to participate even in a short class period.

5. *The individual's personality traits are developed*. Creativity, spontaneity, leadership and self-confidence are some of these.

6. *Activities enhance appreciation and understanding of one's culture*. Moreover, learners become familiar with each other's cultural backgrounds. As learners play the games, they bring into the discussion a lot of culture-related information. A good example of this is the game of Taboo.

7. *Objectivity is encouraged by removing biases and barriers*. Little Red Riding Hood has become an Asian through her features. Her skin is darker than the stereotypical character in storybooks. And who says big boys don't play with dolls. They do play with dolls - at least, inside my classroom - without feeling embarrassed about being seen holding one.

8. *Materials are generally inexpensive*. With resourcefulness and imagination, every lesson can be made more exciting with the least cost. The materials are reusable, too.

9. *The gap between teacher and learner is narrowed*. Interpersonal relationship is improved. Rapport between teacher and learner is also improved.

10. *Teachers constantly develop new and exciting instructional materials for their ESL/EFL classrooms*. From my point of view as a teacher, I have learned to enjoy every class session and, like my students, look forward to the next meeting for more fun activities.

"Learning language requires creativity" (Nilsen and Nilsen, 1978) and so does teaching language. Everyday the language classroom poses a challenge to the teacher's creativity. The activities discussed above can serve as samples of innovative ways of introducing new lessons (e.g., defining or describing, synonymy or antonymy). Classroom drills and traditional exercises can also easily convert into games in the hands of the creative and resourceful, definitely not tired and bored teachers.

And since the activities encourage the students' participation, the teacher gets to observe their individual growth. As the students discover their strengths while learning the language, the teacher becomes more aware of the development of their linguistic knowledge as well as his/her own pedagogical principles. For every activity, "the teacher learns a little about teaching and learning and derives the excitement of being actively involved in a process of discovery" (Maminta, 1998).

The learning process thus becomes enjoyable for both teacher and student even in an under-resourced environment.

The Author

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Studies of Expatriates Teaching in Korea

A Survey of KOTESOL Professors: Part Three

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ABSTRACT

This is the third and final segment of a 1999 survey of native speaking English professors at Korean universities. Part One presented 15 independent variables such as age, gender, residence and courses taught, in order to present a profile of the professors. Part Two, based on Abraham Maslow's research regarding a needs hierarchy, used 23 dependent variables to identify the professors' attitudes regarding their work environment. In Part Three, we statistically relate the independent profile variables to the dependent attitudinal variables.

The findings show that relatively few independent variables show consistent, high interaction frequency with dependent variables, and relatively few dependent variables show consistent, high interaction frequency with independent variables. Those that do, however, are consistent with those in Parts One and Two of this survey, and they reinforce related studies of work force characteristics. The authors recommend that Korean institutions review the findings, and they also suggest complementary research.

INTRODUCTION

The authors' earlier work profiled professors in relation to their working environment, or indicated their degree of satisfaction with work characteristics such as the availability of EFL teaching materials in the classroom. In this final stage, however, we attempt to relate their attributes to their satisfaction itself, both in an effort to determine if explainable patterns exist within the data, and to consider possible causality in light of Maslow's needs hierarchy framework. To do this requires a review of the data categories as well as possible statistical tests that might be done.

Part One used 15 profile variables that are identical here, and are shown below (see Illustration 1).

In brief, the profiles of 129 anonymous KOTESOL respondents showed the typical (based on the largest group) native English speaking professor in a Korean university was aged in the 30's (32%), male (56%) with an MA only (34%), who has lived in Korea between 1-3 years (55%). He lives in the largest cities (54%) and teaches at a four- year university (88%) in a Department of English (72%).

He teaches only one communication skill (40%) for 12-16 contract hours weekly (47%), but has no additional teaching hours throughout the week (30%). Vacations are 8+ weeks (55%), but only a few (25%) teach additional courses during the summer or winter break. He also lives in a single apartment paid in full or in part by his university (51%). His largest class size is 31-45 students (42%), and his department has an average of four amenities (17%) within the classroom itself or otherwise accessible to students.

ILLUSTRATION 1. PROFILE VARIABLES USED IN KOTESOL SURVEY

Age	(below 25, 25-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50+)
Sex	(male, female)
Education	(by BA, MA and Ph.D., and whether the respondent had specialized EFL training
Residence	(initially grouped by less than one year, 1-3 years, 3-5 years and 5+ years)
Location	(rural/small town, small city, medium city, large city)
School	(junior college, university, institute of technology, other)
Programs	(language courses, education courses, teacher training, other)
Courses	(conversation, writing, listening, reading, other)
Contract	(12 hours/week or less, 12-16 hours, 16-20 hours, other)
AddHours	(additional teaching as 1-3 hours/week, 3-6, 6+, other or none)
Vacation	(4 weeks/year, 4-6 weeks, 6-8 weeks, other or none)
AddTeach	(extra teaching for summer, winter, during vacations, or during the regular semester
Housing	(single apartment, shared apartment, dormitory, other)
ClassSize	(largest class as 1-15 students, 16-29, 30-45, 46-59, 60+)
Amenity	(classified by a set list including audiovisual equipment, air conditioning, computers, etc.)

A similar analysis was done for the dependent, or attitudinal, variables. A coding system was used for each variable, in which the respondent evaluated individual questions according to a 0-10 scale, with 0 = Inadequate, 5 = Adequate, and 10 = Outstanding. The median scores are given below (see Illustration 2).

In essence, the survey suggests that KOTESOL tertiary professors who responded are satisfied with their work overall, as the median score for SUMVIEW = 7.0. Specific high scores include contract fulfillment, known teaching responsibilities, and independence in book and course materials selection. However, low scores are recorded for not being informed of departmental events and policies, low respect by Korean colleagues, little encouragement to play a professional role, and few opportunities for advancement. Both high positive and low negative factors are in accordance with Maslow's need hierarchies and suggest both satisfaction and dissatisfaction with employment conditions.

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this final segment, the research is to determine whether the attitudinal variables are associated with the dependent variables in some observable pattern. Based on extensive studies in sociology, psychology and other social sciences, it would seem readily apparent that profile characteristics either partly influence or are at

minimum identified with attitudes to work. Yet in this study, several features act in concert to hinder direct linkages. First, both Parts One and Two were exploratory in that they were not based on previous surveys done in Korea, which to the researchers' knowledge have never been undertaken here. This gap, of course, suggests that considerably more work must be done before definitive conclusions are possible. Second, the one-time survey was both voluntary and anonymous, and limited to KOTESOL professors only. These limitations restrict not only general conclusions regarding KOTESOL membership but also the attitudes of professors at Korean universities generally. Third, while dependent variables were categorized into interval level categories, the profile characteristics were essentially nominal in design. Hence relating the two variable sets limits the researcher to tests of association— not strength of interrelationships— as found with Pearson Product Moment correlations and standard regression techniques. Finally, tests of association in no way imply causality, although it is often reasonable—based on previous social science research— that some causality is likely to occur. Maslow's needs hierarchy is one such model, and has been used in our own research due to its explanatory power as well as suggestive cause and effect relationships.

ILUSTRATION 2. ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES USED IN KOTESOL SURVEY

Variable	Median	Question Asked of Respondent
Material	6	The amount/variety of EFL/ESL teaching materials is sufficient.
Events	3	I am regularly kept informed of events and changes affecting me.
Contract	8	My teaching obligations are similar to those in my contract.
Assistme	6	My professional colleagues provide assistance to me.
Myduties	7	I have a clear understanding of my teaching responsibilities.
Indbooks	8	I have sufficient independence when selecting course materials.
Indgrade	7	I have sufficient independence when grading students.
Friendly	7	I find fellow Korean professors to be friendly to me.
Depthelp	7	I find the office staff to be helpful to me.
Admhelp	5	I find the university administration is helpful to me.
Policies	3	I am consulted sufficiently for policies that affect my teaching.
Respect	4	Korean professors elicit and respect my professional opinions.
Profrole	4	I am encouraged to play a professional role in conferences, etc.
Select	8	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in course materials selection.
Curric.	5.5	I have sufficient opportunity to be involved in curriculum development.
EFLteach	6	My department sufficiently acknowledges the importance of EFL Teaching.
ESLQual	6	My professional (ESL only) qualifications are respected by colleagues.
Newideas	4	My department is open to new, innovative and/or challenging ideas.
Extrapay	5	I am paid sufficiently for "extra work" (e.g. editing) I do for professors.
Support	5	I get adequate departmental support for problems encountered in class.
Living	7	I am satisfied with the living arrangements provided in my contract.
Advance	2	I am satisfied with the opportunities for advancement within my department.
Sumview	7	My opinion of my job overall (in relation to the above criteria).

Given these conceptual and operational limitations, the authors limited data analysis to Chi Square tests of Goodness of Fit and Association. Our research procedure included the following steps:

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1. Examining each variable for Goodness of Fit, without data alteration;
2. Undertaking a Chi Square Test of Association upon the original data matrix of independent and dependent variables;
3. Examining features of the matrix to see which variable interrelationships had Chi Squared significance levels of .01, .05 or (for exploratory purposes only) .10;
4. Eliminating those significant Chi Square associations that did not adequately meet the requirements of the Chi Square test;
5. Collapsing data for each variable into a 2 x 2, 3 x 2 and 2 x 3 table (based on medians or logical categories);
6. Undertaking Chi Squared Tests of Association on the re-constituted tables;
7. Evaluating significance levels for the re-constituted tables;
8. Comparing statistically significant relationships from this study with those obtained in Parts One and Two, to determine if a pattern exists;
9. Interpreting the data using Maslow's theory of needs hierarchy or other social science criteria.

Findings: Raw Data

The procedure above permitted several methods to determine relationships among the variables. As mentioned, Chi Squared Goodness of Fit tests were first conducted on each variable separately. The researchers hypothesized that numbers of respondents within each category for each variable would not be equally divided, but instead would be uneven. Furthermore, they reasoned the degree of inequality among cells would not have occurred randomly but would have statistical significance, i.e. they did not occur by chance. Tables 1 and 2 show raw data frequencies and accompanying significance tests; it is important to note that almost all cells had more than five respondents, which is required by this statistical test.

TABLE 1. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES, UNADJUSTED DATA

Independent Variable Name		Chi Squared Test of Goodness of Fit								(Rounded) Chi Squared Value	Chi Squared Significance
		Frequencies for Each Cell Based on Original Cell Classification									
	Respondents	Cell 1	Cell 2	Cell 3	Cell 4	Cell 5	Cell 6	Cell 7	Cell 8		
Age	129	2	28	42	30	27				33	0.01
Sex	127	72	55							2	0.13
Education	129	25	43	11	14	33	3			51	0.01
Resident	128	5	71	33	19					75	0.01
Location	129	13	9	38	69					71	0.01
School	129	10	114	4	1					277	0.01
Programs	129	85	12	1	25	6				182	0.01
Courses	129	52	36	24	11	6				54	0.01
Hours	128	20	62	31	15					41	0.01
AddHours	128	56	23	31	18					26	0.01
Vacation	128	4	16	12	26	70				106	0.01
AddTeach	127	42	33	30	22					6	0.09
Housing	129	69	9	16	12	23				94	0.01
ClassSize	129	12	43	55	9	10				72	0.01
Amenity	129	12	18	22	26	22	15	11	3	23	0.01

What is perhaps striking about the set of data above is that virtually all variables enable the null hypothesis to be rejected for the Chi Squared Goodness of Fit. For independent variables, the similar values of male (56%) and female (44%) respondents suggest their relatively slight differences could have occurred by chance. Or, more practically for this sample of respondents, Korean universities hire approximately equal numbers of men and women. For the variable Additional Teaching, the numerical distribution between No Additional Teaching (42), One Semester (33), Two Semesters (30), and Throughout the Year (22) suggests balance rather than skewed categories. All the others have significance levels at .01 or less, suggesting their distributions did not occur randomly. This pattern was initially hypothesized by the researchers, given the relatively standardized hiring patterns of Korean universities, similar academic credentials of those who are hired, and similarity of employment contracts, housing and amenities.

Similar patterns are observable for Chi Square Goodness of Fit tests for the dependent variables (Table 2). Test results are shown below; it is important to note that all cells had more than five respondents. Unlike the situation for independent variables, the researchers were unsure whether the satisfaction/ dissatisfaction patterns of the respondents would be sufficient to reject the null hypothesis for each situation.

The high significance levels for all but three dependent variables is striking, and suggests that attitudes of the KOTESOL respondents are not randomly distributed. One explanation is that the dependent variables are all coded on a 1-10 scale, and it is highly unlikely to expect relatively equal numbers to fall within each cell. This hypothesis can be confirmed by examining the number of respondents within each category for each dependent variable, where obvious 'bunching' of respondents occurs rather than equal distribution. The only exceptions are for *Admin, Respect* and *Help*, where visual inspection shows rough equality in most cells, indicating the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. In sum, while the total number of statistically significant Chi Squared Goodness of Fit observations is high, it is not a surprise.

Whereas the Goodness of Fit test is used for only one variable to determine whether a distribution is considered random or not, the Chi Squared Test of Association compares two or more variables to each other. In effect the researcher makes an *n x m* table in which expected and observed frequencies are counted for each cell. The resulting distributions are then statistically examined to determine whether they may have occurred by chance. Although these tests of association are not as powerful as a correlation matrix for data interpretation, they are nonetheless useful.

In accordance with the research design, the authors first identified the independent/dependent variable interrelationships using a standard row by column matrix. They then employed Tests of Association to identify statistically significant relationships at .01 or .05, or (for exploratory purposes only) 0.1, and placed them

TABLE 2. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLES, UNADJUSTED DATA

Chi Squared Test of Goodness of Fit

Dependent Variable Name	Respondents	Frequencies for Each Cell Based on Original Classification of Data											(Rounded) Chi Squared Value	Chi Squared Significance
		Cell 1	Cell 2	Cell 3	Cell 4	Cell 5	Cell 6	Cell 7	Cell 8	Cell 9	Cell 10	Cell 11		
Material	127	7	5	11	6	22	11	14	19	11	9	12	23	0.01
Events	128	17	10	18	23	14	13	7	8	9	4	5	42	0.01
MyHours	127	3	2	4	7	13	8	8	13	21	20	28	73	0.01
AssistMe	128	7	6	4	11	18	7	12	15	15	11	22	37	0.01
Respond	129	2	4	4	6	18	10	10	13	20	17	25	48	0.01
IndMaterial	128	3	3	6	9	9	8	9	7	17	17	40	111	0.01
IndGrade	126	6	5	8	6	12	4	14	10	26	14	21	51	0.01
Friendly	120	8	4	2	12	15	8	8	9	15	14	25	37	0.01
DeptHelp	129	5	5	6	5	19	6	8	21	20	19	15	41	0.01
AdmHelp	126	12	12	9	16	11	13	14	7	15	8	9	14	0.22
Policies	129	17	19	14	20	15	13	6	8	10	3	4	30	0.01
Respect	120	15	11	13	14	16	9	5	10	14	4	9	14	0.19
ProfRole	125	22	17	10	13	16	15	6	2	10	3	11	39	0.01
Selection	127	6	5	5	8	11	7	9	11	22	15	28	58	0.01
Curric.	126	18	8	12	9	8	8	8	8	20	9	18	27	0.01
EFLTeach	128	8	6	12	12	15	6	14	11	11	14	19	24	0.01
EFLQual.	115	6	3	5	5	22	12	11	12	13	10	16	29	0.01
NewIdeas	127	19	4	14	12	22	13	12	10	6	5	10	36	0.01
ExtraPay	109	16	4	6	10	13	25	7	6	10	6	6	43	0.01
HelpMe	119	8	6	12	14	15	11	16	12	7	6	12	11	0.37
Living	121	13	5	8	7	13	3	10	9	16	18	19	26	0.01
Advance	120	35	10	20	5	12	9	8	4	8	3	6	79	0.01
Sum	126	4	3	3	7	10	11	19	15	29	18	7	67	0.01

TABLE 3. MATRIX OF INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES, UNADJUSTED DATA

Chi Square Test of Goodness of Fit

Independent Variables	Materials	Events	Hours	Assist Me	My Duties	Ind. books	Ind. grade	Friend help	Dept. help	Adm Help	Policy	Res-pect	Prof. role	Select	Curric	EFL	Qual	New Ideas	Xtra Pay	Sup-port	Living	Adv.	View	Sum Row Total
Age												0.10												5
Sex				0.05																				2
Education			0.05		0.1																			2
Residence		0.01	0.05		0.01	0.05							0.01											5
Location																								0
School						0.01	0.01	0.1	0.05									0.01						6
Programs			0.01		0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01				0.1										0.10		8
Courses								0.05		0.05		0.1						0.01						3
Contract					0.1										0.05		0.10		0.01	0.10				5
Xtrahours			0.05											0.10		0.10						0.10		3
Vacation			0.05					0.1						0.05	0.10									3
Addteach			0.05								0.1										0.01			3
Housing					0.01		0.01			0.1														5
Classsize				0.1			0.01	0.01				0.1										0.10	0.10	5
Amenity	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.05		0.01	0.05	0.05	0.1	0.05	0.05	0.1			0.10	0.10	0.01		0.10			0.01	0.10 0.01	14
Column Total	1	2	5	3	5	4	5	6	2	2	2	5	1	2	4	0	2	2	1	3	3	5	4	**69**

within the matrix itself. At this stage, no effort was made to eliminate relationships that did not meet minimum cell criteria for the test to be considered valid.

Preliminary examination of the raw data matrix does not reveal obvious patterns, even when the relaxed significance level of 0.1 is adopted, not standard research levels of 0.05 or 0.01. Of the independent variables, *Age, Residence, School, Programs, Contract Hours, Housing Plan, Class Size* and *Amenities* are mentioned most frequently, as shown by row totals. The total of amenities, surprisingly, is listed most frequently at 14 times, suggesting that the provision of amenities is somehow related to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with other components of work. Regarding the dependent variables, *Hours* (specified in the contract), *Myduties, Friendliness, Respect* and *Advancement* are shown to have the largest number of column totals. For the matrix as a whole, the total number of Chi Squared associations at a significance level of .1 or higher is 69, or exactly 20 percent of the total (15 x 23) number possible.

These preliminary associations must be evaluated in context, however. Each dependent variable has 10 separate divisions, and most independent variables as constructed have at least four. In a uniform matrix, this would constitute a minimum of 40 (10 x 4) cells per independent/dependent variable test of association. With 129 respondents in the survey, however, the average expected observation would only be 3.2 (129/40) frequencies per cell. This is below the usual minimum for the Chi Square Test of Association, which strongly suggests that each cell should have no fewer than five expected observations. The test results are therefore flawed, and significance levels cannot be considered as valid. Despite this drawback, the matrix is presented for review and later comparison.

Adjusted Data

The statistical problems encountered above can be overcome by collapsing categories and cells, thereby increasing the expected number of observations for each cell. Regarding independent variables, the researchers reasoned that a logical division would be the median point, where approximately 65 and 64 respondents would be listed. Since the respondent distribution for each independent variable did not fit neatly into medians, it was necessary to divide the 1-10 attitudinal scale into groups that best approximated the midpoints for the 129 respondents. Accordingly, the readjusted, collapsed categories for each independent variable are shown in Table 4.

Similar reasoning was initially applied to the dependent variables. The researchers reviewed each variable, and then divided the respondents into the best configuration that obtained approximately two equal groups. These are shown in Table 5.

The procedures above provided collapsed data for a 2 x 2 matrix of independent and dependent variables. The researchers then performed the Chi Square

Test of Association, tagging only those relationships whose significance levels were .01 or .05. Second, they carefully reviewed each cell with statistical significance, to ensure it met or nearly met minimum expected observation standards for the test. The results are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 4.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES INTO TWO GROUPS, ADJUSTED DATA
(DISTRIBUTION BASED ON MEDIANS (APPROXIMATELY) OR LOGICAL DIVISION)

Independent Variable Name	No. of Respondents	Frequency Cell 1	Frequency Cell 2	x	**Description of Collapsed Cells**	
				x	**Cell 1**	**Cell 2**
Age	129	72	57	x	Under 40 years	Over 40 years
Sex	127	72	55	x	Male	Female
Education	129	79	50	x	BA, MA or PhD	BA, MA or PhD and ESL
Resident	128	76	52	x	Under 3 years	3 or more years
Location	129	60	69	x	Under 1,000,000	Over 1,000,000
School	129	114	15	x	University	Other
Programs	129	85	44	x	Dept. of English	Other
Courses	129	52	77	x	One Course	2 - 5 Courses
Hours	128	82	46	x	16 hours or less	Over 16 Hours
AddHours	128	79	49	x	None	1 or more
Vacation	128	57	71	x	8 weeks or less	8+ weeks
AddTeach	127	42	85	x	None	1+ semester(s) and/or summer/winter
Housing	129	106	23	x	Univ. Pays	Other
ClassSize	129	55	74	x	Under 30 students	30 or more students
Amenity	129	78	51	x	3 or less	4 or more

Inspection of the 2 x 2 matrix shows a high number (59) of Chi Squared associations at the .05 or .01 level of statistical significance. Regarding independent variables, gender (*Sex*) accounts for 4 significant relationships with dependent variables, *Contract* hours for 6, *Housing* for 7 and *Amenities* for 21. Lesser relationships are found for *Programs* (4), *Additional Hours* (3) and *Additional Teaching* during the year (3). Surprisingly, neither *Age* nor *Location* have high relationships, two factors that are often important in social science literature. For dependent variables, perceptions of *Friendliness* (6), *Policy* consultation (5), *Respect* (5) and *Advancement* (4) score frequently, whereas *Materials, Assistance, My Duties, Independence* in book selection, and *Department Help* score infrequently. *Professional Role, EFL Teaching, and EFL Qualifications* also score infrequently, which is surprising given the emphasis to *Respect* and *Advancement* as markers of professionalism.

A preliminary interpretation of independent and dependent variable interaction is now possible. Chi Square identifies significant differences between

TABLE 5.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLES INTO TWO GROUPS, ADJUSTED DATA.

(DISTRIBUTIONS BASED APPROXIMATELY ON MEDIANS, FOR A 0 -10 SATISFACTION SCALE)

Dependent Variable Name	No. of Respondents	Frequency Cell #1	Frequency Cell #1	x	Description of Collapsed Cells Satisfaction Ranges **Cell 1**	Satisfaction Ranges **Cell 2**
Material	127	62	65	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
Events	128	68	60	x	0 to 3	4 to 10
MyHours	127	58	69	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
AssistMe	128	65	63	x	0 to 6	7 to 10
Respond	129	67	62	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
IndMaterial	128	71	57	x	0 to 8	9 to 10
IndGrade	126	65	61	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
Friendly	120	66	54	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
DeptHelp	129	54	75	x	0 to 6	7 to 10
AdmHelp	126	73	53	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
Policies	129	70	59	x	0 to 3	4 to 10
Respect	120	69	51	x	0 to 4	5 to 10
ProfRole	125	62	63	x	0 to 3	4 to 10
Selection	127	62	65	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
Curric.	126	63	63	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
EFLTeach	128	59	69	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
EFLQual.	115	64	51	x	0 to 6	7 to 10
NewIdeas	127	71	56	x	0 to 4	5 to 10
ExtraPay	109	74	35	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
HelpMe	119	66	53	x	0 to 5	6 to 10
Living	121	68	53	x	0 to 7	8 to 10
Advance	120	65	55	x	0 to 2	3 to 10
Sum	126	72	54	x	0 to 7	8 to 10

expected and observed cell frequencies, so examining those cells in which major deviations have occurred indicates the type, or direction, of deviation. For the matrix above, each variable was divided approximately at the median, so each cell in theory could have equal numbers of expected frequencies in it. In terms of interpretation, the median divisions for independent variables would identify broad profile categories, whereas those for dependent variables would identify degrees of satisfaction with work characteristics. In particular, the lower half would measure relative dissatisfaction, whereas the upper half would measure relative satisfaction. In a "perfect" sample— one in which the respondents conformed fully within the null hypothesis— expected and observed observations would be identical, indicating that no measurable differences in satisfaction are evident for an indicator.

In a 2 x 2 matrix there are four possible allocations of independent and dependent variables at the extremities. For the upper median of the independent variable, observed values may be greater than or less than those expected. The same

Table 6. Chi Squared Test of Association for Variables in a 2 x 2 Matrix, Adjusted Data

Independent Variables	Materials	Events	My hours	Assist Me duties	My Ind books	Ind. grade	Friend help	Dept.Admin. help	Admin. Policy	Res-pect	Prof. Role	Select Curric	EFL Teach Ideas	EFL Qual Pay	New Support	Xtra Living	Adv. Sum	Row Total
Age	0.05														0.05	0.05		2
Sex																		4
Education								0.05						0.05				2
Residence																		0
Location						0.01				0.05								1
School							0.05		0.05									3
Program					0.01	0.05 0.01			0.01	0.05								4
Courses																		0
Contract						0.05 0.01		0.05	0.05		0.01	0.01	0.05			0.01		6
AddHours		0.05					0.05					0.05		0.01	0.05			3
Vacation											0.01		0.01					1
AddTeach															0.01			3
Housing		0.05	0.01			0.01 0.01	0.01	0.05 0.01	0.05 0.01			0.05				0.01		7
Classize																	0.01	1
Amenity	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05 0.01	2
Column Totals	1	3	3	1	1	3	6	2	3	5	5	2	1	3	2	2	3 1 2 4 3	21 / 59

is possible for the lower median. In addition, it is also possible to have observed values greater than (less than) those expected in the upper median of the independent variable, but less than (greater than) those expected in the lower median. Hence the four possible distributions can be shown visually in the illustrations below.

ILLUSTRATION 3. A 2 x 2 MATRIX

		Set A **Dependent Variable**				Set B **Dependent Variable**	
		(Upper)	(Lower)			(Upper)	(Lower)
Independent	(Upper)	O>E		**Independent**	(Upper)	O<E	
Variable	(Lower)		O>E	**Variable**	(Lower)		O<E

		Set C **Dependent Variable**				Set D **Dependent Variable**	
		(Upper)	(Lower)			(Upper)	(Lower)
Independent	(Upper)	O>E		**Independent**	(Upper)	O<E	
Variable	(Lower)		O<E	**Variable**	(Lower)		O>E

Inspection of the 2 x 2 matrix in Table 6 initially reveals a bewildering array of respondent distributions, seemingly without a pattern. Yet, careful inspection of Observed and Expected frequencies in each cell for those independent variables that have significant interactions shows one element in common. *In almost every instance there are more dissatisfied respondents than expected at the lower medians.* Similarly, *there are more satisfied respondents than expected at the higher medians.* In essence, respondents are essentially polarized into two groups of High Dissatisfaction and High Satisfaction, as in Set A. *This pattern is observable only at .05 and .01 significance levels*; if interactions at the exploratory level of 0.1 or higher are reviewed (not shown), other combinations (Sets B, C, D) appear randomly.

This finding is best shown in tabular form. Tables 7A and 7B list high frequency independent variables that are associated with dependent variables at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels. These are then compared to the dissatisfaction/satisfaction division of the dependent variable, in terms of Observed and Expected values calculated by the Chi Squared formula.

TABLE 7A, SIGNIFICANT (.01) VARIABLE INTERRELATIONSHIPS FOR A 2 X 2 MATRIX, ADJUSTED DATA
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION)

Chi Square Signficance	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Dependent Variable Category			
			Dissatisfaction Observed/ (Expected)		Satisfaction Observed/ (Expected)	
0.01	**Sex**		xxx		xxx	
0.01	**Contract**	Curriculum	52	40	34	22
0.01	Contract	Advance	49	41	24	19
0.01	**Housing**	MyHours	48	47	12	11
0.01	Housing	Friendly	57	54	12	9
0.01	Housing	Respect	63	56	12	9
0.01	Housing	Living	56	55	9	4
0.01	**Amenity**	Materials	50	37	39	26
0.01	Amenity	Events	53	41	36	23
0.01	Amenity	MyHours	46	35	39	27
0.01	Amenity	AssistMe	47	39	33	24
0.01	Amenity	IndGrade	48	39	30	24
0.01	Amenity	Friendly	47	39	24	21
0.01	Amenity	DeptHelp	40	32	37	29
0.01	Amenity	AdmHelp	58	44	34	21
0.01	Amenity	Policy	51	42	32	23
0.01	Amenity	Respect	48	41	23	20
0.01	Amenity	ProfRole	49	37	36	24
0.01	Amenity	EFLTeach	44	35	36	27
0.01	Amenity	New Ideas	53	42	32	22
0.01	Amenity	Support	48	39	28	21
0.01	Amenity	Living	50	41	29	21
0.01	Amenity	Advance	49	39	31	27
0.01	Amenity	Sum	54	43	33	21

Further analysis is possible by reconfiguring the original raw data matrix into a 3 x 2 (3 = independent variables, 2 = dependent) format, in which the independent variables are split into approximately three equal groups. The reconfigured data for the independent variables are shown in Table 8, while the new matrix is shown in Table 9. Each cell with statistical significance has been reviewed to ensure it meets or nearly meets expected observation standards for the Chi Square Test of Association.

TABLE 7B, SIGNIFICANT (.05) VARIABLE INTERRELATIONSHIPS FOR A 2 X 2 MATRIX, ADJUSTED DATA
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION)

			Dependent Variable Category			
Chi Square	Independent	Dependent	Dissatisfaction		Satisfaction	
Signficance	Variable	Variable	Observed/ (Expected)		Observed/ (Expected)	
0.05	**Sex**	AdmHelp	46	41	25	22
0.05	Sex	Policy	45	39	31	25
0.05	Sex	Advance	39	36	22	23
0.05	Sex	Sum	48	40	30	23
0.05	**Contract**	Friendly	48	42	22	19
0.05	Contract	Policy	51	44	27	20
0.05	Contract	EFL Teach	45	37	32	24
0.05	Contract	XtraPay	53	47	19	12
0.05	**Housing**	Events	59	55	13	10
0.05	Housing	Policy	62	57	15	10
0.05	Housing	Curriculum	57	51	17	11
0.05	**Amenity**	MyDuties	46	40	30	24
0.05	Amenity	IndBooks	49	42	29	22
0.05	Amenity	EFL Qual	45	38	27	20

Inspection of Table 9 shows similar patterns to Table 6, even though the independent variables are split into three groups. *Amenities* (19) and *Contract* hours (6) and *Living* (5) have the most frequent interactions, while *Sex* (4) and *Program* (4) retain their positions. *Age* and *Location* retain low interactions, however, as do structural characteristics of teaching such as *Courses* offered or length of *Vacation*. Regarding the dependent variables, perceptions of *Friendliness* (4), *Respect* (5), *Policy* (4) and *Advancement* (4), have higher interactions, while lower frequency scores are recorded elsewhere, especially for professionalism markers such as *EFL Teaching*, *EFL Qualifications* and *Professional Role*. This pattern is similar to the one in the 2 x 2 matrix, except that *New Ideas* has risen from two to four significant interactions. In essence the division of the matrix into three categories has enabled new sensitive findings to emerge, some of which differ notably from their counterparts in the 2 x 2 matrix.

It is important to review respondent distributions in cells that have high Chi Squared values within this 3 x 2 matrix. Results are shown in Tables 10A and 10B, and are presented in the same format as in the 2 x 2 matrix.

TABLE 8: FREQUENCIES OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES DIVIDED INTO THREE GROUPS
(DISTRIBUTION BASED ON APPROXIMATELY EQUAL SIZE OR LOGICAL DIVISION)

Independent Variable Name	No. of Respondents	Frequency Cell 1	Frequency Cell 2	Frequency Cell 3	Cell 4*		Description of Collapsed Cells Cell 1	Cell 2	Cell 3	Cell 4
Age	129	30	42	57	4*	x	Under 30 years	30 - 39	40+	
Sex	127	72	55			x	Male	Female		
Education*	129	25	54	14	36*	x	BA	MA or PhD	BA + ESL	MA/PhD + ESL
Resident	128	76	33	19		x	Under 3 years	3 - 5 years	5+years	
Location	129	22	38	69		x	Under 100,000	100K to 1 Mil.	1 Million+	
School	129	10	114	5		x	Junior College	University	Other	
Programs	129	85	12	32		x	English Dept.	Eng. Educ.	Other	
Courses	129	52	36	41		x	One Course	Two Courses	3+ Courses	
Hours	128	20	62	46		x	Under 12 hours	12 - 16 Hours	16 hours+	
AddHours	128	56	54	18		x	None	1 - 6 hours/wk	6+ hours/wk	
Vacation	128	20	38	70		x	Under 4 weeks	4 - 8 weeks	8+ weeks	
AddTeach	127	42	63	22		x	1 semester/year	2 semesters	2 semesters + summer and/or winter	
Housing	129	69	25	35		x	Single, Univ. Pays	Shared, Univ. Pays	Other	
ClassSize	129	55	55	19		x	Under 30 students	30 - 45 students	45+ students	
Amenity	129	30	48	51		x	0 or 1	2 or 3	4 or more	

Education*: this was found to be the best division

TABLE 9. CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION FOR VARIABLES IN A 3 x 2 MATRIX, ADJUSTED DATA

Independent Variables	Materials	Events	My hours	Assist Me	My duties	Ind books	Ind grade	Friend	Dept help	Adm. help	Policy	Res-pect	Prof. Role	Select	Curric	EFL Teach	EFL Qual	New Ideas	Xtra Pay	Support	Living	Adv.	Sum	Row Total	2 x 2 Matrix
Age										0.05	0.05							0.05		0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	3	2
Sex									0.05	0.05										0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	4	4
Education		0.05						0.05																1	2
Residence	0.05																	0.05		0.05			0.05	3	0
Location										0.05														1	1
School																								0	3
Program						0.05	0.01				0.01	0.05							0.05					4	4
Courses												0.05	0.05											2	0
Contract	0.05						0.05			0.05	0.05	0.01		0.05				0.05				0.05		6	6
AddHours		0.05	0.05												0.01	0.05								3	3
Vacation		0.05	0.05			0.05																		2	1
AddTeach							0.01					0.05		0.05				0.05						2	3
Housing												0.01		0.05						0.01				3	7
Classize						0.05						0.01								0.01	0.01	0.05		3	2
Amenity	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01		0.05	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05		0.01		0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01	19	21
Column Totals	1	3	3	1	0	4	4	4	2	2	4	5	1	4	1	2	0	4	1	2	5	4	3	56	
2 x 2 Matrix	1	3	3	1	0	3	6	3	3	5	5	2	3	2	2	0	3	3	1	2	4	3	3		59

TABLE 10A.
SIGNIFICANT (.01) VARIABLE RELATIONSHIPS FOR A 3 X 2 MATRIX, ADJUSTED DATA
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION)

Chi Square Signficance	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Dependent Variable Category			
			Dissatisfaction Observed/ (Expected)		Satisfaction Observed/ (Expected)	
0.01	**Sex**	xxx	xxx		xxx	
0.01	**Residence**	xxx	xxx		xxx	
0.01	**Contract**	Curriculum	13	9	34	22
0.01	**Amenity**	Materials	20	13	39	26
0.01	Amenity	Events	21	15	36	23
0.01	Amenity	MyHours	23	13	39	27
0.01	Amenity	AssistMe	22	15	33	24
0.01	Amenity	IndGrade	24	15	31	24
0.01	Amenity	Friendly	24	15	24	21
0.01	Amenity	AdmHelp	24	17	34	21
0.01	Amenity	Policy	21	16	32	23
0.01	Amenity	Respect	24	16	23	20
0.01	Amenity	ProfRole	21	14	36	24
0.01	Amenity	EFL Teach	24	13	36	27
0.01	Amenity	NewIdeas	23	16	32	22
0.01	Amenity	XtraPay	22	17	11	7
0.01	Amenity	Support	23	15	28	21
0.01	Amenity	Advance	22	15	31	21
0.01	Amenity	Sum	22	16	33	21

Inspection shows the pattern for statistically significant, high frequency variable associations that exist in the 2 x 2 matrix also exist in the 3 x 2 matrix. Of interest here is that *all variable interactions at the 0.01 level of significance have observed values greater than expected values*. However, at the .05 level of significance, some associations, notably for the variable *Residence*, have expected values greater than observed values. Moreover, at still lower significance levels of association (0.1; not shown), there is no longer a clear pattern of observed values exceeding expected values at the extremities, and no generalizations can be made. In essence the directions of relationships become random.

A final analysis looked at the original data in terms of a 2 x 3 matrix (2 = independent variables, 3 = dependent). Although the researchers expected the number of significant relationships to drop as cell numbers increased, they wanted to examine if the finer gradations within the dependent variable structure produced new, statistically significant relationships that are not apparent within the 2 x 2 matrix. Accordingly, they divided the dependent variables into three groups

of approximately three equal sizes. The allocation of frequencies to the collapsed cells is shown in Table 11, while the 2 x 3 matrix for the Chi Squared Tests of Association is shown in Table 12.

TABLE 10B.
SIGNIFICANT (.05) VARIABLE RELATIONSHIPS FOR A 3 X 2 MATRIX, ADJUSTED DATA
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION)

			Dependent Variable Category			
			Dissatisfaction		Satisfaction	
Chi Square	**Independent**	**Dependent**				
Signficance	**Variable**	**Variable**	Observed/	(Expected)	Observed/	(Expected)
0.05	Sex	AdmHelp	46	41	25	22
0.05	Sex	Policy	45	39	31	25
0.05	Sex	Advance	39	36	22	23
0.05	Sex	Sum	48	40	30	23
0.05	Residence	Events	35	39	5	8
0.05		Living	38	39	5	7
0.05		Sum	38	42	6	8
0.05	Contract	Events	12	10	27	21
0.05		Friendly	9	10	22	19
0.05		Policy	14	10	27	20
0.05		EFL Teach	13	9	32	24
0.05		Advance	15	10	24	19
	Amenity	DeptHelp	17	12	37	29
		Select	21	14	32	25
		Living	19	15	29	21

Inspection of Table 12 shows the 2 x 3 matrix is similar to the 2 x 2 and 3 x 2 matrices, except the total number of interactions that are statistically significant has now dropped to 49. When comparing row totals (independent variables), only *Amenities* (21) and *Contract Hours* (6) retain importance. In terms of column totals, *Friendly* (5), *Advance* (4), and *Respect* (4) retain importance, while ExtraPay has risen slightly to four interactions. For the matrix as a whole, associations and significance levels are approximately similar to those found in the earlier matrices.

Another observation concerns the allocation of expected and observed frequencies within each cell for those associations that have significant Chi Squared values between independent and dependent variables (Table 13). *As in the 2 x 2 and 3 x 2 matrices, interactions at the .01 level of significance show distinct patterns.* In each case, except for the Age/Policy association, all observed values exceed expected values at the margins, contributing to the polarization of respondents' attitudes regarding their working environment. With regard to the association

TABLE 11.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLES INTO THREE GROUPS, ADJUSTED DATA

Independent Variable Name	Number of Respondents	Frequency Cell 1	Frequency Cell 2	Frequency Cell 3	x x x x	Description of Collapsed Cells		
						Satisfaction Ranges Cell 1	Satisfaction Ranges Cell 2	Satisfaction Ranges Cell 3
Material	127	51	44	32	x	0 to 4	5 to 7	8 to 10
Events	128	45	50	33	x	0 to 2	3 to 5	6 to 10
MyHours	127	45	54	28	x	0 to 6	7 to 9	10
AssistMe	128	46	49	33	x	0 to 4	5 to 8	9 to 10
Respond	129	44	43	42	x	0 to 5	6 to 8	9 to 10
IndMaterial	128	47	41	40	x	0 to 6	7 to 9	10
IndGrade	126	41	50	35	x	0 to 5	6 to 8	9 to 10
Friendly	120	41	40	39	x	0 to 4	5 to 8	9 to 10
DeptHelp	129	46	49	34	x	0 to 6	7 to 8	9 to 10
AdmHelp	126	49	45	32	x	0 to 3	4 to 7	8 to 10
Policies	129	50	48	31	x	0 to 2	3 to5	6 to 10
Respect	120	39	40	23	x	0 to 3	4 to 7	8 to 10
ProfRole	125	49	44	32	x	0 to 2	3 to 5	6 to 10
Selection	127	42	42	43	x	0 to 5	6 to 8	9 to 10
Curriculum	126	47	52	27	x	0 to 3	4 to 8	9 to 10
EFLTeach	128	38	46	44	x	0 to 3	4 to 7	8 to 10
EFLQual	115	41	35	39	x	0 to 4	5 to 7	8 to 10
NewIdeas	127	49	47	31	x	0 to 3	4 to 6	7 to 10
ExtraPay	109	36	38	35	x	0 to 3	4 to 5	6 to 10
HelpMe	119	40	42	37	x	0 to 3	4 to 6	7 to 10
Living	121	46	38	37	x	0 to 4	5 to 8	9 to 10
Advance	120	45	37	29	x	0 to 1	2 to 5	6 to 10
Sum	126	38	34	54	x	0 to 5	6 to 7	8 to 10

between Age and Policy, inspection of all six cells shows that younger professors (39 and under) do not appear greatly dissatisfied with regard to being consulted about policy decisions that affect them, as Observed frequencies (19) are less than Expected (27) frequencies. However, the older (40+) professors show more satisfaction (13 Observed to 11 Expected), although the difference is relatively small. One interpretation for this exception is that neither group is consulted differently, but younger professors are less concerned, perhaps believing they need not be consulted frequently given their age and shorter teaching experience.

When the associations that are significant at the 0.05 level are compared to those at the .01 level (Table 13), the O>E pattern is less strong and is often reversed. For example, while Education/Friendly and Contract/Events show anticipated O>E interactions at .05, the difference between Expected and Observed is often not great, and certainly not nearly as much as for those patterns at .01. Moreover, in some cases, such as Age/ExtraPay or Courses/IndGrades, the pattern is E>O. In conclusion, all three matrices: 2 x 2, 3 x 2 and now 2 x 3, show overwhelming directionality and hence polarization at .01 interaction levels, but much less so at .05 and randomly at 0.1(not shown).

Table 12. Chi Squared Tests of Association for Variables in a 2 x 3 Matrix, Adjusted Data

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables																						(2x3) Row			
	Materials	Events	My hours	Assist Me	My duties	Ind books	Ind. grade	Friend help	Dept help	Admin Policy	Res-pect	Prof. Role	Select	Curric	EFL Teach Qual	EFL Teach	EFL Qual	New Ideas	Xtra Pay	Support	Living	Adv.	Sum Total	(2x2)	(3x2)	Sum
Age										0.01										0.05	0	0.1	3	2	3	8
Sex																					0	0.1	2	4	4	10
Education						0.05											0.5						2	2	1	5
Residence																0.1			0.1				2	2	1	5
Location									0.1														1	1	1	3
School																				0.05			0	3	0	3
Program						0.01					0.1												3	4	4	11
Courses							0.05																1	0	2	3
Contract		0.05				0.01				0.01			0.01								0.1		6	6	6	18
AddHours												0.05											1	3	3	7
Vacation																0.1							2	1	2	5
AddTeach											0.1												1	3	2	6
Housing			0.05			0.01														0.01			3	7	3	13
Classize																							1	2	3	6
Amenity	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.01	0	0.01	0	0	0.05	0.1	0	21	19	21	61
Column Totals																							49			
2 x 2	1	2	2	1	1	2	5	2	1	3	5	4	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	0		59		
3 x 2	1	3	3	0	1	3	4	2	2	5	5	1	4	5	2	2	0	4	1	2	2	1			56	
Sum	3	8	8	2	3	9	15	5	6	12	14	7	5	10	4	6	4	7	8	5	4	2				164

TABLE 13.
CLASSIFICATION OF SIGNIFICANT VARIABLE INTERRELATIONSHIPS FOR 2 X 3 MATRIX
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED TEST OF ASSOCIATION)

Chi Square Signficance	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Dependent Variable Category			
			Dissatisfaction Observed/ (Expected)		Satisfaction Observed/ (Expected)	
0.01	Age	Policy	19	27	13	11
0.01	Sex	Advance	27	25	16	12
0.01	Contract	Friendly	34	26	14	14
0.01	Contract	Policy	40	32	14	10
0.01	Contract	Curriculum	39	30	13	09
0.01	Contract	EFL Teach	30	24	24	15
0.01	Housing	Friendly	35	33	09	07
0.01	Amenity	Materials	44	30	21	12
0.01	Amenity	Events	34	27	22	13
0.01	Amenity	MyHours	37	27	16	11
0.01	Amenity	AssistMe	34	27	23	13
0.01	Amenity	MyDuties	37	26	22	16
0.01	Amenity	IndGrade	30	24	21	13
0.01	Amenity	Friendly	33	24	20	15
0.01	Amenity	AdmHelp	39	29	22	12
0.01	Amenity	Policy	39	30	20	12
0.01	Amenity	ProfRole	40	29	21	12
0.01	Amenity	EFLTeach	31	23	25	17
0.01	Amenity	EFLQual	33	24	24	15
0.01	Amenity	NewIdeas	39	29	20	12
0.01	Amenity	ExtraPay	28	21	21	13
0.01	Amenity	Living	37	27	19	14
0.01	Amenity	Sum	32	23	33	21
xxxxx	xxxxx	xxxxx	xxxxx		xxxxx	
0.05	Age	ExtraPay	13	20	11	15
0.05	Age	Living	17	25	13	16
0.05	Sex	Sum	24	21	30	23
0.05	Education	Friendly	31	25	14	15
0.05	Education	EFLQual	28	25	22	15
0.05	Residence	ExtraPay	17	21	11	13
0.05	Residence	Advance	20	26	07	11
0.05	Location	Respect	26	24	13	14
0.05	Programs	Friendly	29	27	09	13
0.05	Programs	Respect	34	34	08	09
0.05	Courses	IndGrade	14	16	26	20
0.05	Contract	Events	36	28	13	11
0.05	Contract	Advance	34	28	15	10
0.05	AddHours	Select	18	25	13	16
0.05	Vacation	IndBooks	26	20	29	22
0.05	Vacation	ExtraPay	15	16	25	19
0.05	AddTeach	Respect	17	17	21	18
0.05	Housing	MyHours	38	37	03	05
0.05	Amenity	DeptHelp	40	32	18	13
0.05	Amenity	Respect	36	32	14	10
0.05	Amenity	Select	33	25	22	17
0.05	Amenity	Support	31	24	20	14
0.05	Amenity	Advance	32	27	18	11

Summary tests

One can achieve a summary effect for both independent and dependent variables by isolating those Chi Squared relationships that are at a significance level of .05 or higher. In essence, the researchers combined results from Tables 6, 9 and 12, in order to indicate highest interaction frequencies. Results are presented in Tables 14 and 15.

TABLE 14.
SUMMARY MATRIX TO IDENTIFY KEY INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS OF .01 OR .05)

Independent Variables	2 x 2 Matrix	3 x 2 Matrix	2 x 3 Matrix	Grand Total
Age	2	3	3	8
Sex	4	4	2	10
Education	2	1	2	5
Residence	0	3	2	5
Location	1	1	1	3
School	3	0	0	3
Programs	4	4	3	11
Courses	0	2	1	3
Contract	6	6	6	**18**
AddHours	3	3	1	7
Vacation	1	2	2	5
AddTeach	3	2	1	6
Housing	7	3	3	13
Class Size	2	3	1	6
Amenity	21	19	21	**61**

Observation: Amenity and Contract fulfillment were the most important.
Housing, Program and Sex, were slightly important.
Other independent variables had little or no importance.

Examination of Table 14 shows that the key independent variables, in terms of interaction frequency with dependent variables at .05 or higher Chi Squared significance levels, are *Amenity* (61) and *Contract* (18). Considerably fewer interactions are recorded for *Housing* (13), *Programs* (11) and *Sex* (10), and very few for the rest. Of these, and when viewed in terms of high significance (.01) levels, only *Amenity* and *Contract* are meaningful, although the others play minor roles. It is, however, important to note that traditional profile variables of professionalism (e.g. *Education*) or social research (e.g. *Age*, *Location*) do **not** have an obvious role in this study.

TABLE 15. SUMMARY MATRIX TO IDENTIFY KEY DEPENDENT VARIABLES
(BASED ON CHI SQUARED SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS OF .01 OR .05)

Dependent Variable Name

	My Materials			My			**Friend**	Dept. help	Admin. help	**Policy**	**Respect**	Prof. Role	Select	Curric	Teach	Qual	Ideas	Pay	Support	Living	**Adv.**	Sum
	Materials	Events	hours	Me	duties	books	grade	help	help	pect	Role	Select	Curric	Teach	Qual	Ideas	Pay	Support	Living			
2 x 2	1	3	3	1	1	1	3	2	3	5	5	2	1	1	3	2	2	3	2	1	2	4	3
3 x 2	1	3	3	1	0	0	4	2	2	4	5	1	4	1	2	0	4	1	2	2	5	4	3
2 x 3	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	3	4	2	2	2	1	2	2	4	1	4	3	4	2
Grand Totals	3	8	8	3	3	2	9	**15**	5	6	12	**12**	14	**14**	4	7	5	6	4	7	8	5	10	**12**	8

Matrix Totals

Observation: Friendliness, Respect, Policy and Advance were the most important.
Living Arrangements was slightly important.
Other dependent variables had little or no importance.

Similarly, key dependent variables, in terms of interaction frequency with independent variables at .05 or higher Chi Squared significance level, are *Friendly* (15), *Policy* (12) *Respect* (14) and *Advance* (12). Fewer interactions are recorded for *Living* (10) and *Independence in Grading* (9), and very few interactions are noted for the rest. Of these, and when viewed in terms of high significance (.01) levels, only *Friendly*, *Policy*, *Respect* and *Advance* are meaningful, although the others play minor roles. It is important to note that while many indicators of professionalism are lacking in significance (e.g. *EFL Teaching*, *EFL Qualifications*), the four above were also important in Parts One and Two of this study and were reported upon earlier.

Finally, identifying the above independent and dependent variables in terms of high interaction frequencies does not imply they also have high inter-correlations. This is best shown by re-examining selected segments from the 2 x 2, 3 x 2, and 2 x 3 matrices in terms of Chi Squared significance levels. As Table 16 indicates, many interrelationships are not statistically significant or are significant at .05, which earlier had been shown to produce virtually random patterns of Observed and Expected outcomes. For those interactions at .01 significance levels, an Eta Test performed between the nominal independent variables and the interval level dependent variables showed that the strength of association is very low in all cases. All variables, then, measure different attributes.

The frequent .01 statistical association, as displayed in Table 16, of Amenities with many dependent variables, however, needs special explanation and analysis. A simple interpretation is that provision of additional amenities (air conditioning, computers, etc.) makes and keeps professors satisfied, more so than any other factor. Yet research findings from Parts One and Two suggest this direct linkage is too simplistic given the patterns of satisfaction and dissatisfaction noted then. A second explanation—and one more plausible—comes directly from the needs hypothesis itself. Here it can be argued that provision of amenities serves as a proxy for other aspects of needs: that providing sufficient amenities shows the department's respect for the professor and his/her teaching skills. In effect the department is acknowledging the contribution made by visibly providing a sophisticated and enjoyable teaching environment.

Fortunately, this hypothesis can be tested statistically. If Amenities were independently related to satisfaction, then the presence of other variables, such as Policy or Friendly, would not diminish the strong relationship between Amenities and a dependent variable. However, if the introduction of a third, or control, variable greatly reduces the relationship, then Amenities would be seen as a proxy, not as a truly independent explanation. To use this technique, however, first requires a review of the dependent variables to check for multicolinear patterns.

TABLE 16.

SUMMARY INTERACTION MATRICES OF KEY INDEPENDENT, DEPENDENT VARIABLES

(2 x 3 Matrix)

**Top Independent
Variables**   **Top Dependent Variables**

	Friendly	Policy	Respect	Advance
Contract	0.05	0.05	xxx	0.01
Amenity	0.01	0.01	.01	0.01

(2 x 3 Matrix)

**Top Independent
Variables**   **Top Dependent Variables**

	Friendly	Policy	Respect	Advance
Contract	0.05	0.05	xxx	0.05
Amenity	0.01	0.01	.01	0.01

(2 x 3 Matrix)

**Top Independent
Variables**   **Top Dependent Variables**

	Friendly	Policy	Respect	Advance
Contract	0.01	0.01	xxx	0.05
Amenity	0.01	0.01	.05	0.01

** An Eta Test was performed on all ind/dep. variable
   relationships to test for strength of association.
   All relationships except Amenity/Advance (Eta = .03)
   were less than .05 level of significance.
   Conclusion: no true multicollinearity exists within the matrix.

   Visual examination of the original dependent variable matrix reveals little evidence of high multicolinearity (Multiple R > .50), as only one variable interrelationship (Friendly/Respect) has a correlation coefficient of 0.69, or a Multiple R of approximately 0.48. This indicates the dependent variables are relatively poor proxies for each other, although there is some association among them. More specifically, if one selects only those dependent variables that are associated with the independent variable Amenity at the Chi Squared significance level of .01 (Tables 6, 9, 12), one obtains the matrix shown in Table 17. Although the correlation coefficients are all significant at .01, their Multiple R values are low, indicating they have some proxy roles but not highly explanatory ones.

TABLE 17.

PEARSON CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SELECTED DEPENDENT VARIABLES

	Friend	Policy	Respect	Advance
Friend	xxx	.417	.694	.404
Policy		xxx	.635	.614
Respect			xxx	.482
Advance				xxx

One can therefore re-evaluate the large number of significant (.01) Chi Square relationships found between Amenity and virtually all dependent variables, using the specific variables above as statistical controls. A portion of the 2 x 2 matrix (from Table 6) is shown below in Table 18, whereas selected Chi Square relationships are examined using different controls from Table 17 above. Partial results are shown in Table 19 below.

TABLE 18.

SELECTED CHI SQUARED RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AMENITY AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES
USING STATISTICAL CONTROLS
(SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variables			
	Friend	**Policy**	**Respect**	**Advance**
Amenity	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01

TABLE 19.

SELECTED CHI SQUARED RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AMENITY AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES
USING STATISTICAL CONTROLS
(SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables			
	Friend	**Policy**	**Respect**	**Advance**
Amenity (Policy = Control)	0.34			
Amenity (Advance = Control)		0.28		
Amenity (Policy = Control)			0.75	
Amenity (Friend = Control)				0.09

Using controls, the degree of statistical significance drops sharply and becomes inconsequential. This pattern is repeated when examining a wide number of relationships between Amenity and other dependent variables that originally showed .01 Chi Squared Significance. In practical terms, Amenity is useful in initially providing a link between provisions within the classroom and professorial satisfaction, but *Amenity is not itself an independent explanatory factor*. It is, instead, a proxy, or substitute, for more complex explanations that are themselves explainable using Maslow's needs hierarchy.

Interpretation

The data patterns that have emerged from Tables 6, 9 and 12 enable some observations and generalizations:

1. Relatively few independent variables show consistent, high interaction frequency with dependent variables.
2. Those independent variables that show consistent, high interaction frequency are Contract **and** Amenity**.**
3. Many independent variables that are important in standard social science research (e.g. *Age, Education*) do not play a significant role in this study.
4. Many independent variables associated with professionalism in this study (e.g.*Additional Hours, Class Size*) did not have high interaction frequencies or high Chi Squared statistical significance.
5. **Amenity** appears to be the highest loading independent variable in terms of interaction frequency and statistical significance. However, it was shown that it is a proxy for other aspects of professionalism.
6. Relatively few dependent variables show high interaction frequency with independent variables.
7. Those dependent variables that show consistent, high interaction frequency are **Friendly, Policy, Respect** and **Advance.**
8. Many dependent variables associated with professionalism (e.g. *EFL Qual, IndGrades*) did not have high interaction frequencies or high Chi Squared statistical significance.
9. For those independent/dependent variable interactions with a Chi Squared significance level of .01 or higher, a clear statistical pattern emerges. It shows that Observed values exceed Expected values in virtually all instances, so polarization occurs in attitudes of professors to their work. In essence, professors at lower levels of Contract and Amenity are more dissatisfied than expected with respect to the indicators Friendly, Policy, Respect and Advance. Alternatively, those at the higher levels of Contract and Amenity are more satisfied than expected for those same variables. This pattern of polarization also occurs with other independent/dependent variable relationships, although not as consistently within the 2 x 2, 3 x 2, and 2 x 3 matrices.

10. The pattern between observed and expected values is much less clear at .05 statistical significance, and essentially becomes random at significance levels exceeding 0.05.

CONCLUSION

Abraham Maslow (1970) states that individuals have a hierarchy of needs in both personal life and at work. Their fulfillment relates to motivation at work as well as to personal satisfaction and well-being. Maslow categorizes needs on five levels, each having specific characteristics, with Physiology the lowest level and Self Actualization the highest. These were described in Part Two and are shown in Table 20.

TABLE 20. MASLOW'S NEEDS HIERARCHY

Self Actualization	Self Development
	Participation
	One's Own Potential
Self esteem, Status	Reputation
	Respect
	Recognition, Titles, Awards
Love, Belonging	Acceptance
	Affiliation
	Social Interaction, Teamwork
Safety, Security	Protection Against Danger
	Job Security, Grievance Procedures
	Health Insurance
Physiology	Work Environment
	Shelter
	Food, Wages

Maslow notes that everyone seeks to satisfy lower or basic needs before ascending to the next level. He also states that a person many not satisfy all needs at one level before going to the next. However, all the needs taken together are important factors in a person's identity, and to motivation that influences our attitudes at work. For example, the feeling of self-worth is realized in higher needs such as respect, sense of accomplishment and personal growth (titles, awards). From the table, it follows that one's commitment to work becomes stronger when most needs are met, since the individual becomes more fulfilled and therefore more satisfied. Hence the clear implication of the hierarchy is that a satisfied staff is more productive, cooperative, and creative.

Other researchers, notably Herzberg (1964) and McGregor (1967) in industry, and Thompson (1979) and Pastor (1982) in education, support this interpretation, while their studies have been helpful for improving management/worker relations. With specific regard to teachers, the work of Pastor and Erlandson (1982) showed that participation in decision-making, recognition of skills, freedom and independence, work challenges, creativity, and opportunity for learning, are all significant factors in job satisfaction.

Part Two of the KOTESOL survey showed that the variables selected to measure degrees of satisfaction at work paralleled closely with specific needs cited by Maslow in his hierarchy. As applied in Table 21, some KOTESOL variables are located at two levels, meaning that a variable can be of importance in one or more of Maslow's categories. In Part Three, our statistical findings of six key variables (Contract, Amenities, Friendly, Policy, Respect and Advance) indicated polarization of respondents regarding their attitudes to work. The Chi Squared Tests of Association showed that Observed frequencies are generally greater than Expected frequencies at the extremities, implying professors are in effect either highly satisfied or quite dissatisfied regarding these indicators. Furthermore, patterns of polarization occur with other variable interrelationships, although not as consistently.

TABLE 21. MASLOW'S NEEDS HIERARCHY AND KOTESOL VARIABLES

Maslow	Examples	KOTESOL
Self Actualization	Self Development	Advance
	Participation	Policy
	One's Own Potential	
Self estem, Status	Reputation	Respect
	Respect	Policy
	Recognition, Titles, Awards	Advance
Love, Belonging	Acceptance	Respect
	Affiliation	Policy
	Social Interaction, Teamwork	Advance
Safety, Security	Protection Against Danger	Contract
	Job Secruity, Grievance Procedures	
	Health Insurance	
Physiology	Work Environment	Amenity
	Shelter	
	Food, Wages	

Implications

The KOTESOL survey findings are similar to those in many institutional work force studies (ibid.) in that they identify both satisfied and dissatisfied workers. In addition, the questions asked, variables used, and associations found, parallel those in job satisfaction research. A direct conclusion, then, is that this survey, although preliminary, constrained, and undertaken in a foreign location using a small target group, upholds the psychological foundations and reinforces the findings of related studies done elsewhere.

An indirect interpretation is that the sources of dissatisfaction need review and consideration in at least four areas. First, from a management or institutional standpoint, it makes sense to create a work atmosphere that at minimum acknowledges these seven variables, in order to get the best results from workers. Second, Korean university departments should address the values and work-related concerns of foreign professors more, in order to reduce stress or conflict, and to lower foreign staff turnover. Third, departments should acknowledge that professors who have a good attitude, who enjoy their work situation, and who feel accepted, may be more professional in their work. Finally, they should acknowledge that if professors are encouraged to participate more in departmental affairs, they may contribute more to educational improvement.

There are also wider aspects that can be suggested— but not substantiated— from the research findings. The first is that foreign professors who leave Korea may do so in frustration and anger because work-related needs identified in the survey are not satisfactorily met. The second is that those who remain may have developed compensatory coping mechanisms when work-related needs are not satisfied. For example, they may find that that job security, benefits or comforts outweigh disadvantages. Cultural adaptation via marriage, family and friendships may also outweigh work-related frustration. Or, those who stay may have lower work expectations then those who leave. Third, foreign professors in Korean universities should make greater efforts to comprehend the Korean work environment. They should understand the concepts and applications of hierarchy and respect within a Confucian framework, the stress and pressures upon Korean colleagues and administrators, and the frustrations felt by Korean colleagues when native speakers do not adapt sufficiently to their culture.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Ongoing research is necessary in order to provide a substantive framework for improving communication and understanding between Korean institutions and their foreign staffs. Three areas are suggested:

1. Conduct a survey of Korean professors using questions similar to those in the KOTESOL study, to see how they view their own work situation. The results can be useful in identifying common areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and for designing appropriate administrative policies covering both Korean professors and native speakers;

2. Conduct a survey of Korean professors to determine how they view the work performance of native speakers. Observations concerning their teaching strengths or weaknesses, areas where they (in)correctly assess Korean education, and examples when they insufficiently adapt to Korean culture or sensitivities, would enhance inter-cultural communication by providing alternative assessments;

3. Sponsor combined workshops of Korean professors and native speakers to discuss areas of concern raised in the KOTESOL survey, issues raised immediately above, or ways to reduce work-related tension, dissatisfaction and conflict.

A final research avenue would question why so many KOTESOL variables associated with social research in general, and teaching professionalism in particular, appear lacking as key indicators. This gap may be attributed to a faulty research design, or it may relate to special characteristics of interviewed professors when the survey was done. In this latter regard, it was undertaken in 1998, shortly after the dramatic drop of the Korean Won in 1997, an event that caused many less-committed native speakers to leave the country. The findings, then, by focusing on professors who remained, may have produced skewed or unique results. Whatever the reason(s), new research must be done to show how this and subsequent studies can relate more comprehensively to findings cited in the professional literature.

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Working and Living in Korea: Facilitating Adjustment

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ABSTRACT

A significant number of foreign teachers in Korea end their contracts prematurely or appear to have a difficult time adjusting to their new cultural encounter. This paper, based on a qualitative and quantitative research project in which 16 L1 EFL teachers from throughout Korea shared their experiences regarding the process of adjustment, is the first in an ongoing process examining the phenomenon of cross-cultural adjustment in Korea.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, English language teaching has become one of the major growth industries in the world (Crystal, 1997). In the year 2000, 6,414 individuals from English speaking countries were given E-2 visas to work as English language teachers in Korea (J & A Recruitment, 2001). Although many multi-national corporations and Western universities have undertaken numerous studies investigating the adjustment process of expatriates in their new environment (Shaffer, 1999; Shay, 1999; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001), surprisingly little research exists regarding the expatriate teacher, and even fewer studies are aimed at the specific area of EFL teaching (Benson, 1998).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture

Black and Gregersen (1998) list South Korea as second on the cultural toughness scale of Americans adjusting to living and working overseas - only China is considered to be more difficult. A combination of ethnic homogeneity, language, and Confucianism create a culture that is very different from the experience of most Westerners. A number of important studies have identified cultural differences, specifically *cultural distance*, or the disparity that exists between cultures, as a major factor in cross-cultural adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1992; Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1988; Gudykunst & Kim, 1984; Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Hofstede, 1980, 1997; Kim, 2001; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001).

As a matter of course, scholars of the Social Sciences agree that culture is learned, and that by the time one reaches adulthood, one's culture has already

become an inherent system of beliefs. Part of cross-cultural adjustment involves unlearning some of these deep-seated beliefs in order to become acculturated.

Similarly, in her recent study, Young Yun Kim (2001) discusses the cyclical pattern of the "stress-adaptation-growth dynamic" of the cross-cultural experience, whereby "strangers" go through a process of disequilibrium or stress, which subsequently leads to adaptation and growth. When this process does not occur, the "stranger" tends to withdraw and may experience feelings of hostility or cynicism. Rather than becoming *integrated* and developing an attraction to the host culture, the "stranger" may become *segregated* in her attempt to preserve her own cultural norms, while rejecting those of the host culture. Furthermore, if the "stranger" rejects the cultural norms of the host culture as well as those of her own, she may experience marginalization (Berry & Kalin, 1995). However, Kim suggests that given sufficient time, the segregated or marginalized "strangers" will "at least minimally adapt (sic) to the host culture in spite of themselves." Of course, the necessary period of adjustment appears to vary from one individual to another, the result being that the majority of sojourners are left on their own to struggle with the task of adapting to the new culture in whatever way they can (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Kim (2001) defines cross-cultural adjustment as

> the dynamic process by which individuals, upon relocating to their new, unfamiliar or changed cultural environments, establish and maintain relatively stable, reciprocal, and functional relationships with those environments.

Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall (1992) identify three major areas in which expatriate adjustment needs to occur: adjustment to the job, adjustment to interacting with host-country nationals, and adjustment to the general non-work environment.

Researchers have posited various theories regarding the antecedents of expatriate adjustment. Knowledge of the host culture, work experiences and overseas work experience, predisposition or personality, age and gender, expectations, and well-defined goals regarding the sojourn are considered to be "pre-departure factors". "After-arrival" factors include such things as a desire to learn more about the host culture and language, language ability, interpersonal relationships and the work environment. Other contributing factors such as engaging in sports or other stress-relieving activities, keeping in touch with family and friends at home, cultural distance and the mode of acculturation (assimilation, integration, segregation and marginalization) also play an important role in adjustment (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Black & Stephens, 1989; Hullinger, 1995; Kim, 2001; Reiger & Wong-Reiger, 1991; Tung, 1998; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

Participants

At KOTESOL conference 2000, a preliminary demographic questionnaire was distributed to 90 randomly selected KOTESOL members. From these, 16 participants were chosen based on their stated age, gender, time in Korea, employment status, country of origin, overseas experience, prior education, and place of residency. A second questionnaire was then sent to the participants by email. This questionnaire asked participants to rate 17 items from 1-10 and was designed primarily to encourage them to begin the process of thinking about their adjustment experiences. Next, one and one-half hour to two hour semi-structured interviews were conducted at the participants' place of work or residency.

Questionnaire and analysis

The interviews were transcribed, coded, and categorized, and the resulting data was used to develop a final 30-page questionnaire. Questions included those regarding past experiences, early adjustment experiences in Korea, employment, living conditions, and cultural issues. All the questionnaires were returned. The data was coded, inputted and subjected to statistical analysis. The statistical package SPSS 10 was used to produce response frequencies, percentages and multiple response statistics.*

From the analysis of the qualitative (interviews) and quantitative (final questionnaire) data five major categories emerged: (1) **past experiences** (including personality, adjustment experiences in home country, prior overseas experience, and prior education, training and teaching experience); (2) **job** (including enjoyment of work, the type of job, and administration/supervisor); (3) **living situation** (accommodations); (4) **interpersonal relationships** (including those with co-ethnics, host-nationals and intimate relationships); and (5) **host culture** (including culture, language and host-national behaviors and beliefs).

RESULTS

Past experience

Personality

The questionnaire revealed that participants viewed personality as being particularly important, and all of them addressed it at some point during the interviews. Table 1 reflects the personality traits that participants felt both assisted and hindered adjustment. Greg, an administrator at a university language center, who had extensive overseas experience in other countries before coming to Korea several years ago, says:

> ...you asked what is most important? I think it is predisposition – I think it's personality type – I think, if you WANT to be somewhere different – if you enjoy the challenge of living out of culture – if you WANT to open yourself up – you're going to be okay. And

you're going to have tough times – but if you want to be here – if you want that kind of experience – you're going to find the good in it.

(Greg)

TABLE 1. PERSONALITY

Facilitates adjustment	N=16	%	Hinders adjustment	N=16	%
Flexible/adaptable	15	93.8	Negative outlook	15	93.8
Open-minded	14	87.5	Rigid/inflexible	15	93.8
Positive outlook	12	75.0	Emotional problems	10	62.5
Interest in living in a new country	12	75.0	Maladjusted in home country	10	62.5
Self-aware and reflective	9	56.3	Difficulty getting along with		
Independent/self-motivated	8	50.0	people	10	62.5
Enjoys learning about new things/			Needs a lot of		
ways of doing things	8	50.0	direction/guidance	9	56.3
Self-confident	8	50.0			

Based on participant multiple response

Adjustment experiences in home country

Several participants suggested that adjustment experiences in their home country facilitated their ability to adjust in Korea. The majority of the participants (11 of 16) indicated that they had moved often or very often in their home country, and 10 of the 16 said that these experiences were significant or very significant to their adjustment in Korea.

Prior experience living and working overseas

Most of the participants had experience traveling to other countries. Although only eight had actual experience living and working overseas, 14 of the 16 participants surveyed felt that prior overseas experience had a significant or very significant impact on adjustment.

The degree of difficulty in terms of cultural distance in prior overseas experience also appears to be important. Participants who had lived in parts of Europe felt that it did not really prepare them for living in Korea.

Prior education/training and teaching experience

Surprisingly, only six of the 16 participants felt that prior education and training in ELT was significant or very significant to adjusting to teaching in Korea, although having a master's degree was thought to be important to getting a desirable teaching situation.

Education and training were viewed as useful in terms of promoting confidence and providing "survival skills" (Greg), but not entirely necessary to functioning on the job. This was particularly the case for the majority of the 10 partici-

pants who had worked at private schools or *hagwons* at some point during their stay in Korea.

Job

Enjoyment of work

Being happy at work was important to all the participants. Roger, who obtained postgraduate training in ESL and left his home country because he was dissatisfied with employment conditions, government regulations, and the ESL career potential there, sees work as an essential ingredient to adjustment anywhere:

> ... no matter where you are in the world … at home … in your backyard … if you like what you do and if you think what you're doing is valuable and you enjoy conducting, you know, your professional practice or you enjoy going to work – sure your adjustment's necessarily going to be better... .if things in my working environment, my working experiences are really negative... .if I have a BAD, BAD job, it doesn't matter how much FUN it is... .on weekends... .I spend most of my time at my job.

(Roger)

Table 2a reflects the opinion of the participants regarding adjustment to teaching in Korea, both from their own experience and what they believe would be important for others.

TABLE 2A: WORK ADJUSTMENT

Facilitated participant's Work adjustment	N=16	%	Participants believe facilitates work adjustment	N=16	%
Enjoyment of teaching	13	81.3	Enjoying teaching	12	75.0
Relationships with students	9	56.3	Having an active social		
Support from colleagues	9	56.3	life/interests outside of		
Support from administration/			work	12	75.0
supervisor	9	56.3	Support from admin/		
Past work experience	7	43.8	supervisor	11	68.8
Past education	6	37.5	Good work schedule	10	62.5
			Feeling valued and		
			respected	10	62.5
			Interest in learning about		
			Korea and being in the		
			country	10	62.5
			Support from colleagues	9	56.3

Based on participant multiple response

Table 2b describes the factors that participants felt hindered work adjustment.

TABLE 2B: WORK ADJUSTMENT

Factors that hindered participant's work adjustment	N=16	%	Factors that participants believe most hinder work adjustment	N=16	%
Lack of support from admin/ supervisor	10	66.7	Difficult work schedule	14	87.5
Difficult work schedule	10	66.7	Lack of support from admin/supervisor	12	75.0
Lack of professionalism from colleagues	10	66.7	Communication style of Korean administration	12	75.0
Communication style of Korean administration	9	60.0	Not enjoying teaching	10	62.5
			Insufficient or inappropriate resources	8	50.0
			Not really interested in, or enjoying being in Korea	8	50.0

Based on participant multiple response

Type of job

Participants felt that there were significant differences in the type of jobs available in Korea. Many difficult adjustment experiences appear to be related to working in *hagwons*, where hours are long, teachers are often required to work split shifts, and the focus of hagwon owners is more on making money than providing education. Billy Bob came to Korea after a year of teaching English in Thailand and spent a frustrating first year working at a *hagwon* before moving to a university language center where he is much happier:

> My first year I didn't consider professional at all... I mean that place just about knocked it out of me where I almost just thought stuff it... that place didn't care... they'd screw my students on things... stuffing out my schedule... just the whole working atmosphere there was just horrible... now... even though I'm teaching a lot less hours, I'm preparing a hell of a lot more... .and I don't mind doing it now... .

(Billy Bob)

Wolfman started working in Korea at a well-known hagwon, and feels that his experience there, although difficult in terms of hours and lack of vacation time, was a positive one that prepared him for his current job in a university English department:

> I was working 30 hours a week... six hours a day – split shifts – and exhausting... in my first year I lost three or four kilograms... not sleeping well, not the same kind of respect... I was fortunate to work for a very good company – very credible company... and to me that was valuable... because I can really appreciate where I am now... .I'm working in a professional setting now... and I quite enjoy that... I have autonomy – I have responsibility – I have respect – I have a good income – I have paid vacations – most valuable how I would weight that – I think - I have autonomy – no one's looking over my shoulder – I design – I pick and choose the books I wish to use – I design my own curriculum – I create my own

exams and... obviously that comes from an administration and department that believes in me – and that's very valuable to me.

(Wolfman)

Administration/supervisor

In multi-national assignments, expatriates receive much of their support from administrations and supervisors in their home country. Since most EFL teachers in Korea are independent and generally contract with the hiring institutions themselves or through an agent, administrative support is usually in the form of host-national supervisors or expatriates hired to coordinate communication between the "foreign" staff and the Korean administration. Participants identified support from administration/supervisors as being a significant factor both in facilitating and hindering adjustment. Roger called it "critical". The relationship he had with the host-national owners of the institution he first worked at greatly assisted him in coping with a difficult job situation. "I found the job pretty hard – pretty stressful... In other circumstances maybe I would have been really upset – you know if I hadn't been treated so, you know, sincerely and genuinely and honestly."

A month after our interview, Karen, who had worked at a *hagwon* for children, left Korea after having been here only six months, without completing her contract. She says:

> I don't trust my boss or the second-in-command. I don't believe in the administration's vision for the future and I don't want to support it. Other teachers who I like keep quitting. I don't like the texts we use... .and feel overwhelmed at inventing a curriculum on my own.

(Karen)

Some of the participants also referred to problems they had with Western supervisors. Josie, a very committed teacher, who is also involved in many activities outside of work, comments:

> When I first came here I had a supervisor who was... incredibly unpleasant... after she left I was much happier... I mean I can remember on more than one occasion – just opening my mailbox and seeing a nasty note and bursting into tears just before class... they just get the position because they've been here the longest... and they're sometimes all the worse qualified because of that... .

(Josie)

Another area of difficulty at work was the communication style of Korean administration. This was identified as one of the factors that hinders adjustment and was rated second as the item that participants liked least about working in Korea. Robin, who has a MA in TESOL/TEFL and who worked at both a university language center and a teacher training school says:

> The organization thing... and no organization... the everything being last minute... that's probably been one of the most difficult in terms of JOB. It's just that... you want this when?... yesterday?…you've known about if for how long?... three months... it completely eludes me, like how their rationale – how any logic at all could possibly lead you to... I know this needs to be done but I'm going to hold it until the day before it's due and then

give it to you – because you might not like doing it and I want to avoid a confrontation until... it only makes the confrontation worse... .

(Robin)

Living situation

All of the participants expressed concern with accommodations during their stay and 15 out of 16 rated their living situation as being very significant.

Table 3 lists the items that participants felt described satisfactory living conditions. Half of the 16 participants were satisfied or very satisfied with their current accommodations, but the interviews revealed that for those who had problems with accommodations, these problems severely interfered with adjustment.

Brigit, who came to Korea with her husband, and has since left due primarily to health problems, feels that part of her health difficulties were a result of her initial accommodation experience:

.... the worst day was arriving. Our apartment wasn't available yet because the person in it didn't want to leave yet... so we got put into an apartment... smaller than this office... two of us. And it was VERY difficult. And it was not CLEAN.... every day I would work 20 hours and then go home and clean. It took us a month before I would cook anything in that kitchen. It was terrible, because I got so tired. I don't think I've ever gotten full power back.

(Brigit)

Most of the participants felt that their living situation was important to giving them a sense of place. Living alone, as opposed to living with a roommate, which many contracts require, appears to be a priority. Josie says:

... I have my own apartment... I don't have to share with anyone... I think if I had to share with someone – yeah, I might well still be here, but I would not be as happy... Home is sort of my place to cocoon... I think we all need a place we can call our own.

(Josie)

TABLE 3: LIVING CONDITIONS

Satisfactory living conditions	N=16	%	Unsatisfactory living conditions	N=16	%
Convenient distance from work	14	87.5	Too small	11	68.8
Clean	12	75.0	Not clean	10	62.5
Live alone (or with significant other)	12	75.0	Doesn't feel safe/secure	10	62.5
			Long distance from work	10	62.5
Safe and secure	10	62.5	Noisy area	9	56.3
Paid for by employer	10	62.5	Shared with roommate(s)	9	56.3
More than one room	9	56.3	Old, not well-kept building	8	50.0
Comes with amenities such as			Has no amenities	8	50.0
TV, washer/dryer, etc.	9	56.3	Paid for by self	8	50.0
Quiet area	8	50.0			

Based on participant multiple response

Interpersonal relationships

Although many of the participants talked about being comfortable being alone, and in fact needing "alone time", being able to develop relationships with others generally appeared to go a long way in helping them adjust to their new environment. Relationships with co-ethnics were ranked somewhat higher than those with host-nationals, but both were thought to be important.

Co-ethnics

Relationships with co-ethnics were mainly developed at work, with 13 of the 16 participants stating that during the first six months to one year of living in Korea, their friendships were predominantly with colleagues. Of those who did not have the opportunity to interact with other Westerners, all except for one expressed having strong feelings of isolation.

For Sarah, an ESL teacher from Canada with 20 years experience, finally meeting co-ethnics gave her the strength she needed to complete her contract:

> I CRAVED IT, I absolutely CRAVED having somebody to talk to... that would understand a bit where I was coming from... it just made the world of difference to me to know there was somebody there I could CALL if I needed to... who would be able to direct me where to go to do what I needed to do to get out if I needed to... It was just knowing that that was out there that made it not absolutely necessary to do it.

(Sarah)

Although relationships with co-ethnics seemed to facilitate adjustment, participants also discussed problems. A lack of professionalism on the part of colleagues was ranked highly as a factor that hindered adjustment (10 of 16) and complaining expatriates was listed as one of the items participants least like about working in Korea (9 of 16).

Intimate Relationships

Research on expatriate adjustment has recently examined marital status of sojourners (Black & Stephens, 1989). Although 13 of the 16 participants were single when they came to Korea, 10 of the 16 participants have since been in intimate relationships and 10 of 16 participants said that an intimate relationship was significant or very significant to adjustment. It appears that single men in Korea are more likely to become involved in intimate relationships than single women, and 7 of the 8 male participants have been involved with one or more Korean women. Peter, who felt that he didn't need to be around other Westerners, did express a need for an intimate relationship:

> ... a real friendship, not just, you know... someone who you know in passing... I think it helps to develop... a romantic relationship... really helps to overcome any kinds of fears or insecurities or feelings of loneliness or homesickness... it really helps a lot, it definitely does.

(Peter)

The three participants who were married to other Westerners and who had come to Korea with their spouses spoke very positively about the importance of their relationships.

Host nationals

Relationships with host-nationals were also considered to be important with 11 out of 16 participants listing friendships with students as most important and 10 out of 16 listing friendships with Korean non-colleagues.

For most of the participants, developing friendships with host-nationals was a valuable way to learn more about Korean culture. William, who works in a *hagwon* in a major city outside of Seoul, overseas for the first time says, "If you want to learn someone's culture and how to adjust to that culture – it's far more useful if you get to know the people of that culture."

Several of the participants, however, expressed concerns about their relationships with host-nationals. Brigit, who came to Korea as a result of the friendship she had developed with a Korean classmate in graduate school in the United States, explains the difficulties she has had with host-national relationships:

> There are HUGE obligations – and some of the obligations are WAY OVER Western obligations of friendship – WAY OVER – and... I tend to be an exceptionally private person anyway... {I need} a huge amount of space... and one can emotionally retreat – even though – Oh God, they're being so kind – it's wonderful... I have no problem with 18 students needing my time... it's more with friends... if you were married to a Korean it would be family members, too... it's the constant maintenance... it's when something changes from being a support to being a trap... it's real hard because you want to create the distance for yourself – breathing space – I don't think Koreans HAVE a phrase called breathing space.

(Brigit)

Host culture

Culture

Wanting to experience living in another culture, listed in Table 4, was clearly thought to be the item that most facilitated personal adjustment.

The opportunity to live in a country different from one's own, listed in Table 5, was also ranked as being the item participants most liked about living and working in Korea.

Table 4: Facilitating Personal Adjustment

Most facilitated participant's personal adjustment	N=16	%	Most hindered participant's personal adjustment	N=16	%
Wanting to experience living in another culture	14	87.5	Being unable to communicate in Korean	12	75.0
Personality	10	62.5	Being singled out as a foreigner	10	62.5
Enjoying work	11	68.8	Difficulty taking care of daily needs	10	62.5
Having good living conditions	10	62.5			
Learning about Korean culture	9	56.3			
Having Western friends	9	56.3	Korean social practices such as pushing, spitting, etc.	9	56.3
Having Korean friends	8	50.0	Complaining expats	7	43.8

Based on participant multiple response

Table 5: Like most about living and working in Korea

Like most about living in Korea	N=16	%	Like most about working in Korea	N=16	%
Opportunity to live in a country different from my own	15	93.8	I like being in a culture different from my own	13	81.3
Opportunity to learn more about myself and others	13	81.3	Enjoying teaching	12	75.0
Expenses are less than home country	9	56.3	Good experience for future career	11	68.8
Close proximity to other countries I want to travel in	9	56.3	Autonomy	10	62.5
			Relationship with students	9	56.3
Low taxes	8	50.0	Pay	7	43.8
Learning about Korean culture	7	43.8	Overall, job is better than what I'd have in my home country	7	43.8
Western friends	7	43.8			
Being with my girlfriend/ boyfriend/spouse	7	43.8			

Based on participant multiple response

Language

Basic Korean was important or very important in respect to personal adjustment to 12 of the 16 participants, and 9 of the 16 participants felt that it was important to professional adjustment. Interestingly, less than half rated themselves as being above a beginner level in spoken and written Korean. Several of the participants commented on how difficult it is to learn Korean. Buffy, one of the participants who rated herself as a "high beginner" in spoken Korean, and who is fluent in Chinese, discusses the difficulty of learning Korean and yet sees it as integral to the adjustment process:

> For me, learning the language is of prime importance when I get to a country... I feel so much more accepted when I can speak the language. I don't look the part, but I can sound the part... you're a real person when you talk... the more Korean language I understand the better I even understand my students in English... you can only get so far without the language... One of things that I find so frustrating here... is people's reluctance – Korean people's reluctance to speak to me in Korean... I can have a whole conversation with someone – and when it comes down to the basics they – Oh you don't speak Korean – let me help you – I'll write the price out on a piece of paper for you... if I don't understand I say *mullayo* – and they say never mind – and that's the end of the conversation... in China they would repeat and repeat until you got it... it's so hard to have a conversation with somebody here in Korean.

(Buffy)

Many of the participants felt that learning Korean was useful, but not essential. For others, being unable to speak the language caused them some distress. Several talked about language being important in terms of giving them a sense of identity. Grace, felt that she had lost her identity when she first came to Korea, and went through a difficult process to get to where she is now – happy with her job and living situation. She asserts:

> I think everybody needs to be able to negotiate a few things by themselves. So you feel like a PERSON. We need to feel that we can be adults – we need to feel that we are, you know, fully functioning people at some level – and if we don't have words – if we can't shop or take a subway or do anything – we feel less than – mature – less than self-actualized... .

(Grace)

Cultural Behaviors and Beliefs

There are particular cultural behaviors and beliefs that some of the participants found difficult to adjust to. Some of these, as shown in Table 6, included: noise, crowds and traffic, and social practices such as spitting and pushing.

TABLE 6: LIKE LEAST ABOUT LIVING AND WORKING IN KOREA

Like least about living in Korea	N=16	%	Like least about working in Korea	N=16	%
Traffic/crowds	10	62.5	Lack of professionalism from colleagues	12	80.0
Korean social practices such as spitting/pushing	10	62.5	Communication style of Korean administration	11	73.3
Being unable to communicate in Korean	10	62.5	Lack of planning/organization	9	60.0
Lack of cleanliness/bad smells/ pollution	9	56.3	Lack of support from administration	7	46.7
Complaining expatriates	9	56.3	Not feeling valued/respected	7	46.7
Cultural differences in inter-personal relationships	8	50.0	Korean educational system/ student learning style	6	40.0

Based on participant multiple response

The experience of being singled out as a "foreigner" was also distressing to some and 10 of the 16 felt it hindered personal adjustment. Grace says:

> ... I really do get offended by being called a foreigner... I'm not a foreigner – I'm not STRANGE – it means strange – STRANGE... when people try to tell me I'm a foreigner, I get – I used to get upset, now I just kind of joke about it.

(Grace)

Both men and women talked about the difficulty of adjusting to the attitudes and behaviors of host-nationals, particularly those of host-national men. Hugh came to Korea to continue a relationship with a Korean woman whom he had met in the United States. They have since separated, and he attributes part of the difficulties in their relationship to Korean attitudes regarding foreigners:

> We had talked about marriage and all that kind of thing but her family was too... rural conservative elite... Korean family... they didn't want a foreigner in the family... Korean men are very protective of their women – they don't want some foreigner coming and stealing their women – I mean that's a very informal way to put it – but that's been my experience. They don't appreciate it when they see a foreigner with a Korean girl.

(Hugh)

DISCUSSION

The results of the present preliminary research suggest that the adjustment of first-language EFL teachers in Korea appears to be influenced by both the individual (including such things as past experiences and personality), and the environment (including culture and language, social support systems, employment conditions and living situation). Further research will investigate the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1.   *Past experiences and personality facilitate adjustment.*
Hypothesis 2.   *The work situation has a significant impact on facilitating adjustment.*
Hypothesis 3.   *The living situation has a significant impact on adjustment.*
Hypothesis 4.   *The ability and opportunity to develop supportive relationships during the first six months to one year period contribute significantly to adjustment.*
Hypothesis 5.   *An understanding of the host language and culture positively affect adjustment.*

As this research is ongoing, no definite recommendations can currently be made. However, from the data collected thus far, it would be safe to simply suggest that Korean employers must seek out native-speaker employees who have the personal characteristics that enable adjustment, and teachers need to seek out employment situations that will allow them to make the smoothest adjustment possible.

Teaching English in Korea can be exciting and fulfilling and many of the participants spoke of experiences that they will cherish forever. However, the process of adjusting is not always easy; and most of them would likely agree with Biff, administrative assistant at a university language center, in Korea for the second time, when he says, "I have good Korea days and bad Korea days".

Jasmine, who is in Korea for her third time, sums up the process of cross-cultural adjustment. Those who are considering moving to Korea, or who are already living here and struggling with adjustment, would do well to heed her words:

> ... you have an identity when you come over here – your former identity – your own cultural identity – and in order to fit in here you have to... renegotiate yourself and reinvent yourself... and partly – if you DON'T renegotiate and reinvent yourself no-one's gonna care – you're gonna be on your own... if you stayed in your own place you already have everything – the support networks – they're already there. You don't even have to THINK about it. But if you go to another country you're not only going to have to THINK about it, you're going to have to ACT on it.

> (Jasmine)

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A Survey Study of US EFL Teachers in Korea

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Abstract

This paper is based on a survey that was conducted to investigate the motivation, attitudes, cross-cultural adaptation strategies, and individual educational backgrounds of English-speaking US EFL teachers in Korea in relation to their general teaching behaviors. The survey of 69 EFL teachers identified many problems and difficulties encountered in teaching EFL. One of the most important problems is that the teachers are not qualified to teach in Korea as most of their majors are not specifically related to teaching EFL/ESL. EFL teachers need to be more attentive so that cultural assumptions in the teaching materials do not lead to misunderstandings between them and their Korean students arising from their different cultural heritages. Finally, so that this paper will assist EFL teachers in becoming more aware of the most appropriate teaching methods and strategies for Korean EFL students, the researcher provides practical recommendations that can help EFL teachers to teach more effectively in Korea.

Introduction

Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) has been generally regarded as one of the most important necessities to succeed in life among most ordinary Koreans for the past few decades. Most Korean EFL learners are very eager to learn EFL; however, despite having strong motivation and positive attitudes, they are struggling to improve their EFL skills because of problems such as a lack of appropriate EFL teaching materials, a lack of EFL theories concentrating on the development of Korean EFL learners, and the lack of a sufficient number of skillful and experienced native-English-speaking EFL teachers and qualified Korean EFL teachers. In addition, there are a variety of factors that influence the EFL learning progress of Korean students in relation to those learning environments and behaviors that promote and improve the learners' EFL skills in terms of language proficiency. Many research studies have proven that learning a foreign language is not solely acquired by a particular method or certain situation. However, it is a dominant belief that one of the best ways of learning a foreign language is to expose oneself to the language in authentic situations, ideally in a country where the target language is spoken by a majority of the population. On the other hand, living in a foreign country is very arduous for many personal reasons, such as financial concerns, time, etc. Therefore, the demand for native-speaker English teachers has increased extraordinarily in Korea, especially in recent years.

Throughout this paper, the researcher has focused on the great importance of the EFL teachers' role in creating a successful Korean EFL classroom. Scrutinizing their teaching and living situations in Korea as these relate to their students' EFL learning environments is a beginning point for understanding their predicaments in terms of developing and improving Korean EFL learners' EFL skills. First of all, it is necessary for US EFL teachers to realize the important roles they play and how they perform in Korean EFL classrooms. Secondly, in order for US EFL teachers to develop the most appropriate teaching methods and materials for Korean EFL learners, it is essential for them to find solutions to their difficulties and problems by understanding the particular idiosyncratic learning behaviors of Korean EFL learners which are eventually based on a different cultural heritage from that of US EFL teachers. Finally, it is certain that integrating as much information and knowledge as possible about teaching EFL in Korea should be expected of US EFL teachers in order to create a better classroom atmosphere. This study presents a pragmatic guide and suggests a clear direction for both current and future foreign EFL teachers preparing to teach in Korea, which may assist them in fully understanding what is involved in their teaching and living in Korea. In turn, this study should prove beneficial to EFL learners desiring to increase their EFL competence in effective and efficient ways, since their proficiency can be greatly influenced by EFL teachers' teaching strategies and methods.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study answered the following questions:
1. Do US EFL teachers whose majors are TESL/TEFL, English Education with ESL/EFL endorsement, or Foreign Language Education enjoy teaching in Korea more than those who do not have such majors?
2. Is it easier for EFL teachers who know Korean to teach EFL than those who do not know the Korean language?
3. Do US EFL teachers who possess a general knowledge of Korean culture and apply it to their EFL classroom enjoy teaching more than those who do not?
4. Do US EFL teachers who have an integrative motivation and positive attitudes toward teaching EFL in Korea enjoy teaching more than those who have weak or negative attitudes?
5. Is it absolutely necessary for the Korean government to promote higher qualification standards for EFL teachers in order to improve their teaching quality?

LITERATURE REVIEW

In learning a second language, there are many influential factors, including individual learners' personality (age, aptitude, motivation, and attitude), cognitive characteristics (learning behaviors and learning strategies), the quality of language teachers (educational background, attitudes, motivation, and capability), and the policy of language education. The achievement levels of foreign language

learners will vary depending on these factors, unlike those learning ESL in the United States. In learning English as a foreign language in Korea, there are a few particular elements that are likely to affect learners' language development in addition to the factors listed above. The most significant components influencing learning EFL in Korea are teaching materials, methods, and strategies that are derived from the Korean EFL educational environment. This is remarkably different from ESL education in the United States. Rather than identifying how the teaching processes differ between Korea and the United States, in order to find the problem areas in their teaching, it is more reasonable to scrutinize the quality of EFL teachers developing the EFL curriculum and carrying out EFL teaching in Korea. Since EFL teachers are on the frontier of responsibility for improving and developing learners' EFL skills in the classroom, the EFL teachers themselves are considered the most critical constituent of Korean EFL education.

Despite extensive research in EFL teaching, there has been considerably less research studying cross-cultural issues in relation to attitudes, motivation, and teaching qualities of native English-speaking EFL teachers. In this section, the researcher will review what motivation and attitudes English-speaking EFL teachers need to succeed in teaching English as a foreign language in Korea. In cultural adaptation strategies, EFL teachers need to adjust to the cross-cultural impediments that are affecting their teaching strategies in the classroom. Recognizing the lack of prior studies of EFL teachers' motivation, attitudes, and cross-cultural matters related to teaching EFL abroad or in Korea, I frame my statements on these issues based upon my own past learning and teaching experiences both in Korea and in the United States.

Korean EFL teachers and learners have taken roles in the past that have mainly concentrated on grammatical competence in linguistic aspects related to grammar translation without contemplating other areas in learning EFL which can help develop their communicative skills in EFL. Considering that learning grammar first is an absolute necessity in studying EFL, Korean EFL learners have in the past been taught with a concentration on grammatical competence. However, we have seen Korean EFL learners possessing tremendous knowledge of English grammar who cannot perform communicatively in the English world. In recent years, most Korean people have seen English as extremely important for international communication, socioeconomic mobility, tourism, university study, and relations with the U.S. Unlike typical second language learning environments, the instruction of English as a foreign language in Korea is predominantly carried out in the classroom. Basically, the English language is learned and taught through the interaction between teachers and learners in formal classroom settings. Therefore, it is important to study the procedures in EFL classroom activities and the interaction between teachers and learners in order to discover the forms of attitudes and motivation presented by teachers and learners.

Even if there is no connection between the attitudes and motivation of learners and of teachers, since as Gardner and Lambert (1972) point out, teachers' attitude and motivation are distinct from learners' attitudes and motivation, it would not seem reasonable to solely observe the teachers' attitudes and motivation without understanding student attitudes and motivation. Therefore, I believe that teachers' attitudes and motivation should correspond with those of learners in order to assist in improving their students' target language skills. Focusing on a review of the literature of learner attitudes and motivation, I ratiocinated teacher attitudes and motivation from research into learners' attitude and motivation. Without understanding the attitudes and behaviors of their students that are inherited from the Korean cultural background in the EFL classroom, EFL teachers may have difficulties in creating better teaching activities and methods. This could be because the teachers do not always realize whether a particular activity or certain teaching material can work for Korean students. Thus, it is safe to say that if EFL teachers acknowledge the influence that culture has on the English classroom and make the effort to understand how the cultural assumptions of teachers and students differ, they can make adjustments that permit a more rewarding and enjoyable EFL classroom atmosphere. Accordingly, it is very important for EFL teachers to understand Korean cultural values and to apply their appreciation of the values of Korean culture into their classroom applications and implementations. The teachers' roles in the second/foreign language classroom as compared to current US EFL teachers' roles should be considered in order to approach the ideal portrait of an EFL teacher in a Korean EFL classroom. US EFL teachers demand in Korea to use the various professional activities as opportunities in many ways by developing the conception of teaching based on each teacher's education in involvement of identifying and studying what and how they do in the classroom. In doing so, possessing a well-organized knowledge developed as the result of teacher education and teaching experiences, and understanding Korean EFL classroom environment, EFL teachers will be able to enable their students to simplify, differentiate, and transform the information and knowledge during instruction without any burden to them.

METHODS

The questionnaire of the survey is made up of 65 questions organized in four sections. Based mainly on multiple choice items, the survey includes a few 'yes or no' and 'open-ended' questions which are followed in the same questions in order to more closely see their answers and were qualitatively analyzed. In addition to the survey, the researcher interviewed EFL teachers in order to gain more insights about their teaching and living experiences in Korea which were not likely to be expressed in the survey.

Subjects

Thousands of English-speaking EFL teachers are currently teaching Korean students in elementary, secondary, post-secondary, and private language institutes (so-called Hakwon) across Korea. The subjects of the survey were randomly selected all over the country. The subject participation was on a volunteer basis. Under these circumstances, the researcher initially mailed the survey form to 213 US EFL teachers in Korea and received 69 responses.

Procedure

Each survey item was analyzed and the number of respondents choosing each answer was tabulated. Mean, Mode, and Standard deviation were calculated for each item. The t-test for Independent Samples was conducted with a cut-point in the middle of distribution. Description statistics for those questions about qualifications were produced and will be discussed later. The 'open-ended' questions of the survey and the interviews were examined with a qualitative analysis. All the answers to the open-ended questions and the content of the interview were transferred to transcripts that show everything the subjects actually said with no deletions. In addition to responding to the survey questions, some of which were 'open-ended' items, the researcher also conducted five in-depth interviews with EFL teachers who took the survey.

THE RESULTS

TABLE 1. t-TESTS FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES FOR RESEARCH QUESTION #1

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
ENJ				
Q1 >= 6	11	29.9091	6.123	1.846
Q1 < 6	58	22.0345	9.249	1.214

Mean Difference = 7.8746
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 4.787 P= .032
  *Speaking of Levene's Test for Equality of variances, it adjusted
  the degrees of freedom for this t-test to account for the different
  sample sizes (Norusis, 1993).

t-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	95% CI for Diff
Unequal	3.56	19.87	.002	2.210	(3.263, 12.486)

The results in Table 1 were significant at the .002 level (t(19.87)) = 3.56. The difference in the degree of teaching enjoyment of EFL teachers between those whose majors are TESL/TEFL, English Education with ESL/EFL endorsement, or Foreign Language Education and those who do not have such majors make it

quite clear that EFL teachers whose majors are TESL/TEFL or relate to teaching English as a foreign/second language enjoy teaching EFL in Korea much more than those who did not major in this field. It is a concern that since most of those teaching EFL have bachelor degrees which are not related to teaching EFL/ESL, they have difficulties adjusting themselves to teaching EFL due to a lack of cultural adaptation skills which are provided through formal academic education. That is one of the major reasons that it would be hard to expect those whose majors are not related to teaching EFL in Korea to teach effectively and efficiently using well-developed teaching strategies in a professional teaching manner, since they lack expert information and knowledge about teaching EFL. Even though the results of this study do not directly show the effects on Korean EFL classrooms of such teachers, it can be assumed that there would definitely be more disadvantages for those students than advantages.

TABLE 2. T-TESTS FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES OF #D-3 FOR RESEARCH QUESTION #2

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
ENJ				
D_3 >= 1.57	30.7143	4.751	1.796	
D_3 < 1.561	22.3607	9.335	1.195	

Mean Difference = 8.3536
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 5.105 P= .027

T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	95% CI for Diff
Unequal	3.87	12.25	.002	2.157	(3.665, 13.043)

The results in Table 2 were at the significant at the .002 level (t(12.25)) = 3.87. The result shows that the higher the Korean language skills of the EFL teachers, the more they enjoy EFL teaching in Korea. Regarding proficiency in the Korean language, one of the survey respondents commented that "...knowing your students' native language enables you to be more sensitive to their learning difficulties and also allows for better understanding between students and teachers..." It appeared that even though most survey respondents understood that knowing the Korean language would be helpful to their teaching EFL in the classroom, their proficiency of Korean was generally low.

TABLE 3. T-TESTS FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES FOR RESEARCH QUESTION #3

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
ENJ				
Q3 >= 21.5	35	25.6000	8.902	1.505
Q3 < 21.5	34	20.9118	9.130	1.566

Mean Difference = 4.6882
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= .092   P= .762

T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	95% CI for Diff
Equal	2.16	67.00	.034	2.171	(.355, 9.021)
Unequal	2.16	66.80	.034	2.172	(.353, 9.023)

The results in Table 3 were significant at the level .034 level (t(66.80)) = 2.16. From the results shown above, it appears that there is a significant relationship between familiarity with Korean culture and enjoyment of teaching EFL in Korea. However, since most of the subjects came to Korea to teach EFL after making a decision in a short time period, they did not seem to prepare for teaching EFL with much deep consideration. Because of their lack of information and knowledge about Korean culture and their lack of preparation for teaching EFL before coming to Korea or while teaching in Korea, they seemed to be likely to fail to become cultural assimilated and find effective and appropriate teaching methods and strategies for the Korean EFL classroom.

TABLE 4. T-TESTS FOR INDEPENDENT SAMPLES FOR RESEARCH QUESTION #4

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
ENJ				
Q4 >= 74.5	37	23.3514	9.855	1.620
Q4 < 74.5	32	23.2188	8.665	1.532

Mean Difference = .1326
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= .280   P= .598

T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	95% CI for Diff
Equal	.06	67.00	.953	2.251	(-4.360, 4.625)
Unequal	.06	66.98	.953	2.230	(-4.318, 4.583)

The results in Table 4 indicated that there was no significant difference. In their attitudes and motivation to go to Korea to teach, the EFL teachers varied. According to the statistical results of research question #4, even though there was no significant difference between possessing strong motivation and positive attitudes and not having them, it is understood that the subjects' initial motivation for going to Korea was not always for professional or ideal reasons. Reflecting upon the results from the 'open-ended' items in the survey and from the interview, the most popular reason given was that they wanted to experience a foreign culture as well as to expand their teaching experiences. In addition, the most common reason given was that it was easy to get a teaching job and to be better paid compared with the United States. Meanwhile, there were a few respondents who gave more professional reasons, such as the development of their EFL teaching strategies, professional development, helping Korean students improve the English language skills or developing Korean EFL education.

TABLE 5. T-TEST (ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS) FOR RESEARCH QUESTION #5

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Q-5	69	24.9855	8.8940	1.0707	Q5
Variable	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) Mean Difference		
22.402	68	.000	23.9855		

Research question #5 (see Table 5) was initially developed to see the necessity of promoting higher qualification standard for EFL teachers. After examining individual item related to the issue from the survey questionnaire, it was safe to assume that the causes of the problems in Korean EFL education are not only the EFL teachers themselves in terms of EFL teaching qualifications, but the Korean government policy concerning the foreign EFL teachers who are getting work visas in Korea. According to the survey, none of the subjects who applied for an EFL teaching work visa at a Korean embassy was rejected. More precisely speaking, any native English-speaking American who wants to get a work visa in order to teach English in Korea is required to meet only minimum qualifications. Simply put, any American can teach English in Korea as long as they hold a four-year college diploma regardless of what major they studied in college. In fact, an American who has studied music, math, or science can get an English teaching position. That is one of the biggest problems with EFL education of Korea.

CONCLUSIONS

One of the biggest difficulties is that US EFL teachers seem to struggle to find cross-cultural access to achieve satisfaction because of the cultural barriers between themselves and their staffs, colleagues, and students. Since "preparation clearly involves language-focused teaching with a greater awareness of the implicit as well as explicit connection with culture" (Byram & Esarte-Sarries, 1991, p. 199), the importance of cultural preparation to adjust to a target culture is crucial. Yet, EFL teachers are unlikely to fit into the Korean society because of a lack of information and knowledge of Korean culture and an inability to apply their understanding of Korean culture to their teaching in terms of cultural assimilation.

Second, US EFL teachers' attitudes and motivations to teach, which are likely to affect their EFL classrooms, do not seem adequate to meet with the needs of their students and support their students' individual demands. Finally, their qualifications to teach EFL in Korea are not quite standardized. Because of the low standard of the Korean government's visa policy, anyone who holds a 4-year bachelor's degree regardless of their major can easily get a Korean work visa and an EFL teaching position. The question in the EFL classroom is not whether a teaching method is good or not, but whether the teacher knows how, for what purpose, for what kind of students, and in what language situation a particular method is used to enhance learning effectively. Therefore, those who teach English to the Korean students in Korea should consider some factors I have mentioned so far. Those are not the only factors which relate to interpersonal behavior, moralistic orientation, attitudes toward authority and personal goals, but also there are others which add to EFL teachers' insight and contribute to an awareness of cultural differences. Also, the learners' particular contributions made during class participation should be carefully observed by teachers and should be applied to teaching. Schick and Boothe (1995) state that "based on the unique contributions each one can bring to the classroom, effective cooperation that stimulates learning will result" (p. 4).

Above all, the final and perhaps the most important application from the findings of this study is the fact that the most appropriate teaching methods, materials, and strategies for the Korean EFL classroom are exclusively made by teachers themselves. In order to fit them to individual students, their specific needs, and learning environments, EFL teachers need to develop in themselves a number of attributes such as positive attitudes, flexible planning, and resource persons in language education programs. Hoopes and Pusch (1979) state that "professional preparation programs for English as a second language (ESL) teachers become better culture observers by drawing on participants' prior experience in developing perceptions about their own culture and about the culture of the classroom" (p. 2). Therefore, it is important that EFL teachers study at a language education program which "allows them participate in an experiential program that continu-

ously asks them to link theory and practice" (Terdal & Brown, 1992, p. 18). All in all, it is strongly recommended that non-EFL/ESL teachers should not be hired to teach simply because they are native speakers of English. That is why it is not surprising to see that many non-EFL teachers are likely to fail to enjoy EFL teaching in Korea, lacking professional experience in teaching EFL.

Teaching Implications

1. First, it is essential to understand that different teaching methods and strategies should be applied depending on whether English is taught in an ESL and EFL situation.
2. It is suggested that EFL teachers understand the Korean EFL learners' goals and needs in relation to the international needs for ESL/EFL.
3. It is strongly recommended that EFL teachers become aware of the characteristics of Korean culture and apply them to both developing curriculum and the process of instruction in order to create a comfortable EFL classroom atmosphere.
4. It is necessary that EFL teachers integrate all the information available in order to create the most appropriate teaching applications and implementations for the Korean EFL classroom.
5. It has been emphasized that one practice of a better EFL teacher is looking at some other components, such as the individual learners' characteristics, that are involved in EFL learning.

Recommendations for U.S. EFL Teachers Before Going to Korea to Teach EFL

1. Contemplate working conditions before signing any contract.
2. Gather all possible information to prepare for teaching and living in Korea.
3. Study about Korean culture and customs as much as you can.
4. Bring as many authentic teaching materials as you can.
5. Bring as many textbooks related to teaching EFL as you can.

Recommendations For EFL Teachers During EFL Teaching Careers in Korea

1. Be patient: encourage gradual oral participation in class.
2. Get informed about current events by reading and watching TV.
3. If possible, try to learn the Korean language.
4. Have a perspective of looking at the Korean students as cultural beings.
5. Acknowledge differences in Korean students' behavior.
6. Have outside activities with the students if your time schedule allows it.
7. Have meetings with the EFL teachers teaching at the same or other institutes.
8. Select teaching materials with careful examination of their potential influences.
9. Develop the quality of interaction between teachers and students.
10. Generate your own teaching strategies which are appropriate for your own students by paying extra close attention to finding out the difficulties and problems of the students learning EFL.

These are the tips I recommend for English-speaking EFL teachers wishing to enjoy teaching and living in Korea. Above all, the most important factors that absolutely affect the teaching lives of U.S. EFL teachers are their own independent professional enthusiasm including attitudes, motivations, and cultural adaptation strategies. It is certainly reasonable to believe that if EFL teachers become more aware of the factors that affect their teaching careers in Korea, with the tips described above they will become able to overcome the barriers and obstacles which are likely to prevent them from enjoying teaching EFL and creating effective and efficient teaching and learning situations. All in all, an embracing of well-trained EFL teachers is considered to be one of the greatest needs of English education in Korea where English is nowadays emerging as the chief medium of international communication. Those are the considerations that may well be among the most significant undertakings of the future in teaching EFL in Korea because I believe that an EFL teacher can contribute to a big portion of the progress in Korean English education. To be concise, the development of Korean English education considerably depends on individual EFL teachers' qualifications and capabilities in teaching EFL. On the other hand, as mentioned previously, the problems of Korean EFL education and the difficulties of EFL teachers in EFL teaching are involved with the policy of the Korean government and the lack of a proper educational philosophy of private language institutes, Hakwons. Therefore, several suggestions are made to help Hakwons better manage EFL teachers in mutually cooperative ways without any misunderstandings or conflicts. In the general terms of developing the quality of the Korean EFL education, these suggestions will help foreign EFL teachers to better enjoy their teaching career as the Korean EFL learners' language skills are more improved as well.

Suggestions for the Korean Government

1. It is necessary that the Korean government promote higher qualification standards for foreign EFL teachers.
2. It is suggested that the Korean government provide newly-arrived foreign EFL teachers an orientation to Korean culture.
3. It is necessary that the Korean government publish a book or pamphlet with general comments about Korean culture, exclusively for foreign EFL teachers.
4. It is advised that the directors of private language institutes (Hakwon) need to be regulated as concerns EFL teachers' teaching conditions.
5. It is important that the Korean government has an authority to regulate private language institutes, given the crucial roles of foreign EFL teachers in Korean EFL education.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

If the detailed findings of this research are employed in the EFL classroom in Korea, the suggestions formulated by the results of this paper could generally heighten the teaching qualifications of EFL teachers as well as EFL students'

English skills. On the other hand, even though the findings of this study could be positively connected with the development of Korean EFL education and the improvement of Korean learners' EFL skills, there were some limitations to this study. First of all, the findings of this study will be not be completely applicable for second language acquisition (SLA) whereas they can be directly applied into research areas related to the issues of teaching and learning EFL in Korea because of their restricted generalizability.

The second limitation of the study was the number of respondents to the survey and the interviewees. In regard to the design and methodology of this research, the researcher realized that the paper could not specifically examine what particular problems and difficulties they have in teaching EFL without conducting the survey and interviewing US EFL teachers in Korea. Since the survey and interview conducted for this research study give EFL teachers' specific insights about teaching and living, it was hoped this study would be able to discuss how to approach every possible complication in order to find solutions which could produce better teaching strategies for the Korean ESL classroom. After 213 U.S. EFL teachers were randomly selected, the survey form was mailed, and 69 responses were received. 45 surveys were returned because their addresses had been changed. Since most of teachers' teaching contract terms are for 1 year only, it is hard to keep their current mailing addresses. Ninety-nine survey forms were missing or not completed by the teachers. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis would be more reliable if more subjects participated.

Finally, since there is no previous research similar to this study, it is impossible to measure how well the design would be in comparison to any other results. So the independent variables such as having integrative motivation, showing strong attitudes, knowing Korean language, and being capable of adjusting to cross-cultural issues, would be controversial to the different perspectives of other researchers. It is difficult to deny that all of the independent variables are likely to be variously interpreted from different points of view. However, it should be possible to agree on some of them, such as the influential factors of EFL teaching and learning in Korea being different from those of the United States where English is spoken as a native language or as a second language, and the monolingual classroom versus multilingual classroom situation.

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Second Language Acquisition Theory in the Classroom

Improving Input-Processing in the EFL Classroom

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INTRODUCTION

Many foreign teachers in Korea have prioritized the building of communicative fluency in their classrooms and have sought out techniques which encourage communication, yet have spent less time on the building of grammatical accuracy. The building of grammatical accuracy has been de-emphasized for several reasons: to reduce students' tendency to over-monitor (Krashen, 1987); because many students have had extensive instruction in English grammar and need to proceduralize this knowledge; or perhaps because the foreign teacher is often hired as an 'English conversation teacher' with the expectation that the teaching of grammar will be left to Korean teachers of English.

There is a growing consensus, however, in second language acquisition theory that focus on form has value. Lightbown and Spada (1999) write that 'form-focused instruction and corrective feedback within communicative second language programs can improve learners' use of particular grammatical features' (p. 149). Paul Seedhouse (1997) warns of the danger of two extremes: ignoring form completely or valuing it too highly. Focus on form, in a communicative classroom, is expected to contribute to the creation of form-meaning links by assisting learners to make links between formal knowledge and the communicative use of the structure (Fotos 1998, p. 305). In the communicative classroom, where *meaning* is primary, focus on *form* may rightly be secondary, but should not be eliminated altogether.

The dilemma, with which the practicing teacher, or at least this practicing teacher, is presented is that when an attempt is made to reintroduce a form focus into the EFL classroom, the students and the class often swing back into non-communicative, grammar-focused approaches to language learning. Their 'monitors'' are raised like a drawbridge that you can almost hear slamming shut.

The challenge then is how to reintroduce a focus on form – which does not prevent the building of fluency, but contributes to it; which does not reduce the meaning-centredness of the class, but builds upon it; which does not raise monitors to the extent that output is hindered, but temporarily directs students' attention towards grammar.

Perhaps, other solutions to this dilemma exist, but the one which presented itself to this teacher, when in an attempt to solve a practical, pedagogical problem

he turned to SLA theory, was the use of a variety of techniques which could be classified as an input-processing approach to focus on form. For the most part, these techniques are considered: an attempt is being made to create form-meaning links; grammar or structure is not being taught in isolation; students process input for meaning first and process it for form only later; and the focus on form is not directed at output as much as input thereby avoiding the problem of monitor raising.[1]

This essay will consider the techniques for the facilitation of input processing in the EFL classroom. First, a definition and explanation of input processing will be attempted; then the extent to which students need help in processing input will be examined; following that, the question will be asked 'what hinders input processing?'; and, finally, the more important question 'how can we help our students to process input?' will be asked and an answer based upon practical, flexible, classroom techniques will be suggested.

WHAT IS INPUT PROCESSING?

Put in the simplest possible terms input processing is what students do, or at least should do, with input. Input, of course, could be oral or written input, the source of which could be another student, a teacher, a text (including oral/aural texts), or it could be from outside the classroom entirely. In this essay, the main source of input discussed will be task-based listening exercises.

VanPatten and Sanz (1995) describe input processing as 'the conversion of input to intake' (p. 170). Input could be thought of as all the language directed at the learner, and intake could be thought of as that subset of input from which the learner has managed to make form-meaning connections. A subset of that subset is the intake which will contribute to the learner's developing system, and an even smaller subset will be available for the student as output.

This could be better illustrated with an example. During my five years in Korea, I have probably taken thousands of taxi rides. Unless the driver is lost in his own world, the same questions are invariably asked in Korean: 'Where are you from?'; 'When did you come to Korea?'; 'Are you married?'; 'Is your wife Korean?'; 'Do you have any children?' Each question I answer with an appropriate, pre-memorized answer in Korean. Yet, despite having heard these same questions hundreds of times, and having comprehended the questions, I would not be able to reproduce the questions accurately. I have failed to completely convert the input into intake and then incorporate it into my developing system. In fact, I produce my grammatically correct answers despite having comprehended only part of the questions. Key words like 'nara,' 'gyeolhon,' 'hangguksaram,' and a few relevant grammatical morphemes (the past tense in the question 'When did you come to Korea?') allow me to guess what question I am being asked despite having not fully processed or perhaps even heard the entire question.

Meaning-focused language teaching is simply not enough. We must encourage students to go beyond the comprehension of input and a focus on meaning, towards the processing of input and an attempt to make form-meaning connections. Improving input processing in the EFL classroom would involve helping students to get more information from the input, to pay closer attention to form in the input, to notice more in the input, and to do all this at such a time and in such a way that they don't stop communicating.

Put less simply, but much more impressively:

> In other words, the term *input processing* as it is used here involves those strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension. ... As the learner processes an incoming input string, it must be tagged and coded in particular ways. If the language is to be learned, the internal processor(s) must eventually attend to how the propositional content is encoded linguistically.
>
> <div align="right">(VanPatten & Sanz, 1995, p. 170)</div>

DO LEARNERS NEED HELP PROCESSING INPUT?

It appears that learners need help in processing certain forms and not others. Evidence that this is true is provided by a number of studies or reports of students enrolled in French immersion programs in Canada (Harley, Allen, Cummins, & Swain 1990; Swain 1998; Lightbown & Spada 1999). The observation has been made that despite having been enrolled in immersion programs in which all or most classes were taught through the target language for several years, students still produced some non-target-like French.

What Can Learners Process without Help?

Schmidt (1990, cited in Skehan 1998, p. 48-50) claims that learners are more likely to notice and process forms which are more frequent, perceptually salient, relevant, and which they are ready to incorporate into their developing system. Van Patten (1996, cited in Skehan 1998, p. 46-7) argues that learners process input for form only after it has been processed for meaning and when it can be processed 'at little or no cost to attentional resources.'

A combination of these factors may be required before students notice forms. Williams and Evans (1998) found that increasing the frequency of some forms improved performance, but failed to do so with other forms. A number of other essays (Harley 1998; White 1998) in the same volume (Doughty & Williams, 1998) also showed mixed results, which could be interpreted as evidence that any of the above factors alone is insufficient (p. 220).

What Do Learners Need Help Processing?

It follows then that learners may need help processing redundant or meaningless features, non-salient features, and features which are not frequent in the input (but may be frequent outside of the classroom or in different streams of input to which the student is not yet exposed but may eventually encounter).

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Some examples of features which the learner may need help with are: the third person singular, which is redundant, the tense already being signaled by the subject, and non-salient – just a quiet little 's'; case of pronouns which is often redundant when word order signals the case – the student who says 'I will visit he' will be understand almost as easily as the student who says 'I will visit him' although the error may annoy the listener; and when the past tense is signaled by adverbials it becomes practically redundant and sometimes non-salient. Frequency of each of these features may vary with the classroom in question and the source(s) of input provided to students.

It has also been suggested that students may need help correcting first language transfer errors (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Particularly in an EFL classroom where all the students have the same first language, it is less likely that a first language transfer error will draw attention to itself if it does not interfere with communication.

What Hinders Input Processing?

There are a number of conditions which appear in the classroom which may hinder input processing. Most of these conditions are not unique to classroom learning environments; parallels for many can by found in natural learning environments. The teacher in a classroom can, if it is deemed necessary, control some of these variables, and thereby facilitate input processing.

Inauthentic Input

While some writers on input processing recommend modifying the input in certain ways to make forms more easily noticed, and even recommend repetition of certain structures, most would agree that students need to be exposed to authentic input. Inauthentic input may have:

- unusual intonation;
- a limited range of accents (standard British or American accents);
- over enunciated words;
- repetition of certain structures;
- distinct turn-taking;
- uniformly slow-pace;
- each speaker saying approximately the same amount;
- lack of 'attention signals' like 'uh-huh', 'yeah';
- overly formal language;
- a limited range of vocabulary;
- too much information;
- lack of background noise or other mutilations of the message.

<div align="right">(adapted from Porter & Roberts, 1981, pp. 37-47)</div>

Students cannot process what is not there. Limiting the range of vocabulary, accent or structure will limit the richness of the input, perhaps denying some students the forms which they need to process. Slowing the speed, saying too much,

or regularizing the turn-taking may benefit students in the short run but in the long run will limit their ability to process input outside the classroom. Inauthenticity in input may be of some value but a range of input should be provided to students.

Inability to Pay Attention to Input

Learners are only able to pay attention to so many things at once. Performing a challenging task which requires them to organize, coordinate, predict, and plan all at the same time may reduce the amount of attention they can pay to the input. In particular, any features of the input beyond those which are necessary to perform the task will probably be ignored.

An interesting article in KOTESOL Proceedings 2000 by Chris Sheppard titled 'Task Complexity in Language Learning and Teaching: Why Tasks Fail' concludes that if task complexity is too low the student might not be challenged to notice forms in the input. On the other hand if task complexity is too high the learners don't have sufficient processing resources required to notice forms in the input (Sheppard, 2000, pp. 87-88).

Skehan (1998) mentions other factors which will effect the likelihood of learners noticing forms. Learners are more likely to notice forms if they have time; if the language is written rather than spoken, in which case they can go back and check what they've written or read; and if the learners believe (or perhaps have been told by the teacher) that grammar is important enough to pay attention to (pp. 142-145).

No Need to Focus on Input

The Need for Incomprehensible Input

While Krashen (1982, 1988) theorizes that all that is needed for language acquisition is for students to be provided with comprehensible input, a number of intelligent critiques of this point of view have been published. Ellis (1994) discusses several. Two which make quite similar points are White (1987, cited in Ellis 1994) and Faerch and Kasper (1986, cited in Ellis 1994). White, he explains, proposes 'that failure to understand a sentence may force the learner to pay closer attention to its syntactical properties in order to obtain clues about its meaning' (Ellis, 1994, p. 279) while Faerch and Kasper argue 'that only when there is a "gap" between the input and the learner's current interlanguage and, crucially, when the learner perceives the gap as a gap in knowledge, will acquisition take place' (Ellis, 1994, p. 279). The suggestion is that completely comprehensible input might not be what we need; in fact, what may sometimes be needed is incomprehensible input.

Focus Solely on Meaning

If the goal of an exercise requires only that students comprehend the meaning of the input, then students might not pay attention to the form of the message any more than they have to. We may be, in a sense, training them not to pay attention

to form. To a certain extent, this may be good practice but, in the end if students are to continue to expand their 'developing system' or 'interlanguage', or whichever term is preferred, they will need to focus their attention on forms beyond that required for comprehension and communication. Not all forms are necessary and meaning-bearing in a semantic sense, but their absence may be socially unacceptable even if they do nothing to impair communication.

Reliance on Non-linguistic Cues

As teachers, we are often encouraged to make use of a wide variety of non-linguistic means to communicate our message. Pictures, gestures, facial expressions, tone of voice, and props have all been suggested. Unfortunately, too much of a good thing may have negative consequences. Sometimes the learner can make such good use of non-linguistic cues that they don't have to focus on the form of the message.

Structure-of-the-Day Activities

The input given in the classroom might be so structured and explanation given so completely that no challenge is presented. The over-teaching of a specific form may make it unnecessary for the student to pay attention to any other forms. Or, there may not be any other forms to pay attention to. Perhaps the only form available in the input is one which many of the students have already acquired or are far from being ready to acquire. Krashen (1987) calls this type of input finely-tuned.

Lack of Input

Some classrooms expect that students will receive input outside of the classroom and focus their teaching on grammar instruction or practise exercises. In these situations, there may not be an adequate amount of input taking place. In the EFL situation, the classroom may be a main source of input. Ironically, if the acquisition of new grammatical forms is most likely to occur when students pay attention to form in the input in order to comprehend meaning, then much grammar instruction would be inadequate as it fails to provide input and meaning.

HOW CAN WE HELP LEARNERS TO PROCESS INPUT?

Modify Task Complexity

The learner is only able to pay attention to language if their attention is not already entirely devoted to other things. In a task-based approach, an approach in which we ask students to use language while doing other things, or possibly to accomplish non-linguistic goals with language, there is a danger that students will be forced to devote all their attention to the challenge of the task and have none left over to pay attention to language.

Teachers, then, may need to reduce the complexity of the tasks so that students have the ability to focus on language. Skehan (1996) explains, 'Attention is lim-

ited in capacity, and it is needed to respond to both linguistic and cognitive demands ... engaging in activities which reduce cognitive load will release attentional capacity for the learner to concentrate more on linguistic factors' (p. 25).

As students may find themselves performing activities outside the classroom which are cognitively challenging while using the foreign language, it may not be desirable nor enjoyable to completely eliminate the cognitive challenge of tasks. If the students are better able to focus on language when the non-linguistic aspects of the task are less complex, then the teacher can decide when to encourage focus on form by modifying the level of complexity. This decision, like most related to language teaching, will have to be made in the classroom by the teacher in response to learners' needs.

Some ways to modify the complexity of the task are:
- by introducing the topic of the task
- by having students observe similar tasks
- by allowing students to do similar tasks
- by giving students time to prepare or plan

(Skehan, 1996, p.25)

Provide Plenty of Input

In the EFL environment, it may be especially important to provide students with or encourage students to seek out input. Outside of the classroom, students may not have any need to deal with second language input and the extent to which they encounter it will depend entirely on their motivation to do so.

The teacher may be responsible for exploiting, in the classroom, as many sources of input as are available. Teachers could recycle dialogues, readings, and listening scripts from previously studied chapters and ask students to look for a specific feature within them. Students will have already studied the meaning of the dialogue so this would be a *meaningful* review. On the other hand, as yet unstudied texts could be 'mined' for examples of specific forms. These forms may be taken out of context and used as examples only to be recontextualized later. The teacher might also consider whether work from another class or the work of other students within the class can be used as a source of input (Willis & Willis, 1996, p. 68).

Input Enhancement

The input, or rather certain features within the input, could be enhanced in some way to make specific features more obvious. This may not involve the teacher making specific reference to the forms. The intention is that students are more likely to pay attention to the form with a minimum of distraction from the meaningfulness of the input. Izumi and Biegelo (2000) explain: 'The idea behind input enhancement is that outside manipulation of input or task materials can create conditions that stimulate internal learning mechanisms so as to advance learners' knowledge of the target language' (p. 242).

Some ways through which this could be accomplished follow:

(1) Textual input enhancement - certain forms are emboldened, *italicized*, typed in ALL CAPS, underlined, or even printed in a different colour (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Izumi & Biegelo, 2000).

(2) Input Flooding - Students are flooded for a long period of time (several weeks) with meaningful input which carries the target form. The form should be one which the teacher feels the students are both ready to learn and yet is particularly difficult to acquire (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Izumi & Biegelo, 2000).

(3) Input Mining - The students could be asked to highlight, underline, or circle either specific features in the text chosen by the teacher or just any language in the text that is new to them. The results are shared with the whole class.

Awareness-Raising Activities

Students could engage in challenging activities which have an explicit grammar focus. The best time to do such an activity may be after the input has been processed for meaning and not before a task in which fluency is the goal. Examples of such tasks follow:

(1) Students could be asked to spot or hear the difference between the text and a picture; the recording and the listening script; the video and the description of the video. The difference could be related to specific grammar features (tense, number, etc.);

(2) Students could be asked to find similarities between two texts (phrases or features which appear in both);

(3) Students could be asked to reconstruct phrases or even the whole text. This could be undertaken in pairs. Next, the pairs could compare their texts with each other's and try to select the one which is closest to the original. They could then see or listen to the original again and compare;

(4) Students could proofread a text which contains errors. This may be an exercise which focuses on grammar, but it is one the students may have to engage in some day and one which will require students to understand the meaning of the text they are proofreading.

(5) Other classes' work can be compared with target language work, searched for incorrect usage of specific forms, or perhaps more encouragingly, students could be asked to find useful expressions, new words, and grammatically correct usage of target forms within the work.

(Willis & Willis, 1996, p. 68; Izumi & Biegelo, 2000; Lightbown & Spada, 1999)

Grammar Interpretation Tasks

Ellis (1993, 1995) has recommended that students engage in 'grammar interpretation tasks'. These are tasks which require students to listen but not produce.

Students are provided with very structured input which contains examples of a specific grammatical structure. There may be a listening task which, in order to be successfully completed, would require that students comprehend those structures.

OUTPUT AIDING INPUT

Back in the taxi for a moment, the reason I may fail to process the questions asked of me by the taxi driver are that I may feel no need to do so. I rarely ask Koreans, in Korean, 'Where are you from?', 'When did you come to Korea?' etc. There is little motivation for me to process this language, to take this language and transform it from input to output. Knowing that one will have to use the language in some way may provoke the student to pay more attention to the input available.

Professor Willis (1996) in *A Framework for Task-based Learning* encourages the use of a report stage that will require students to focus more carefully on the language they use. The students, when preparing to report or reporting to a larger group, are more careful than when they are working in pairs or small groups. If students know that a report stage is coming they may pay closer attention to form in listening tasks. The teacher might give time for attention to form after students have attended to meaning.

CONCLUSION

Although this essay has cited many renowned SLA theorists and applied linguists, it is first and foremost concerned with pedagogy, my classroom, and my instincts, as an experienced and experiencing teacher, about what my students need. Few theories about input processing are provable as they are concerned with learner internal processes, so it falls to the teacher to apply these theories judiciously in evaluating teaching and learning activities. It also falls to the teacher to decide whether an activity worked. It is not possible for the teacher to measure, within the course of one class or even one semester, the effectiveness of a particular technique to improve input processing. The teacher, no matter how well informed by theory, will have to trust his or her instincts about praxis.

END NOTE

1. Krashen (1987) describes the role of the monitor (conscious knowledge about language and learnt rules) as being that of an editor which is used to check output. Monitor raising slows communication and fluency.

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Theories of SLA and the Role of Instruction: Is Formal Instruction Viewed Positively?

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ABSTRACT

The role of instruction in second language acquisition has evolved in the research into many different theories, and many teachers are unaware of how these theories impact their teaching practice. This presentation will give an overview of the audio-lingual, cognitive code or mentalist (creative construction and comprehension-based), and interactionist theories of SLA. The presentation will provide listeners with a thumbnail sketch of the approach itself, the leading theorists within each, and the focus of the review will be to summarize the relative value that these theories place on the role of instruction for second language acquisition.

INTRODUCTION

During the latter half of this century, the role of instruction in second language acquisition has evolved in the research into many different "families" . Theories differ on the nature of language, how and what is stored and processed in the brain, and consequently how and if the environment influences that processing. This paper was written in order to summarize the relative value that some of these "families" place on the role of instruction for second language acquisition.

Following on Lightbown and Spada's (1993) categorical framework, which was used in Ellis (1994) as well, the approaches surveyed comprise the audio-lingual, cognitive code or mentalist (creative construction and comprehension-based), and interactionist.

Audio-lingual Approach

The behaviorist position, developed after World War II, was that learners get their language skills from experience, indicating a pre-eminent role of instruction. One resultant language instruction paradigm was the **audio-lingual approach**. Learners were presented with a listen-repeat-drill form to the point of over-learning grammar concepts.

The field of instructional design (ID) came into its own during this time also, and traditional approaches closely resembled the AL approach, similarly characterized by the hierarchical ordering of tasks and "skill and drill" programs (Wilson and Cole, 1996). With the growing importance of IT in the language class-

room, instructivist approaches in language teaching are undergoing a kind of re-naissance.

The materials for such practice were derived from the **contrastive analysis hypothesis** (CAH), described in detail by Lado (1957), and arranged from simple to complex forms based on the intuitions of linguists (Celce-Murcia, 1991). CAH depended on (1) the description of two languages; (2) the selection of certain areas chosen for detailed comparison; (3) a comparison of different and similar linguistic fields; and finally, (4) the prediction of which areas caused errors (Ellis, 1994, 307).

It was thought that instruction should then focus learner attention explicitly on these areas. When learners practiced those areas of weakness, habit formation would be facilitated. Language was thought to be a domain of procedural knowledge which could become automated within the learner' mind through a process of **habit formation**. There was thought to be a direct relationship between input and output (Ellis, 1994). Ellis (1997, 18) notes further that researchers were solely responsible for finding best practices, while teachers were reduced to the role of technicians who carried out prescriptions from research.

Thus, instruction was essential for developing language skill, and the external environment was seen as providing the sole sources of language information with the learner as a benign participant (Ellis, 1994). The teacher' role was clearly prescribed and minimized as much as possible.

Cognitive code Approach

Universal Grammar: With the mentalist approach, the pendulum for the role of instruction swung to the opposite extreme. Chomsky was perhaps the first most prominent advocate, proposing the concept of a universal grammar, or UG, made up of linguistic universals. Ellis (1994, 416) describes these as

> Highly abstract statements relating to general properties of language; and principles, con-ditions, and rules that are elements of all human languages.

These linguistic universals were stored in a physical area of the brain called the **Language Acquisition Device**, or LAD. Instead of the *tabula rasa* of the behaviorists, learners are born with this innate LAD intact and immutable to instruction (Ellis, 1994). Chomsky hypothesized that a learner's access to the LAD was reduced over time, resulting in a **critical period hypothesis**, where it was held that age of acquisition constrained the likelihood of L2 fluency. Nunan (1991, 232) notes that such an approach still sees language as rule-governed, but rules that are internalized at a subconscious level, rather than the conscious for-mation of rule-awareness in the behaviorist approach.

Ellis (1994, 463) states that Chomsky' position sees no role for second lan-guage acquisition (SLA) research. It is not that foreign language study is unprof-itable; instead, since the UG is immutable to change, language as a tool for com-

munication, and by implication language instruction, is simply irrelevant to Chomsky. Language research in his view should be about abstracting the universal linguistic principles through native speaker intuitions about them (Ellis, 1994, 710). In response, Ellis (1997, 36) argues that the concept of UG is in turn largely irrelevant to SLA.

Thus, instruction was seen to play an insignificant role in language acquisition. Surprisingly, Chomsky' theory proved to be quite fruitful in producing SLA research and other related theories within the same mentalist tradition (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1981). Many of these mentalist theorists saw little relevance for instruction, which was counter-intuitive to the experiences and expectations of many language learners, and created the unfortunate and long-standing gap between linguistic research and the practical needs of classroom teachers (Van Lier, 1988).

They did place varying degrees of emphasis on the role of the learner, including the **Interlanguage Theory** of Corder and Selinker, Pienemann' **Multidimensional Model,** and Krashen" **Input Hypothesis**. These theories will be discussed in turn below, as being either of the creative construction mode (a stronger role for conscious awareness in the learning process) or a comprehension-based mode (a weaker role for conscious awareness).

Cognitive Code Approach: Creative construction

Interlanguage: This idea, associated with Corder (1967) as "ttransitional competence" in the UK and with Selinker (1972) as "interlanguage" in the US, suggests that successful adult L2 learners who achieve native-like competence did not learn all of their skills and knowledge from instruction, but instead possess a built-in syllabus or latent language structure that is re-activated during language learning (Selinker, 1974). Learners have sets of special mental grammars called interlanguages, which they have constructed during the course of their language development by means of hypothesis testing about language rules at a sub-conscious level (Ellis, 1994).

Selinker (1972, 229) notes that these forms arise out of attempts by learners to construct meaningful communicative statements, not " practicing structured exercises in a classroom". The implication is that students need to be exposed to discourse level communication in order to have more opportunities for negotiation of meaning (Constantino, 1999), with the language teacher acting as the knower/informer and the learner as the information seeker (Corder, 1977 as cited in Ellis, 1994, 228).

Selinker (1972) suggests that **fossilization** is caused by the cessation of target language acculturation, and occurs when learners who have mastered certain language concepts demonstrate production errors characteristic of an earlier level of interlanguage development under moments of stress, when the speaker does not have time to consciously consider language use. These language events are im-

pervious to instruction regardless of the " age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL" (Selinker, 1972, 231).

Instruction, then, involves making language rules and L1/L2 comparisons more salient, "unfolding the internal syllabus" as it were (Long and Robinson, 1996, 20), bearing in mind the caveat that performance will probably never become native-like (Selinker, 1974). Students use L1 by gradually restructuring it as they discover how it differs from the TL (Ellis, 1994, 115). This process is characterized by **complexification**, where "each grammar the learner builds is more complex than the one that preceded it" (Ellis, 1994, 352). The idea here for the teacher is to foster the ability in students to produce Hymes' (1972) target of communicative competence by providing opportunities for meaningful interaction (Selinker, 1974, 43). The practice of instruction is restricted, however, since the "integration of new material will be easier if it does not require restructuring of the existing system"; otherwise, language content may be stored in the mind as explicit knowledge (Ellis, 1997, 122), and thus not reach a level of fluency.

Constantino (1999) suggests that interlanguage theory has implications for classroom assessment as well. She recommends a consideration of the role of developmental stages in students. Instead of following prescribed curriculum goals, schools should allow students to develop according to their own pace. As well, errors should be viewed as attempts by students to make meaning and not as deficiencies. In essence, the student assessment profile needs to become more individualized, such that students are compared to their own performances, rather than to mandated performance norms.

Multi-dimensional Model: Pienemann (1988) also contends that acquisition of grammatical structures is unchanged by instruction. His research pointed to four stages of learning: (1) canonical word order (the learner keeps elements in a sentence in XYZ order without alteration), (2) adverb preposing (the learner begins to move adverbs to the beginnings of sentences), (3) particle shift (the learner can split a past participle from its auxiliary), and (4) subject-verb inversion (Van Patten, 1992).

Pienemann believes that instruction is only beneficial if the content is matched to the current stage of development of the student, called the **learnability hypothesis**. Teaching a structure from stage 4 has no benefit if the learner is at stage 2, and that teaching a rule at a stage far too advanced for the learner can even cause the learner to retreat to a previous stage, referred to as the **teachability hypothesis** (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1981). Elements of language development that vary by individual, such as vocabulary or copula, can be successfully facilitated by instruction at any time (Ellis, 1994).

Coupled with acquisition order is a factor concerned with social acculturation, or segregative/integrative orientation (Ellis, 1994), in which student regard of the target language culture is positively correlated with language development. This dimension is thought to account for the individualistic variations in the facility of

simplification strategies employed by the learner (Ellis, 1994). Pienemann and Johnston (1987) admit that the effect of this factor is much less consistent in its effect, due to what they claim as the complexity of human nature. In any case, instruction is seen as improving the rate of acquisition of the universal stages, but it cannot change the route of development (Long and Robinson, 1996).

The impact on classroom teaching practice is remarkably similar to that of the audio-lingual regimen: the teacher is responsible to take note of prescriptive findings of researchers about acquisition order, and to dutifully import this information into their syllabus design. Their job in the classroom is to monitor student performance, providing feedback and error correction. The main differences as manifest in teaching practice lie in at least two areas:

1. the narrower focus the teacher takes concerning grammar input, tying a focus on forms to the developmental stage of the student in order to enhance the rate of acquisition; and
2. the greater burden placed on the teacher to avoid retarding the development of students by teaching the stages out of order.

Cognitive Code Approach: Comprehension-based

Lightbown and Spada (1993) consider the work of Krashen to be the most influential approach within the creative construction paradigm, where Celce-Murcia (1991) has placed it in a new " comprehension-based" category, distinguishing it apart from the Chomskyan family of cognitive code approaches. The position taken by Celce-Murcia (1991) is the one I have adopted here for two reasons. First, error correction in Krashen' approach has a much less prominent role, to the point of irrelevancy. Second, Selinker and Chomsky both see the social act of negotiating for meaning as important for the development of interlanguage, but Krashen proposes a purely internal processing strategy for communicative input that operates without output demands, as noted by Lightbown and Spada (1993). Thus, while Krashen' approach still qualifies as mentalist, the role of the learner and relative contribution of instruction to SLA are thought to be sufficiently different to necessitate the creation of an additional mentalist sub-category.

Input Hypothesis: Krashen, building on the findings of Dulay and Burt that not all errors are caused by L1 transfer in CAH, proposed what has come to be called the **non-interface position**, based on the premise that instruction has no effect on the formation of the internal syllabus. Connected with this is the **zero option**, described by Ellis (1997, 47) as abandoning grammar teaching " in favor of creating opportunities for natural language use of the kind found in untutored settings". In truth, it is difficult to know at times what Krashen's position is. A quote from Krashen et al (1978, 260) finds him saying that "formal instruction is a more efficient way of learning English than trying to learn it in the streets."

In the **Natural Approach** (Krashen and Terrell, 1983), the ideal teacher is highly proficient (preferably native) who provides an input-rich environment for

the students. The aim of teaching grammar is not to convert learning into acquisition, but to enable the students to understand better in order to get more input. That is, learning does not become acquisition, but it aids acquisition by making input more comprehensible.

Correcting form-based grammar mistakes is not only useless but also harmful. Especially at the beginning level, student production is full of mistakes. According to Ellidokuzoglu (1997), dealing only with meaning errors is sufficient. If a teacher corrects both meaning and form errors then students will feel offended and hesitate to speak in class. This classroom tension is the kind of atmosphere to avoid, according to Krashen' **affective filter hypothesis** (Krashen, 1985). Celce-Murcia (1991) suggests that, according to the approach, learners will eventually correct their own errors as they gain experience in the target language.

An application of the Natural Approach is given in Ellidokuzoglu' (1997) summary of her EFL school. She notes that in an ESL class the main source of input is from a native speaker. In a foreign context without a native speaker, the main source of input is authentic material. The teacher' primary role is to check students' comprehension and provide reading and listening materials, while students may remain silent for long periods of time.

More or less consistently, Krashen rejects the use of both planned and unplanned intervention (Ellis, 1994, 653), since acquisition for him depends on the development of implicit knowledge. This is only possible when the learner' attention is focused on meaning rather than forms, and best accomplished by the students themselves. Formal instruction is only helpful for learners who cannot process information that is too complex for them in the real-life domain (McLaughlin, 1987). Thus, it is incumbent upon teachers to enable their students to become independent learners who can regulate their own input through more efficient conversational management (Krashen, 1985).

Interactionistic Approach

Interaction Hypothesis: Mike Long agrees with Krashen' idea of comprehensible input as being essential for language learning, but disagrees with him on the role that instruction plays in the process. Long and Robinson (1996) suggest that adult learners need extra help from teachers to make problematic features of their produced language more salient. As well, a naturalistic approach is seen as being inefficient, since instruction they feel has been shown to improve the rate of acquisition.

Long and Robinson (1996, 17ff) are also dissatisfied with Selinker's Interlanguage because it treats language learning as a "sequential categorical mastering of items", causing the syllabus and pedagogical materials to be linguistic, and these do not represent an active enough role for the learner.

Instead, they propose a **focus on form**, where grammar for meaning or grammar in use is more salient than grammar as a discrete knowledge domain to be

taught and tested one item at a time – a **focus on forms** (Ellis, 1994). Thus, the **Interaction Hypothesis** posits that learning form occurs through negotiation of meaning. What makes the learning comprehensible is that learners are led to notice the mismatch between their language and the target language in the process of communicating (Long and Robinson, 1996).

Long and Robinson (1996) suggest that instructional intervention plays a key role to encourage L2 development in at least three ways. First, the provision of problem-solving tasks which include a higher frequency of some semantic or lexical item (such as ~ed past tense) have a higher probability of being noticed by the learner. This kind of intervention makes the grammar points more salient without being explicit, hence a focus on meaning rather than form that is more efficient than the Natural Approach. Second, the teacher has a critical role as monitor. As the students are engaged in group-oriented tasks, the teacher may notice recurring errors in student language patterns and brings their attention to this error. This process is called **explicit negative feedback**, and is thought to be useful when students require it in order to make communication meaningful (i.e., need for use is equated with receptivity of instruction). Third, **implicit negative feedback** may also be used. This refers to the recasting of statements by teachers of students' incorrect language productions. It is thought that if the recast preserves the intended meaning of the students' language utterance, the likelihood of students noticing the corrected input is increased.

The classroom, then, is a kind of greenhouse that concentrates the frequency of certain language features within meaningful (ie communication-based) contexts in order to increase their saliency (Lightbown and Spada, 1993). The distinguishing feature of classroom activity is one of genuine dialogue, where students' efforts at making meaning are scaffolded by the teacher, suggesting a "say what you mean, mean what you say" approach (Lightbown and Spada, 1993).
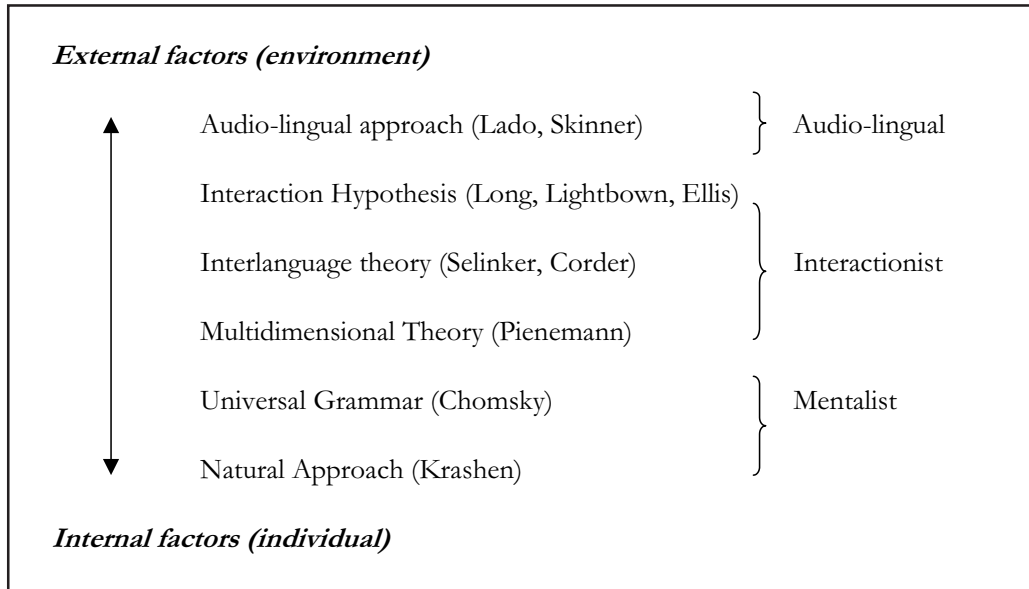
DISCUSSION

It might be possible to place the theories discussed on a continuum of internal/external language learning locus of control. Figure 1 offers one attempt at such a model.

Generally, within the mentalist approaches, the order of grammar acquisition is seen as primary, constraining the usefulness of instruction. Krashen's zero option qualifies his approach as the most internally-oriented. There is very little to choose between the positions of Chomsky and Krashen. Proceeding towards the external factor end, the approaches give more and more attention to the value that communication with others has on making input comprehensible. Thus, Pienemann concedes that instruction can enhance the rate of acquisition.

Selinker's interaction theory is a little difficult to place. He sees language acquisition arising from meaningful communication, and his target of communicative competence could put him into the interactionist paradigm. What keeps him

in the mentalist paradigm is his insistence of a sequential attention to grammar acquisition orders in syllabus design, as noted by Long and Robinson (1996).

FIGURE 1. CONTINUUM OF INTERNAL/EXTERNAL LANGUAGE LEARNING LOCUS OF CONTROL

External factors (environment)

Audio-lingual approach (Lado, Skinner) } Audio-lingual

Interaction Hypothesis (Long, Lightbown, Ellis)

Interlanguage theory (Selinker, Corder) } Interactionist

Multidimensional Theory (Pienemann)

Universal Grammar (Chomsky) } Mentalist

Natural Approach (Krashen)

Internal factors (individual)

The interactionists view language learning as a balance between the social context and internal cognition. Individuals learn by making meaning with others in social contexts. This interaction is thought to increase the salience of various language features that defer to individual developmental stages.

Finally, the audio-lingual approach views the environment and instruction as being all-important, where input is equal to output. The approach traditionally gave little to the idea of individual variation or how individuals processed information. Individuals respond similarly to instructional stimuli, and language learning is a matter of developing habits; that is, learning through contrastive analysis the relative similarities and differences between L1 and L2.

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Computers & Language Learning

Language Corpora on Computer and Dictionaries on CD-ROM

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Abstract

In recent years, second language acquisition has shifted its focus from written language to spoken language; from classroom language and made-up texts to real world language and authentic texts; from passive, receptive, teacher-centred, and book-based methods to active, transmissive, learner-centred, and technology-based methods; from a sentence-level or grammatical focus to a word-level or lexical focus; and from grammatical accuracy to communicative fluency.

The increasing use of computers, language corpora, and dictionaries on CD-ROM reflect and facilitate many of these trends. This paper will discuss some of the ways in which these techno-logical developments are changing our ideas about language, our language learning and teaching methods, and the relationship between students and teachers. All who work with language, as learners or as professionals, need to embark on a steep learning curve in order to maximize the benefits of the current corpus-based linguistic research, classroom experimentation, and software developments.

INTRODUCTION

The greatest single impact on teaching and learning, as on most aspects of our lives, has come from the rapid spread of computer technology. The latest developments show an increasing convergence of several modes of communication. Mobile phones now offer not only interactive conversation, but also text messaging, radio, email and web access. Digital television also provides email and other Internet facilities. Digital cameras and webcams are replacing conventional cameras. The videocassette is being superseded by the DVD. You can use your computer to make phone calls, download your favourite music, listen to the radio, watch television, or see films.

However, the psychological effect of computers is different on teachers and on students. Many teachers are still rather nervous of the new technology. Understandably. Many of us started with blackboard and chalk and this still remains the main classroom tool. We lived through the language lab era, and now we are expected to cope with computers. Insufficient computer training is provided to most teachers, and we need more time to get used to the new tools and techniques. On the other hand, many of our students are highly "computerate," enjoy using computers, and are eager to learn new skills and methods. Teachers can therefore

use their students' knowledge and enthusiasm to bridge any gaps in their own computer abilities.

LANGUAGE CORPORA ON COMPUTER

Language corpora on computer are now widely available for many languages (http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~barlow/corpus.html). Corpora offer the benefits of student-centred, technology-based learning, using authentic texts. The use of corpora in language learning and teaching, pioneered by such people as Tim Johns of Birmingham University (see Data-Driven Learning at http://web.bham.ac.uk/johnstf/), was taken up by CALL practitioners. A websearch for "Corpora in Computer Assisted Language Learning" yielded 2720 hits, with many references to articles in journals, special issues of journals, university courses, and various organizations and conferences.

The TALC (Teaching and Language Corpora) conference, held in Lancaster, UK 1996; Oxford, UK 1998; and Graz, Austria 2000 (see www.comp.lancs.ac.uk/computing/research/ucrel/talc), will take place in Bertinoro, Italy in 2002 (see http://www.sslmit.unibo.it/talc/). The call for papers says: "Corpora of authentic language together with sophisticated concordancing software for analyses provide a new paradigm not only for linguistic research but also for many forms of language teaching. Teachers and students no longer have to rely on the intuitions of prescriptive theorists but with the help of corpora can inductively draw their own conclusions: a highly desirable goal in the age of 'learner autonomy'." The list of themes includes: language teaching/language learning, language awareness raising, teaching languages for specific purposes, student-centered linguistic investigation, translation studies, teaching literature, and cultural and historical studies. The PALC (Practical Applications in Language Corpora) conference held at the University of Lodz in Poland in 1997, 1999 and 2001 also includes teaching among its interests (http://www.uni.lodz.pl/pelcra/palc.htm): "The general topic of the conference is the relationship between language corpora and their uses in a range of language and linguistic fields. Our aim is to provide a forum for practical exemplifications of language corpora (written and spoken) in action and a forum for fruitful interaction between scholars. Hopefully, such a conference will act as a stimulus to teaching, and to scholarly and critical research." In 2000, Michael Barlow set up the CLLT newsgroup (Corpus Linguistics and Language Teaching; http://listserv.linguistlist.org/archives/cllt.html) for people interested in using corpora in language teaching.

Since the first major corpus was created at Brown University in the 1960s, corpus sizes have increased from 1 million words to several hundred million words (http://www.cobuild.collins.co.uk/). As well as general language corpora, there are variety-specific corpora (American English, British English, Indian English, etc); domain-specific corpora of business, legal, and medical texts; and corpora of learner texts and translated texts. Until recently, such corpora were only available

to dictionary publishers, university researchers, computer programmers and other experts. Now many of these corpora are publicly available. The spread of computers and the arrival of the Internet also means that it is much easier to create personal corpora, which can be analysed and investigated with user-friendly software (e.g. Wordsmith Tools http://www.liv.ac.uk/~ms2928/index.htm and Monoconc http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~barlow/mono.html). This means that teachers can easily access corpora, and can introduce corpus data to their students.

For the past twenty years, evidence from corpora has helped to reshape and improve our views about language: which words are most commonly used, how are they used, who uses them, what are their commonest collocates, grammatical patterns and contexts. Many of our previous intuitions about language have been shown to be inaccurate. Corpus methodology is research-oriented, and requires a shift away from traditional prescriptive and deductive teaching practices ("This is the rule. Memorize it. Here are some examples. Now apply the rule to create your own sentences"). Instead, we may follow a different procedure: "You are interested in this word or phrase. Look carefully at the context in which you have just come across it. Now let us look in the corpus. Firstly, is the word or phrase common enough that we should devote time and energy to studying it? If so, let us look at some more examples of the same word or phrase used in other contexts in various texts. What type of text does it occur in? Is it used more in British or American English? In speech or in writing? In formal or informal texts? What type of sentence does it occur in? What grammatical patterns can you notice? What are the main collocates of the word or phrase." This type of inductive process, allowing the students to discover the behaviour patterns of the word or phrase for themselves, can make the learning process both more enjoyable and more psychologically effective.

I obtained these concordance lines (examples) for the word *perish* from the free trial available at a corpus website (http://www.cobuild.collins.co.uk/form.html#democonc):

```
 millions of Germans who would surely perish.21 [p] Dwight began to dwell on the
         had to adapt to the new world or perish. [p] Shinto became the state
  it will become cold, vegetation will perish, and the people will be in fear. If
   f] Othello: [f] Ay, let her rot and perish, and be damned tonight, for she
     N BLAZE HORROR [/h] Four children perish as kitchen bin fire spreads through
       have descended. But most of them perish as swamps are drained, grasslands
    of God whether she would prefer to perish for ever, or to face the world
          behind (as all could not go to perish for their crimes [f] When your
      along with their families, would perish from the bullets and flames that
 people and for the people, shall not perish from the earth", 1863.  [p] [h]
    Because young plants can so easily perish if delayed in transit, we regret
 we are conquered, then let the earth perish! If we can't live as we like, then
     [p] [h] BRIEFS [/h] [h] Children perish in tragic house fire [/h] Six young
   pride and cool my blood [p] Lest I perish in the flood. [p] Lest a hidden
```

```
   many more millions suffer or even perish in the aftermath, would there still
   of Jewish power. It is not we who perish in the struggle." Mosley again
to their father last night.  [h] 45 perish in coach crash [/h] [p] A SPEEDING
        without thinking, they would perish in flame. Then, while I watched,
    with their gospel of convert or perish. In turn, those seamen of the Main
     each to commit a daily crime or perish in agony. [p] Our hero escaped
born stoic. Otherwise, he will soon perish. Justin Thomas, the Wales full
   competitive world of 'publish or perish" known as higher education. The
  ill that I thought I was going to perish on the spot. Nausea made me retch.
 his options. He could press on and perish, or cut and run. If he turned back,
 t live as we like, then let us all perish She scrubbed at the tears again. '
are not alluded to by polite people Perish such an impolite thought. No, dear
  far as his parents knew.  Perhaps, perish the thought, he even felt some sort
by mothers on behalf of their sons. Perish the thought, but could we
   unceremoniously removed its head. Perish the thought that any Jain ever
    a refuge for the intelligentsia, perish the word! Now that the network is
to detect whether fruit is about to perish. The Leicester developers have yet
p] More power for the trade unions? Perish the thought! Whenever anyone
     is waiting.  [p] Not fighting. Perish the unseemly thought. But certainly
 the eyezone; the edgings and even, perish the thought, polka dots. And the
in the good years that the land not perish through the famine" to come. And
  from the late 1960s. What did not perish was Catholic control. The church
        that may, no, [f] must [f] perish with them as well (and for that
 looks absurdly delicate, doomed to perish with much of the very worst weather
   bread enough and to spare, and I perish with hunger! I will arise and go to
```

The features that we notice immediately are: (a) *perish* is a verb. (b) The typical subject of the verb is people: Germans who would surely perish; Four children perish; she would prefer to perish; Children perish; I perish; we who perish; he will soon perish; etc. (c) The subject can also be plants: vegetation will perish; young plants can so easily perish; fruit is about to perish. (d) There are several examples of *perish in*, which seem to indicate the cause or location: perish in tragic house fire; perish in the flood; perish in the aftermath; perish in the struggle; perish in coach crash; perish in flame. (e) There are several examples of a phrase *perish the thought* (with some variations: Perish such an impolite thought; Perish the unseemly thought; and perhaps also perish the word!). (f) There are some clues that the word is old-fashioned. One example is a quote from Shakespeare: Othello: [f] Ay, let her rot and perish, and be damned tonight. And another quotation is dated 1863: people and for the people, shall not perish from the earth", 1863. (g) There are several references to religion: Shinto, God, Jewish, gospel, Catholic. (h) Some examples are clearly from newspaper headlines or articles:

```
IN BLAZE HORROR [/h] Four children perish as kitchen bin fire spreads through
   [p] [h] BRIEFS [/h] [h] Children perish in tragic house fire [/h] Six young
 to their father last night.  [h] 45 perish in coach crash [/h] [p] A SPEEDING
```

Such observations will inevitably lead to further questions: (a) do the other verb forms (i.e. *perishes, perishing, perished*) share the same features? (b) We have seen examples of people and plants as subjects. Do animals also occur as the subject? (c) Other subjects include `the earth` and `the land`, which we might just about include as "living things", but there are more abstract subjects: `Catholic control`. Are abstract subjects common? (d) *perish* seems to be an intransitive verb. So what is the grammar of the phrase *perish the thought*?

The advantage of consulting a corpus in this way is that the student immediately experiences many more authentic examples of an unfamiliar word; encounters a range of text types; is exposed to the language as a whole, involving vocabulary, grammar, and textual features. If teachers and students gain full access to a corpus (rather than the free trial shown above), or create their own corpus, they will be able to see other types of information, and more details. For example, if the teacher or student wanted to know which other forms of *perish* are worth studying or teaching, they could look at a corpus frequency list:

perished	905
perish	673
perishable	245
perishing	110
perisher	58
perishes	39
perishables	25
perishability	11
perishers	7
perishingly	1
perishin	1
perishableness	1
perishab	1

This would suggest that the verb forms *perished, perish, perishing* and *perishes* are worth learning (but note that although the third person present tense form is usually considered to be important for morphological reasons, with many verbs it is actually the least commonly used form). The form *perishable* is also important; *perisher* may not be familiar, so should at least be investigated; *perishables* may be included if *perishable* is found to occur frequently as a noun; *perishability* is probably not worth separate attention; *perishers* may be included if *perisher* is included; the remaining forms are too rare and not worth any attention at all. A quick look at the corpus shows that *perishable* does not occur as a noun, so *perishables* becomes a candidate for omission; 55 out of 58 examples for *perisher*

occur in proper names (Perisher Valley, the Perisher Centre, etc) referring to a ski centre in Australia, so can definitely be omitted.

Frequency lists can also be used to extract sets of words with the same prefixes or suffixes, which can be used to study word formation. For example, there are 461 words beginning with *hyper-*, and 4015 words ending in *–ness*:

hypertension	771
hyperactive	721
hyperbole	512
hyperactivity	344
hyperinflation	337
hypermarkets	176
hypermarket	174
hypertext	169
hypersensitive	136
hyperbolic	120

business	167046
illness	15273
fitness	11821
witness	11578
awareness	9423
consciousness	8797
darkness	7424
happiness	7031
weakness	6941
madness	5011

Many corpus software systems also include grammar and collocation tools for more advanced analyses. For example, one can easily obtain separate examples for the verb *present* and the noun *present*:

```
VB okesman said the guerrillas would present a cease-fire proposal during the
VB r licence. If you don't, you must present it to a police station within 48
VB   centre at which John Major will present a total of 224 such awards has not
VB n a low kick that did not seem to present any obvious danger. Kris Radlinski
```

```
NN   im for my birthday. It's the best present ever." <p> Just like all the other
NN   roline Kennedy's pony Macaroni, a present from Lyndon Johnson, and her dog
NN    in production, with the first at present being repeated by BBC2.
NN   the past, and then returns to the present in the last paragraph. Why does
NN    is a letter to thank you for the present you sent me. Mum says I got to
```

These can be presented with or without the part-of-speech labels at the beginning of the line, and can be used in various grammar exercises. A list of collocates for any word can also be obtained easily. Here are some of the commonest collocates of the word *friendly: a, and, user, with, environmentally, very, against, more, fire, atmosphere, family, warm, service, are, eco*. Further investigation will yield typical units such as *warm and friendly*, *friendly and helpful*, *user-friendly*, *become friendly with, environmentally friendly, a friendly* (sports match) *against, friendly fire, a friendly atmosphere, family-friendly, friendly service* and so on.

DICTIONARIES ON CD-ROM

Corpora and corpus software may require some initial experimentation or training, before being used successfully by teachers and students. Dictionaries on the other hand are familiar to all of us. But computer technology has also made a great impact on dictionaries. Many dictionaries are now available online. A websearch for "Online Dictionaries" returned nearly 200,000 hits; http://www.yourdictionary.com/ offers hundreds of dictionaries, grammars, and other language reference works, including specialist dictionaries for technical terms. However although online dictionary websites may allow you to consult several reference works, the problem is that you can usually only search for information about one word at a time. Some sites require you to subscribe.

Having a dictionary on CD-ROM allows you to make other kinds of searches and analyses. A websearch for "Dictionaries on CD-ROM" yielded over 125,000 hits. In a survey conducted during a research project at Wolverhampton University (http://www.wlv.ac.uk/select/), reviews of dictionaries on CD-ROM included such comments as: "it covers more than a printed EFL dictionary (e.g. grammar, pronunciation, error analysis); it has multimedia facilities (audio and video); all the elements are interconnected; you can use the dictionary within a word-processor and copy text directly to the clipboard; when you do a headword search, you get all the related phrasal verbs, derivatives, and compounds; you can do a full text search, for example you can find all the dictionary examples which contain the search word; illustrations have "hot spots", so as you move the mouse, the words for the items in the pictures are displayed; you can click on a word and hear the pronunciation." Many dictionaries on CD-ROM also have games: crosswords, phrase-blaster, phrase-finder, memory tests, etc.

In general, the reviewers agreed that dictionaries on CD-ROM were "suitable for teachers and learners, from beginners to researchers", and that they "can be used by learners without much computer experience". They provided "more than

enough information for most students, and gave teachers an instant language resource". Here is just one example of how useful a dictionary on CD-ROM can be. I typed the word *page* in the search box, and was immediately shown the dictionary entry with 7 definitions, beginning with:

> **1 page pages**
> A **page** is one side of one of the pieces of paper in a book, magazine, or newspaper. Each page usually has a number printed at the top or bottom.
> *Where's your book? Take it out and turn to page 4.*
> *...the front page of the Guardian.*
> *...1,400 pages of top-secret information.*
> N-COUNT: oft N num

I clicked on the headword, and listened to its pronunciation. I clicked on a word in one of the definitions (just as a student might not fully understand all the words in a definition), and was shown the definitions for that word. I clicked on one of the words in a dictionary example and was again shown the definitions for that word. I clicked on the grammar and was given a short explanation.

As well as the dictionary entry, I was shown 5 other relevant headwords in the dictionary: *front-page, full-page, web page, White Pages, Yellow Pages.* I was also told that the abbreviation for *page* was 'p' and the plural was 'pp' (and not 'ps' as I might have assumed). One more click, and I could see the other definitions in the dictionary which mentioned *page*, in the entries for *after, applet, banner headline, bind, bookmark, centrefold, column, cont., cross out, dog-eared, flick, flip, footnote, frontispiece, heading, leaf through, overleaf, pop-up, ring binder, spine,* and *URL*. For example:

> **9 after**
> If one thing is written **after** another thing on a page, it is written following it or underneath it.
> *I wrote my name after Penny's at the bottom of the page.*

Another click showed me 1060 more examples containing the word *page*, from different headword entries in the dictionary:

> **blank:** *He tore a blank page from his notebook.*
> **flick:** *I'll just flick through the pages until I find the right section.*
> **foot:** *A single word at the foot of a page caught her eye.*
> **skim:** *He skimmed the pages quickly, then read them again more carefully.*
> **turn:** *To order, turn to page 236.*
> **turn:** *He turned the pages of a file in front of him.*

Yet another click allowed me to see words with similar meanings to *page* in a thesaurus section:

page	noun:	folio, leaf, sheet, side
	noun:	attendant, pageboy, servant, squire
	verb:	call, send for, summon

CONCLUSION

Language corpora on computer and dictionaries on CD-ROM both offer teachers and students many opportunities to gain rapid access to vast amounts of information about words, their forms, their meanings, their collocates, and their typical usage contexts.

Standard corpus software tools allow users to check spellings and variations (e.g. British and American), to check whether items are important to learn or not, and to discover the main grammatical patterns and collocations. They raise the users' language awareness, expose them to a lifetime of language experience while focussing on specific words and phrases, and allow them to find things out in their own way and at their own pace. Perhaps more should be done to make corpus access user-friendly. Certainly, more training and guidance will be necessary before corpora are regularly and more widely used.

Dictionaries on CD-ROM offer a more traditional range of information, but they are much more powerful than the printed versions, because of the different ways of searching, and because they can use hotlinks, instead of the user having to constantly turn from one dictionary page to another in order to check other items or to follow cross-references. They provide teachers with an immediate source of teaching materials. However, it is clear that both students and teachers need more training in dictionary use as well. Very few of them understand how much information there is, even in their printed EFL dictionaries.

Corpora and CD-ROMs are part of the new computer technology that is reshaping the relationship between teachers and students. Students are encouraged to become researchers, and teachers become facilitators and supervisors. All of us who work with language, as learners or as professionals, need to embark on the learning curve which will help us to maximize the benefits of computer technology. Teachers must overcome their fears, and students must be enabled to participate in classroom experimentation. We need to do this now, because further rapid changes are taking place, and we cannot afford to miss out.

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Designing a Syllabus for a *Current English* Course and Its Implementation in a College

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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews literature on curriculum and syllabus, syllabus and methodology, and the Internet used as source of content, then suggests a syllabus design for a course entitled Current English. The syllabus rationale includes objectives, teaching methods, materials, procedures, and lesson planning. Feedback from students who responded to a questionnaire at the end of the semester is also presented. The results of the survey show that most of the students of the Current English course think that the articles frequently updated on the Internet are very effective as authentic materials for EFL classes. These articles can attract students' attention to both the current issues as well as the English language itself. In the process of using and surfing the Internet, students can discover that they are able to read and understand articles written in English and that they are able to find information and to discuss that information with peers. Through Internet surfing, students learn skills that they will need and use throughout their college years and after graduation.

INTRODUCTION

Using the computer for teaching and learning English is no longer novel. Most English teachers (including the author) believe that the Internet is one of the most effective sources of authentic English in Korea, where English is used as a foreign language rather than a second language. The frequency with which online information can be updated and the wide range of useful English resources available on the Internet can empower English teachers to develop better courses intended to enhance students' knowledge of and ability to deal with authentic English.

In order to develop state-of-the-art syllabuses, English teachers should consider some basic elements. Teachers should consider taking at least three steps when preparing to design syllabuses for any specific course: assessing student needs; examining instructional constraints (time, class size, materials, physical factors); and determining needs, attitudes, and aptitudes of individual students (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

In the next section, the basic concepts of curriculum and syllabus will first be briefly reviewed in order to distinguish between curriculum and syllabus in terms of terminology and function. Regarding the Internet used as materials for the course, the author will review several cases. Then, the author will outline the syllabus

design process undertaken for a college course entitled Current English, which drew upon online articles as resource materials. Feedback from students who attended the class and responded to a questionnaire with their opinions regarding the syllabuses, course objectives, teaching method, and their own purposes for the study of current affairs in English will be presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Regarding the terms "syllabus" and "curriculum," there has been some confusion within the literature. Candlin (1984) gives us a rather good distinction between the two. The latter, he writes, is concerned with making general statements about language learning, language purpose and experience, evaluation, and the role of relationships of teachers and learners. The former is more localized and is based on accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation. The field of curriculum study is a large and complex one. It is important that all elements of the curriculum development process be integrated, so that decisions made at one level are not in conflict with those made at another. The curriculum design processes, which include curriculum research and development, curriculum implementation, and curriculum evaluation, are cyclic and ongoing in order to ensure that language programs are as effective and adaptable to changing circumstances as possible.

Approaches to syllabus design could roughly be classified as either broad approaches or narrow approaches. Stern (1984, p. 11) views "syllabus" in its broader meaning as being concerned with the "how" and "who" of establishing the curriculum. Yalden (1984, p. 14) also views syllabus from a broader perspective through the concept of "method." The broad view of syllabus does not draw a distinction between "syllabus" and "methodology."

With narrow approaches to syllabus design, a syllabus is seen as being concerned with the selection and grading of content, while methodology is concerned with the selection of learning tasks and activities. Widdowson (1984, p. 26) defines "syllabus" as simply a framework within which activities can be carried out: a teaching device to facilitate learning.

In the above, the difference between "curriculum" and "syllabus" is that the former contains general goals by indicating the overall educational-cultural philosophy, while the latter is a more detailed statement of language teaching and learning elements, which translates the philosophy of curriculum into a series of planned steps leading toward more narrowly defined objectives at each level. As for the functions of syllabus and methodology, there exists a distinction between them, in their narrow views: a syllabus is concerned with the selection and grading of content ("what" is to be taught), while methodology is concerned with the selection of learning tasks and activities ("how" it is to be taught).

The Internet, used as a tool for content study, according to Kasper (1998, p. 3), is a powerful resource that offers easier, wider, and more rapid access to diverse information than do traditional libraries. Kasper used the Internet as the source of content for her two-year college students' classes focused on effectively developing rhetoric skills and research skills. By allowing easy access to cross-referenced documents and screens, the Internet encourages students to read widely on diverse topics and enables them to build a wide range of schemata and a broader base of knowledge, which may help them grasp future texts.

Kasper also argued in her recent book, *Content Based College ESL Instruction* (2002), that the Internet has emerged "as a prominent new technology with great potential for educational use, especially in the area of content-based ESL instruction" (Singhal, 1977). The electronic resources made available through Internet technology present students, at the click of a mouse, with a diverse collection of authentic English texts dealing with a wide array of interdisciplinary topics." Willett (1997), Muehleisen (1997), and Singhal (1997) mentioned the great potentiality of the Internet, by exposing students to a wider range of English and by engaging students in an interactive learning experience.

Regarding the issue of incorporating the Internet and computer technology into a ESL course Woodlief (1997), Hanley (1994) and Caprio (1994) discovered that incorporating the Internet into a ESL course had highly positive effects on both learning and instruction from their research concerned with this area. Woodlief (1997) also argued that "as students become more comfortable surfing the Internet, they discover that it is a vast resource that can be used to develop not only content area knowledge, but also linguistic proficiency."

A Syllabus for the Current English Course

The following is the outline of a syllabus for Current English, an English course at a Korean college. The course is worth two credits and meets for two hours a week. There are currently three classes of approximately 30 students (English majors) in each class. Syllabus here is viewed in its broader meaning as "an instrument by which the teacher can achieve a degree of 'fit' between the needs and aims of the learner and activities that will take place in the classroom" (Yalden 1984, p. 14).

Objectives

1. To help students comprehend news and information in English available through the Internet.
2. To help students obtain factual and diverse information in English from the Internet and use this information for a variety of purposes.
3. To empower students by improving their ability to obtain information in English precisely and quickly with the intention of aiding them in becoming global citizens.

4. To motivate students to continue learning English through the Internet outside the classroom and after graduation.
5. To encourage students to discuss and give presentations on topics of interest within subgroups.

Methodology

The Eclectic method, or the mixed method, is applied for the Current English course. Regarding teaching methods, there is no one method immutable, universal, and eternal for teaching (Celce-Mucia, 1991). Using an Eclectic method, teachers can incorporate various ideas into their teaching. Some principles and useful techniques chosen from various teaching methods, including Cooperative Language Learning, Grammar-Translation, and the Communicative Approach, were applied to the Current English class to make the class more efficient.

RESOURCES AND MATERIALS

Articles available on the Internet in English are used as materials. No commercial textbooks were chosen as materials for this class. With the ease of access to computers and the Internet, students can easily search Internet sites. Some websites frequently visited for this class are the following:

http://www.cnn.com	http://www.time.com
http://www.koreaherald.com	http://www.yahoo.com
http://www.koreatimes.co.kr	http://www.lycos.com
http://www.empas.com	http://www.daum.net
http://www.naver.com	http://www.bbc.co.uk
http://www.intizen.com	http://www.netscape.com
http://www.washingtonpost.com	

Procedures

At the Beginning of the Semester

The syllabuses are distributed to the students at the beginning of the class. Students make teams of 5-6 members and select a leader for each team. Every member of the team must search Internet media sites of interest and print out a controversial and interesting article each week. Students are first introduced to major media sites such as CNN, *The Korea Herald*, *The Korea Times*, *Time*, and *Newsweek*, and then are encouraged to search for more media sites later. Each team, in a team discussion period outside the classroom, must choose one article per week, which will be fully translated into Korean in order to show that they comprehend the chosen article, and kept in a personal file for submission. Each member of a team must take turns writing a final summary of the chosen article and giving presentations on their chosen articles in the classroom.

In the Middle of the Semester

The progress of each team is checked at the beginning of each class, and each team is encouraged to remain active and committed. A weekly "hot issue" chosen by the professor is distributed to the students in class. Students are asked to read the article aloud and mark vocabulary and phrases they do not understand. Students are recommended to attempt to understand the meaning of the article paragraph by paragraph. Individual files in which weekly chosen articles and their Korean version are filed must be submitted a week before mid-term exams. At least one presentation must be given to classmates by each team representative before mid-term exams. Lectures on the weekly "hot issue" are conducted in the latter part of a class period for about 20 minutes.

At the End of the Semester

Before the final exams, one more presentation is given to classmates by each team leader, and individual files must be resubmitted. Team leaders submit attendance sheets for team meetings and assessments of the degree of involvement in the team discussion process outside of the classroom. The members of each team get approximately the same points for the file task, but full attendees in the team discussion session and presentation givers get bonus points.

Assessment of the Current English Course

Assessment of the course consists of a mid-term and a final written test (40%), a file (the submitted article collection) 40%, and attendance (20%). Cooperative work among each team member was strongly recommended.

Lesson Plan

1. Warm-up: 5 minutes (attention getters: weather, date, etc.)
2. Checking team projects: 10 minutes
3. Reading through handouts (hot issues of the week): 15 minutes
4. Getting information paragraph by paragraph in small groups: 15 minutes
5. Break: 5-10 minutes
6. Vocabulary guessing by using context clues: 10 minutes
7. Lecture: 15 minutes
8. Discussion in groups: 10-15 minutes
9. Wrap-up: 5-10 minutes

QUESTIONNAIRE

Subjects

The survey questionnaire was developed in 2000 to obtain feedback from the students enrolled in the Current English course that year. Seventy-eight students responded in 2000, and 60 responded in 2001. All respondents were English majors. A total of 138 students answered fifteen questions including four open-ended questions, which sought their opinions on the course. Questions attempted to glean

opinions on syllabus design, objectives, motivation, the value of self-assessment, materials, and teaching method. The following tables show some of the results of the survey questionnaire.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows that a total of 138 students responded to the question "How well was the syllabus planned and carried out as planned?" The students were hopefully familiar with the stated goals of the syllabus as it had been distributed and reviewed in class at the beginning of the semester. The majority (63%) evaluated the syllabus and its implementation positively.

TABLE 1. ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE CURRENT ENGLISH COURSE (N=138)

	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Total
Class of 2000	42 (53%)	33 (42%)	3 (2%)	78
Class of 2001	45 (75%)	15 (25%)	0 (0%)	60
Total	87 (63%)	48 (35%)	3 (2%)	138

The data in Table 1 also show that the students' positive responses to the syllabus for the Current English course of 2001 are 22% higher than those in 2000 (75% in 2001, 53% in 2000). The syllabuses for the course for 2000 and 2001 were the same except for the contents of the specific materials. The materials, for the most part, were selected by the students from the websites listed above.

TABLE 2. ACCESSIBILITY TO THE ARTICLES ON THE INTERNET (N=138)

	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Total
Class of 2000	47 (60%)	23 (30%)	8 (10%)	78
Class of 2001	38 (64%)	17 (28%)	5 (8%)	60
Total	85 (62%)	40 (29%)	13 (9%)	138

Table 2 shows that of 138 students who responded to the question, "Was it easy for you to find articles on the Internet?" only 13 students (9%) found it difficult to search the Internet for articles printed in English. Most students responded to this question related to accessibility to Internet-based materials with positive answers (62% for positive, 29% for neutral). For the majority of the students, computers have most likely been an important part of their lives in this IT-based society. According to the National Statistics Office, Korea topped the US and Canada to hold third place in the number of Internet users per 100 persons in 2001. No doubt, some of the students are very computer savvy.

TABLE 3. EFFECTIVENESS OF THE ARTICLES ON THE INTERNET
IN IMPROVING ENGLISH AWARENESS (N=138)

	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Total
Class of 2000	47 (61%)	27 (34%)	4 (5%)	78
Class of 2001	40 (67%)	19 (31%)	1 (2%)	60
Total	88 (63%)	45 (33%)	5 (4%)	138

Table 3 shows that the majority of the students (more than 60%) had a positive opinion of the materials chosen from the Internet. In order to assess students' perception of the value of articles chosen from the Internet, they were asked: "Were the articles from the Internet helpful and effective in improving your English ability compared to other reading materials such as textbooks?" Despite the rather difficult level of the content, students did not find the 'authentic' English articles taken from the Internet to be frustrating but effective. Perhaps students were able to find background knowledge on the issue in question through other media in Korean and, thus, were able to better understand the articles written in English despite their complexity.

The findings in Table 2 and Table 3 indicate that the respondents were fairly satisfied with the Internet-based materials.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, I reviewed some basic concepts for syllabus design and the Internet resources used as materials for the course, and described an actual syllabus for a Current English course including objectives, teaching method, materials, procedures, and lesson planning along with feedback from students who responded to a questionnaire at the end of the semester.

Regarding an applied syllabus design for Current English and the feedback from the students enrolled in the course, the results of the survey questionnaire show that most of the students of the Current English course think the current and topical articles found on the Internet were very effective as authentic materials for Current English class, reinforcing the author's opinion that the Internet is one of the most effective sources for learning authentic English in Korea, a country in which availability of native English speakers is limited and use of English as a language of international communication amongst citizens of the country is not widespread. The richness of the Internet as a source of information empowers English teachers to design courses that can enhance students' authentic English ability. In addition, a wide range of information on the Internet can attract students' attention and help them become familiar with current issues inside and outside of Korea as well as the English language itself. From the findings of this

study, using Internet resources as materials for a Current English course is highly recommended.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire for 'Current English'
>   Gender: _____   Class: _____

This is an anonymous survey. Do not put your name on this paper.
Please respond to the following questions.

1. How well was the syllabus planned and carried out as planned?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
2. Were the team tasks carried out effectively?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
3. Were the articles from the Internet helpful and effective in improving your English ability compared to other reading materials such as textbooks?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
4. Was it easy for you to find articles on the Internet?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
5. Were you motivated by this class to become more interested in English?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
6. Were group activities outside the class helpful for you to learn English?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
7. Were the articles dealt with in this class difficult for you to understand compared to other reading contents?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
8. What is your reason for choosing the your answer to question 7?

9. How do you like the teaching method (Eclectic method) used in this class?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
10. In general, was this class helpful for you to improve you English?
>   1. Positive   2. Neutral   3.Negative
11. Which skill of English do you think this class helped you improve in particular?
>   1. Vocabulary   2. Grammar   3. Reading comprehension
12. What grade would you like to get if you assess yourself in this class?   And why?

13. What are your comments and suggestions for this class?

14. How much time do you spend a day, on average, using the computer?
15. How much time do you spend a week searching the Internet for this class?

Workshop Reports

The Magic of Memory Techniques (Mnemonics)

ADAM TURNER
Hanyang University

INTRODUCTION

If students don't remember what they have been taught, they have not learned! The implications for the language classroom are dramatic. The ancient Greeks thought memory was so magical they had a goddess of memory, Mnemosyne. We are still enchanted by people who are good at remembering names.

The presenter showed how to apply seven principles of improving memory to language learning. Specifically, Mnemonic (memory) strategies to improve the retention of new vocabulary words, to banish reoccurring spelling errors, and to remember lists of terms were practiced. Feedback was provided on how to improve the effectiveness of the mnemonic images elicited from participants. A handout was also provided with additional information on remembering names, tips on improving memory, and some limitations of mnemonics.

Although understanding of learning has developed recently with awareness of learning styles and mind mapping, memory techniques are still not widely taught.

> We are often tempted to examine learning from the perspective of input alone, failing to consider the uselessness of a learned item that is not retained.

(Brown, 2000)

There has been an increasing focus on learning strategies in TESOL; however, mnemonics are not fully explained in Rebecca Oxford's influential text *Language Learning Strategies*, and there is only a single reference to mnemonic devices in Brown's standard text in TESOL training, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Students using Brown's student guide to learning strategies *Strategies for Success* will find no mention of mnemonics. The presenter has found that, generally, mnemonics have been either insufficiently explained in ESL texts, inaccessible to a wider audience in cognitive psychology texts, or not focused on the language teacher's needs in the popular press.

The presenter has found that, generally, mnemonics have been either insufficiently explained in ESL texts, inaccessible to a wider audience in cognitive psychology texts, or not focused on the language teacher's needs in the popular press.

The purpose of the workshop was to provide teachers with practical memory techniques believed to be effective in the language classroom, and most of all, a chance to practice them.

PROCEDURE

The workshop started with an introduction to the principles of mnemonics adapted from the work of Tony Buzan (1991), who has popularized mnemonic techniques as well as mind mapping. After going over the basic principles (see Appendix), the "Linkword" technique was introduced. In order to practice this technique a selection of Korean words relating to parts of the body were used.

Mori (head)   *pal* (arm)   *dali* (leg)   *bal* (foot)

son (hand)   *son karak* (finger)   *bal karak* (toe)

In order to show exactly how good linkwords are established, mnemonics were elicited from the participants (see Appendix). Potential problems areas were explained as they came up in the process of the workshop. There were two very important points that came up while the linkword technique was being practiced.

The clearer and more dramatic an image is, the more likely it will be remembered.

For example, *bal* means foot in Korean. Imagine kicking a **bal**l with your foot. This example is good, but to make it more effective one could imagine being a member of the Korean team in the World Cup quarterfinals kicking the ball into the goal with your foot and the crowd going wild -- a sea of red shirts in the stadium.

Associating only the sound of the target word is not enough. The sound of the target word must be connected with the meaning. *Son* in Korean sounds like 'son' in English. This is an immediate linkword that comes to mind. However, there is no link to the meaning "hands." Therefore, this would not be a good link unless the image was clearly formed to link the English word "son" with the Korean word *son* (hands). Perhaps a parent could imagine the first time they touched their son's hand.

The participants practiced making linkwords with feedback from the presenter. The reader is invited to try out some of their own. Additional tips and cautions are provided in the Appendix.

There is an ingenious little book called *Demonic Mnemonics*, which is a collection of mnemonics that can be used for remembering commonly misspelled words such as 'misspell'. After the presenter described the method of creating spelling mnemonics, participants were asked to provide some of their own spelling demons. The presenter uses the phrases "**Miss Pell** is a perfect speller" and "All the lines in par**all**el are parallel" to conquer his own (see Appendix).

An interesting point that came out during the workshop was that mnemonics essential for one person may be totally unnecessary for others. A participant was puzzled as to why one might misspell 'separate'. For that person it was not a problem. However, 'separate' is commonly mentioned in lists of words most frequently misspelled. Mnemonics are individual. "There is a **rat** in 'separate'" is a possible solution.

Acronyms were then covered briefly. Acronyms are words made with the initial letter of each word in a list. To practice this method, participants were asked to make an acronym for the seven principles of memory presented at the beginning of the workshop. Participants made acronyms such as MISS PIA. The mnemonic used by the presenter is MISS IPA. Imagine a beauty pageant of Applied Linguists competing for the prize of Miss International Phonetic Alphabet: **M**ovement **I**magery **S**enses **S**tructure **I**magination **P**ositive **A**ssociation.

Participants made *acronyms* such as MISS PIA. The *mnemonic* used by the presenter is MISS IPA.

Although acronyms are familiar to most teachers, many stop using them after high school or do not pass on the study technique to their students. Unfortunately, mnemonics are another example of good practice that is rarely practiced.

Finally, participants were directed to the handout for further suggestions and some tips and information on the limitations of mnemonics. The presenter hopes that the participants felt the playfulness and enjoyment in learning that mnemonic techniques can engender.

An abridged version of the four-page handout given out at the workshop is included in the Appendix.

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<center>APPENDIX</center>

THE MAGIC OF MEMORY TECHNIQUES (MNEMONICS)

"There can be no learning without memory" - Dominic O'Brien

Here are the basic principles behind any mnemonic system. Use them to improve all aspects of your learning. I have adapted this list from the work of Tony Buzan (1991).

1. **Senses** Stimulate your senses to help you remember and create images.
   Vision Hearing Sound Rhythm Smell Taste Touch
2. **Movement** Moving images capture our attention and keep it.
3. **Association** Link something you already know to the new information that you are trying to remember. One will help you remember the other. This is the essence of mnemonic techniques.
4. **Structure** By adding order, number and/or sequence it is easier for the brain to access any piece of information learned.
5. **Imagery** The richer and more personally meaningful the image, the more you use color and symbolism, the more effective it will be. Use concrete, specific images for abstract words.
6. **Positive Images** Use positive images. The brain has a tendency to avoid negative associations.
7. **Imagination** Have fun with your memory and make your images funny, sexy and ridiculous. Exaggeration of size, shape and sound enhance images for memory.

Applications of the Principles of Mnemonics

The Linkword Technique

The LinkWord technique uses the seven principles and an image and sound to link a word in one language with a word in the same or another language.

ADUL **(son) -** Traditionally, in every Korean family the Eldest **son** when he becomes an **ADUL**t must take care of his parents. *DDAL* **(daughter) -** Every Korean family wants a **DARL**ing daughter.

Step 1.. Find something in the new word that reminds you of a sound in a word you already know. Korean ADUL = English ADULt.

Step 2. Make an image, sentence or structure that contains the meaning of the new word.

Imagine the son at the coming of age ceremony (20 years old) telling his father he is an ADULt now. Imagine the son in a beautifully colored Hanbok (Korean Traditional Clothing).

Step 3. Practice, repeat, and use the new word within 24 hours as usual.

Medical students have used mnemonic techniques successfully for years. See http://www.medicalmnemonics.com/ for details.

You can also put the words together in a rich image that shows the meaning of the words. Here is a ridiculous, but effective, example I use.

<center>Korean *ap ae, yop ae, di ae* (in front of, beside, behind)</center>

Imagine you are standing there protecting Cameron **DI**AZ who is behind you from an **AP**E who is in front of you. Beside you is a **YOP**GI rabbit looking on with a bemused expression. The symbol of bizarre culture in Korea is a white rabbit. Those unfamiliar with YOPGI culture could substitute another image.

Spelling

Spelling is probably the easiest and one of the most practical ways to apply mnemonics.

Step 1 Locate the letters that are the source of confusion.

Step 2 Find a word within the word to help you associate the correct spelling.

Step 3 Make a rhyme, image or meaningful sentence containing the target word.

Step 4 Practice using the word in other ways.

* Remember your mnemonic must contain the letters that cause the spelling difficulty.

Learning Names

Apply the techniques of association to remember the names of the students in your class.

Visualize a student who comes into class one day in diapers! She has regressed 20 years. **Gee** she is **young**! (Ji-Young is a common Korean woman's name.)

The Loci Method

The Loci method is another powerful technique that uses a familiar location to place objects or concepts to be remembered. It has been covered with respect to learning English. See http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/pub/tlt/97/apr/mnemon.html.

Some tips to make mnemonics work

· Don't force it. Good mnemonics tend to come suddenly as if there is a eureka moment. If a good mnemonic doesn't come easily then move on to the next word or words to be memorized.

· Mnemonics don't have to be true or accurate. They just have to help you remember the meaning of the target word. Remember that strange, unusual or sexy images or sentences are best. Medical students constantly use them.

· Mnemonics that you generate yourself are more likely to be remembered. Mnemonic phrases that have a special meaning only to yourself are among the best.

· Mnemonics don't always have to be elaborate. I use this to help Korean students remember the meaning of first and last name in English: **LEE** is **LAST**.

Some limitations of mnemonics

· Fear of creativity exists not only among students, but teachers too. Images that are bizarre or sexy are among the most effective, but some learners may be reluctant to form or share such images.

· Associating the sound of words in two different languages to form mnemonic images is no guarantee that the pronunciation will be correct. In fact, it could possibly reinforce incorrect pronunciation. This is one of the reasons mnemonic techniques must be supplemented by regular practice and feedback.

· Some students seem to grasp mnemonics right away while others don't seem to take to it. I have found the same thing with mind mapping. Some students integrate it into all aspects of their life, others don't use it unless told to. It would be interesting to research whether learning styles and/or affective issues cause this.

· Teachers should present their material with greater knowledge of the principles of memory; however, mnemonic devices are most effective when students create their own. Therefore, unmotivated students are unlikely to bother. There are limits to how much a teacher can help, especially if they don't speak the language of their students.

· It may be easier to create mnemonics for languages that contain common roots or have a similar sound system. In the presenter's experience, French to English is easier than Korean to English, especially for multi-syllable words.

Presentations of the

9th Korea TESOL International Conference
The Learning Environment: The Classroom and Beyond
Seoul, Korea, October 13-14, 2001

The Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following people for presenting papers, conducting workshops, and leading discussions at the 9th Korea TESOL International Conference. Listing is in alphabetical order by surname, followed by the title of the session; co-presenters are listed separately.

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Carl Adams   *Making & Exchanging Videos: The Classroom and Beyond*
Keith Adams   *Video for Independent Learning*
Harry Ahn   *Teaching Young Learners*
Lawrence Alter   *How to be Understood*
Chitose Asaoka   *Becoming Autonomous Writers Through Metacognitive Strategies Training*
John Baker   *Dictogloss: Making Dictation Communicative and Fun*
William Balsamo   *International Email Exchanges for the ESL Classroom*
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Tina Carver   *Interactions Mosaic: What's New for You in the 4th Edition*
Tina Carver   *Parachute*
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Elaine Cross   *The Magic of Video*
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David P. Ellis   *Practical Ways to Minimize Teacher Talk Time*
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Andy Finch   *Projects and Portfolios for the Korean Classroom*
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Roger Fusselman   *Cognitive Teaching Techniques*
Chris Gallagher   *Aston University Diploma/M.Sc. in TESOL/TESP*

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Steve Garrigues   *Windows of Language and Culture: Song Lyrics as Language Text*
Steve Gershon   *Tricks of the Trade*
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Trevor Gulliver   *Academic English in Korea: Changing Needs and New Challenges*
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Laksmi Handayani   *Bringing the Learner Back to the Center of Attention*
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