KOTESOL Proceedings 2003

Gateways to Growth: Exploring ELT Resources

Proceedings from the 11th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea, Oct. 18 - 19, 2003

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

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FOREWORD

The 2003 Korea TESOL International Conference, the Association's 11th annual conference, was held at the Seoul Education Training Institute (SETI). The ultra-modern, high-tech SETI facilities and the balmy fall weather made the two-day conference, October 18-19, an especially memorable event. Under the theme of "Gateways to Growth: Exploring ELT Resources," the Conference's plenary addresses were given by Dr. Donald Freeman of the School for International Training, USA (Creating a Framework of Classroom Participation), and Dr. Brian Tomlinson, Leeds Metropolitan University, UK (The Resourceful Teacher: Ways of Helping Teachers to Help Themselves). Featured speakers over the two-day period were Dave's ESL Café chef, David Sperling; TESL methodology guru, Dr. David Nunan; young-learners specialist, Dr. Caroline Linse; TOEFL/TOEIC materials developer, Dr. Lin Lougheed; and speaking and listening materials developer, Marc Helgesen. In addition to Korea, the USA, the UK, and Australia, presenters from Japan, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Thailand, and Iran converged on Seoul to participate in the Conference. More than 100 presenters gave more than 115 presentations that spanned the range from A to Z in ELT.

The papers presented in this volume represent the breadth of the presentations given at the Conference. The volume begins with three papers on assessment: peer assessment, pronunciation assessment, and teacher self-assessment. Two papers are on curriculum development and course design – one on design in general, the other specific to a bilingual elementary school program. The technology papers are on intraclassroom network systems and web-based homework. The papers on teaching methodology concern using dictogloss with young learners, target language translation, and the cross-linguistic influence on conceptual English. In the pronunciation section are papers on the differences in phonetic perception of sounds by speakers of different L1s and strategies for teaching reduced forms. There is a paper on the non-generic use of "the," and two on writing – the first on applying compositional theory and the second on a comparison of East-Asian and English writing styles. The volume concludes with two vocabulary studies. The study on vocabulary learning at the university level is followed by one on lexical guessing strategies.

The presentations at the Conference were well liked by the 700+ conference attendees. It is our hope that the papers presented here are equally well received.

David E. Shaffer, David D.I. Kim, David Berry
Supervising Editors, *KOTESOL Proceedings 2003*

KOTESOL Proceedings 2003

Gateways to Growth: Exploring ELT Resources
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I. Assessment

Peer-Assessed Freshman English: It's Up to You!

ANDREW FINCH
Kyungpook National University

ABSTRACT

The issue of assessing English proficiency and performance confronts EFL educators in Korea with a number of problems: (i) Freshman English programs in Korea require students to be assessed and grades to be handed in (the same is true for middle and high schools), (ii) ESL/EFL textbooks typically contain no assessment materials, no reflection, and no learning-to-learn activities (the same is true for middle and high schools), (iii) as a result of 1 & 2, EFL teachers have to make their own testing tools and administer their own tests; (iv) as a result of 1, 2, and 3, language testing in such institutions can be haphazard and unsound (invalid, unreliable); and (v) however viable the testing, the students typically have no part in it, and remain completely passive testees. The teacher does all the grading, and students remain unaware of assessment principles, methods, or strategies. In view of these problems, it was decided to use self/peer assessment in *It's Up to You* (a project-based text for Freshman English). The aim was to show students how to set realistic learning goals and how to assess their progress realistically, while relieving the testing burden on the teacher. The workshop investigated a number of the self-/peer-assessment methods used in the book, and examined their feasibility, theoretical soundness, and practicality.

INTRODUCTION

This workshop was an attempt to address a number of assessment-related problems currently faced by teachers of English in Korea. The problems identified particularly affect English conversational instructors at the college level, but they have parallels in the secondary English teaching situation.

Problem 1

Secondary and tertiary English courses in Korea are frequently used as a means of selecting students for other courses (or for university). Thus teachers/instructors are required to give summative tests and submit grades. This situation leads to the test-driven classroom at the secondary level and to the prescriptive (rather than descriptive) use of the bell curve at the tertiary level (Finch, 2002).

Problem 2

EFL textbooks typically contain no assessment materials, no reflective activities, and no learning-to-learn activities. (the same is true for middle/high schools).

Having been required to assess student progress on the basis of the learning materials in set textbooks, instructors find that there are no assessment tools in those books.

Problem 3

As a result of problems 1 and 2, EFL teachers/instructors have to make their own testing tools and administer their own tests. In addition to preparing for lessons, teachers have the additional burden of designing, administering, and marking valid testing instruments.

Problem 4

As a result of problems 1, 2, and 3, language testing in such institutions can be haphazard and unsound (invalid, unreliable, pedagogically unjustifiable). Language instructors are not trained to be experts in assessment, and they cannot realistically be asked to take on the whole process of test design and validation. The minefield of summative vs. normative; norm-referenced vs. criteria-referenced; ongoing assessment vs. end-of-term assessment; authentic/alternative assessment vs. standardised testing, is one that the experts themselves rarely agree on. Even if and when it has been agreed what is to be tested and how this is to be done, there is the problem of measuring competence, of the validity of performance testing (are we testing language skills or performance skills?) and of affective filters (how do confidence, anxiety, attitude, stress, etc. affect the testee?).

Problem 5

However valid the testing practices, the students typically have no part in designing them and remain passive testees. The teacher does all the grading, and students remain unaware of assessment principles, methods, or strategies. An important aspect of learning is the ability to assess oneself: to set realistic goals, monitor one's progress, and assess one's achievement with respect to those goals. The teacher-fronted assessment model misses out on an opportunity to involve students in the assessment process and thus to help them learn important assessment skills.

This fifth problem leads us to consider another issue: the fact that any language course can only cover a small part of the target language. This problem is exacerbated in university English conversation courses that comprise only 32 hours per semester. In this situation, as Dickinson (1987) notes:

> ... self-assessment used for formative purposes is both possible and desirable. It is most appropriate as the assessment purposes approach self-monitoring, but it is feasible for other assessment purposes, including testing for placement and diagnostic testing. … self-assessment emphasises learning, the process, rather than the results, the product.

(p. 151)

Oscarsson (1989, p. 3) gives us a "rationale of self-assessment procedures in language learning":

- promotion of learning;
- raised level of awareness;
- improved goal orientation;
- expansion of range of assessment;
- shared assessment burden;
- beneficial post-course effects.

Self-assessment and peer-assessment thus offer a viable solution to the testing dilemma of the English language teacher. This solution is theoretically and practically sound, and is beneficial to students as well as to teachers.

In view of the problems identified above and the associated self-/peer-assessment rationales, it was decided to incorporate self/peer assessment into *It's Up to You (U2U),* a project-based English conversation textbook designed and co-authored by the writer and intended for use in freshman English courses. One aim was to show students how to set realistic learning goals and how to assess their progress realistically. Another aim was to relieve the testing burden on the teacher.

The workshop given at the 2003 KOTESOL Conference examined some of the self-/peer-assessment instruments used in the book and invited participants to discuss their feelings about the efficacy and appropriateness of these.

Alternative Assessment Tools

Needs Analysis

Self- and peer-assessment were incorporated into *U2U* by means of ongoing assessment activities in the *Student Workbook.* There was also a *Class Journal* in which results of alternative assessments are recorded. The assessment activities, which were shown during the presentation, are not difficult to understand, or to put into practice, but as with other "consciousness-raising" activities, a large part of their value lies in their implicit suggestions, i.e., that the 15 criteria in the participation-self-assessment list (for example) are desirable and that self-assessment is a valid form of evaluation. One of the self-assessment instruments in the program is a pre-course and post-course needs analysis (Figure 1).

This instrument (Figure 1) allows students to record their perceptions of their language abilities regarding skills that are the focus of the program (listening, public speaking, emotional management, body language, writing skills, equipment skills). Students perform the pre-course analysis as an interactive activity at the beginning of the semester and enter their score in the *Class Journal*. They then repeat the activity in week 14 and enter their second score in the *Class Journal* (*CJ*). When examining the *CJ* at the end of the semester, teachers and students can compare the two scores and discuss whether differences between them reflect changes in ability, or in perceptions and attitudes to learning.

FIGURE 1: PRE-/POST-COURSE NEEDS ANALYSIS

Language skills deficiency analysis	1	2	3	4
1. Can I understand when the teacher speaks in English? 2. Can I understand when my classmates speak in English? 3. Can I understand TOEIC tapes? 4. Can I understand movies in English? 5. Can I understand the news in English? 6. Can my classmates understand my spoken English? 7. Can I give directions in English? 8. Can I express my likes and dislikes in English? 9. Can I talk about my daily routines? 10. Can I express my opinions? 11. Can I politely interrupt? 12. Can I bring others into a conversation? 13. Can I encourage others to continue speaking? 14. Can I check that I understand? 15. Can I check that others understand me? 16. Can I explain how to do something? 17. Can I describe things? 18. Can I negotiate? 19. Can I write my résumé? 20. Can I write business letters? 21. Can I write reports? 22. Can I shop online in English? 23. Can I use an English Internet browser? 24. Can I understand a computer manual in English? 25. Can I understand a textbook in English?				
Total = 100				

(Adapted from Finch & Sampson, 2003, p. 226)

Mini-presentations

The second assessment activity examined in the workshop was the mid-term mini-presentation which appears in *U2U.* This activity introduces students to peer-assessment of language performance by setting the mini-presentation in a non-threatening environment. Students (in pairs) make a prize-awarding speech and a prize-acceptance speech (any topic). They then perform their speeches for another pair of students, who assess them according to ten criteria (Figure 2). Each pair of students assesses and is assessed by two other pairs. Finally, they self-assess (Figure 3) and put all the marks in the *CJ.*

FIGURE 2: MINI-PRESENTATION PEER-ASSESSMENT SHEET

	1	2	3	4	5
1. This mini-presentation was well prepared. 2. This mini-presentation was enjoyable. 3. This mini-presentation was well-organized. 4. The presenters used varied language (range). 5. Communication flowed smoothly. 6. The presenters were cheerful and enthusiastic. 7. The presenters were confident (attitude). 8. The presenters spoke clearly (delivery). 9. The presenters communicated with few errors. 10. The presenters used body language.					
Total = 100					

(Adapted from Finch & Sampson, 2003, p. 35)

FIGURE 3: MINI-PRESENTATION SELF-ASSESSMENT SHEET

When planning and preparing the mini-presentation…	1	2	3	4	5
1. I spoke in English. (*Did you speak in English?*) 2. I listened carefully to my partner. 3. I shared many ideas with my partner. 4. I asked the teacher for help when needed. 5. I prepared my speech. 6. I practiced my speech by myself. 7. I rehearsed the presentation with my partner. 8. I learned some new language.					
When performing the mini-presentation …	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9. I remembered my words. 10. I spoke clearly. 11. I spoke expressively. 12. I used body language (gestures). 13. I faced the audience. 14. I made eye contact with the audience. 15. I did my best.					
Total = 75					

(Adapted from Finch & Sampson, 2003, p. 36)

The *Class Journal* differs from the normal EFL teacher's book in that it is a resource for both teachers and students. The *CJ* is common property and is available to all participants during the class sessions. At the end of a semester, the teacher has a *CJ* containing evaluative information for all class members (whose photos are also included for identification purposes). How the teacher uses that information is a matter for professional judgment.

Self-/Peer-Assessment of Oral Skills

The handout given to workshop participants included a number of instruments designed to promote self/peer assessment of oral skills (communicative competence). There was little time to discuss these in the workshop, however, and lack of space makes it impossible to include them in this report.

CONCLUSION

The workshop attempted to demonstrate how self-/peer-assessment could be incorporated into a tertiary English program and how individual assessment instruments might be used. A good deal of time was spent on the mini-presentation activity, at which time workshop members were actively involved in performing and assessing. It is hoped that because of this hands-on approach, the participants gained some insight into the practicability and efficacy of alternative assessment.

THE AUTHOR

Andrew Finch, whose Ph.D. (Manchester University, 2000), described the setting up and evaluation of a task-based language program in Korea, is currently assistant professor of English Education at Kyungpook National University. Dr. Finch was born in Wales and educated in England, where he held various middle-school teaching positions before coming to Korea to learn the board game of baduk. *He has co-authored a number of task-based conversation books which progressively incorporate alternative assessment. Email: aef@knu.ac.kr*

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Teacher Self-Evaluation Models as Authentic Portfolio to Monitor Language Teacher Performance

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ABSTRACT

Many principals and heads of English departments use supervising checklists to monitor or evaluate their teachers' performance. At times, teachers may not feel satisfied with the feedback they have got from their superiors. This paper aims at inspiring teachers with ideas of self-learning to improve their own teaching performance for professional development. In this paper, the writer would like to share his own experience as a principal and head of an English department by exploring self-evaluation models to monitor language teachers' performance in the classroom. For that purpose, it is necessary to identify the needs of language teachers. Later, a teacher portfolio may also help principals or department heads evaluate their teachers' performance.

INTRODUCTION

This paper aims at inspiring language teachers as well as language supervisors or principals with fruitful ideas on teacher self-evaluation models such as teacher portfolios to monitor language teachers' performance. This teacher portfolio is used as evidence of what the teachers are able to do and how they do it. The collection of the teacher's work as portfolio depends on how the portfolio will be used and what the purposes of the portfolio will be. As a matter of fact, a portfolio is useful both for language teachers and their supervisors/principals.

The aim of using a portfolio for language teachers is to raise their awareness in becoming reflective teachers; to develop independent, self-directed learner-teachers; and to achieve the best performance for teaching effectiveness. The aim of using portfolios for language supervisors or school principals is to provide alternative ways to evaluate both products and processes of the teacher's learning and teaching efforts and to facilitate the teacher's professional development. The teacher portfolio is authentic and provides objective data for school principals or supervisors to arrive at better judgments or decisions for their teachers. Therefore, a teacher portfolio could be an alternative method for overcoming the shortcomings of the subjectivity of the traditional teacher evaluation which lacks authentic evidence of the teacher's performance or efforts.

Further, it is expected that language teachers become self-directed learners as well as researchers by using teacher self-evaluation models to improve their own teaching performance. This activity will also help teachers become more critical and aware of their actions and values given to their students. This critical behavior and awareness of doing their best in class should enhance the teacher's professional development. Using this portfolio would also help language teachers take a step up on their career ladder as academics as well as professionals.

It is advisable that language teachers choose their preferred self-evaluation model to monitor and improve their own performance in class. Therefore, this paper will discuss some instruments of teacher self-evaluation, that is, teacher self-evaluation, student feedback, peer observation feedback, teacher reflection and teacher diaries, and teacher self-evaluation models, the advantages of using teacher portfolios, and the results of the survey.

INSTRUMENTS FOR TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION

Language teachers may monitor their own teaching performance by using a teacher portfolio. In order to get more objective information on their performance, they may use some instruments such as self-evaluation, student feedback, peer-observer feedback, teacher reflection, and teacher diaries. Here, the writer would like to suggest five instruments of teacher portfolio as follows.

First, teacher self-evaluation is used as an instrument for evaluating teachers' performance. After teaching sessions in the classroom, language teachers could use self-evaluation checklists they need. Various self-evaluation checklists (see appendixes) have been designed by Graham Gibbs and Trevor Habeshaw (1989), Margot Cameron Jones (1991), and John Partington and Patricia Luker (1984). The self-evaluation checklist is used by language teachers to reflect upon their teaching performance. The teachers may ignore the unnecessary items in the questionnaire and add other necessary items, or otherwise modify the self-evaluation checklists.

Second, student feedback could also be used as a monitoring instrument for the teacher self-evaluation to enhance the objectivity of the feedback. In order to get such feedback, teachers ask their students to fill out questionnaires which have the same items as the teacher self-evaluation checklists. The students are supposed to fill out the questionnaires directly after the teaching session. Student feedback may become the most important input for the teachers to improve their performance. By analyzing it, teachers can know the needs of their students regarding their performance in the classroom.

Third, peer-observer feedback is used to monitor language teachers' performance in the classroom. In order to be able to give feedback, peer-observers (colleagues) can be asked to sit in the classroom and observe the teaching and learning process. The peer-observers use evaluation checklists with the same items as the teacher self-evaluation checklists. It is advisable that the peer-observer be the

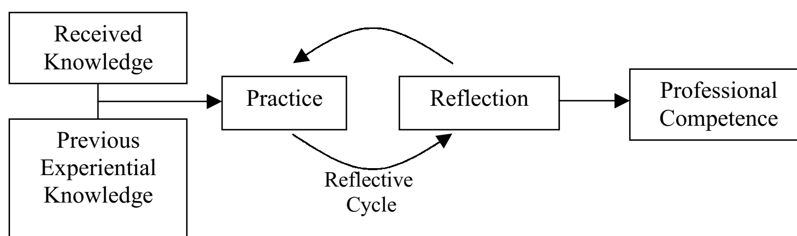
same language teacher who can give feedback by conducting classroom observation. In order to be able to give objective feedback, he/she should have enough knowledge, skills, and experience in language teaching and know-how to conduct classroom observation. Allwright (1988) stated that what is involved in classroom observation is a procedure for keeping a record of classroom events in such a way that can be studied later, typically either for teacher training or for research purposes. Further, Arends (1998) also explained that observation is a research procedure in which the researcher watches and records behaviors; a procedure for learning to teach by watching, recording, and reflecting on teacher and student behavior in a classroom. Based on Allwright and Arends' points of view, we can conclude that a classroom observer has to do at least three important things:

1. Sitting in a classroom watching on the teaching performance as well as the students' behavior
2. Recording what has happened
3. Reflecting/discussing between the observer and the person observed about teacher performance and student behavior.

From this kind of developmental observation, an observee may receive constructive feedback that may lead him/her to the development of his/her own teaching performance.

Fourth, reflection is careful and analytical thought by teachers about what they are doing and the effects of their behavior on their instruction and on student learning (Arends, 1998). Reflection means that teachers have to think about and analyze what they have done in the classroom by relating it to their previous experiential and received knowledge. In relation to the teacher portfolio, language teachers can do teacher reflection in several ways: by using the results of their self-evaluation checklist, their students' feedback, and their peer-observer's feedback. In this matter, the teachers may discuss with their colleagues/peers as observers and with some students what they have seen during the teaching session. The idea behind this reflection is that teachers can ask their peer observers/students to express their thoughts, impressions, and feelings about the teacher performance they have just seen.

Further, this reflection might be used to develop the power of critique. Therefore, it is important to have an alternative reflective model for language teachers (Wallace, 1993) as follows:



Fifth, a teacher diary can be used as a way of noting feedback relating to the teachers' performance in the classroom. A diary may contain important information about the teacher's performance such as weaknesses relating to their performance in the classroom, some teaching performance that should be changed, or student expectations for understanding the lesson better. Further, a teacher diary could be used as a useful tool for both classroom research and personal professional development. Arends (1998) stated that one of the most productive ways to enhance reflective thinking is by using a diary/journal. The results of the teacher reflection could also be put in the diary. This idea is inspired by Ana Halbach's successful research on using trainees' diaries to evaluate a teacher-training course (Halbach, 1999). She described how teacher-trainees' diaries were used as a source of information about the trainees' perceptions of a course in methodology. The aim of the course was to provide the teacher-trainees with the opportunity to be aware of their own perceptions of teaching and to modify and enrich them through the perception of new ideas. Moreover, Elliot (1991) commented that a teacher diary may contain observations, feelings, reactions, interpretation, reflection and explanations all together, becoming a potentially rich research tool. Thus, by using a teacher diary, a language teacher can become a researcher of his or her own teaching performance.

THE ADVANTAGES OF USING TEACHER PORTFOLIOS FOR SELF-EVALUATION

- Facilitating the professional development of language teachers by monitoring performance in the classroom in order to improve that performance.
- Providing evidence of rich and authentic information and growth of the teachers that may be used for teachers' career promotion.
- Giving the opportunity for teachers to use the teacher portfolio of self-evaluation models as a part of their classroom research.
- Helping the teachers themselves to become independent, self-directed and autonomous teacher-learners.
- Providing an alternative way to evaluate both products and processes of teachers' learning attempts.
- Giving a holistic profile of what the language teachers are able to do and how they are able to do it.

TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION MODELS TO MONITOR PERFORMANCE IN THE CLASSROOM

No.	Alternative Models	How to Use	Rationale
1	Teacher Self-Evaluation + Reflection	After a teaching session, the teacher fills out the self-evaluation checklist and then he/she should think hard and analyze what he/she has just taught with the received knowledge and previous experiential knowledge in order to improve his/her teaching performance in the future.	* Using a teacher self-evaluation checklist as a tool for teacher reflection. * Any individual teacher can do this alone whenever he/she needs to after a teaching session.
2	Teacher Self-Evaluation + Student Feedback + Teacher Reflection	After a teaching session, the teacher fills out the self-evaluation checklist and also asks students to give feedback by filling out the same checklists and then he/she looks at the students feedback and compares it with his/her self-evaluation and analyzes them with received knowledge and previous experiential knowledge in order to improve his/her teaching performance in the future.	* Student feedback is the most important input because students are the teachers' direct customers. * Using student feedback and teacher self-evaluation as a tool for teacher reflection.
3	Teacher Self-Evaluation + Students' Feedback + Peer-Observer Feedback + Teacher Reflection	After a teaching session, the teacher fills out the self-evaluation checklist and also asks students and a peer observer in the classroom to give feedback by filling out the same checklist and then he/she looks at the student and peer feedback and compares them with his/her self-evaluation. After that, he/she may analyze and reflect on them with received knowledge and previous experiential knowledge in order to find ways to improve his/her teaching performance in the future.	* Student feedback and peer-observer feedback would become valuable input. * Using student and peer-observer feedback together with teacher self-evaluation as a tool for teacher reflection. * It may be hard to evaluate oneself, and therefore the teacher sometimes needs his/her peers to help observe his/her teaching performance to enrich his/her portfolio.
		After a teaching session the teacher fills out the self-evaluation checklist and also asks students and his/her colleague to be an observer in the classroom in order to give	* Students' feedback and peer-observer feedback would

4	Teacher Self-Evaluation, Student Feedback, Peer-Observer Feedback, Teacher Reflection and Teacher Diary	feedback by filling out the same checklists. After that, he/she looks at the student and peer feedback and compares them with his/her self-evaluation. Then, he/she has to analyze and reflect on them with received and previous experiential knowledge in order to improve his/her teaching in the future. In order to note important information about the teacher's performance as well as the teacher's reflection and commitment to improve his/her teaching performance, the teacher may use the diary as a tool for his/her professional development.	become valuable input. * Using student and peer-observer feedback together with teacher self-evaluation as a tool for teacher reflection * It may be hard to evaluate oneself; therefore, the teacher sometimes needs his/her peer to help observe his/her teaching performance to enrich his/her portfolio * The teacher's note is a useful tool for both classroom research and personal professional development.

Moreover, the teacher self-evaluation models can function as authentic portfolios for the teachers to show their actual efforts, progress, and achievements. In order to be authentic portfolios, the teachers have to use the teacher self-evaluation models again and again over a period of time, for example, several times in one semester or one academic year. The more they try using them, the more information the teachers may obtain. These self-evaluation models have several benefits: they can assist teachers in controlling their own teaching, to assess their own strengths and weaknesses, to encourage them to improve their teaching performance collaboratively, to help them set their own realistic teaching goals, to reflect on their own teaching, and to help them make decisions on their instructional plans. The benefits for school principals or heads of departments are to assess their teachers' achievements, to see a holistic profile of their teachers, to see the efforts as well as the progress of their teaching, to discuss their teaching processes and strategies of their successful teaching, and to evaluate performance for promotion.

These self-evaluation models as portfolios become rich with the evidence of what the teachers are able to do and how they are able to do it, and show the individual teacher's skills, ideas, interests, and accomplishments. Also, these long-term portfolios will provide a more accurate picture of the teacher's specific achievement and progress. By showing examples of these portfolios, we may have an authentic and realistic portrait of individual teachers' abilities. Further, these self-evaluation models offer an opportunity for teacher self-reflection on their own best work.

THE SURVEY

Participants

Forty English teachers from eighteen senior high schools (SMU) in Surabaya participated in this survey. Most of these participants are S1 graduates (95%) or S2 graduates (5%). Furthermore, there are 18 out of 146 public and private senior high schools (SMU) taken from five different parts of Surabaya. Each part of Surabaya has eight participants. The forty participants from different schools and parts of Surabaya are elaborated Table 1.

TABLE 1: SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

Part of Surabaya	Number of Participants (English Teachers)	Senior High Schools (SMU) Taking Part
Northern	8	SMU Barunawati, SMU Sasana Bhakti, SMUK Stella Maris
Eastern	8	SMU Dapena I, SMU Muhammadiyah 2, SMUK St. Stanislaus, SMU Untag, SMU YBPK I, SMU Kr. Petra 2
Southern	8	SMUK St. Louis 2, SMU Dharma Mulya, SMUK St. Carolus, SMU Kr. Petra 1
Western	8	SMU Kr. Gloria, SMU Kr. Kalam Kudus, SMUK Karitas III
Central	8	SMUN IX, SMUN V

PROCEDURE

The survey was conducted between August and September 2003. There are two parts to the survey – first, we collected data from forty English teachers by using an interview guide via telephone, and second, we asked two volunteer English teachers from two different senior high schools (public and private) to try out the teacher self-evaluation models proposed in this study. In addition, the writer also asked a colleague to do the same interview to crosscheck the consistency of the data collected by the writer himself.

SURVEY RESULTS

The results of the first survey are as follows:

a. When asked about their feelings of satisfaction on the use of supervising checklists in order to evaluate the teacher performance in the classroom given by the school principal or head of department, many (62.5%) of the participants (total n = 40) replied that they did not feel satisfied. but a few (37.5%) felt satisfied.

b. When asked about self-evaluation checklists used to monitor English teacher performance in the classroom after teaching sessions, most participants (80%) replied that they had never used self-evaluation checklists, but a few (20%) had used them.
c. When asked about peer-observer checklists used to monitor teacher performance, most participants (77.5%) replied that they never used them, but a few (22.5%) said they asked their colleagues to sit in their class in order to observe their teaching performance using observation checklists.
d. When asked about student feedback checklists, all the participants (100%) said they used them in order to help teachers obtain feedback from their students on their performance.
e. When asked about teaching reflection, half the participants (50%) said they used it, but half (50%) did not.
f. When asked about teacher diaries, many participants (62.5%) reported they used them, usually because the school asked them to, but a few (37.5%) did not use them.
g. When asked whether they wanted to use teacher self-evaluation models voluntarily, most participants (87.5%) were willing to try them for their professional development, but a few (12.5%) did not want to use them because the school did not ask them to.

From the data above, we can see that:

1. Many participants did not feel satisfied with supervising checklists as an instrument to evaluate the English teacher performance observed by the school principals in the classroom for a variety of reasons:
   - The evaluator's educational background was not in English education.
   - When the school principal sat in on a class to observe the English teacher, the classroom setting was not as natural as it was before. Knowing a respected person (their principal) was in the class, the students usually tended to be quiet and the teacher's actions might be different from the daily teaching practice.
   - The principal's views on the evaluation of the English teacher performance could be different from those of the English teachers themselves or the students.
   - The principal's scores could be very subjective (different raters might give different emphasis on scoring), and sometimes they were not transparently discussed afterwards.
2. All the participants had their own ways of getting feedback from their students. They tried to get student feedback because students are their main customers/audience at school. The way the English teacher got the student feedback could be through interviews (individuals or a group of students) or questionnaires (closed or open–ended).

3. Many participants (62.5%) used teacher diaries, but most of them just wrote some notes on the teaching dates and the teaching materials given, for example, some topics taken from page x to page y of book z. They did not mention the strengths or weaknesses of their teaching techniques or activities used in the classroom, or some important parts of their teaching that they should change, or commitment to teach better in the future.
4. After discovering the benefits of using self-evaluation models for their professional development, many participants (87.5%) wanted to try their preferred self-evaluation model voluntarily, especially if their schools asked or allowed them to do so. But a few participants (12.5%) did not want to do it because the schools did not ask them to do so, and they did not want to make themselves busy with such an additional burden.

The results of the second survey are in the forms of reports given by two volunteer English teachers from senior high schools in Surabaya, Indonesia, who used self-evaluation models to monitor their performance in the classroom. The reports on the implementation of self-evaluation models will be summarized below.

The first report was given by Rina Heriyani, a part-time English teacher from SMU Kr. Petra 2 Surabaya. (female, 32 years old, 3 years teaching experience, graduated from the Faculty of Letters of Gajah Mada University, Jogyakarta). She chose the model using teacher self-evaluation, student feedback, and teacher reflection. After a teaching session, she would fill out the self-evaluation checklist designed by Partington and Luker (1984). She would also ask her students to give feedback on her teaching performance by filling out the same checklists and then look at the feedback and compare it with her self-evaluation. After that, she analyzed both feedback with the received knowledge and previous experiential teaching knowledge in order to improve her teaching performance in the future. The scores of the teacher self-evaluation and Student Feedback could be seen in Table 2.

Based on the data shown in Table 2, Rina Heriyani did reflection on her teaching performance by using reflection questions. The results of her reflections are as follows:

a. When asked about her feeling of satisfaction with her teaching, Rina Heriyani replied that she did not feel satisfied because she thought she had not given the students what they had expected. She did not feel so satisfied with shortcomings of her teaching techniques and materials due to the fact that she was not a graduate of an English teacher training college and used only the student textbook.
b. When asked whether she had achieved her teaching aims, she replied that most of her students understood her explanations and were eager to do some activities in class.

TABLE 2: THE SCORES OF RINA HERIYANI'S SELF-EVALUATION USING A SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE AND HER STUDENTS' FEEDBACK (FOLLOWING PARTINGTON & LUKER, 1984).

No.	Teacher performance items	Scores	
		Self-Evaluation (Rina Heriyani)	Student Feedback (average) n = 32
1	Is well prepared.	2	3.1
2	Knows material thoroughly.	3	3.2
3	Enjoys teaching.	4	3.2
4	Speaks the language fluently.	4	3.2
5	Pleased to answer students' questions.	4	3.3
6	Is dedicated.	3	2.9
7	Conveys self-confidence in the language.	4	3.3
8	Praises and encourages students.	4	2.8
9	Encourages students to speak the foreign language.	4	3.0
10	Is positive and constructive in attitude to teach.	4	3.1
11	Explains clearly when students do not understand.	4	2.4
12	Is enthusiastic and animated.	2	2.4
13	Has practice with learning difficulties.	4	3.1
14	Goes beyond textbook. Supplements curriculum.	2	2.1
15	Doesn't embarrass or belittle students when mistakes occur.	4	3.7
16	Is not sarcastic or critical	4	3.7
17	Has friendly, informal, relaxed classroom.	2	2.5
18	Uses a great deal of variety in lesson planning.	2	2.0
19	Accept ideas from students. Is open.	4	3.0
20	Knows when things are going wrong. Flexible.	3	2.6

Note: Scale ranges are from 1 (very poor) to 4 (very good)

c. When asked about the students' responses and their reasons for the response, she replied that some students gave good responses in doing discussion, making presentations, and doing the exercises from the textbook, but some others felt bored that they had to use only the textbook.
d. When asked about aspects of the lesson that she was happy with, she replied that she was happy with the reading and writing skills.
e. When asked whether there was anything in the lesson she would like to change if she had the opportunity to do it again, she replied that she would like to use more media, and to assign her students learning materials through using the Internet or from other sources such as supplementary books and authentic materials (newspapers, magazines etc.), and she also wanted to use varied teaching techniques.

As shown in Table 2, the teacher realized her weaknesses on some items that influenced her teaching performance; that is, the lesson was *not so well prepared,* her teaching was *not so enthusiastic and animated,* she *just taught the materials from the student textbook,* her classroom setting was *not so friendly, informal, and relaxed,* and she *didn't use variation in her teaching.*

From the students' scores, we can see that the students expected her to *explain more clearly,* they expected their teacher to *be enthusiastic and animated* in her teaching and to enrich them with learning *materials from other sources* (beyond textbooks), they also expected their teacher to *use a great deal of variation* in her lesson planning, to *create a more friendly, informal, and relaxed classroom* and to *know when things were wrong.* In addition the teacher was also expected to *praise and encourage her students* and to *show her dedication*.

The second report is given by Albert Tupan, a full-time English teacher from SMU Negeri IX Surabaya (male/52 years old/about 27 years teaching experience/ an M.Ed. holder graduated from Exeter University in the UK). He was teaching third-year students (IIIP3 class) in a two-hour (2 x 45 minutes) class. His aim in the lesson was to find the main ideas from a reading text. The stages of his lesson were pre-reading (10 minutes), reading (60 minutes), and post-reading (20 minutes). In the pre-reading, the teacher drew students' attention by showing a picture and asked some questions relating to the picture. In the reading, the teacher asked students to do tasks individually and then in groups, and to discuss the answers. In the post-reading, the teacher checked the students' answers and explained the problems. He chose the model using teacher self-evaluation, student feedback, peer-observer feedback, teacher reflection, and a teacher diary. After the teaching session, he would fill out the self-evaluation checklist (Partington & Luker, 1984) and also ask questions of his students and Arief Hidayat, a full-time English teacher from the same school (male/about 35 years old/about 10 years teaching experience/an S1 graduate of Surabaya State University), acting as a peer-observer in the classroom. He sat in on the class and had to give feedback by filling out the same checklist. After that, Albert would view the feedback of the students and his peer, and then compare them with his self-evaluation. Next, he

analyzed and reflected on these three pieces of feedback with his received and previous experiential knowledge in order to improve his teaching performance. In order to note important information about his teaching performance, including the results of his reflection, he used a teacher diary as an instrument for professional development. The scores of his self-evaluation, student feedback, and peer-observer feedback can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3: THE SCORES OF ALBERT TUPAN' S SELF-EVALUATION, III P3 STUDENTS' FEEDBACK (N=36), AND PEER-OBSERVER FEEDBACK, USING A SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE (FOLLOWING PARTINGTON & LUKER,

No.	Teacher Performance Items	Scores		
		Self-Evaluation (Albert Tupan)	Student Feedback (average) n = 36	Peer-Observer Feedback (Arief Hidayat)
1	Is well prepared.	4	3.3	4
2	Knows material thoroughly.	4	3.9	4
3	Enjoys teaching.	3	3.5	4
4	Speaks the language fluently.	4	4.0	4
5	Pleased to answer students' questions.	4	3.8	4
6	Is dedicated.	3	3.5	4
7	Conveys self-confidence in the language.	4	4.0	4
8	Praises and encourages students.	4	3.2	3
9	Encourages students to speak the foreign language.	4	3.6	3
10	Is positive and constructive in attitude to teach.	4	3.5	4
11	Explains clearly when students do not understand.	4	3.2	4
12	Is enthusiastic and animated.	4	3.7	4
13	Has practice with learning difficulties.	4	3.4	4
14	Goes beyond textbook. Supplements curriculum.	4	3.0	4
15	Doesn't embarrass or belittle students when mistakes occur.	4	3.7	4
16	Is not sarcastic or critical.	4	3.4	4
17	Has friendly, informal, relaxed classroom.	4	3.7	4
18	Uses a great deal of variety in lesson planning.	4	3.7	4
19	Accept ideas from students. Is open.	4	3.5	4
20	Knows when things are going wrong. Flexible.	4	3.0	4

Note: Scale ranges are from 1 (very poor) to 4 (very good).

Further, Arief Hidayat, a peer-observer gave his general comments on Albert Tupan's teaching performance. There were two comments – positive points and suggestions. Under positive points, Arief Hidayat stated that Albert Tupan was a well-experienced English teacher and that he, the observer, had many things to learn from him. He also observed that the students enjoyed his lesson. However, he suggested that Albert Tupan should speak more slowly because some students performed poorly in their English lesson.

Based on the data shown in Table 3, Albert Tupan conducted reflection on his teaching performance by using reflection questions. The results of his reflection are as follows:

a. When asked about his feelings of satisfaction with his teaching at Class III P3 on August 20, 2003, Albert Tupan replied that he felt satisfied in some ways. He did not feel satisfied with the materials taken from the textbook, which contained so many difficult words that his students relied on using the dictionary too often, even though they didn't need to know the meanings of all the difficult words.
b. When asked whether he had achieved his teaching goals, he replied that there was clear evidence that students understood the objective of the lesson and that he could see this from the students' responses.
c. When asked about the students' responses on the activities, he replied that his students gave good responses because they knew what was expected of them.
d. When asked about aspects of the lesson he was happy with, he replied that he was happy with his students' responses. The students were active and asked many questions.
e. When asked whether there was anything in the lesson that he would change if he had the opportunity to do it again, he replied that he would find more suitable materials corresponding to the level of his students knowledge and skills.

After Albert Tupan had finished reflection on the data above, he noted necessary points in his teacher diary in order to achieve improved performance. From the students' feedback, Albert noted things that could be improved on, such as the teacher *should go beyond textbook*, *know when things are going wrong, praise and encourage students,* and *explain clearly when students do not understand*. From the peer-observer feedback, he noted that the teacher could *praise and encourage students more* and also *encourage students to speak English*.

Furthermore, some comments on the data collected by Albert Tupan on Class III P3 on August 20, 2003, are as follows:

1. From eyeballing Albert Tupan's self-evaluation scores and the students' average scores on his teaching performance, it appears that most of his scores are higher than his students' average scores.

2. All the items of the self-evaluation received the highest score = 4, except two of the items - *enjoys teaching* and *is dedicated*. This indicates that there is still an opportunity for him to upgrade these areas of his teaching performance so that the teacher himself will fully enjoy his teaching and be able to do his best.
3. From the students' scores, we can see that they gave at least an average score of 3. This means that all the items get at least "good" scores, and many of them received "very good" scores. Some of the students' average scores approximate the teacher self-evaluation scores, namely, *conveys self-confidence, knows materials thoroughly,* and *speaks English fluently.* Based on the students' scores, the teacher has the opportunity to upgrade some items of his teaching performance, such as *goes beyond the textbook, supplements curriculum, knows when things are wrong,* and *makes better preparation* in order to achieve the highest scores based on the students' views.
4. The peer observer gave the same scores as the teacher for evaluation. In other words, the peer-observer scores correspond with the teacher self-evaluation scores.

Besides Class III P3, Albert Tupan also used the self-evaluation model to monitor his teaching performance in Class III P4 on the same date (August 20, 2003) with another peer observer, Sri Ningsih, a full-time English teacher of SMU Negeri IX Surabaya (female/42 years old/about 15 years teaching experience/an S1 graduate of Teacher Training College in English Education).

In Class III P 4, Albert Tupan was teaching communicative activities for two lesson hours (2 x 45 minutes). The aim of his teaching was to develop students' skill in building up grammatical and semantically acceptable sentences by the use of a Scrabble game. The stages of his lesson were pre-activity (10 minutes), where he explained clearly what students had to do and the objective of the lesson; the main activities (70 minutes), where students played a game of Scrabble while the teacher just monitored and gave help if needed; and the post-activity (10 minutes), where the teacher collected all the work and solves problems together with the students in the following session.

After this session, Albert Tupan filled out his self-evaluation checklist and also asked his students to give feedback on his teaching performance by filling out the same checklist. During the session, he also asked his colleague, Sri Ningsih, to observe his class and fill out the same checklist. The scores of Albert's self-evaluation, student feedback, and peer-observer feedback are shown in Table 4.

Based on the data shown in Table 4, Albert Tupan conducted reflection on his teaching performance by using reflection questions. The results of his reflection are as follows:

a. When asked about his feeling of satisfaction with his teaching of Class III P 4 on August 20, 2003, Albert Tupan replied that he felt satisfied because the students enjoyed his lesson; more than 85% of them were able to write good sentences in that session.

TABLE 4: THE SCORES OF ALBERT TUPAN'S SELF EVALUATION, III P4 STUDENTS' FEEDBACK (N=35), AND PEER-OBSERVER FEEDBACK, USING A SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE (FOLLOWING PARTINGTON & LUKER, 1984).

No.	Teacher Performance Items	Scores		
		Self-Evaluation (Albert Tupan)	Students' Feedback (average) n = 35	Peer-Observer Feedback (Sri Ningsih)
1	Is well prepared	4	3.3	4
2	Knows material thoroughly	4	3.9	4
3	Enjoys teaching	3	3.4	3
4	Speaks the language fluently	4	3.9	4
5	Pleased to answer students' questions	4	3.7	4
6	Is dedicated	3	3.5	3
7	Conveys self-confidence in the language	4	4.0	4
8	Praises and encourages students	4	3.3	4
9	Encourages students to speak the foreign language	4	3.7	4
10	Is positive and constructive in attitude to teach	4	3.5	4
11	Explains clearly when students do not understand	4	3.5	4
12	Is enthusiastic and animated	4	3.7	4
13	Has practice with learning difficulties	4	3.5	4
14	Goes beyond textbook. Supplements curriculum.	4	3.0	4
15	Doesn't embarrass or belittle students when mistakes occur	4	3.6	4
16	Is not sarcastic or critical	4	3.3	4
17	Has friendly, informal, relaxed classroom	4	3.6	4
18	Uses a great deal of variety in lesson planning	4	3.7	4
19	Accept ideas from students. Is open.	4	3.6	4
20	Knows when things are going wrong. Flexible	4	3.1	4

b. When asked whether he had achieved his teaching goals, he replied that from the work the students had handed in to him, he could see that they were aware of what was expected from them.
c. When asked about the students' responses to the activities, he replied that the students were happy and realized that an English lesson could be fun, and at the same time, develop their language skills.
d. When asked about aspects of the lesson he was happy with, he replied that he was happy with almost all aspects of the lesson, except that the performance of some of the weaker students made him sad.

e. When asked whether there was anything in the lesson that he would change if he had the opportunity to do it again, he replied that there was. He would have tried harder to do things that could help his students develop their English by collecting more materials which were useful for communication activities.

After Albert Tupan had completed reflection by using the above data, he noted some important points in his teacher diary in order to improve his performance. From student feedback, he noted that there were things that could be improved on, such as the teacher should *go beyond textbook, know when things are going wrong, be well-prepared, praise and encourage students,* and *not be so sarcastic or critical*.

The comments on the data collected by Albert Tupan on his teaching of Class III P4 on August 20, 2003, are as follows:

1. From eyeballing Albert Tupan's self-evaluation scores and the students' average scores on his teaching performance, we see that most of his self-evaluation scores are higher than the students' average scores.
2. All the items of the self-evaluation received the highest score of 4, except for two – *enjoys teaching* and *is dedicated.* This means that there is still an opportunity for him to upgrade these areas of his performance so that the teacher himself will fully enjoy his teaching and show even more dedication.
3. We see that the students gave at least the average score of 3 on all items. This means that all items are at least "good" scores, and many of them are "very good" scores. Some of the student average scores even approximate the teacher self-evaluation scores, such as *speaks English fluently, conveys self-confidence, knows the materials thoroughly,* and *pleased to answer students' questions.* Based on the students' scores, the teacher is able to upgrade some items of his teaching performance, for example, *goes beyond textbook, knows when things are going wrong, praises and encourages students,* and *explains clearly when students do not understand.*
4. The peer observer gave almost the same scores as the teacher for evaluation. In the peer observer's opinion, most of the teacher performance was already very good (score=4), except for two items that it was thought the teacher could upgrade – *praises and encourages students to speak English* – in order to achieve the highest score of 4.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There are some teacher self-evaluation models used to monitor language teacher performance in the classroom for teachers to improve their teaching performance for professional development.
2. The instruments for the teacher self-evaluation models are the teacher self-evaluation checklist, the student feedback checklist, the peer-observer feedback checklist, teacher reflection, and the teacher diary. Teachers may choose

their preferred self-evaluation models and use these instruments over several times, so that they can see progress or achievements through efforts to use self-evaluation models as authentic portfolios over a period of time (one semester or one academic year).

3. The teacher self-evaluation models as authentic portfolios are beneficial for teachers to manage their own teaching, to assess their own strengths and weaknesses in their teaching, to help them identify and set their own realistic goals, and to help them make decisions on their teaching plans.
4. These models also show the teachers' efforts, progress, and achievements, as well as their holistic teaching performance in the classroom, and help them to be collaborative and reflective teachers.
5. The teacher self-evaluation models as authentic portfolios are also beneficial for school principals or heads of departments to see what the teachers have accomplished, to help their teachers realize the problematic aspects of performance, to understand their teachers' motivation, interests, strengths, and weaknesses, to see the teachers' profile of their teaching performance, to improve their teacher instructional plans, to praise teachers for their effective teaching strategies/techniques, and to evaluate the teachers' performance for promotion.
6. Self-evaluation models help enable teachers to be self-directed learners and assist their schools in creating a self-learning atmosphere for professional development.
7. These self-evaluation models as portfolios also help teachers realize their own weaknesses and their students' needs, and thereby encourage them to change unsuccessful ways of teaching or try out new ways so that they can find the best solution to problematic aspects of their teaching performance. These will raise their awareness of their own teaching performance, motivate them to conduct action research on their classroom problems, and enhance the quality of their performance. In other words, the teacher portfolio helps teachers become more aware of what they are doing in the classroom and also helps them be self-reflective.

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APPENDIX A

Teacher's Name: ….. First model, designed by
Date: ….. Gibbs & Habeshaw (1989)

Self-Evaluation Checklist for English Teacher After a Teaching Session

How well did I…..…..?	Very Well	Satisfactorily	Not Very Well	Poorly	Not Relevant
1. Link this session to other sessions					
2. Introduce this session					
3. Make the aims clear to the students					
4. Move clearly from stage to stage					
5. Emphasise key points					
6. Summarise the session					
7. Maintain an appropriate pace					
8. Capture student interest					
9. Maintain student interest					
10.Handle problems of inattention					
11.Ask questions					
12.Handle student questions and responses					
13.Direct student tasks					
14.Cope with the range of ability					
15.Monitor student activity					
16.Use aids as illustrations					
17.Make contact with all class members					
18.Cope with individual difficulties					
19.Keep the material relevant					
20.Use my voice and body movements					
21.Check on student learning					
22.Build up student confidence					
23.Convey my enthusiasm					
24.Provide a model of good practice					

APPENDIX B

Teacher’s Name: ….. Second model, designed by
Date: ….. Jones (1991)

Self-Evaluation Checklist for English Teacher After a Teaching Session

No.	FOCUS	TARGET	GRADE	COMMENTS
1.	The teacher’s knowledge of the subject.	A sound knowledge of content was evident in every aspect/phrase of the teaching.	A B C D	
2.	The way the teacher structured the information.	The content was structured and sequenced appropriately for pupils, within and between the successive phrase of teaching and learning.	A B C D	
3.	The way the teacher explained and presented the content.	The explanations given were clear. Examples, illustrations, and tasks presented to pupils were valid for the underlying principles/concepts of the content and for the skills to be learned by the pupils.	A B C D	
4.	The teacher’s questioning and other elicitation of pupil responses.	The elicitation methods used (verbal, including questioning, and also non-verbal) were appropriate for the facilitation and progression of learning.	A B C D	
5.	The teacher’s responsiveness and rapport with the pupils.	The responses given to pupil work/ideas/ activities/selves were valid and encouraging	A B C D	
6.	The way the teacher resourced the lesson.	The resources for teaching, learning, etc. were suitably deployed.	A B C D	
7.	The teacher’s timing and pacing of the lesson.	The timing and pacing of successive activities were positively responsive to the pace and nature of pupil learning.	A B C D	
8.	The teacher’s organisation of the lesson.	The teaching and learning were organised to provide a balanced and varied sequence of work for pupils. When grouped for learning, the pupils were grouped helpfully, considering their individual differences and their need for access to resources, etc.	A B C D	
9.	The teacher’s management and control of the pupils.	There was unobtrusive but appropriate monitoring of all pupil activity (whether the pupils were working as a class, in groups or as individuals) to ensure the positive engagement of all in their learning. Care was taken over safety. Directions given were clear. Rebukes when given were prompt and clear.	A B C D	
10.	The teacher’s skill at assessing pupil learning.	A variety of assessment procedures was used (non-verbal, spoken, written, aesthetic modes as appropriate) and feedback given to facilitate/encourage further learning, and enjoyment of learning.	A B C D	

Key to Grades:
A = Excellent C = Should have more training
B = Satisfactory D = Seriously in need of training

APPENDIX C

Teacher's Name: ……………………………………… Third model, designed by
Date: ………………………………………………… Partington and Luker (1984)

Self-Evaluation Checklist for English Teacher After a Teaching Session

A SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE				
Give yourself a mark from 1 (low) to 4 (high).				
01. Is well prepared.	1	2	3	4
02. Knows material thoroughly.	1	2	3	4
03. Enjoys teaching.	1	2	3	4
04. Speaks the language fluently.	1	2	3	4
05. Pleased to answer students' questions.	1	2	3	4
06. Is dedicated.	1	2	3	4
07. Conveys self-confidence in the language.	1	2	3	4
08. Praises and encourages students.	1	2	3	4
09. Encourages students to speak the foreign language.	1	2	3	4
10. Is positive and constructive in attitude to teach.	1	2	3	4
11. Explains clearly when students do not understand.	1	2	3	4
12. Is enthusiastic and animated.	1	2	3	4
13. Has patience with learning difficulties.	1	2	3	4
14. Goes beyond textbook. Supplements curriculum.	1	2	3	4
15. Doesn't embarrass or belittle students when mistakes occur.	1	2	3	4
16. Is not sarcastic or critical.	1	2	3	4
17. Has friendly, informal, relaxed classroom.	1	2	3	4
18. Uses a great deal of variety in lesson planning.	1	2	3	4
19. Accepts ideas from students. Is open.	1	2	3	4
20. Knows when things are going wrong. Flexible.	1	2	3	4

II. Course and Materials Design

Designing an ESL/EFL Course: A Guide for Teachers

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ABSTRACT

In the field of ESL/EFL teaching, teachers often find themselves called upon to perform job duties beyond instructing students. These requests may range from clerical duties to staff management to what is perhaps the most formidable: designing an entire course from scratch. Although such a request seems overwhelming, completion of this task bears many worthwhile rewards, not the least of which is an end-product that is ideally suited to your particular group of students. This paper will provide a framework to guide teachers new to such curriculum development or course design through the process. The framework proposed here draws an analogy between the steps to writing a research paper and the steps to successful curriculum design and development through a discussion of nine steps: course type; needs analysis/objective; textbooks, articles, instructionals; outline; synthesizing the information and making it your own; rough draft; editing, piloting, revision; final copy; and evaluation. With these guidelines in mind, even newer and more inexperienced teachers can experience the advantages of a course tailor-made for their students.

INTRODUCTION

A teacher's job does not begin when the bell rings. In fact, the time we spend preparing for our classes is directly proportional to their success. Often, our preparation time is spent developing syllabi, marking journals and tests, and deciding on an approach to presenting new materials to students. Sometimes, though, a teacher's job is enlarged to include the design of an entire course, possibly from scratch. While this is a daunting and time-consuming task, it can also be a very rewarding one. With a framework to guide you through such a project, which provides a way to think about what it is you are trying to do and how you will do it, designing an ESL/EFL course is a way for you to meet the needs of your students with precision. But where to begin?

DESIGNING AN ESL/EFL COURSE

An apt analogy can be made between the process of designing an ESL/EFL course and the steps for writing an academic research paper. If you have written a research paper, you know it can be overwhelming to complete such an enormous

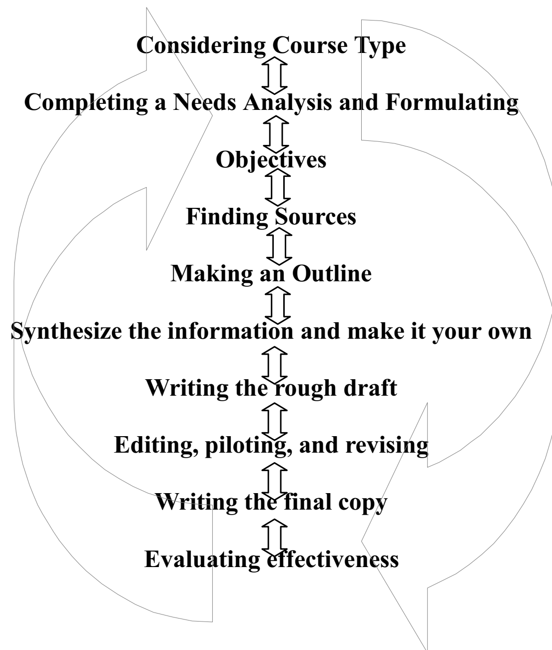
project. But you also realize that once you learn the steps to write a research paper, and know how to follow and adjust them to fit your needs, the process becomes more enjoyable and easier. So it is with designing an ESL/EFL course; once you know the steps, and how to follow and adjust them to fit your needs, the process becomes feasible, educational, and enjoyable.

In fact, the steps to writing a research paper, outlined in the table below, are synchronous to designing an ESL/EFL course.

Writing a Research Paper	**Designing an ESL/EFL Course**
1. Topic	1. Course Type
2. Thesis Statement	2. Needs analysis/Objective
3. Sources	3. Textbooks, articles, instructionals
4. Outline	4. Outline
5. Synthesizing the information and making it your own	5. Synthesizing the information and making it your own
6. Rough Draft	6. Rough Draft
7. Editing	7. Editing, piloting, revision
8. Final Copy	8. Final Copy
9. Evaluation	9. Evaluation

One difference between the steps for writing a research paper and the steps for designing an EFL course is that the former are well-established and unchanging. However, the steps for ESL/EFL course design are nothing if not fluid and subject to nearly constant re-examination in light of new knowledge about second language acquisition, new approaches to presenting materials, and new feedback garnered from application of the materials in the classroom. Over the years there have been numerous models provided for developing curriculum. Jolly and Bolitho (1998) offer us a model which includes identification of need, exploration of language, contextual realization, pedagogical realization, physical production, use, and evaluation. Graves (2000) presents a model for course development which includes defining the context, articulating beliefs, assessing needs, formulating goals and objectives, developing materials, designing an assessment plan, organizing the course, and conceptualizing content. J.D. Brown's (1995) model includes needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, and teaching.

In the aforementioned models there is an overlap of certain steps, such as assessing needs and materials. Indeed, any particular approach might serve the designer well as long as it was followed carefully and thoughtfully. The advantage of our model is that, for many, the steps to writing a research paper are no longer conscious knowledge, but the natural process for developing ideas from initial conception to final presentation and publication. Tapping into this existing knowledge provides the advantage of freeing the course designer from thinking about the process and allows her to focus on the task at hand. The model we propose here follows the steps to writing a research paper:



Considering Course Type

Although as course design progresses, steps may intertwine, switch places in your workflow, go backwards, or disappear altogether, still everyone must begin at the same place: the beginning. When we consider our experiences as students, the beginning of most research papers came in the form of an announcement from the teacher that we were expected to produce a research paper. From that point, many variables exist. Was the topic assigned generally or specifically? What was the timeframe for completion of the project? What were the other sundry requirements such as number of citations, word count, and supervision of rough drafts?

Without a clear answer to all of these questions, the research paper we could produce would be limited to what we might imagine is required, which may contrast with what is actually required. This is very dangerous ground, academically. And very dangerous ground, professionally. Yet, many would-be course designers, eager to put their ideas in motion or get the project completed, rush ahead without stopping to answer important questions, questions applicable to the very heart of the course they are designing, to which answers are essential for them to possibly succeed.

It is absolutely vital that you understand what is expected of you before you begin course design. If the administration has approached you and requested that you write something described only as a "speaking" course, for example, you do not have enough information. Your ideas of what constitutes a speaking course

may differ so wildly as to be mutually exclusive. For example, if you are thinking of using a communicative approach based on the content of students' Chinese horoscopes and the administration is thinking of the memorization and recitation of the first half of the most recent edition of Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, neither of you is going to be satisfied with the end product.

Sit down with the administration, editor, or project director, and establish an understanding of what it is that this course should accomplish. As you speak and before you begin to design, you should be formulating the centerpiece of your course: the objective.

Completing a Needs Analysis and Formulating Objectives

Arriving at an objective can be done in several ways. The most effective is through a needs analysis. J.D. Brown (1995) defines needs analysis as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to satisfy the language learning requirements of the students…" (p. 21). One technique for conducting a needs analysis suggested by Jolly and Bolitho (1998) is a formal, or informal, diagnosis of student errors in relation to current materials, which will allow you to identify weakness in materials. Bennett (2003) also suggests questionnaires and direct feedback from current students, which will allow you to identify a gap in students' desires. "The most effective materials are those which are based on a thorough understanding of learners' needs, i.e., their language difficulties, their learning objectives, their styles of learning, etc." (Graves, 2000, p. 111). Once you have identified the needs of students, you can determine what, exactly, the objective of your course should be.

In course design, the objective is the most important component. It is analogous to the thesis statement from your research paper: everything you do afterwards depends on being placed correctly on the "hanger" that is your thesis statement. In course development, the objective is the thesis statement. Everything you do after formulating your objective will be decided based on whether it fits on that hanger. A well-crafted objective should tell you what will be taught and how it will be presented.

A Good Example

The objective of this writing course is to begin to build students' knowledge about academic writing. Students will be introduced to the steps of the writing process and learn the parts of a paragraph. Depending on semester length, students will write two to four paragraphs.

A Bad Example

This integrated course will help students expand their abilities by allowing them to express themselves while they have fun with various games and activities.

Finding Sources

This step, while essential to writing an academic research paper, is easy to overlook when designing an ESL/EFL course. This is unfortunate because, in the end, taking this step is just as vital to ESL/EFL course design as it is to writing an academic research paper. You wouldn't consider writing a research paper about diplomatic relations between the United States and Cuba during the Kennedy administration based on your opinion or your vague recollections of the Oliver Stone movie on the subject. Ridiculous as this seems, many plunge ahead into ESL/EFL course design based on information this tenuous. Understanding what has been done, why it has succeeded or failed with the intended audience, and then making conscious decisions to accept, adapt, or reject it for your own purposes is a responsible and necessary step in ESL/EFL course design.

Copious research exists to help the teacher as she begins this important step. You are not the first to try teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language! In designing your course, don't pretend otherwise. Excellent places to begin are with the books *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (Celce-Murcia, 2001) and *Teaching by Principles* (H.D. Brown, 2001). These two books will provide you with an enormously helpful background and possibly with a methodological approach to keep in mind when you are designing your course.

One place to begin is by looking at existing textbooks that teach the same subject. In looking at other textbooks, ask yourself how well they fit within the method you have deemed appropriate for your students and whether a similar or modified approach would work best for your students. Don't restrict your research to texts written for students of a similar background or age to yours. Often, excellent and original ideas can spring from adaptations of approaches being taken with very different audiences. In addition, although the presentation of information may be wrong for your student group, you may find that the philosophy behind the material, or its objectives, are well in line with your own and that you can adapt the presentation and level the material to suit your own needs.

One case in point is a discussion book designed for Korean university students. The project was to design a speaking course for elementary school students, and the topics in the discussion book were much too difficult, linguistically and conceptually, for the target students. However, the author of this text stressed that his objective was to provide topics that would motivate his students so that they would be interested in participating in classroom discussions. This was vital to his work; this became vital to the new project as well.

There is a final note to be made about sources. Return, for a moment, to the process of writing a research paper. You have chosen the topic "Underwater Basket-weaving" and your thesis statement is, "Underwater basket-weaving is the most personally fulfilling and academically challenging course for college freshmen throughout the country." However, in conducting your initial research and gathering sources, you find that, not only is underwater basket-weaving not academically challenging, to most students it is not personally fulfilling, and, in fact,

it is not even a commonly offered undergraduate course. At this point, serious thought must be given to whether the reality of your research forces you to change your thesis. So it is with course design. If you find that the relevant research does not support the approach you want to take, you may need to modify your objective and start the process again.

Making an Outline

Once you have a well-developed objective and have reviewed relevant sources, you are ready to make an outline of your course. In course design, things to consider in outlining include: How many lessons will your course have? What kind of assessment will be used in the course? What kind of balance between input and output do you want the course to maintain?

The role of assessment of your students will have an enormous impact on how you design your course. Most likely, you do not have complete freedom to assign grades to students based on your keen intuition of their strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, if you design your course without giving assessment any thought, you may find yourself with a well-developed, creative, and engaging course that cannot be used in your classroom because assessment is impossible or so cumbersome as to make it wholly unrealistic.

Some subjects lend themselves better to assessment than others, and the success or failure of some objectives is more easily measured than others. A class focusing on teaching students something very specific, for example, improving their spelling, would be easy to assess. A class focusing on improving students' communication skills would be much more difficult to assess.

Here are two examples of assessment for two very different situations, both of which were somewhat difficult to evaluate. The first example is drawn from a reading course for elementary school students. The objective was to improve students' reading skills through extensive exposure to English language texts. Much of the reading was taking place outside of the classroom as homework. How, then, could the teacher determine whether the extensive reading was actually taking place? Curriculum developers made the decision to give students a brief, five question true or false quiz at the beginning of each class. Questions would be designed to be very easy to answer if the reading had been completed, but impossible to intuit if it had not. Although this type of quiz could not assess an improvement in reading skills, it did assess whether students were doing their part to improve their reading skills by extensively exposing themselves to English language texts. In this respect, the assessment supported the objective well.

The second example is drawn from a speaking course for elementary school students. The objective of this course was to improve students' speaking skills through discussion of topics of interest to them. It was very difficult to determine how to measure an improvement in these students' speaking skills. However, when the relevant research was reviewed, a good decision was made. Based on the finding that the main key to oral proficiency in a second language is to *prac-*

tice speaking the second language, it was determined that student participation would be the cornerstone of this course's assessment. Course designers and administrators were not concerned so much with communicative accuracy, or the memorization of certain conversational structures, but in the overall improvement of communicative abilities. This could only be accomplished through practice; therefore, a decision was made to give each student a daily grade based on his or her participation in the class discussion. Final grades would be determined by averaging the daily participation of each student. Again, the decision supported the overall objective.

To discuss assessment further is perhaps beyond the scope of this paper; however, the important point here is to think about the need and the method of assessment at the onset of your course design, and to make sure that your assessment method, as with everything in your course, supports your objective. Graves (2000) also points out that if you are clear about your plan for assessing students, you can be clear in designing appropriate materials.

As you move beyond assessment and work to continue completing your course outline, there are other elements to consider as well. Already mentioned were criteria like the number of lessons and the length of each lesson. In addition to these considerations, remember to keep in mind the physical space of the classroom for which you are designing materials. A colleague was editing a textbook that had been written, supposedly, with his school in mind. This was a very small private language institute with sufficient space only for the students to sit at their desks with backpacks underneath their chairs, and a spot for the teacher to stand. The teacher could circulate around the classroom, but there was nowhere to sit and consult privately with each student. Yet, this text required teachers to have each student report to her desk for an oral interview. Given the logistics of the classroom, this was impractical if not impossible to perform as designed. Physical considerations do impact course design, so make yourself aware of what they are and keep them in mind as you write.

Once you have addressed all of these considerations and formulated your outline, you're ready for the next step.

Synthesizing Information

Now you consider all the information you have gathered from your sources. How does it fit your thesis statement? Where does it fit in the outline? What can you add to make it yours? After you've reviewed all the articles, textbooks, methodology books, and other materials relating to your course type, you are ready to synthesize the information and make it your own. How does the material fit your objective? What can you add to help fill out your objective? Where does the material fit in the outline? How can you tailor the materials for your students? The answers to these questions will guide you through the next step: your rough draft.

Writing the Rough Draft

Writing the rough draft requires you to put all your information together in a format that is organized, makes sense, and gives a clear idea of what the course entails. When you have finished with the rough draft of your course, then the exercises are completed, appropriate supplementary materials have been identified and assessment has been finalized.

Nothing is written simply by thinking. Remember that writing is a process, and that, often, it is through the act of writing that we realize with precision what we want to say and how it can best be said. Perfection does not usually exist in the mind, only to be recorded on paper. Rather, the act of recording thoughts on paper leads to their perfection. This is to say, when you are designing a course, whatever writing is involved is part of the process. What you need to write will vary, of course, depending on the project at hand. You may be writing a textbook for students, creating guides for teachers who are teaching from existing texts within a specialized context, or some combination of the two. In either case, you must sit down and start writing without worrying too much whether things are brilliant, so-so, or totally unacceptable. This is a step for the editing process, the one that comes next.

Editing, Piloting, and Revising

Would you dare to turn in the rough draft of your research paper? Of course not! But for some reason, in course development, many seem to find this next step easy to skip, especially when confronted with an all too sudden deadline. But editing is one of the most crucial steps in the process. This is where we fine tune, where we make our ideas actually work, where the course becomes real and accessible to the students.

Peer editing can be very helpful at this juncture. If you have access to a colleague who has taught students of the same age group or proficiency as the students you are writing for, it can be quite helpful to have your writing and design reviewed. Course designers cannot always keep everything in mind at once. A critical reading by a trusted colleague can vastly improve your work. It is also helpful to give your colleague guidelines he may use to edit the work. For example, specifically ask your colleague to consider such things as whether the material requires an appropriate level of output from the students, whether the supplementary materials work well with any published materials, whether there are a variety of activities to stimulate students' interest, what things about the materials are appealing from a teacher's perspective or frustrating from the teacher's perspective, and whether the material is well organized, understandable, and challenging.

In addition, don't overlook editing your own work. If possible, once you have finished it, set it aside for several days, then look at it again. Often, problems overlooked previously make themselves apparent.

We have subsumed piloting to the heading of editing because it is best considered as part of the editing process. When we pilot a course, we are testing it to see what works and what doesn't. Beyond the usual mechanics of writing, our course is a project involving many people. It is crucial to see whether the ideas so carefully crafted on paper will, in fact, work in a living, breathing classroom. Obvious logistical problems (e.g., over sixty minutes of material for a forty minute class) can be spotted and corrected when your course is piloted.

Your own final editing, peer editing, and piloting should all give you feedback on how the course design can be improved through revision. Be open to revision of your work. Remember, most often a course is created for a community of users. Finally, it is the usefulness to students that will determine the success or failure of your course, not your own attachment to certain activities, your own brilliant prose, or carefully considered teaching methodologies. Be flexible and open to re-design when it is needed.

Writing the Final Copy

After you have been able to thoroughly edit and revise your course, and after it has been piloted, edited, and revised again, you are ready for perhaps the most exciting yet anxious portion of the process: producing the final copy. For your academic research paper, this would be printing your final version, handing it in to the professor, breathing a sigh of relief, and going to get a drink to celebrate. For the ESL/EFL course developer, it's flipping through the final pages, handing it off to instructors to implement in their classrooms, breathing a sigh of relief, and getting a drink to celebrate.

Evaluating Effectiveness

You must keep in mind that just because the final copy has been produced doesn't necessarily mean you're finished. After you have turned in your research paper, your professor is then going to evaluate it. Even when the final copy of your course has been published and circulated, there is a continuing need for evaluation. As more and more students and instructors interact with your course, and you learn more about second language acquisition, you can keep notes on how to improve the course. These notes can be used for future editions, for your next project, or for other colleagues who may embark on a similar project.

Conclusion

The opportunity to design an ESL/EFL course is a formidable one, and one which carries with it great potential for professional growth. Undertaken properly, ESL/EFL course design allows us, as teachers, to learn a great deal about a whole range of issues that affect what we are doing in the classroom: current research, popular methodologies, and student learning preferences. One unintended result of the work that one puts into such a project is that, inevitably, our teaching be-

comes better informed and we are able to make better decisions in the other aspects of our work. Complex and difficult projects like ESL/EFL course design help us maintain our interest, our vitality, and our own continuing education as teachers. When we can follow a process for designing an ESL/EFL course, we are able to focus on the task at hand, and a mysterious and daunting project becomes a feasible, enjoyable, and educational way to help students accomplish their ultimate goals of English language acquisition.

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Developing a Bilingual Program in an International Elementary School

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ABSTRACT

Many international schools, despite serving diverse student populations, do not in fact provide bilingual programs. In general, bilingualism in international schools can be seen as quite distinct to the topic in national systems and there is little research concerning this topic. We will look at the basic foundation of many international elementary schools' bilingual features and through a review of research, propose a program implementation that will further the bilingual services offered by a typical international elementary school. The topics examined include: first, second, and cognitive language development, the age factor, auxiliary language programs, L1 maintenance and development programs, and host country language programs.

Although research has yet to produce definitive answers to the many unanswered questions about bilingual education, we do know some things for certain. We know that we must keep two principles central to the task of developing any type of bilingual program at an international school. These principles are: the critical nature of L1 instruction for L2 learners and the immensely beneficial nature of L2 instruction for native-English speakers. If all involved can keep sight of these "knowns," then we can get to work in making practical and effective decisions regarding the design and specific objectives of a lasting bilingual program.

INTRODUCTION

The following paper examines bilingualism in international elementary schools. I will review the basic foundation of many international elementary schools' bilingual features and through a review of research, propose a program implementation that will further the bilingual services offered by a typical international elementary school.

BILINGUALISM AND INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS

Many international schools, despite serving diverse student populations, do not in fact provide bilingual programs.

> The monolingual international school is a common variety, one which was founded to serve an English-speaking expatriate community…but which now admits children whose native language is not English.

(Murphy, 2003, p. 25)

In general, bilingualism in international schools can be seen as quite distinct to the topic in national systems and there is little research concerning this topic. “There is still a dearth of research material that applies directly to non-native speakers of English in international schools” (Murphy, 2003, p. 35).

In addition, the profile common to internationally mobile families is quite different than that of the profile of immigrant families, for example, in national school systems. Sears (a998) states, “The parents tend to be well-educated themselves, to travel widely and to speak a number of languages. They retain a high sense of esteem in relation to their own culture and language and expect to return to their home country” (p. 6). Some international school students, often referred to as Third Culture Kids (TCKs), live in and are educated in several different countries during their childhood and adolescence (Pollack, 2001). The parents of international school children are often in the diplomatic service, multinational organizations, or in international businesses (Baker, 2001).

Due to the fact that there now exist hundreds of English-medium international schools all over the world, it is understandable that parents of non-native English-speaking children often opt to enroll their children in English-medium schools. By doing this, mobile families feel that at least their child will have the continuity of being educated in a globally useful language despite changing schools every few years (Sears, 1998, p. 6). Sears (1998) points out another parental motivation as such: “The ultimate aim for second language children entering an international school is for them to become balanced bilinguals with a high level of competence in both languages” (p. 41). This may be the case in many parents’ minds, however, some parents and some international schools do not make formal arrangements to help multilingual students maintain and develop their first languages enough to achieve balanced bilingualism.

Background

The model of bilingual education described above does not easily fit into a bilingual education typology. If this type of program had to be categorized as “strong” or “weak” in terms of a bilingual education program, it would have to be categorized as “weak.” Non-native English speaking students are submersed into an all-English educational environment with no aim for the students to become bilingual or biliterate in that there is very limited emphasis put on and support given to L1 maintenance and development.

> Submersion, Withdrawal Classes and Transitional approaches are often given the title of bilingual education. This is because such schemes contain bilingual children. This counts as “weak” use of the term bilingual education because bilingualism is not fostered in school.
>
> (Baker, 2001, p. 204)

In terms of program design, this type of program would also have to be categorized as subtractive in that it does not endeavor to maintain or develop students' L1. Baker (2001) states, "International schools that have English as the sole medium of transmitting the curriculum could not be included under the heading of Bilingual Education in Majority Languages" (p. 223). In reality, some international schools' educational programs are more appropriately categorized as not being bilingual at all in that the programs' primary aim is to educate and serve fully proficient and native speakers of English. This is despite the fact that often a large proportion of international school students are non-native speakers of English and a proportion of those students are not yet fully proficient in their L2 (English). In general, international schools' student populations are often comprised of a score of nationalities and language backgrounds.

A common approach in international school ESL programs is to employ a content-based ESL program which aims to provide academic and social support to those students whose language proficiency is at a point where they require consistent differentiation and additional support. ESL instruction generally addresses skills related to cognitive academic language proficiency as well as basic interpersonal communication skills and intercultural understanding.

In my experience, whether via pullout instruction, inclusion, or a combination of both, this type of program, in this setting, benefits ESL students. These types of ESL programs wisely aim to teach language through content, cooperative learning, and problem-solving as well as develop knowledge and higher-level cognitive skills. Teachers often use a wide variety of product and performance assessment.

The key element lacking in this type of ESL program, however, is a school-provided means by which to maintain and develop the ESL students' first language. The crucial nature of students' L1 maintenance and development may be recognized in the school's ESL philosophy and policy. This recognition may come via a school's ESL program statement and program guidelines. If this acknowledgement is made, it usually outlines that a student's L1 maintenance and development are crucial and are the responsibility of the ESL student's parents. Beyond this acknowledgement in policy, however, many ESL programs have in place no formal structure to facilitate the development of the L1's of its additional language learners. Somewhat ironically, although lacking L1 development programs, many international elementary schools do have foreign language programs and host country language programs.

In the context of many international schools, developing a program that can support the L1 of students from an array of language backgrounds is a complex task. It is dissimilar in several aspects compared to national schools' bilingual scenarios in, for example, Australian-, Canadian-, European-, or U.S.-based schools.

> …Children in international schools, however, are distinct from children in national systems in a number of important ways…Up to this point very little research has been carried out on this unique group of students who gain their education in a number of countries.
>
> (Sears, 1998, pp. 5-6)

Although further research in the area of international school students as additional language learners is needed, the key to developing a successful bilingual program in any particular school as well as in any particular social, political, and cultural context is not finding an inherently perfect program design. Rather the key may be pragmatically crafting a program that is best suited to that particular school and context. That school's bilingual program philosophy and structure should include a sound basis in research. In addition, a thorough understanding of the needs of that schools' students as well as that schools' resources and limitations is required.

Following is a review of research put together in order to support the development of a school-sponsored auxiliary language program. The program would have dual purposes in that it would aim to serve as a First Language Maintenance and Development Program (for as many first language groups as are possible) as well as an Additional Language Program (host country language and foreign language). We will begin by considering the following statement made by Harris (1980) as cited by Devlin (1997, p. 80):

> The key to the success of bilingual education is the interrelationship between cognitive development, first language development, second language development and academic growth, and the importance of timing to achieve the optimum results from these interrelationships.

FIRST, SECOND, AND COGNITIVE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

In the International Baccalaureate Organization's paper on Additional Language Learning in Primary Years Programmes, Stern (1963) is cited as stating the crucial value of additional language instruction in our education systems.

> The learning of a second language must be regarded as a necessary part of total personality formation in the modern world, since it should enable a person to live and move freely in more than one culture and free them from the limitations imposed by belonging to and being educated within a single cultural group and single cultural context.
>
> (IBO, 2002, p. 1)

Baker' s (2001) summary of that research has led us to believe that additional language learning can be quite beneficial to the learner. Some research shows that bilinguals score higher on IQ tests. Research also suggests that bilinguals experience such advantages as being able to think more divergently and creatively, display metalinguistic awareness at an early age, and are reading ready at an earlier age than monolinguals.

Curtain and Pesola (1988) note that the purpose of foreign language education is "to prepare young people to become culturally sensitive and communicatively competent travelers, students, and/or workers in other societies and cultures in the world, to interact positively and more effectively" (p.6). Perhaps one of the most important goals of teaching additional languages in schools is to develop in learners a greater sense of their first language. Curtain and Pesola (1988) cite Vygotsky (1986):

> It has been shown that a child's understanding of his native language is enhanced by learning a foreign one. The child becomes more conscious and deliberate in using words as tools of his thought and expressive means of his ideas.
>
> (p. 8)

Having noted these goals that reach beyond typical academic achievement, it is reasonable to believe that in addition to cognitive advantages, there may also be considerable social and psychological benefits to becoming bilingual.

Interestingly, the emphasis placed on the value of learning additional languages, particularly in regards to children, is inextricably intertwined with an emphasis on first-language development. The International Baccalaureate Organization's (2002) learning of additional languages review concluded:

> Provision for the maintenance and further development of the mother tongue helps to address many of the emotional, social and academic needs of the language learner… the learner is able to build on the language skills that they have already established in their home language making it possible to draw on these skills when learning the additional language.
>
> (p. 14)

The first languages as well as cultural identities of many immigrant students in national school systems are threatened if those students become part of subtractive and immersion bilingual programs. This is generally not the case, however, for additional language learners in international schools.

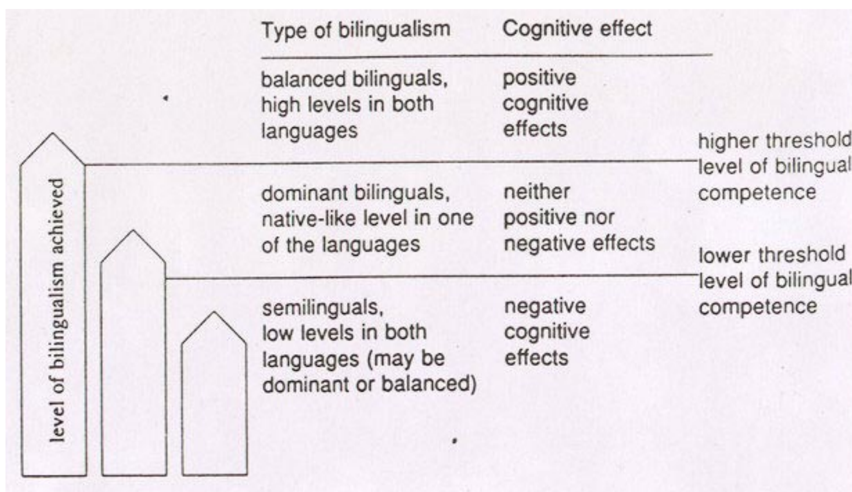
> …the high esteem which such families feel for their own culture and language makes the lives of second-language children in international schools rather different from those of minority-language students in national systems. The schools themselves aspire to make second language children feel at home in an English-speaking world without affecting their esteem for their own language and culture.
>
> (Sears, 1998, p. 7)

Despite the low risk of international school additional language learners losing their L1 or family cultural identity, there still exists the risk that these learners' L1 will be underdeveloped. This underdevelopment can eventually lead to academic underachievement and difficulties in the L2. Baker (1995) is frank when he addresses this potential problem in bilingualism.

> …there will be a disadvantage if a child's two languages are both underdeveloped. The most crucial definition of underdevelopment is that a child is unable to cope in the curriculum in the school in either language.
>
> (p. 76)

Hoffman (1991), while discussing The Threshold Theory, states that the concept was developed in part to examine this concept of underdevelopment and to address "at what point bilingualism can be seen to lead to positive cognitive consequences" (p. 130). Hoffman (1991) uses Toukomaa and Skutnb-Kangas' (1977, p. 29) diagram of the Threshold Hypothesis to illustrate the cognitive effects of different levels of bilingualism.

FIGURE 1 (HOFFMAN, 1991, P. 130)



The theory highlights that when a L2 learner does not sufficiently develop either language, negative cognitive effects follow. When the L2 learner achieves proficiency in one of the two languages, neutral effects follow. When both languages are sufficiently developed, positive cognitive effects follow (Hoffman, 1991). This theory supports the claim that a child's L1 needs to be developed sufficiently in order for the L2 to develop sufficiently. Cummins' Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis also supports this claim.

Cummins' (1999) Developmental Interdependency Hypothesis outlines the interdependence between a learner' s L1 and L2, particularly in context-reduced, cognitively demanding language scenarios (those which occur with increasing frequency as a child moves up in grade-levels).

> Children's knowledge and skills transfer across languages from the mother tongue they have learned in the home to the school language. From the point of view of children's development of concepts and thinking skills, the two languages are interdependent.
>
> (para. 12)

Hoffman (1991) states, however, "Surface fluency in each language, L1 and L2, can develop with relative independence from each other" (p. 128). This surface fluency, also coined as BICS, in contrast to CALP, has been an important, but at times controversial, distinction made in the realm of language learning. Cummins (1984) described Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) as those language skills which are used in everyday communication, are context-embedded, and are aided by physical gestures, facial expressions, intonation, and physical objects. He described Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as those language skills which are more commonly used in academic settings, are context-reduced, are cognitively demanding, and often require a comprehension and command of technical vocabulary. Cummins (1984) contends that the BICS and CALP distinction helps explain why L2 students are able to communicate in everyday situations within a relatively short period of time (2-5 years) while those same children can take considerably longer in terms of using the L2 to perform on grade-level in regards to academic goals and language.

The time required for the learner to acquire the L2 is noted as being reduced when the learner has received formal instruction in the L1. Collier (1995) notes that L2 children who have received no formal schooling in their L1 require seven to ten years or more in L2 instruction to reach grade-level norms with their native speaking peers. In contrast, those L2 students who have received two to three years of formal instruction in their L1 require approximately five to seven years of L2 instruction to reach grade-level norms with their native-speaking peers. In addition, Collier (1995) notes, "This pattern exists across many student groups, regardless of the particular home language that students speak, country of origin, socioeconomic status, and other student background variables" (para. 12).

Devlin (1997) does note some research that argues a learner' s capabilities in L2 context-embedded language (BICS) is also influenced by the L1. Having noted this contention, however, he states, "Nevertheless, there does not appear to be any research evidence which refutes the claim made by Cummins that literacy in L1 can be transferred to L2, thereby laying the foundation for solid academic achievement" (p. 80).

Kayser (2000) states in cases where L2 children are immersed in the L2 at school, special emphasis needs to be put on the parents' role of maintaining and developing the child's L1: "if the child is in an English-only classroom, the parents can be instructed to provide the child's language needs in the home language. The parents' involvement with language intervention becomes critical to the development of English and cognition" (para. 5).

Few will disagree that parental cooperation is crucial in helping a child develop the L1. However, it is important to keep in mind that many parents of L2 children do one or more of the following:

1. Believe their child's L1 skills (usually gauged via simple conversational skills) are sufficient and therefore do not arrange for formal L1 instruction.
2. Cannot find outside L1 instructors and put off taking on the task themselves.

3. Prefer to use the L2, despite the fact that by both child and parent using the L2, both are operating at low-cognitive levels and parent may be a poor language model.

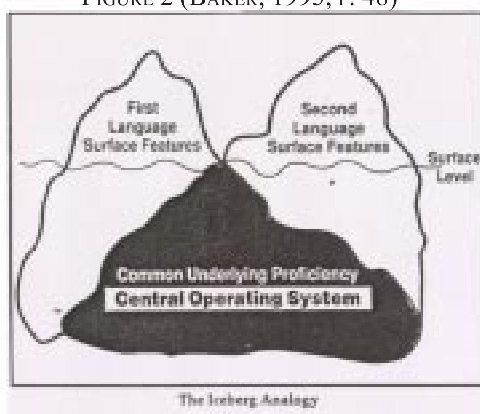
In my experience as an international school ESL teacher, I have seen that those students who do not continue to formally develop their L1 typically begin to show signs of academic difficulty in and around Grade 3. Because some international schools' programs are seen as being advanced about a year, this is in line with Collier (1995) noting this phenomenon beginning in Grade 4.

> Across all program treatments, we have found that non-native speakers being schooled in a second language for part or all of the school day typically do reasonably well in the early years of schooling (kindergarten through second or third grade). But from fourth grade on through middle school and high school, when the academic and cognitive demands of the curriculum increase rapidly with each succeeding year, students with little or no academic and cognitive development in their first language do less and less well as they move into the upper grades.

(para. 12)

Further recognition of the importance of L1 development in relation to L2 development comes from Hoffman (1991), and Baker (1995, 2001). They highlight the existence of learners' common underlying proficiency (CUP). This concept is often depicted using the Iceberg Analogy.

FIGURE 2 (BAKER, 1995, P. 48)



As noted above in Fig. 2, on the surface, the two languages appear separate in terms of oral, reading and writing skills. Below the surface, however, the two languages are not separate but are working from a mutually exclusive base in which each language supports the other. With this conceptualization in mind, Baker (1995) notes, "So rather than a second language interfering with the development of the first language, it is more likely to provide thinking advantages, social and cultural advantages, even economic advantages in the long term" (p. 48).

Devlin (1997), however, points out that one of the difficulties in promoting sufficient development of the L1 to support development of the L2 is that researchers and teachers are not yet able to pin down what exactly constitutes sufficient development of the L1. “What constitutes ‘adequate exposure and motivation’ are not specified which means that operationalizing the hypothesis so that it can be tested is a challenge to researchers” (p. 79). Within the international school context, a fair gauge of sufficient L1 development would be age-appropriate literacy skills and problem-solving skills. How to measure these, however, is sometimes a less than straightforward task, particularly in terms of human resources and cultural perspectives.

Up until this point, little has been said in regards to those students in English-medium international schools whose native language is English. As these students are being educated in their native language, the above points are considerably less in reference to them. It may be considered advantageous that they are receiving quality education in their L1, thereby ensuring a solid foundation by which to build the L2. In addition, as was stated at the beginning of this section, there exists substantial research suggesting additional language learning is beneficial to the learner. The auxiliary language program proposed below also includes L2 instruction for these students.

THE AGE FACTOR

One of the most salient questions asked when considering the implementation of a bilingual program is “At what age should children begin exposure to and instruction in an additional language?” This question has stimulated much debate and research, and yet there is yet to be found a clear-cut answer to the question.

Brown (2000) notes that the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) claims there is “a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire” (p. 53). If this theory were to hold true, it would be because young language learners are successful in their language learning endeavors in that they are excellent at mimicking and are less aware of language forms. In general, young learners often take risks, a behavior that often leads to successful language learning.

Some proponents of the CPH feel that it is primarily applicable to accent. “The Critical Period Hypothesis holds that older learners will learn language differently after this stage, particularly for accent, and can never achieve the same levels of proficiency” (Cameron, 2001, p. 13). This view has also come under criticism in terms of the, perhaps exaggerated, value put on accent over other aspects of language proficiency.

> Upon reviewing the research on age and accent acquisition…we are left with powerful evidence of a critical period for accent, but for accent only! It is important to remember in

all these considerations that pronunciation of a language is not by any means the sole criterion for acquisition, nor is it really the most important one.

(Brown, 2000, p. 59)

Adding to the uncertainty regarding the critical period in general, particularly in terms of the critical period in relation to accent, Singleton (1989) is cited in the IBO (2002) document as pointing out that "even in studies that indicate that younger learners acquire native accent, the evidence is for a trend rather than for a rule" (p. 5).

In regards to an age that may not be optimal for the introduction of an additional language, the IBO (2002) notes the time around puberty may in fact be a less than desirable time to do so. "The self-consciousness that tends to characterize adolescence may reduce the willingness to experiment with an additional language, reducing particularly oral participation for fear of making mistakes that may be heard by their peers" (p. 6).

Pienemann and Johnstone (1987) are noted in the IBO (2002) review as recognizing that the ages of eight to nine are optimal in that by this time most children have grown out of their egocentric stage and are at a peak ability to see the world from others' perspectives. This ability "declines rapidly at the onset of puberty" (IBO, 2002, p. 6).

There also exists research that argues older adolescents and adults are at the optimal age to learn additional languages. McLaughlin (1984) in the IBO (2002) document is cited as stating, "Adolescent and adult learners demonstrate superiority over younger learners in all areas of linguistic skill including syntax and morphology, at least in the early stages" (p. 5). Those who purport older learners are more able to learn an additional language claim that children whose first language and L1 literacy skills are well developed have also developed more cognitive and metacognitive skills which can help them considerably in the learning of an additional language.

Although Hoffman (1991) notes, "Adults possess a number of analytical skills that can stand them in good stead when learning a second language" (p. 38), she also notes, more importantly, "In view of all of this, the successful establishment of bilingualism may well depend on psychological factors (such as attitude, motivation, and willingness to identify with the speakers of the L2), rather than physiological or biological ones" (p. 38). This statement reinforces the fact that there cannot be one uniform bilingual program design, nor "magic age" by which any school, in any context, can establish and run a bilingual program. Many relative factors, practical concerns, and current research must be considered in such an endeavor.

THE AUXILIARY LANGUAGE PROGRAM

Auxiliary programs, as listed by Curtain and Pesola (1988) include such programs as summer camps, immersion weekends, before- and after-school programs,

among others. They note that a positive outcome of some auxiliary programs has been that the programs were seen as so successful and positive that they became parts of the school curriculum and regular school day. I believe the implementation of an after-school, auxiliary language program could best meet the needs of elementary school students in international schools whilst keeping in mind key practical considerations including current resources, curriculum, and specialists' schedules. The proposed program would be dual in purpose. One purpose would be to provide L1 instruction to non-native English-speaking students while the other purpose would be to provide the host country language as an additional language of instruction for those non-native host-country language speakers.

Starting Age

Based on research considerations, a starting point of Grade 2 has been selected. It is at this point that learners are seven years old or nearing that age. It is believed that at this point, non-native English-speaking students would begin to require academic instruction in their L1 so as to prepare them for Grade 3, when the curriculum in English becomes increasingly reliant on cognitive academic language skills (Collier, 1995). In regards to native English-speaking students, these students may still be a year away from what may be an optimal time to begin additional language instruction in terms of world perspective. They are, however, still at an age where picking up the sounds and rhythms and pronunciation of the language will require less effort and cause less self-consciousness (IBO, 2002).

Time Allotment

Stern and Werrib (1977) in the IBO review (2002) state, "the time given to additional language learning sessions is a matter of trial and error accompanied by systematic evaluation in relation to stated objectives" (p. 12). In the international elementary school context, it appears that three thirty-minute after-school sessions per week is a practical time allotment. This is in consideration of giving students enough consistent language exposure as well as the fact that many international elementary students are involved in other after-school activities. This time allotment would have to be reviewed after one semester of instruction, as it is difficult to know at the outset how this allotment will work for all concerned.

L1 Maintenance and Development Program

The grouping will take place on grade level so that teachers of the classes can use the science and social studies curriculum to parallel teach. By doing this, students are exposed to key curricular concepts in their L1, while developing higher-level thinking skills that can be applied in any language. This exposure will not only further develop their CALP in the L1, but it will also aid their CALP in the L2. For practical purposes, the auxiliary program's use of the mainstream curriculum will ensure continuity of instruction as well as lessen the time and effort an auxiliary instructor needs to utilize in developing units and gathering materials.

The languages initially offered would have to be those that represent the largest proportion of the students that speak those languages as their first languages. A review of the languages offered will be required periodically, particularly as language demographics can change with enrollment.

Host Country Language as an Additional Language Program

Because our setting is Korea, I will use the Korean language as the example for the host country language. In regards to L2 instruction for native English-speaking students, a similar approach will be taken. Because one of the two goals of the proposed after-school program will be to provide instruction in an additional language for students, and because the school is located in Korea, it is most logical that additional language offering would be the Korean language. This offering would not only provide Korean language studies but would also broaden students' exposure to Korean culture studies. As the Korean language proficiency levels of these students will be, in most cases, fairly limited, grouping will be across grade levels and will focus, initially, on oral communication in regards to broad (spiraled) content area themes and basic literacy skills, which will be aligned with lower-elementary curriculum literacy skills.

CONCLUSION

Although research has yet to produce definitive answers to the many questions about bilingual education, we do know some things for certain. We know that we must keep two principles central to the task of developing any type of bilingual program at an international school. These principles are: the critical nature of L1 instruction for L2 learners and the immensely beneficial nature of L2 instruction for native-English speakers. If all involved can keep sight of these "knowns," then we can get to work in making practical and effective decisions regarding the design and specific objectives of a lasting bilingual program.

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III. Technology

Distributing Audio-Visual Materials Through Intraclassroom Network Systems

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ABSTRACT

While many English teachers are now aware of the value of the Internet and are making good use of it for class activities or as a source of materials, few are aware of the possibility of using an intraclassroom network or the local area network (LAN) as an effective teaching tool. Networked PCs and the local network server are now an essential part of hi-tech campus facilities in schools and colleges. The intraclassroom network is a component of the campus network system, and language teachers can use the service inside a computer laboratory or a language laboratory with personal computers (PCs). Along with other conventional tools and facilities, a PC network system is now a viable choice for distributing online educational content, through which language teachers can distribute a variety of class materials with speed and ease according to varied student levels and their corresponding needs for practice.

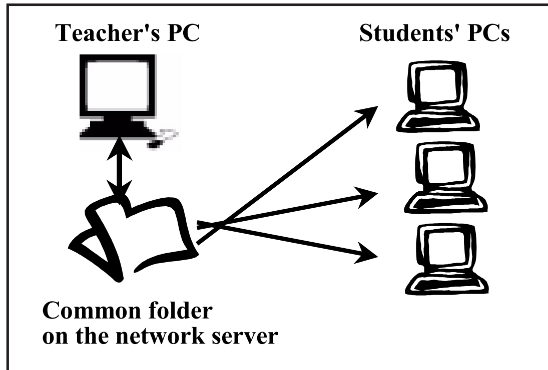
In this paper, I will give an account of the effective use of networked PCs for English teaching. The core idea is the distribution of audio-visual materials to student computers using multimedia files such as MP3 audio and MPEG video. The students engage in individual practice by playing back those files. This method can replace conventional booth tape recorders in language laboratories. The key features of the proposed method are speed, ease of operation, cost effectiveness, and the availability and individual use of video materials. The last feature has been unavailable in conventional audio-based language laboratory systems.

SYSTEM PROFILE AND OPERATION

Figure 1 is a diagram of an intraclassroom network. There is a common folder on the network server accessible from the teacher's PC and the students' PCs. This kind of system configuration is commonly found in computer education laboratories in which the teacher and the students exchange documents or data through the network. For example, the teacher posts the topics for assignments and the students hand in their reports as a computer file.

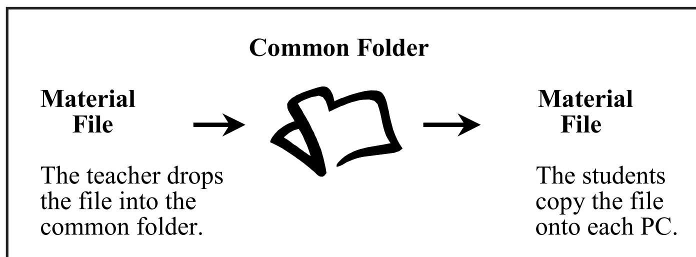
The proposed method makes use of this network system as a tool for language teaching where the teacher puts the audio-visual files in the common folder and the students copy the files and play them back on their individual PCs as shown in Figure 2.

FIGURE 1. INTRACLASSROOM NETWORK



The necessary computer operations are performed using standard functions such as "drag-and-copy" and "open a folder," and the playback is performed by an ordinary software multimedia player on each PC that comes free with the operating system. The operation requires no special skills or additional control software, so no additional investment is necessary either on the part of the teacher or the student. The network system is managed by network software and the network staff, and neither the language teacher nor the students need to know how to operate the network.

FIGURE 2. OPERATION SCHEME



COMPARISON WITH OTHER SYSTEMS

One might think that this kind of language teaching activity could be performed under a system specifically designed for language teaching known as a CALL (computer-assisted language laboratory). This is replacing traditional language laboratories that use tape recorders. My proposal and actual practice in class, however, features no such language teaching system, which is usually costly, not very flexible, and cannot accommodate teachers' occasional need to use audio-visual materials. Moreover, many of the commercial materials commonly used in classrooms nowadays are not designed for use in language laboratories. Few teachers request a fully equipped language laboratory for their weekly class ac-

tivities. In this current situation, making a large investment in laboratory facilities only for language education is not cost-effective. Instead, the proposed method utilizes an ordinary computer network system, which can also provide support for other fields of education as well. Below I will make a comparison of the proposed method with other language teaching systems.

Table 1 summarizes some of the advantages and disadvantages regarding the basic function of each learning system. The proposed system can handle video materials for individual practice, whereas others cannot. On the other hand, it does not have recording and monitoring functions built in. It should be emphasized that the availability of video practice is really a great advantage. Visual information provides a lot more practice for student listening tasks.

Traditional language labs (LL) are still being used.

TABLE 1. COMPARISON OF BASIC FUNCTIONS

	Networked PC	CALL System	Traditional LL
Individual Playback	**Audio & video**	Audio only	Audio only
Speed of Distribution.	**Very fast & easy file copying**	Moderate to very fast depending on the system	Slow tape copying
Recording of Student Voices	No	**Yes**	**Yes**
Monitoring of Student Voices	No	**Yes**	**Yes**

Note: Boldface indicates an advantage of the system.

Table 2 offers a comparison of the operational skills and work required of the teacher. The advantage of the networked PC system is ease of operation and availability for both teacher and students. Neither needs to learn any special skills. The only disadvantage is that the teacher has to do extra work in order to create computer files, of which I will give a brief explanation in a later section.

Table 3 shows another comparison. The proposed method makes use of a generic network system that can be shared for purposes other than language education. Therefore, the institution will be able to economize on the cost of language classrooms. Teachers may be able to use the computer room when there is a need to do practice or activities involving individual listening tasks. Most teachers do not need to use a language laboratory every week, which allows for greater use of the facility by others.

TABLE 2. COMPARISON OF OPERATIONAL EASE

	Networked PC	CALL System	Traditional LL
Student Operation	**Basic OS skills: click, double-click, drag, etc.**	Use of a special tape recorder, MD, or hard disk recorder	Use of a special tape recorder
Teacher Operation	**Putting files in the common folder**	Use of the control console	Use of the control console
Teacher Preparation	Converting analog sources into computer files	**Getting analog audio materials**	**Getting analog audio materials**

Note: Boldface indicates an advantage of the system.

TABLE 3. COMPARISON OF COSTS

	Networked PC	CALL system	Traditional LL
Special Equipment	**Headphones or earphones**	Headsets with microphones, control console, and recorder-player.	Headset with microphones, control console and tape recorders
Control Software and Application Software	**OS and playback software; Network software**	CALL control software designed for language teaching	Not used or specific console. control software if used
Cost	**Cost effective. Very little cost for language education. Can be shared with other departments.**	Not cost effective. CALL application software, hardware, and recorders are expensive.	Not cost effective. High costs for audio booth tape recorders and the control console.

Note: Boldface indicates an advantage.

SAMPLE ACTIVITY: TARGET LISTENING

As an example, I will introduce a class activity called "target listening." It is a practice in which the students listen for some target information or words out of previously given information chunks or a list of words as shown in the sample

work sheet in the appendix. The availability of individual playback for the audio-visual materials is essential for this activity. In the proposed method, using video material is a possible option that has been unavailable in traditional systems.

This type of practice has proven effective for my students whose vocabulary is not very extensive. In this practice, the students do not need to understand the details of the conversation or the speech. Instead, they try to pick up some of the key words or phrases, and doing so, in turn, helps them enrich their vocabulary. It is helpful to use a short interview program from the radio or TV. Teachers can use any kind of spoken English by converting the source audio or video materials into digital format in one of the following ways.

How to Make Audio-video Files

Once you have an available computer room, the only requirement on the teacher' s part is creating the audio-visual computer files. Commonly used multimedia file formats are MP3 for audio and MPEG for video. Creating MP3 files is not difficult, and creating MPEG files only requires basic computer skills. The common standards for MPEG video are MPEG1 and MPEG2. MPEG2 has a higher picture quality. However, for the purpose of language teaching, MPEG1 has adequate quality and a smaller file size, and requires less powerful and less expensive hardware and critical operational settings. How much effort and time you will need, of course, depends on your basic computer skills. Below is a simplified guide.

TABLE 4. CREATING MULTIMEDIA FORMAT FILES

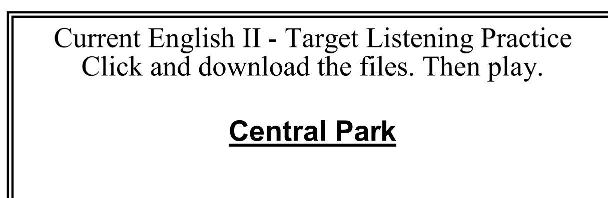
CD to MP3	Use MP3 conversion software. The easiest method.
Analog Audio to MP3	Make a digital audio file using analog-to-digital recording software, which usually comes with CD-R burning software. Convert the file into MP3 format.
Videotape to MPEG	Record the video using digital video capture hardware and software. This creates a video file in MPEG format.

One variation I sometimes use is a combination of two of the methods above. First, make a digital file from an analog source using analog-to-digital recording software. Then create an audio CD using a CD-R. Each task can be handled by CD-R burning software. Finally, make MP3 files out of the CD.

One should keep in mind that conversion of the media or the reformatting of the material always involves copyright problems to some extent. Teachers must follow fair use guidelines. It is a good idea to limit access to the material to students only. Corporations such as Japan Broadcasting (NHK), for example, allow classroom use of materials, but explicitly prohibit the use of any portion of its programs on the Internet.

CREATING A WEB-BASED USER INTERFACE

Currently, I am developing a simpler user interface for the students. A simple HTML web page is sufficient. It need not be a fancy-looking home page, but simply a page with a few lines of instructions and a link field to the material audio or video file. It can look like the example below.



The underlined part is called a link field. Clicking on this automatically starts downloading the file. To create a simple web page like the one above only requires a level of skill similar to word-processing plus a little knowledge of linking the field and the file.

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APPENDIX

Sample Worksheet for Target Listening

The students place checkmarks in the appropriate boxes while listening for the listed words and phrases. This excludes listening for unnecessary or unlisted words.

An Interview with Central Park Conservancy Staff
The 150th Anniversary of Central Park, New York

✓ Listen and Check ✓

□ Archery championship	□ Bicycle races
□ Birthday run	□ Bocchelli concert
□ Discovery hunt	□ Dog parade
□ Fox hunt	□ Horse parade
□ Huge cake cut	□ Jazz concert
□ Kids' races	□ Lacrosse match
□ New York Yankees parade	□ Park marathon
□ Processional band	□ Revolutionary War encampment

Developing Field Independence Through Web-Based Homework

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ABSTRACT

We hear a great deal about how readily available Internet access is in Korea. It is timely to examine how we can use the Internet to help Korean students learn English. This paper will look at how web-based homework can help English learners by encouraging the characteristics of Field Independence. It will consist of two parts. The first part will be an overview of Field Independence (FI) and Field Dependence (FD), including definitions and reasons for encouraging both types of learning. The second part will explain various Internet activities, all suitable for homework, that encourage learners to become more FI. Relationships between web-based homework and the classroom will be discussed in order to show how communicative classroom activities and web-based homework can complement each other.

I. AN OVERVIEW OF FI AND FD

A. What Are FI and FD?

Brown (2000) describes FI as the "ability to perceive a particular, relevant item or factor in a 'field' of distracting items" (p. 114). In other words, an FI individual is likely to excel at games like "Where's Waldo?"where one examines a comic strip depicting many characters in order to find one particular character. Ellis (1994) writes that one common test of FI "required subjects to locate a simple geometrical figure within a more complex design" (p. 500).

Field Dependence, also known as field sensitivity, "is, conversely, the tendency to be 'dependent' on the total field so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, although that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole" (Brown, 2000, p. 115). Both Ellis (1994) and Brown (2000) note that there is no objective way to measure FD.

The perceptual "field" in the "Where's Waldo?" game may seem unrelated to language learning, and, indeed, it has been argued that tests of FI measure only visuo-spatial ability (Ellis, 1994). However, while the accuracy with which we can test FI is outside the scope of this paper, Brown (2000) notes that the field referred to in FI need not be visuo-spatial; it "may be more abstract and refer to a set of thoughts, ideas, or feelings from which your task is to perceive specific relevant subsets" (p. 115). This means that FI/FD are ways of describing how one's brain works, and this aspect is relevant to language learning.

B. How to Label FI and FD?

Scholars do not all agree on how to label FI/FD. FI and FD have been called cognitive controls by Manghubhai (2002) and Jonassen and Grabowski (1993, as cited in Musser, n.d.). However, Ellis (1994) calls FI/FD cognitive styles, defined as "characteristic ways of perceiving phenomena, conceptualizing, and recalling information" (p. 696).

This is similar to Manghubhai's (2002) definition of cognitive controls as "influencing and controlling an individual's perception of the environmental stimuli" (p. 6). Cognitive styles, on the other hand, are seen as "perceptual habits" or the way one "processes information." (p. 6). The distinction made by Manghubhai is that cognitive controls influence or control perception while cognitive styles reflect how that "perception habitually occurs" (B. Muller, personal communication, January, 28, 2003).

Chapelle (1995) claims that FI/FD is a cognitive style, which "refers to whether people tend to rely on internal or external referents as they perceive and process information..." (p. 159). As Skehan (1998) notes, "to depend on external frames of reference for making judgments is to rely on other people's opinions" (p. 238). A reliance on either internal or external referents may very well influence and control an individual's perception, which is Manghubhai's (2002) definition of cognitive control. Such a reliance might also affect how that perception occurs, making it fit the definition of cognitive style.

There are two reasons why I do not label FI/FD as a cognitive control or a cognitive style in this discussion. The first reason is that attempts to label FI/FD and the definitions discussed so far have focused on reliance of internal or external referents. However, other aspects of FI/FD are of more importance to language teachers.

For example, Witkin and Goodenough (1981, as cited in Ellis, 1994) "defined FI/FD as involving three major constructs: reliance on internal v. external referents, cognitive restructuring skills, and interpersonal competencies" (p. 501). Chapelle and Green (1992, as cited in Skehan, 1998) also argue that the important aspects of the FI/FD construct are: "reliance on internal or external frames of reference, cognitive restructuring abilities, and interpersonal competences" (p. 242). Certainly, cognitive restructuring abilities and interpersonal competence are of more immediate concern to classroom teachers.

The second reason to leave FI/FD unlabeled is that "cognitive controls...are like styles in that they are concerned with the manner and form of learning, they refer to propensities and are stated in terms of typical behavior. They also reflect "information-processing techniques and are seen as controlling rather than enabling" (Musser, n.d.). This explains why the distinction made by Manghubhai (2002) can be blurry.

This paper is based on Brown's (2000) assertion that "individual learners can vary their utilization of FI or FD" (p. 117). If FI/FD were truly a cognitive control or style, it would be less likely that learners could "invoke the appropriate style

for the context" (Brown, 2000, p. 118), because cognitive controls and style are controlling.

Brown (2000) labels FI/FD as a learning style, as does Skehan (1998), who notes "the style someone adopts may partly affect personal preference rather than innate endowment" (p. 237). Assuming that no learner is incapable of managing his/her own learning, means treating FI as a style. Any learner can choose to adopt this style and display the qualities associated with FI.

C. What Qualities Are Associated With FI and FD Learners?

FD learners natural strengths include their interpersonal skills as they tend to be "sociable", "attentive to social information", and "sensitive to others" (Manghubhai, 2002, p. 6) in addition to having the ability to perceive "the general configuration of a problem or idea or event" (Brown, 2000, p. 115).

In contrast, FI learners might set their own goals and reject guidance (Chapelle, 1995). They are often "individualistic" and, as a result, they may be "insensitive to social undercurrents" or "inattentive to social cues" but are often confident (Chapelle, 1995, p. 160). FI learners are more likely to use metacognitive strategies (Chapelle, 1995; Manghubhai, 2002). Brown (2000) adds that FI individuals tend to be competitive.

Skehan (1998) argues that FI learners will benefit from their "ability to focus on that data which would be most helpful at whatever level of interlanguage development one has reached..." (p. 238), while FD learners "maximize encounters in which they are likely to receive good quality, relevant input, and have opportunities to use language to express meanings" (p. 238).

D. Why Promote FI?

It may seem that FD learners are the types of students every teacher wants: the interpersonal skills often exhibited by these learners will help students make the most of a communicative language classroom. FI learners, on the other hand, may seem unteachable.

It is essential to note, first, that I am not advocating the elimination of FD modes of perception. As language teachers, it is not our job to change the way in which an individual perceives the world (if such a thing is possible). Such a change would not be desirable:

> Too much FI may result in cognitive tunnel vision: you see only the parts and not their relationship to the whole... (and) FD style has positive effects: you perceive the whole picture... both FI and FD are necessary for most of the cognitive and effective [sic] problems we face.

(Brown, 2000, p. 115)

This paper is based on the theory that learners who possess the strengths normally associated with both FI (confidence, individualism, meteacognitive strategy use) and FD (social skills) will have more language learning tools than learn-

ers who cannot easily move between the two styles and that teachers are "to understand the preferred styles of each learner and to sow the seeds for flexibility" (Brown, 2000, p. 118).

Although Manghubai (2002) has pointed out that research has not shown that individuals can move between FI and FD, there are strong reasons to encourage the traits associated with FI. Much research suggests that not only do "FI learners do better on measures of formal language learning... but also do better on integrative tests and tests of communicative competence, designed to favor FD learners" (Ellis, 1994, p. 501).

While there is a hypothesis that FD learners will be better equipped to learn communicative language skills, there is little evidence to support this because there is no "true test of FD" (Brown, 2000, p. 116). In opposition to this hypothesis, Seliger (1977, as cited in Ellis, 1994) found that "FI learners interacted more in the classroom... because they were not reliant on the approval of others, and...more prepared to take risks" (p. 502).

Although Ellis (1994) cautions that "the research itself has proved inconclusive" (p. 506), the success that some research has attributed to an FI learning style may be due to the most important quality associated with FI: autonomy. Davies and Pearse (2000) note that "highly successful learners... are autonomous. They do not depend much on teachers" (p. 196).

McDonough and Shaw (1993) note that many teachers take on two roles: teaching the language and helping learners to manage their own learning. Promoting FI, means encouraging autonomy, so that learners use metacognitive strategies to plan their own learning.

Skehan (1998), following Chamot and Kupper (1989), notes that "the good learner is more able, through metacognitive awareness, to select strategies appropriate to a particular problem" (p. 265), while FD learners, unlike FI learners, "would not be naturally inclined to develop and use metacognitive strategies on their own" (Chapelle, p. 165).

Metacognitive skills may be "the most essential" (Anderson, 2002, p. 1), because "good language learners... make use of metacognitive knowledge to help them assess their needs, evaluate progress, and give direction to their learning" (Ellis, 1994, p. 550).

In order to help learners manage their own learning, teachers must encourage autonomy, confidence, and the use of metacognitive strategies: qualities associated with FI learners. This is important because being aware and self-aware "in relation to the learning process" is a characteristic of successful learners (Ellis, 1994, p. 549).

Language teachers can use their awareness of FI/FD to be more effective in class by helping learners move from and between FI and FD (Chapelle, 1995, p. 165). Students can choose whichever method of perception/processing is most appropriate in a given situation. Brown (1987, as cited in Chapelle, 1995, pp. 160-161) "suggested that the key to L2 success is mobility that allows learners to

'exercise a sufficient degree of the appropriate style' in a given context." Teachers who are aware of their students' relative FI/FD can design a program that will empower students to have access to both ways of perceiving and processing information.

II. Internet Activities That Encourage Metacognitive Strategies and Help Students Plan Their Own Learning

A. Stand-Alone Exercises and Activities

English Page has many different vocabulary exercises: http://www.englishpage.com/vocabulary/vocabulary.html. As of October 8th, 2003, there were 23 activities based on many different topics (personality types, e-commerce, presidential elections, etc.). A good way to encourage students to begin managing their own learning is to assign one of these exercises as homework. Each student can be allowed to choose which exercise to do. It might be interesting to conduct a poll next class to see which topics were most popular.

One way to check if the homework was done would be to have a surprise quiz in which each student writes down the topic chosen and two or three words s/he studied for homework. It is unlikely that students will be able to guess which words the exercises covered, so they will need to have done the homework in order to complete the quiz.

Another possibility for optimal vocabulary homework is http://iteslj.org/v/k/. These exercises involve translating vocabulary words (unlike English Page, which is entirely English). Students get a Korean word and have to choose the English translation. As with *English Page*, there are many topics to choose from, including basic categories like colors and days of the week as well as more specialized categories like birds, insects, flowers, and geological formations.

A different type of activity would be to get students involved in a conversation online. Students can choose which topic they want to discuss and report the URL of their post to you if you want to check that the homework was completed. After the initial homework is completed, students should be encouraged to check and see if anyone has replied to their message. I strongly encourage students to converse online, because in Korea few opportunities arise to use English outside the classroom. Message boards specifically for English learners include: http://www.eslcafe.com/forums/student/index.php, http://www.englishforums.com/, and my own http://www.eslgo.com/forum.html.

While there are many online grammar activities, the lack of contextualized ones led me to create my own free online English classes: http://www.eslgo.com/classes.html. Students can be assigned a specific class based on the grammar point or topic being studied in class (ESLgo has over 30 classes based on different topics like Arlo Guthrie, my cats, the stock market, web hosting, American football, etc.). It is hoped that students will see the list of classes, find one or more of

them interesting, and come back to study on his/her own. Another option is to allow students to choose a class which they find interesting.

There are other possibilities, one example being http://grammar.englishclub.com/index.html, but these grammar exercises are not contextualized. Another page that has a very prominent ranking in search engines is http://www.better-english.com/grammar.htm. However, my students and I have found many confusing examples and inexplicable "correct" answer choices on these grammar quizzes, so before assigning one of these exercises, check each question personally.

A different type of grammar activity can be found at http://www.iei.uiuc.edu/web.pages/grammarsafari.html. Students search the web for authentic examples of the grammar they wish to study.

B. Sample Lessons Involving Web-Based Homework

Due to limited space, the lesson plans and classroom handouts will not be reprinted here. They are available on my website, http://www.eslgo.com. The specific URL for each lesson is given below.

1.

In the following example, learners start with an information gap activity as a warmer-up, before retelling a Korean folk tale involving tigers. They are provided with optional online homework in the hope that at least some learners will begin exploring web-based language learning opportunities. The homework provides an easy option (reading some factual information about tigers) and a hard option (writing about nature or retelling the folk tale produced in class on a message board).

On the web at: http://www.eslgo.com/resources/sa/ig_tiger.html

2.

In the following lesson, the Raiders 1 Class, the Internet is used to pre-teach vocabulary. This saves class time for the teacher and serves as an easy way to introduce students to web-based language learning. In addition, the first vocabulary exercise is an interactive drag and drop exercise (students see pictures on the left and words on the right; they must click on each word and drag it over to the correct picture). This will hopefully help students see the internet as a fun language learning resource.

On the web at: http://www.eslgo.com/resources/lesson_plans/raiders/1.html

3.

This follow- up to the Raiders 1 Class ends with mandatory online homework (posting a message on a forum), but still gives students a choice as to which subject to discuss. If they're going to manage their own learning, they will need to start making choices about which areas of English to study.

On the web at: http://www.eslgo.com/resources/lesson_plans/raiders/2.html

4.

This discussion class incorporates web-based homework to help students improve their accuracy and fluency. After the class students will have seen that this is very helpful and may be receptive to a teacher encouraging them to discuss conversation class topics on the web before coming to class.

On the web at: http://www.eslgo.com/resources/lesson_plans/iron_lady.html

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IV. Teaching Methodology

Dictogloss: Its Application With Young Learners

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ABSTRACT

When teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), teachers of young children need access to a repertoire of techniques designed to get their young learners using English in the classroom. The aim of this small case study was to trial one technique with young learners of EFL. Specifically, this case study chose the "dictogloss" technique as a vehicle to increase interaction.

The case study shows that by making small changes in what teachers normally do in the classroom, an increased level of interaction in English is possible when working with young learners learning English.

INTRODUCTION

I work in teacher education at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. One of the challenges that I encounter while helping my students as teachers-in-training is to move from the known to the unknown. The known are the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methodologies that my students typically experienced while learning EFL. My challenge is to find ways to help my students move toward Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Both the grammar-translation and audio-lingual approaches include the notion "that language is a set of patterns acquired through habit formation" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 177). In CLT, the predominant view is that learning is best served by taking a "doing" approach rather that a "talking about" approach. A variety of means exist within the CLT tradition (see Brown, 2001). This conjecture includes the concepts of learner centeredness, task-based learning, whole language education, cooperative learning, interaction, and content-based instruction.

Dictogloss is highly compatible with CLT as illustrated by Brown (2001). Dictogloss is learner-centered, particularly as it offers opportunities for enhancement of the students' senses of competence and self worth. As students experience success, their motivation and confidence increase. Dictogloss is highly cooperative, as the students are instructed in group interaction and thus work together to reconstruct the text. This technique offers a model for Whole Language Education as the four skills are integrated into the one activity. Finally, central to the Dictogloss technique is purposeful interaction with other students to rebuild the text.

Teachers of young learners are often looking for ways to make prescribed textbooks interactive by using supplementary techniques. Dictogloss can achieve this aim. Dictogloss is like a dictation activity that resembles a retelling; i.e., learners listen to a short text, focus on the key words, and in groups reconstruct it. Dictogloss is different from a dictation in that the students listen to the text a few times and then from global understanding reconstruct the text.

Dictogloss was originally intended by its creator, Ruth Wyjnryb, as an activity to help promote students' global listening skills and textual grammar. This paper will present dictogloss as an interactive tool to use with young learners of English as a Foreign Language. The described adaptation promotes attentive listening and purposeful talk in small cooperative groups. It allows students to reconstruct meaning from notes and from their global understanding, all the while using English for purposeful talk. This technique can also be used to teach grammar, vocabulary, and textual cohesion in meaningful and contextualized ways.

POTENTIAL OUTCOMES

A range of potential outcomes include:

- Promotion of active listening.
- Promotion of purposeful interaction: Children are engaged in continuous talk about the content and about language.
- Promotion of purposeful writing.
- Promotion of a contextualized arena for grammar instruction.
- Promotion of a contextualized arena for genre analysis.
- Promotion of a contextualized arena for writing mechanics instruction.
- Promotion of a contextualized arena for graphophonics.
- Promotion of a contextualized arena for semantics.
- Promotion of a scaffold for English language development.

Wajnryb (1988) offers five outcomes that were experienced in her own classrooms when using dictogloss: 1) It provided language use and an opportunity for the teacher to observe and evaluate student language performance, 2) it provided intrinsic motivation, 3) it offered experiential learning and offered challenging and simulating interaction with various text types, 4) it was communicative, and 5) and the students were exposed to the text concept – a move away from the sentence as a unit and towards larger chucks of language.

DICTOGLOSS IN ACTION

I used dictogloss when working with international students in Australia. Those students were high school age and varied from false beginners to low intermediate language proficiency. I used a five-minute television show called "The Australians" as the text. Thus the activity contained cultural goals by exposing the stu-

dents to famous Australians as well as linguistic goals and encouraged a variety of listening strategies. The students listened for key words, looked for non-verbal cues, guessed meanings, sought clarification, and listened for general gist and details. The students were also exposed to a variety of performance variables and to Australian colloquial language. I usually had the students write their reconstructed texts on to large paper and displayed them around the classroom. This attracted a lot of positive comments from the other staff, the college director, and visitors to the Language Centre.

Dictogloss

Preparation

In this stage the teacher should prepare the learners for the text that they will be listening to by either showing a visual or by giving them some relevant warm-up questions. Learners can be given vocabulary items from the text. This should be pre-taught if the teacher suspects that the vocabulary is unknown to the learners or when the vocabulary may be difficult to infer form the text itself. Learners can be given the topic and can then be asked to brainstorm about it, or they can make a concept map. These kinds of warm-up activities help the learners to be more receptive to the text because learners are able to listen more effectively when they can anticipate what they will hear. Activating schemata in any listening activity should not be underestimated (Ur, 1984).

The Text

It is important to tell the learners that this activity is *not* a dictation and that they are going to work in a group and focus on the text as a whole. Normally the learners should hear the text twice. The first time they do not write but should listen for the gist. In this stage, the learners get the global message of the whole text. The second time they listen, the learners take notes. As they listen the second time, the learners should write the *content* words. The function words are provided by the learners as they work together to reconstruct the text.

The teacher reads the text at normal speed, or has the text recorded (this is preferable to eliminate performance variables). The reading of the text should *not* be broken down into chunks, as happens in a dictation. The semantic group being considered is the sentence. Most textbooks have paragraphs in them that can be used for this technique.

Reconstruction

Learners work in small groups to share the words that each have written and reconstruct the text. It helps if each group has a secretary to write down everyone's ideas (This is a standard procedure in cooperative groups). While the groups are conferencing about their texts the teacher's role is to monitor activity but not provide any language.

Analysis and Feedback

At the outset it needs to be said that errors and their treatment need careful and principled reflection. Teachers need to establish the appropriate atmosphere in which assessment and correction can occur. Students need to feel support and solidarity in order to assure that the feedback is received in a non-threatening and constructive manner (Ur, 1991). Learners may need training in not focusing solely on the errors; therefore, initially learners may need to know all the things that they got right. To Ur (1991), "'getting it wrong' is not 'bad,' but a way into 'getting it right'" (p. 243). When first exposed to dictogloss, learners may need to "un-learn" the feeling that making mistakes should be avoided. I am aware that language testing is especially influential in Korea, and believe that dictogloss offers an opportunity to move towards a "learning to use language" culture. Learners need to be told that using the language during the activity is where real language learning occurs. Thus, learners will come to understand that making mistakes is an acceptable (and natural) part of the learning process.

When the groups are working, I move around the groups, observing, monitoring, and giving positive feedback. Once the texts are written, there are two ways to proceed. The teacher can edit the texts and have the students write out the original version. In doing so, their attention may be drawn to the linguistic elements for them to notice the differences. One must take care to make sure that the students do notice instead of just producing the correct answer on their worksheets. Another option is to examine the original text, prepared as an OHT, and working as a whole group, to explore each sentence using copies of each group's text organized into same-sentence groupings. I think that when working with elementary beginners, this is the preferred method.

Whichever version of correction is followed, it is important to remember to encourage students to compare the different versions and discuss the language choices that have been made. As part of raising self-esteem I like to display learners work around the classroom. A "final draft" can be displayed in the classroom or published in some form.

Case Study

In order to test this technique with elementary school-level students, I worked with eight Korean students. Two were in 4th grade, two were in 5th grade, and four were in 6th grade. All students reported having studied English at school since the 3rd grade. The two 4th graders had two hours of English daily at school, while the remainder had two hours a week. All students were enrolled in English lessons at a private language school. The English lessons at the language school typically focused on grammar and structure with the instruction being carried out in Korean. I taught these students for a total of four hours. This small sample describes how I used dictogloss at the end of a four-hour thematic unit on space.

Lesson One

Classroom English Activity

Central to this technique is Cooperative Learning, the instructional use of group work. Therefore, the students need to be able to use some classroom language. They need to have available to them the following examples of classroom language.

I heard ___________.
Did you?
How do you spell____________?
I think __________________.
What do you think?
Did you say ______ or ______?
How do you say ______in English?
I don't know.
I don't understand!
Pardon?
Excuse me?

Here I gave each student a piece of A4 paper and had them draw a picture of themselves. We made a wall display using the pictures and then added a large speech bubble to each face. Inside the speech bubble were examples of classroom language that the students needed to use when working in cooperative groups. This is also a useful activity, as it makes the classroom a print-rich environment.

- An oral pretest revealed that all students knew the names of the planets in English but could not spell them. They knew the cardinal numbers 1-9 but not the ordinal numbers.
- Concentration using the names of the planets. Here, the names of the planets were written on cards, two cards for each planet. I had the students around a table and I showed them the cards. I then placed the cards face down on the table in a random order. The students had to turn over one card, read the word, and then turn over a second card. If the second card matched the first, the student got to "keep" the cards, i.e., pick up the cards and receive a point for a correct match. However, the unmatched cards must remain in the same place on the table until they are matched.

Lesson Two

In pairs, the learners labeled an A4-sized picture of the Solar System. In the same pairs, they completed a Retrieval Chart about one planet (see Appendix A). The students read the information for this activity from wall charts that I had made. After this activity the students had to report to the class about one planet. I provided language models for this activity.

Lesson Three
The Magic School Bus

This is a short video about a class of teachers with an eccentric teacher who goes on a trip in space to visit the planets. The video is in English with English subtitles.

Lesson Four
Dictogloss

To do the dictogloss activity, I gave each student a worksheet to write on containing the single instruction: "After you listen to the paragraph about the Solar System, write down the words that you hear." The students then worked in cooperative groups of two to reconstruct the text.

RESULTS

The actual texts produced by the children vary both quantitatively and qualitatively. All children understood and completed the dictogloss activity. One group wrote six sentences, one group wrote seven, and two groups wrote ten sentences (see Appendix B).

An immediate impression is that none of the reconstructed texts look like paragraphs. Each sentence begins on a new line underneath the previous sentence, the mechanics of writing needs to be addressed; i.e., students need to learn to use full stops and then begin the next sentence immediately following the previous sentence. Only one sentence in all four texts contains an ordinal number, and in this case, it is written as a number not as a word. Despite this, all four groups of students placed the planets in the correct order. Two groups had a phase that was not in the original text – this could possibly be attributed to the video. The idea that Jupiter looks like ice cream must have been very meaningful to them! Other than this, the information about the planets is accurate. Some inappropriate adjectives are used, and in some sentences, articles are missing (see Appendix B).

Beyond the words on the pages, the students, while working in the reconstruction, were actively engaged in English and were on task for the whole class hour. From time to time, when I heard Korean, I drew the students' attention to the display of classroom language that they had produced and reminded them that they knew enough English to complete the task in English.

I did not get to the final stage of the technique with this group of students; indeed my objective had been to test a communicative technique with young learners of English to determine if it was a truly viable vehicle for increasing interaction. While demanding for both the students and myself as a participant teacher, the students did use English to reconstruct the text about the Solar System. With continued exposure to the technique, I posit that the process would become more beneficial each time, maximizing levels of interaction in English and potentially leading to greater long-term knowledge of English. I believe that dictogloss is a

useful activity to use with children who are learning English as a Foreign Language, as it gives them opportunities to engage in using language in interactive and cooperative ways.

CONCLUSION

Dictogloss is a multifaceted activity that can be used with young learners. It can be a tool to teach communicative language use, it can be an evaluation of a unit of work (this is how it was used in the case study), and it can be used as an adjunct to teach Cooperative Learning strategies. Dictogloss offers an opportunity to teach English as a Foreign Language in the Whole Language Approach while using prescriptive textbooks. Dictogloss is very flexible and helps teachers address the need for balance between fluency and accuracy in Communicative Language Teaching. Ur (2003) notes that current use of communicative approaches focuses on activities and lacks attention to instruction, explanation, and grammar. Dictogloss offers students both "bottom-up" and "top-down" aspects of speech-processing theory. Bottom-up processing requires the listeners to decode the individual sounds and words. Top-down processing requires the listener to use background knowledge about the topic, the text type, and the context when they predict and confirm the input. Brown (2001) includes these ideas as essential principles for designing both listening and speaking activities. He also encourages techniques that capitalize on the natural link between listening and speaking. To facilitate listening comprehension the teacher can present visuals to help contextualize the listening situation.

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APPENDIX A

Retrieval Chart

Name of Planet	Color	Unusual Features	Temperature	Distance from the Sun
Mercury				
Venus				
Earth				
Mars				
Jupiter				
Saturn				
Uranus				
Neptune				
Pluto				

APPENDIX B
Original and Reconstructed Texts

Original Text

The Sun is the star at the centre of our Solar System. The first planet is Mercury. It is very hot. The second planet is Venus. The Earth is the third planet and is the planet that we live on. Mars is the red planet and is the fourth planet from the Sun. Jupiter is the fifth planet from the Sun and is the biggest planet. Saturn is the sixth planet and it has beautiful giant rings. Uranus is the seventh planet, it is also very big. Neptune is the eighth planet. Pluto is the ninth planet in the Solar System and it is the smallest planet.

Texts Reconstructed by the Children

Group 1

The sun is the star at the centre of our solar system
Murcury is very very hot
Venus is very hot and there are many clouds
Earth is where we live in.
Mars is red planet
Jupiter is looks like ice cream.
Saturn is what planet have beautiful giant ring
Uranus is also very big.
Neptune is big.
Pluto is smallest planet

Group 2

The sun is very very hot
Mercury is small planet.
Venus is very beautiful
Earth is my house
Jupiter is biggest planet and red planet
Saturn has a ring
Uranus

Group 3

The sun is the star at the centre of our Solar System.
Mercury is very very hot.
Venus is very hot and has a lot of clouds.
Earth is where we live.
Mars is red planet.
Jupiter is biggest planet in our solar system and looks like ice cream.
Saturn has beautiful giant rings.
Uranos is big.
Neptune is big.
Pluto is the smallest planet in our Solar System.

Group 4

Sun is very hot
Mercury is very small planet
Venus is very very beautiful
Earth is very small and Earth is my house
Jupiter is very big left is cold and right is very hot
Saturn is has very beautiful ring
Uranus color is sky blue it has a ring.

Target Language Translation: Teaching English Using Korean

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ABSTRACT

Developing writing skills by having Korean students translate Korean stories into English may seem an antiquated approach. However, the criticism of translation is usually targeted towards translation into one's own language, not into the target language, as I advocate. I have found Target Language Translation to be an excellent stepping-stone to better writing. Further, the work done can be developed into other useful activities. In the beginning, students feel as though thrown in the deep end but soon realise that they can translate short Korean stories. Over time, various techniques can be employed to prevent direct translation, and support activities also help develop speaking and listening skills. A typical lesson might contain writing, reading out aloud, re-telling from memory, listening to the teacher tell the story, and asking questions about the story. With this method, it is amazing how much English can be produced in one lesson.

CLASS PROFILE

A typical class consists of about ten Korean graduate students, plus the occasional foreigner, studying for M.A. or Ph.D. degrees in Korean Studies with majors ranging from Korean art and music to Korean economics, history, and politics. Their English level ranges from intermediate to higher, and although English is a compulsory component of their study, they are all highly motivated learners. Their main motivation is to be able to read and write better for academic purposes, but I take it upon myself to incorporate speaking and listening activities, rationalising that if they can use the vocabulary and grammar that they come across in debate, it will aid memory retention and make the whole experience more interesting. The class is three hours long, but I divide it into two ninety-minute slots. Target Language Translation, Korean to English, is done in the first part, and a related reading, discussion, and song follow. I treat the first part here.

MATERIALS

The students in my class are quite intellectual in approach and, as I soon discovered, not at all interested in a functional notional style of learning, where a syllabus might be broken down into areas such as advising, apologising, time,

frequency, etc. Nor are they keen on repeating sentences in chorus for more than a few seconds.

The vast majority of English language textbooks on the market cater to the beginner to intermediate learner. A few are designed for higher levels, but none seem truly authentic. Worse still, many seem to present an American- or British-only view of how the world looks. Rather than use any single book, I have opted to create my own material on a weekly basis from a range of books, magazines, newspapers, and Internet sources. Given the latitude to do more or less as I like, all there needs to be is an interesting topic. Since my students are all majors of Korean Studies, I restrict myself generally to Korean or other culturally-related topics to maintain a level of coherence.

What I have found is that Korean students have plenty to say about Korea, even in terms of such weighty subjects as politics, economics, or philosophy. Sometimes, I become the student as I am lectured on the finer points of a certain argument in the text. This makes me wonder about the validity of the argument that insists one must know the culture in order to learn the language. It is quite true if one wishes to learn Korean or Japanese, but for an international language like English, there is no need for my students to be able to distinguish between "hot dogs" and "sausage sarnies" as commonly found in American and British language textbooks, respectively. With this in mind, I have taken it upon myself to turn the idea on its head and introduce translation into the class. Here, students translate parts of traditional Korean stories into English. In the beginning, they automatically go for the literal translation and find it very hard. Instead, I encourage them to cut longer sentences into shorter ones, or even re-phrase radically. For example, a "not only A but also B" type of phrase could just be translated as "A and B." In the beginning, the students find it daunting but soon learn that it can be fun. Not only that, they are learning the genre of telling stories; sometimes they translate by writing, sometimes they interpret with speech. To make it easier, in the beginning I might give them a prepared English translation to read for five minutes, then take it away, replacing it with the Korean version. A modification of this idea that I used in a low-level content-based class at a previous school was to choose a textbook that I knew had been translated into Korean. Of course, I told the students, and consequently, it was far easier to develop good discussions in English about the points raised in the text.

DEALING WITH THE CLASS

The most important thing I do is to aim for active student participation from the beginning. Before handing out any material to read, I elicit or raise the topic by asking a few provoking questions. If done well, some students might almost snatch the papers from my hand as I pass them out. With interesting content that simulates cognitive critical thinking, students are coerced into having meaningful exchanges concerning the details of the text. In order to do this, I provide thought

provoking material, sometimes funny, other times serious. I sometimes provide comprehension questions, and half of the time they are done in a spoken format.

I do not focus on grammar at all, but if several students are having the same problem, a note may be made on the board, and a little practice may follow. Naturally, I elicit what I want from the students that know, and after practising a couple of times, the students get back into their tasks without having to be told. I do not believe that this is following Skinner' s (1968) behaviouralist approach at all. Any drilling that is done emerges from those students who wish to do so. I encourage a lot of speaking, as it allows students to communicate and convey far more information. Of course, many mistakes in speech occur, but unless common, they are mostly ignored, thereby giving inter-language (Selinker 1972) a chance to work. When writing, I have them work in pairs to promote communication, taking turns to write. Summaries of texts are sometimes asked for. Before students write, I may summarise the text myself verbally, giving them a chance to listen, just to make sure everyone is on the right track.

Depending upon the topic at hand, I sometimes bring in relevant pictures, charts, supporting material, or other realia, to be used according to Asher' s (1977) method of total physical response. For example, having loosely discussed the source of wealth in terms of the different approaches to money in different cultures, I showed how the importance of the number twelve in the UK was even reflected in old British money, twelve pennies to a schilling etc., and had my collection at hand for the students to practice calculating costs in twelves rather than tens – an absolutely alien concept that generated great interest.

For Target Language Translation, an important point is to choose materials that are interesting, yet challenging. Typically, they first try to translate word-forword, which results in clumsy English. This is tolerable for a couple of weeks, but various methods can be incorporated to deal with it. For example, I give out the Korean text for two minutes, then take it away. Since most of the stories are well known, the students do not need further reference to the Korean text, but papers can be handed out again for a further minute or so on an individual basis, if required. If it still proves problematic, I hand out the English version and let them read it for a few minutes before retrieving it again. What this does is force the students to create their own English independent of the Korean text. Other connected production activities are to have students tell their stories to each other. At first it proves quite difficult, but as they have just written the story out by themselves, they find it possible. They have no problem with memory retention because they usually know the stories already. With such a strategy, the same material can be covered several times without it becoming tedious, for example, writing, reading out what has been written, re-telling from memory, listening to the teacher tell the story, asking questions to partners about the story, posing followup questions on what you would do in the same situation, and so on. Once the students develop dialogue, critical thinking in English can be targeted.

It is impossible to teach L2 in the same way we acquire our L1. Cognitively advanced brains learn faster, but have problems in transferring what is learned to the unconscious. Simply, I recognise that the way we acquire language naturally, and the way I teach, or this approach, are quite different, although the goal remains the same. However, I believe that encouraging critical thinking to promote the meaningful usage of language helps in transferring what has been "learned" into the "acquired," and that it is possible to beat the critical period hypothesis in the classroom.

Learner Roles

In my class, the students do most of the work. In order to promote authentic student-to-student communication, I usually have the students work in pairs to produce one piece of work. In order to encourage this, at the beginning of the semester I give one pair a single piece of blank paper to write on. At first they use Korean, but soon realise that the point is to communicate in English. I apply little pressure and encourage the process rather than drive it. Dictionaries are allowed, but asking a partner or another pair is the preferred choice. Although it is a struggle to get started, by mid-semester the students quite enjoy it; by the end of the semester they work a lot faster and have a lot more confidence in their own ability.

To lessen the amount of time I talk and stand at the front, I walk around helping the students with their tasks. I increase the learner' s role passively by reducing my own. With my advanced students, this works quite well, but with lower-level ones, I have to be more careful. When student-to-student communication breaks down, their automatic response is to stop, look up, and expect to see the teacher at the front directing the class. But generally, as the semester continues, so the learner role increases. What happens is that students help each other more and more, ideally to the extent that their inter-language slowly develops from the stage of not knowing a rule, through knowing it but not producing it, to producing it. When the students are in control, what sometimes happens is that the class takes a different direction to what was planned. I view this as a positive occurrence and am willing to follow their lead.

Homework is rarely mentioned, yet they know what they have to do. As anything they have studied is likely to appear on the final exam, students are encouraged to collect all the material I give in a neat and tidy format, usually a folder, and re-read it from time to time. Generally, they write-up the translations and comprehension questions after the lesson.

Teacher Roles

I see my main role in teaching Target Language Translation as being to provide a good learning environment for the keen student. My secondary role is to motivate the students, to let them know that it can indeed be done. Students have

to move through their period of class "acculturation" (Hofstede, 1991) and end up in the positive if my class is to be successful. At the beginning of the semester, I need to tread carefully and not demand too much of wary students. The materials are easy, the tasks are easy, and I place my effort in encouraging the students to work with each other. In order to do this, it is important to reduce the competitive factor. Ever present in the Korean education system is competition. In middle and high school, every student has a class rank according to their latest test, and therefore, in such a competitive environment, students are not encouraged to share what they know with their peers. Accordingly, since the final exam is ever present in the Korean student's mind, I let them know from the first day that the exam will only be based on what is done in class, that the class is not competitive but cooperative, and therefore that they will also be graded on participation. In the beginning, the class is more teacher-centred but after a couple of weeks a subtle shift sees the students take centre stage. One trick is simply to not stand at the front. In fact, by mid-semester my students are trained so well that if I walk to the front, they sometimes stop, look up, and wait for me to speak.

My role in this class is to wander around between the groups and correct their written work and answer any questions in person, allowing authentic communication. Problems in their written work are just underlined; when I come back, the correction has been made, and is usually correct. Common problems may be highlighted on the board. Question answering is always done face-to-face. If I ask a student a question in front of the whole class, I generally only ask those who I know already know the answer. This is because the problem lies not in the answer, but in the physical act of speaking English in front of everyone. Towards the end of the semester, I find that students are far more willing to respond and are not so shy of making mistakes or getting it wrong.

Another important role for the teacher is to spot when students show avoidance behaviours (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Avoiding speaking due to a perceived lack of skill is a missed opportunity to communicate and expand their language skill. By dealing with it when it happens, I like to think I am planting a seed of confidence in an otherwise self-doubting student.

CONCLUSION

While my three-hour classes are generally broken down into two parts, plus something extra, like a song, each lesson follows a common theme, such as politics, economics, war, sport, a recent scandal, etc. This is reflected in what I choose to have the students translate (Korean to English), read, and discuss. Even the extra activity, such as a song, will, if possible, be somehow linked to the theme. While most of my material might suggest a simple reading and writing syllabus, the way I approach it means that speaking and listening are also developed. Having lived and taught in Korea for more than nine years I am now fairly well ac-

quainted with their culture and education system and have several aces up my sleeve to reduce student anxiety that result in production.

In analysing the above, I think that each of my lessons might be considered a mini content-based lesson that expands both their language and cognitive abilities, and that the approach is mainly communicative. However, I do not feel as though I have to stick to any particular approach and will readily use anything that comes to hand, be it skill- or task-based activities, or the occasional drilling of a grammar point.

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Conceptual English for Korean Students: Cross-linguistic Influence

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ABSTRACT

This paper outlines the reasoning behind some of the mistakes that Koreans make when studying English in Korea and aims to show that some are due to the conceptual differences that exist between Korean and English. Conceptual differences are explained as gaps in knowledge, such as where the target language has additional structures in its syntax, lacks particular structures, or entertains different ways of thinking in pragmatic terms. Interference is often dismissed as being mistakes made due to the inappropriate application of grammatical rules. However, on analysis, many errors are the predictable result of conceptual differences. It is therefore possible to show a direct relation between the native L1 and the L2 produced. Therefore, the hypothesis is made that the sooner the conceptual differences are overcome, the faster the interlanguage of the students will develop. Some ideas to overcome conceptual differences are also suggested.

INTRODUCTION

The title of this study suggests that difficulties can arise when Koreans learn English due to a difference in perception of the world in grammatical terms. Linguistic relativism asserts that the distinctions made in any language are unique. In lexical terms, for example, Japanese see the green traffic light as "aoi," or blue. Yule (1996) cites the examples of Eskimos who have many words for snow, pointing out that language can reflect cultural concerns. What this tentatively suggests is that there is indeed a case for interference and that it is sometimes intermingled with culture.

Native English teachers based in Korea who study the linguistically "distant" Korean language have difficulties that seem to reflect those faced by their students, yet in reverse. Rather than being faced with simple differences of interpretation of blues and greens, between English and Korean there seem to be strikingly different ways of rendering states of being "in thought" into "practical words" uttered. For example, in Korean it is the case that inanimate objects do not possess things as they do in English. On counting the legs on a table a Korean typically says, "dari negae itta," which literally means, "There are four legs on the table," whereas an English speaker generally uses the possessive verb "have" to say, "The table has four legs."[1] The problem here is that what the Korean says is gram-

matically correct, but culturally wrong in the sense that a native speaker is only likely to say such in certain situations. Accordingly, I postulate that when Koreans overuse the verb “be” in such cases, it is due to interference, and that this interference is not only based on simple grammatical differences, rather, included within is also a difference in the way in which Korean grammar leads Koreans to view the world slightly differently. In the beginning, interference may be evidence that they are thinking in Korean, but over the long term, it could become a permanent feature that fossilises. Therefore, in order to overcome this problem, Koreans need to change their conceptual perspective, to ascribe possession to inanimate objects, and begin to use the possessive verb “have” more freely in English.

This “have” / “be” conceptual divide also reveals itself when expressing experience. For example, in the phrase “(na-neun) miguk-e gabon jeok-i itta,” meaning “(I) have been to America,” Korean uses its verb of existence to express the same meaning carried by the English verb “have.” Another example showing the broader range of use of the Korean verb of existence is to express when someone (or something) is no longer present. Where a Korean would typically use their verb of existence to say, “eopseojeosseoyo” meaning, “(He) no longer exists (here*)*,” an English speaker would use the present perfect tense, which by an unfortunate quirk of nature confusingly includes the verb “have” to state, “He has disappeared.” The English speaker could say, “He is not here.” but this fails to include the meaning that he was here previously but now is not.

While subjects such as pragmatics have managed to carve out a distinctive niche for themselves in the realm of linguistics, the topic of L1 transfer / interference has tended to remain rather at the sidelines of other discussions. Perhaps the main reason is that most errors are discussed based on deficiencies in intralingual skills concerning only the target language, rather than interlingual ones due to the Chomskian tendency to oust interference as it is commonly deemed as a “behavioural” bad habit. Of late, however, interest in the topic of interference seems to be increasing. For example, on searching the Internet for sources of information on L1 transfer or interference, more than a few related sites were found to originate in Japan. What might be at play here is the fact that native speakers of English in Japan are often encouraged or required to learn Japanese. Indeed, it is considered almost essential for college or university teaching posts, or promotion to supervisory positions in language schools; perhaps nowhere else in the world do so many teachers actually learn the language of their monolingual EFL students. Accordingly, it may be the case that learning Japanese has given these teachers direct insight into the problems facing their students and that one area of interest that has surfaced is interference.

Possible questions this study might help resolve are:

1. Do students make conceptual based errors?
2. Can the conceptual based errors be identified?
3. Are the conceptual based errors interference?
4. Can such errors be corrected?

Definitions used in this study:

- Error - noticeable deviation reflecting a lack of known rules
- Mistake – a deviation based on the incomplete application of known rules
- Conceptual difference – a difference in structure between the L1 and L2 that leads to errors.

ESTABLISHING A CASE FOR INTERFERENCE

Chomsky's criticism of behaviourism brought with it the denouncement of language transfer since it was thought to be a habit-associated phenomenon. If, for example, L2 learning was not a behavioural activity, then language transfer, being associated as a "bad habit," could not be considered as a major factor in L2 learning. Dulay and Burt (1974a) hypothesised that similar patterns of development would occur in child L1 and child L2 acquisition. Accordingly, they designed an experiment to compare child L1 and L2 language development processes in terms of the acquisition of grammatical morphemes. What they found was that their test subjects, Spanish and Chinese learners, both appeared to go through the same learning process making similar developmental mistakes. This suggested to them that rather than language transfer, the root cause of mistakes lay more in universal factors and that L1 and L2 learning had more in common than any perceived differences. What is apparent is that the words "interference" and "language transfer" have somehow achieved for themselves an air of negativity.

Gass and Selinker (1994, pp. 88-89) discuss studies that suggest the role the native language plays in language learning is being underestimated. They cite a study by Sjoholm (1976) of Finnish and Swedish speakers living in Finland finding that speakers made transfer induced errors when learning English and further showed that Swedish speakers made less errors than the Finnish, suggesting that English was easier for the Swedish speakers, as it is significantly closer to English in structure. Also mentioned is a study by Corder (1983) that states that the words "interference" or "language transfer" are intentionally excluded from the title of his paper, "A Role for the Mother Tongue in Language Learning," due to the negativeness they had come to represent. Gass and Selinker (1994, p. 89) then explain that "it was precisely these reasons that Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith (1986) suggested the term 'cross-linguistic influence.'"

"Interlanguage" is a term coined by Selinker (1972), being previously labelled as "transitional competence" by Corder (1967, p. 167), and is used to describe the language used by learners as they progress along a path towards fluency. Explaining interlanguage, Yule (1996, p. 195) writes that the student "Maria is producing a form which is not used by adult speakers of English, does not occur in L1 acquisition by children, and is not found in Spanish." From this then, a definition of interlanguage could be drawn up that had boundaries ranging from language forms

that have no relation to either the L1 or L2 (errors) up to a state where the forms resembled the target L2 (mistakes). In contrast, Richards (1971) was trying to determine the "grammar" of interlanguage by analysing learner errors that were intralingual, i.e., not attributable to interference but related to the incomplete application of rules focusing only on the target L2. His intralingual errors are better identified as mistakes, or temporary lapses that could be self-corrected. Such a study is more applicable to an ESL learning environment since it only aims at determining the developmental process of acquiring the L2, and is not concerned with interlingual errors that would obviously differ amongst groups of students with different native languages. In an EFL situation, however, knowledge of interference often proves useful for the teacher interested in locating the source of common errors.

According to Krashen (1981), language learning refers to a conscious effort to "learn" a second language whereas language acquisition is an unconscious ability where, typically, children "acquire" and come to know their L1. Here, language learning means receiving information, transforming it into knowledge, and storing it in the memory. At the other end of this spectrum is language acquisition, which for a second language involves a more intuitive interaction with native speakers where the acquirer forms their own rules from their experience. Obviously, in an EFL setting such as Korea, it is far more difficult for students to become acquirers. At the other extreme, Schutz (2000) explains that adolescents or young adults living abroad on ESL exchange programs sometimes acquire "near native fluency while knowing little about the language" (para. 4).

What this suggests, then, is that interference is more a product of language learning than language acquisition and, as such, might be a reflection more of an EFL learning environment since there is less opportunity to mingle and acquire fluency. This further hints that one could reduce the linguistic distance handicap by leaving one's home country and immersing oneself in the target culture since it is apparent that nature has more powerful language learning tools than human logic. Shumann (1986, p. 379) writes, "the learner will acquire the second language only to the degree that he acculturates," meaning that culture can not be isolated from language acquisition. Of course, this adds further disadvantage to the more distant EFL learning environment and thus makes it more a probable environment for interference to become a factor in L2 learning.

LINGUISTIC DISTANCE AND INTERFERENCE

It stands to reason that to learn English, any and every learner has no choice but to go through the same process of learning how to use articles, the verb "be," the present perfect tense, passives, and all other grammar, etc. Every student of say, the present perfect tense, goes through a stage of not knowing it (ignorance), knowing it but not able to use it (recognition), struggling to use it (learning), and finally, being able to use it (acquiring). Studies predict that similar languages would

benefit from positive language transfer and that linguistically different or distant languages would suffer from negative transfer. Indeed, several studies cited by Gass & Selinker (1994, p. 92-93) show this. Included therein (p. 92) is a 1982 study by Zobl who showed how Spanish learners of English picked up the definite article "the" earlier than Chinese learners, suggesting that "their native languages lead them down different paths." Further, Dechert (1988) suggests that the number of errors or mistakes increases in direct proportion to the linguistic distance between two languages. On translation, Nida (1964, p. 90) states that as the differences between cultures increase, knowledge of culture becomes increasingly important. However, it could also be the case that in linguistically similar languages, differences that do exist are harder for learners to recognise and interference could, in that sense, pose problems that are even more difficult to overcome. For example, Yutani (2002) indicates that while Japanese and Korean are quite similar and easy languages for beginners to advance in at great speed, what happens later is that such assumptions of similarity eventually lead to errors where even advanced translators, as he shows, are clearly interpreting material in ways that show they are thinking in their own L1 rather than the target L2.

For whatever reason, students in Asian L2 classrooms put in great effort yet have great difficulty in learning and acquiring L2 English. Contrasting this, it is well known that Koreans learn Japanese quite quickly due to their similar syntax and Chinese-based lexicons. For example, Korean language schools often claim that they can teach beginners to pass level 1 of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test in just one year.[2] Further, some language schools in Japan offer language courses that enable Korean students to pass Japanese university entrance exams written in Japanese, sometimes after only one year of study. In learning Korean, Japanese are initially handicapped by their comparative lack of vowels, but once this problem is overcome, they learn quickly. Of course, it goes without saying that Westerners would not be able to compete with Japanese or Koreans learning each other's languages due to the greater linguistic gap. In the long run, everyone might indeed make similar developmental mistakes along similar routes, as Dulay and Burt (1974) assert, but the linguistic distance between the languages would require far longer periods of study to achieve similar levels of competence. If positive transfer is a factor between Korean and Japanese, then it stands to reason that negative transfer plays some, or perhaps a major role, when Koreans (or Japanese) learn English as a second language.

An interesting observation is that it seems that as the idea of interference fell out of fashion, it was replaced by the notion of interlanguage. Yule (1996, p. 195), for example, labels interlanguage as "the basis of all L2 production." Therefore, he says, failure to develop from the level of interlanguage results in fossilisation. If interference is to have any influence, surely then, the only viable evidence lies somewhere in the realm of interlanguage, that process where the learners struggle to learn and acquire the target language through daily use and positive self-monitoring. And within that realm, if we supposed that all learning proceeded at the

same rate regardless of the native L1, then the obvious conclusion would be that all errors were developmental, and conversely, as seems to be the case, if learners of different L1s proceeded at different rates then the conclusion would be that linguistic distance must indeed be a factor and the evidence would manifest itself in interference. In support of this latter view, Benson (2000) explains that delay in learning the target L2 is in itself, interference. Further, she explains that interference manifests itself in many spheres such as phonology (foreign accent), syntax (literal translation), lexis (false cognates), and pragmatics (perceptions of formality). Finally, she states that interference can be conscious, such as when used as an avoidance strategy, or unconscious, such as when differences have not been thoroughly comprehended.

THE QUIZ AND BRIEF REVIEW OF RESULTS

A short 20-question quiz (see appendix) was designed and given to 61 students undertaking an extra-curricular Intensive English course in an attempt to provide direct evidence of conceptual differences. Accordingly, students were given a list of simple short phrases to translate from Korean into English. The Korean sentences were carefully chosen to see if university freshmen of intermediate standard could move beyond direct translation based on Korean thinking to a more natural one that demanded thinking in English to produce good results.

Comparing what the students wrote with what they should have written ought to determine whether or not students were thinking in Korean when translating and if, indeed, cross-linguistic influence was a factor. The quiz questions and an appropriate English version are provided in the appendix. Some results are as follows.

- *Questions 1-5*: Of 61students, 36 used verbs of existence within the first two questions that would commonly be translated into English using the possessive verb “has.”
- *Questions 6-7*: About half used the simple past tense, such as “He went there” / “He came here,” neither of which provide full information explaining that someone went and is still there. About half gave reasonably good answers such as, “He is here” / “He is there,” the only problem being that they fail to indicate the person came or went as part of the process. Only six students tried to use the present perfect tense, and of them, only three made grammatically correct responses, and even then, for only one of the questions (“He has come (here)” / “He has gone over there”).
- *Questions 8-9*: Thirty-six of the 61 students, or more than half, had problems with simple past tense verb agreement. Both these questions have plural subjects that require the usage of the past tense “were.” The common mistake evident was using the singular “was,” but some students also used the present tense “is/are.” A few students used “was” for one answer, and “were” in the next, suggesting that they are unsure, or guessing.

- *Question 10*: Only one student from 61 correctly translated this sentence as, "The people (who are) sitting on the grass are my parents." Of the remainder, only three students came close. When analysing the remainder of the mis-translations, the number of students who tried, albeit unsuccessfully, to use the relative clause "who are sitting on the grass" in their answers was about 40.
- *Questions 11-12*: Only two or three students managed to make acceptable translations using the causative. A few wrote nothing. Another common mistake was to use the passive. Although their grammar was quite disorganised, the number of students who made, or tried to make, the distinction between "forcing" in Q11 and "allowing" in Q12 in terms of giving food to the child was just ten.
- *Questions 13-14*: Most students wrote good English for these two sentences using only one verb. A literal translation might produce something like, "*Please buy bread and come" for Q13 and "*I rode a taxi and came" for Q14. However, only eight students tried to use two verbs trying to express the Korean form literally with examples like, "*I came here ride the taxi" and "Buy the bread and come." No students wrote the natural, "Please go and buy some bread" for Q13, but a large majority wrote the natural "I came by taxi" for Q14. The number of cases that suggest they might be thinking in Korean is quite low here.
- *Question 15*: The Korean descriptive verb "bokjap-hada" translates into English as either "busy" or "complicated" depending upon the context. Therefore, when describing a road, care has to be taken since "The road is complicated" is quite different to "The road is busy." The Korean equivalent sentence translates clearly as "busy" due the reference "to many cars." On analysing the answers, just one student used the word "busy" to describe the road. Another 20 used other words that describe "being busy" such as, "crowded," "stuck," "heavy traffic," "traffic jam," and "rush hour," etc. Another 21 used words that describe the road as being "complicated," "confused," "complex," or "a puzzle," etc.
- *Question 16*: The Korean word for "absent" is a verb but in English it is not. There is no from *"to absent." Accordingly, if a student uses it as a verb in English it could be because they simply assume that a verb in Korean must also be one in English. This is really the imperfect application of a rule and leads to a mistake but, for 22 students who produced variations of "*I absented my class," it has failed to get corrected even after seven years of study.
- *Questions 17-19*: Question 17 requires the use of the future modal verb "will" to express a vague future intention. This contrasts with the next two questions that require more certain forms of future expression such as "be going to" / "have arranged to." All but five students used "will" correctly for Q17, as predicted. The number of students that used "will" for Q18 and Q19 was 43 and 33, respectively. While not such a major problem, it does go against what

they are formally taught – that "will" is used for probable expressions and "be going to" is used for prearranged meetings or decisions.
- *Question 20*: The final sentence introduces "a pen," "a pencil," "a book," and "an eraser" that require the use of the indefinite article. "The pen and book" (or "the pen and the book") are then taken out of the bag, necessitating the use of the definite article. Korean has no such articles, and it goes without saying that this proves to be a very difficult rule to learn. Only one student wrote a reasonable answer, with another four being close. The remainder showed little understanding and either failed to include all the articles, or did so but failed to use the definite article to describe objects already introduced.

CONCLUSION

Analysis of the results shows that many students made the errors that I predicted. Of course, one critique of this survey is that, knowing Korean, I chose sentences that I knew the students would have particular difficulty with. However, rather than just choosing particularly difficult sentences, the ones I gave for translation were quite basic, especially so considering the intermediate level of the students. Rather, the sentences were chosen to highlight conceptual differences. In one sense, it would be easy to state that the errors were mistakes made due to the inappropriate application of grammatical rules. However, on analysis, many of the errors were a predictable result of the conceptual differences, and as such, it is possible to show a direct relation between the L1 and the actual L2 language produced. Therefore, the hypothesis is made that the sooner the conceptual differences are targeted and overcome, the sooner the interlanguage of the students will develop into good English.

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ENDNOTES

1 All Korean words are transcribed into English using the Korean Government's 2002 Revised Romanisation of Korean.
2 The Japanese Language Proficiency Test is run by the Japanese government. There are four levels of which level 1 is the highest.

APPENDIX

Twenty-Question Quiz

1 테이블에는 다리가 네 개 있어요. – The table has four legs.
2 내 코트는 큰 단추가 네 개 있어요. – My coat has four large buttons.
3 내 컴퓨터는 128MB RAM이 포함되어 있어요. – My computer has 128MB RAM.
4 그의 트럭은 바퀴가 6개 있어요. – His truck has six wheels.
5 내게 삼천원 있어요. – I have 3000 won.
6 그가 여기 와 있어요. – He is here / He has come.
7 그가 거기 가 있어요. – He is over there / He has gone over there.
8 그들은 행복했다. – They were happy.
9 엄마와 아들은 아주 기뻤어요. – The mother and son were happy.
10 잔디밭에 앉아 있는 사람들은 내 부모님입니다. – The people (who are) sitting on the grass are my parents.
11 어머니는 아이에게 억지로 약을 먹게 했다. – The mother made her child eat the medicine.
12 어머니는 아이가 아이스크림을 먹게 했다. – The mother let her child eat ice cream.
13 빵을 사오세요! – Please go and buy some bread!
14 택시를 타고 왔어요. – I came by taxi.
15 차가 많아서 길이 복잡해요. – The road is busy.
16 나는 수업에 결석했다. – I was absent (from class).
17 나는 그것을 나중에 하겠다. – I'll do it later.
18 그를 오후 6시10분에 만날 거예요. – I am going to meet him at 6 pm. / I am meeting him at 6 pm.
19 내일 아침에 그를 만나기로 했어요. – I have decided / arranged to meet him tomorrow morning.
20 나는 펜과 연필과 책과 지우개를 샀다. 나는 그것들을 전부 내 가방에 넣었다. 나는 펜과 책을 꺼내어 숙제를 했다. – I bought a pen, a pencil, a book, and an eraser. I put them all in my bag. I took out the pen and (the) book and did my homework.

V. Pronunciation

Phonetic/Phonological Awareness in EFL Classes

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ABSTRACT

The characteristics of aural perception in response to simple pure tones among English, Korean, and Japanese speakers were obtained. It was found that the English speakers were more likely to use vowels and semivowels in word-initial position in the transcriptions. On the other hand, the Japanese speakers had a strong tendency to use consonants, particularly labial stops. The Korean tendency was situated between the other two L1s. The differences in sounds of some common expressions can be explained in part, but effectively, by the appearance of such tendencies. This kind of phonetic/phonological approach could be applied to many EFL situations. The Korean language is said to have a richest inventory of mimetic or sound-symbolic expressions, which could be employed as a valuable learning resource. An awareness of this could provide an effective gateway to the application of better teaching methods in the EFL classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Aural perception seems to depend on linguistic/cultural properties. Phonetically symbolic expressions may be good examples. Most textbooks on introductory linguistics cover phonetics or phonology. However, how many foreign language instructors can convincingly demonstrate the expressions to their classes? Many learners might just mimic and memorize the expressions in the target language. This study started with a survey of such sound perception, which may be a basic part of every language. This work does not attempt to add to the construction of the "bow-wow" theory, but to show quantitative characteristics of phonetic/phonological perception in three languages as an aid to learners and educators in the EFL field.

EXPERIMENT

Methods

An experiment on sound perception was implemented in the following way:

1. Number of examinees (gender ratios – female/male), average age by L1 group.

   English speakers: 76 (45%F / 55%M), 30.6 yrs.
   Korean speakers: 29 (66%F / 34%M), 26.0 yrs.
   Japanese speakers: 650 (9%F / 91%M), 19.4 yrs.

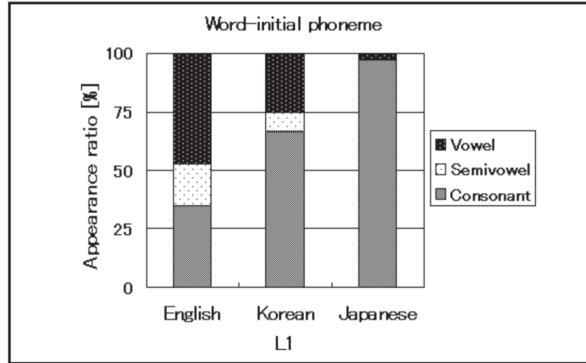
2. Test locations: California, Illinois, Pusan, Nagoya, Kyushu. Length of study: July 2002 to June 2003.
3. Test sound: A-characteristic (auditory-sense-adjusted) pure tones in the ascending or descending sequence of 250, 397, 630, 1000, 1587, and 3175 Hz through a MiniDisc player - PA system or portable CD players with headphones. The envelope of every sound consisted of a 0.2-sec. rise, a 2-sec. continuance, and 0.2-sec. fall parts.
4. Description: The instructions were first presented to the examinees who had no hearing impediment in either their L1 or English. They were required to write down the sounds on paper in an onomatopoeic way. Letters used for English speakers: the Roman alphabet; Korean speakers: Hangeul, the Korean alphabet; Japanese speakers: Katakana (Japanese phonetic script). Descriptions with musical scales with two or more pitches or with similes were not counted.
5. Script conversion: The descriptions were converted into a set of phonetic letters; for example, "eee" was transcribed as [i:]. The phonetic classification integrated four basic references: Fromkin and Rodman (1988), Schubiger (1973), Sohn (1999), and Tanaka et al. (1975). A simple six-vowel system was adopted for categorized comparison among languages. Consonants were also classified into groups from several viewpoints. For instance, in terms of articulatory manner, lax, aspirated and tensed stop consonants were grouped as if they were allophones. The consonant /h/ was classified as a glottal fricative. Japanese [F] is literally treated as a member of the [h] series in the syllabary, but here, was phonetically classified as a bilabial fricative (with the continuant and anterior features). This may be uttered as /p/ in Korean. English /f/ is, of course, a labiodental. Further, the liquids /r/ and /l/ were placed into semivowels and alveolars. This single criterion was applied to all the descriptions over the languages.

Results

This paper focuses on the word-initial phonemes because they can symbolize phonothemes (Haga, 1980; Cruse, 1986; Asai, 2003). Figure 1 shows the appearance ratios of the phonemes with the major phonetic categories of consonant, semivowel, and vowel. The English speakers used vowels more than consonants. On the contrary, the Japanese speakers used mostly consonants. The Korean tendency was placed between the other two L1s.

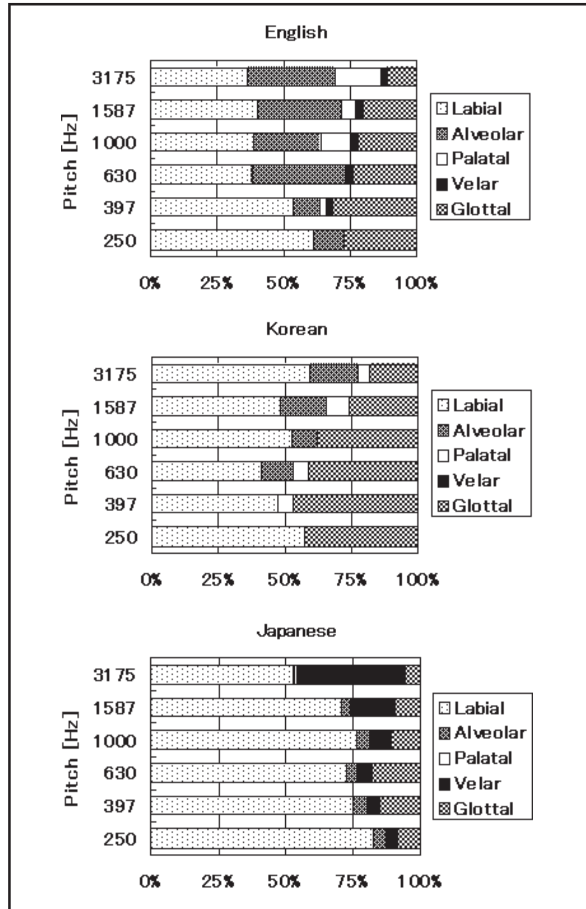
The next feature classification is the place of articulation. For the convenience of comparison, the grouping was simplified. For example, the bilabial and labiodental classes were bound into the labial. The interdental class was included in the alveolar. On the whole, the labial sounds frequently appeared. In Korean, labials and glottals were the main classes. In Japanese, labials and velars dominated. Remarkably, the higher the presented pitch was, the more frequently velars appeared.

FIG. 1. APPEARANCE RATIOS OF WORD-INITIAL PHONEMES BY L1
Here, the semivowels include glides and liquids.



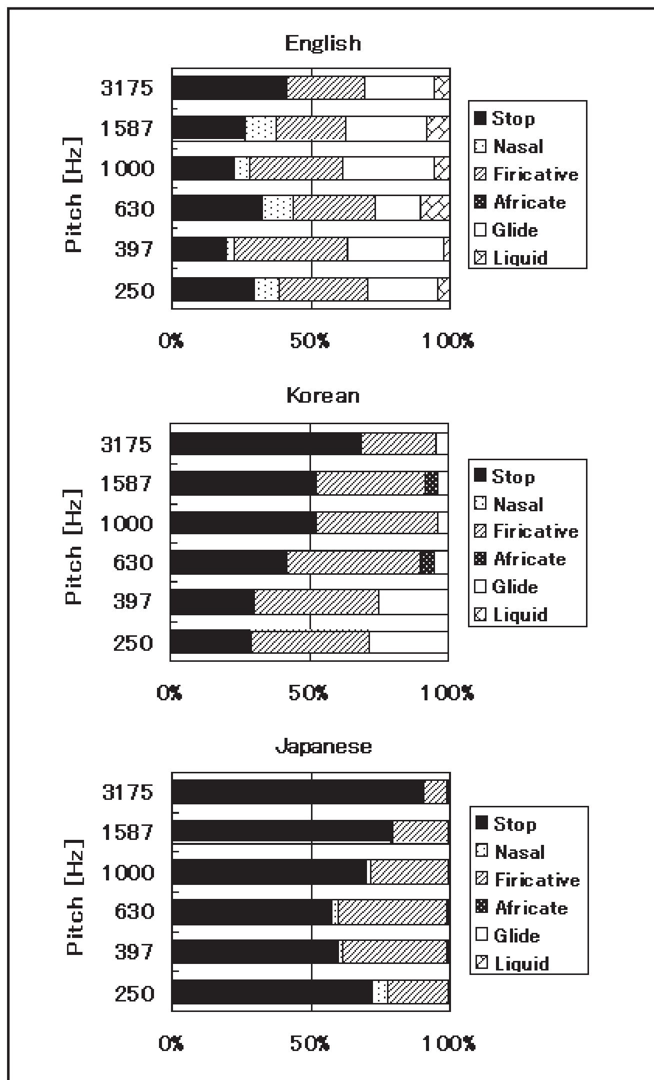
*** $p<0.001$

FIG. 2.
Classification of produced word-initial phonemes by the place of articulation:
The top panel shows data for the English speakers. The central panel is
for the Koreans, and the bottom is for the Japanese.



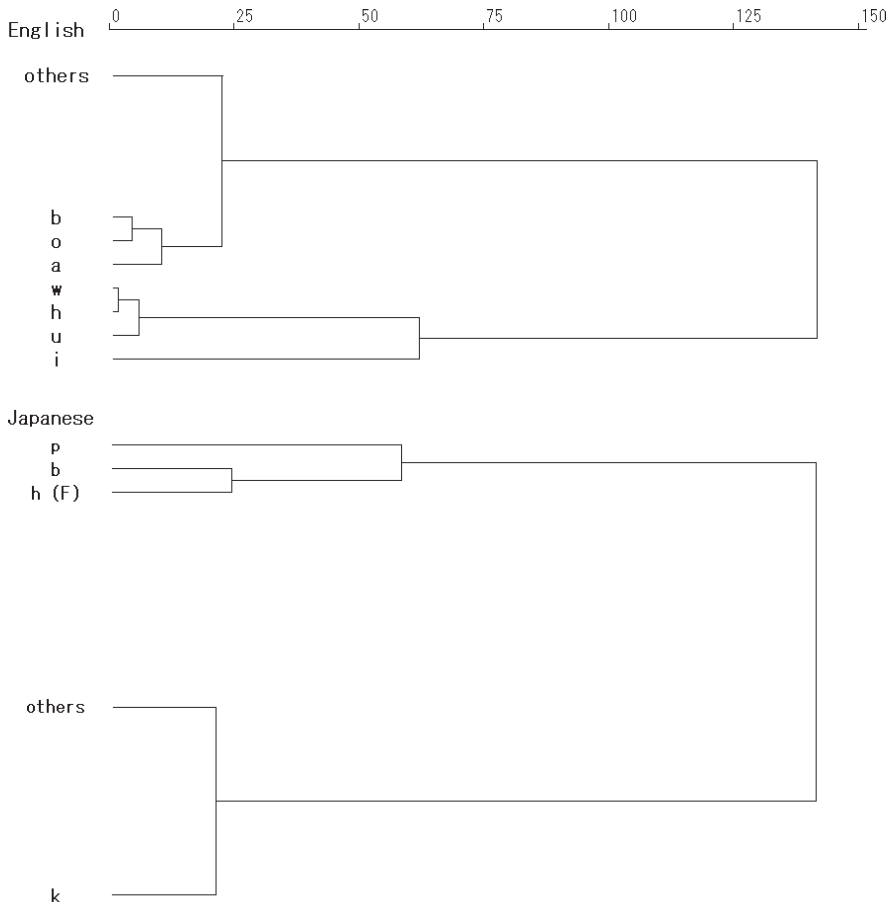
The next grouping is based on the manner of articulation by L1 as shown in Fig. 3. The English speakers used many kinds of phonemes. The Korean speakers chose to use the stop and fricative classes on the whole. For the low pitch sounds, they used the glide class in a relatively large portion of their descriptions. On the other hand, the Japanese speakers frequently used the stop class in all the pitches.

FIG. 3.
Classification of produced word-initial phonemes by the manner of articulation



According to statistical analyses, there are groupings of frequently appearing phonemes. Figure 4 shows the dendrograms obtained from a cluster analysis on the produced word-initial phonemes as exploratory factors (Yates, 1987).

FIG. 4.
Affinities of produced word-initial phonemes by cluster analysis:
The horizontal scale shows the normalized square Euclid distance
to represent how far or close the relation among the items is.
The data from the Korean speakers are not shown
because of their low statistics.



The length of a horizontal stem indicates the degree of affinity of the items. Note that some errors due to simplified grouping could be included. An overall view, however, extends the understanding of the classifications based on the appearance tallies shown in Fig. 2 and 3. The English speakers recognized /w/, /h/, and /u/ very closely. Three major clusters, (/p/, /b/, /h/), /k/, and all others, are evident in the Japanese data. Although no particular explanatory item was found in the English data, the vocalic and sonorant distinctive features are relatively large explanatory items in the Japanese data from the AIC evaluation, which indicates the degrees of contributing factors among variables (Akaike, 1974).

DISCUSSION

Even the same sounds thus led to diversity in perception by speakers of different L1s. This can be observed in everyday speech. Korean *meng-meng* may not be recognized as the bark of dogs by the speakers of the other languages. English speakers likely describe the sound of wind as *whoo*. On the other hand, many Japanese speakers describe it as *hyuu*, *pyuu*, or *byuu* depending on the power generated by the wind. These tendencies can be partially explained by the above results, as they only represented pure tones. In the English speakers' descriptions, /w/, /h/ and /u/ appeared at ratios of 11.3, 12.2, and 12.9%, respectively, in the word-initial phonemes as shown in Table 1. Contrastively in the Japanese speakers, /w/ and /u/ were 0.1 and 1.5 %, respectively. However, /p/, /h/, and /b/ were 43.7, 24.7, and 10.8 %, respectively. Thus, *pyuu* or its siblings will appear naturally among the native speakers' speech. The results of these appearance ratios as a whole agree with previous studies of sound symbolism (Heo, 1989; Hamano, 1998). Another example is the sound of sneezes. In English, it is often expressed as *atchoo*, *achoo*, etc. In Japanese, it is typically described as *hakkushon*. The /a/ appeared at a ratio of 8.8% in the word-initial phonemes from the English data as shown in Table 1. In Japanese, however, the phoneme had a ratio of 0.1%. Instead, /h/ had 24.7%, so /h/ would occur more naturally than /a/. Thus, although the above explanation may not substantiate wholly the reason for the differences, educators should consider this connection as an influence on aural perception.

TABLE 1.

Top 5 phonemes in the word-initial position appearance ratios [%] for all the pitches.

English		Korean		Japanese	
i	17.7	p,b	30.3	p	43.7
u	12.9	h	24.7	h (F)	24.7
h	12.2	u	11.1	k	12.1
w	11.3	i	6.8	b	10.8
a	8.8	w	6.2	t	1.7

The topic of sound-sense correlation has been discussed. Perhaps many historical linguistic/cultural aspects have contributed to the establishment of these tendencies. Although the arbitrariness of the relation between sound and meaning seems to still be supported (Cruse, 1986; Shibatani, 1990), the frequency of word-initial sounds is in fact skewed (Hinton et al., 1994). This study shows the distributions of appearances of word-initial phonemes in a specific condition. These characteristics could reflect differences in phonetic/phonological perception and expression by L1 speakers. The awareness of such differences between the L1 and target language is expected to be a source of motivation for learners. Through the results of this study, some commonalities between the Korean and the Japanese

perception have been noticed, despite the languages having different phonemic systems. Methodological development of this learning point can be shared.

Further experiments and analyses are suggested. More concretely, the number of Korean speakers studied should be increased. The diversity in the profile of Japanese examinees should be considered. The phoneme grouping should be examined more closely for a more precise discussion of linguistic and personal variations. This study covers pure tones only, but the use of complex tones or actual sound patterns would expand perspectives.

SUMMARY

The characteristics of aural perception in response to pure tones among English, Korean, and Japanese speakers were quantitatively obtained. The English speakers tended to use vowels and semivowels in the word-initial position to describe the pure tones. On the other hand, the Japanese speakers had a tendency to use labial consonants. The differences in sounds of some customary expressions could in part be explained by such "innate" tendencies. This type of phonetic/phonological approach could be applied to many EFL situations. Especially, the Korean language is said to have a vocabulary very rich in onomatopoeic expressions, which could be turned into a learning resource. This awareness could provide an effective gateway to learning for EFL classes.

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Strategies for Teaching Reduced Forms

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ABSTRACT

Reduced forms are weak pronunciations such as "wanna" for "want to." These reductions are a natural part of the spoken language of native speakers of English and, therefore, should not be viewed as nonstandard English. For ESL learners, mastering these weak forms is essential for listening purposes and optional (though perhaps advisable) for speaking purposes. If we limit the definition of reduced forms to monosyllabic function words, then the inventory of such forms is about forty. If we expand the definition, there are perhaps more than 200 reduced forms. For occasional references to reduced forms in the classroom, an ESL teacher may use approximate English spellings, such as "shoulda" for "should have." However, for more extensive study of these forms, the use of the IPA is recommended. Strategies for teaching reduced forms include the following: repetition, model conversations, listening dictation, cloze exercises, musical cloze exercises, student-writing, and advanced listening exercises. ESL teachers are advised to use a variety of methods to acquaint their students with reduced forms.

INTRODUCTION

There is a frustrating scenario that is all too familiar to ESL students. They study hard in class and do everything the teacher asks of them. They feel as though they are making progress and understanding more and more of what is said. However, later, outside of class, they encounter a native speaker or they hear the English teachers talking among themselves. The native speakers all talk so fast! Perhaps, it doesn't even sound like the same language that the students have been studying. Then they become discouraged realizing how much further they have to go in their English studies.

Part of the problem that the ESL learner encounters is, of course, the speed at which native speakers speak. ESL teachers, as sympathetic speakers and listeners, generally speak somewhat slower and articulate more while they are teaching. However, when native speakers of English are together, they naturally speak in a fast and relaxed manner. Without conscious effort, they constantly minimize their pronunciation and use linguistic shortcuts. Thus, in the normal conversation of a native speaker, "I want a cup of coffee" may sound like, "I wanna cup uh coffee," and "I would have gone with you, but I had to clean my room" may sound like, "I woulda gone with ya, but I hadda clean my room."

It is clear that there are different pronunciations of English. First, of course, there is the dictionary pronunciation. For example, in the question, "Did you go to the store?" there are six words. If you look these words up in a dictionary, you will see the pronunciation guide for each word, written in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). We call such pronunciations "strong forms," "full forms," or "citation forms." However, in connected speech, many changes take place. Most likely, an American speaker would ask the question above roughly as follows, "Didyagoduhthestore?" We call such pronunciations "weak forms," or "reduced forms." These weak forms, heard in rapid speech, constitute a major frustration for ESL learners, especially in listening comprehension.

WEAK FORMS AND "GOOD" ENGLISH

The question is sometimes raised as to the desirability of using weak forms in one's speech. There is, from time to time, an English teacher who claims that such forms are not "good" English, and that native English speakers should neither use them in their own speech nor teach them to ESL learners. However, one needs only to watch CNN or to view an English movie for a few minutes to realize the fallaciousness of such a claim. Weak forms are used naturally and unconsciously by speakers of all varieties of English.

To support this point, we can do no better than to quote some eminent phonologists:

> There is, of course, nothing slovenly or lazy about using weak forms and assimilations. Only people with artificial notions about what constitutes so-called good speech could use adjectives such as these to label the kind of speech I have been describing. Weak forms and assimilations are common in the speech of every sort of speaker in both Britain and America. Foreigners who make insufficient use of them sound stilted.
>
> (Ladefoged, 1993, p.109)

> It is possible to use only strong forms in speaking, and some foreigners do this. Usually they can still be understood by other speakers of English, so why is it important to learn how weak forms are used? There are two main reasons: first, most native speakers of English find an "all-strong-form" pronunciation unnatural and foreign-sounding, something that most learners would wish to avoid. Second, and more importantly, speakers who are not familiar with the use of weak forms are likely to have difficulty understanding speakers who do use weak forms. Since practically all native speakers of British English use them, learners of the language need to learn about these weak forms to help them to understand what they hear.
>
> (Roach, 2000, p.112)

> There are many reduced speech forms that occur in the everyday speech of *educated* native English speakers. … However, many nonnative speakers with long-term exposure to *written* English lack the necessary exposure to these reduced forms and may *mistakenly* believe that they represent slang or uneducated speech. When exposed to these forms in classes, learners sometimes insist that they want to learn "proper" or standard English instead.
>
> Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996, p.230) [Emphasis mine.]

It is clear then that ESL students need some methods by which to practice speaking and listening to weak forms. Fortunately, in recent years, ESL texts have tried to meet this need, and some helpful materials are now available.

Inventory of Reduced Forms

It is usually claimed that there are approximately forty or so reduced forms. However, the total figure depends on how we define the term "reduced form." If we take a narrow definition, the number of genuine reduced forms is, indeed, approximately forty. Kreidler, for example, restricts the term "reduced form" to "approximately 40 common function words," all of which are monosyllabic (Kreidler, 1989, p.258). Examples would include the preposition "to," which has a strong form, with a long vowel, and a weak form, with schwa. However, this narrow definition of reduced forms would not include the consonantal change that takes place when "did" is followed by "you."

From a technical standpoint, the narrow definition is, no doubt, correct. However, the phonological processes that create reduced forms, namely, vowel reduction, vowel loss, consonant loss, and assimilation, also apply to other language forms. Therefore, the term "reduced form" can also be taken in a broad sense to refer to all types of phonological processes. These would include, for example, the loss of schwa in polysyllabic words. For instance, the word "history" has a strong pronunciation with three syllables, "his-to-ry," and also a weak pronunciation with two syllables, "his-try," due to the loss of schwa. If we accept the broader definition of "reduced forms," the total inventory of reduced forms is expanded to more than 200.

From a practical point of view, in the course of teaching pronunciation, English teachers will want to make their students aware of all phonological processes. From this practical point of view, it seems appropriate to use the expression "reduced form" or "weak form" as a handy way of referring to all of the phonological processes that change pronunciation.

Representation of Reduced Forms

The next logical question to be dealt with is the representation of reduced forms. In other words, how should English teachers spell or write the weak form? There are two choices: (1) To use an approximate English spelling of the weak form, or (2) To use the symbols of the IPA. Authors and teachers sometimes use such spellings as "gonna" for "going to," "wanna" for "want to," "donno" for "don't know," etc. There are, in fact, some weak forms that lend themselves to such approximations. Thus, you can find books with titles such as "Analyzing Performance Problems: Or You Really Oughta Wanna" and "The Bob Love Story: If It's Gonna Be, It's Up to Me," and you can find songs with titles such as, "Gimme Gimme Good Loving," and "Lemme See Dat." For teaching ESL at the beginning levels, it may suffice to use such approximate English spellings.

With some reduced forms, however, there seems to be no approximate English spelling. For example, it seems difficult to find a proper understanding of the reduced pronunciation of "can" by transcribing it as "kin" (Weinstein, 2001, p.29). However, if students have some familiarity with the IPA, it will be simple enough to use the IPA spelling for the reduced form of "can," that is, the spelling with schwa.

The advantages to the IPA system are several: (1) It is the most scientific way of representing the sounds of a language; (2) It is the same method of transcription that is now used in most dictionaries; (3) It is beneficial for ESL learners to familiarize themselves with the IPA as soon as possible in their study of English; and (4) ESL learners should learn, when they hear "want to," they should write "want to" and not "wanna," since the latter is not acceptable in standard written English. As more reduced forms are studied, as in the case of intermediate and advanced students, it seems more appropriate to use the IPA for transcribing those forms.

On a practical note, the IPA symbols are now available on the Internet for download at the following website (courtesy of the International Phonetic Association): http://www.sil.org/computing/fonts/encore-ipa.html. There are three separate font families available in the download package at this site: SIL Doulos (similar to Times), SIL Sophia (similar to Helvetica), and SIL Manuscript (similar to Prestige). These fonts can be easily added to the inventory of fonts in MS Word.

METHODS OF TEACHING REDUCED FORMS

The purpose of this paper is not to examine the phonological processes involved in reduced speech forms (vowel reduction, vowel loss, consonant loss, and assimilation). For that, the reader is directed to the work of Kreidler (1989), Avery & Ehrlich (1992), Ladefoged (1996), and Roach (2000). Rather, our purpose is more practical, as the title indicates: Strategies for teaching reduced forms. Thus, we are interested in examining the teaching techniques that have this aim. The familiarization of ESL students with reduced forms. These methods will now be briefly described.

Repetition

A simple method of practicing reduced forms lies in repetition. In this approach, chunks of words or short sentences are heard and repeated by the ESL learner (Min, 1994; Williams, 2002). To practice the loss of "h," Min (1994, p.80) lists the following examples, which students repeat after hearing a native speaker on the cassette:

1. Yes, *he* did. No, *he* won't. So *he* told me.
2. Get *his* number. Hold *his* hat. Take *his* time.
3. Give *him* some. Show *him* where. Tell *him* everything.
4. Send *her* over. Call *her* up. Put *her* down.

Likewise, Williams (2002, p.102) offers the following short sentences for the form "have got to":

01. I'*ve got to* leave soon. 02. You'*ve got to* be quiet! 03. He *has got to* go immediately. 04. We *have got to* be careful. 05. She'*s got to* do better. 06. They *have got to* eat their vegetables. 07. It *has got to* work. 08. You *have got to* get an A this time. 09. Bill *has got to* go to the office. 10. We'*ve got to* get together soon.	11. This car *has got to* be good. 12. I'*ve got to* call her today. 13. You'*ve got to* help me on this project. 14. He *has got to* get to work on time. 15. She *has got to* find a better job. 16. This computer *has got to* work well. 17. You'*ve got to* help me on this! 18. The teacher *has got to* be there.

With this approach, the students have two main options: (1) They can look at the printed sentence while listening and repeating; or (2) They can simply close their books as they listen and repeat. In any case, this approach has the advantage of forcing the student to mimic the native speaker' s pronunciation of common weak forms in connected speech.

Sample Conversations

Another method of teaching reduced forms is simply to use a model conversation that includes many examples of a particular reduced form or group of such forms (Burke, 1998a; Burke, 1998b; Weinstein, 2001; & Williams, 2002). The following conversation, which emphasizes the reduced forms of "have got to" (in italics), illustrates the sample conversation approach (Williams, 2002, p.102). Such model conversations obviously tend to be somewhat contrived. However, it should be remembered that their purpose is not for memorization but to illustrate pronunciation in context.

LISA: Hey, Chuck, have you studied much for your final exam in history class?
CHARLES: Yes, I've been studying very hard. I'*ve got to* get an A on this test just to get a B for the course.
LISA: Yeah, me, too. I'm in the same boat. I'*ve got to* get a high A to get a B for the course.
CHARLES: Wow! Do you think you can do it?
LISA: I'*ve got to* do it! When I came to school, my parents said to me, "You'*ve got to* do your best. You'*ve got to* study hard. You'*ve got to* get all A' s and B's."

CHARLES: Your parents sound really strict.
LISA: Well, they are, but they love me. They feel they'*ve got to* be strict with me, because, I will admit, I get a little lazy sometimes.
CHARLES: Well, then, both of us *have got to* do better.
LISA: Yeah. We can't get into this situation again.
CHARLES: I agree. Next semester, we'*ve got to* work harder at the beginning of the semester, so we don't have so much pressure at the end.
LISA: You are so right.
CHARLES: Well, we still have to eat. I'*ve got to* have some lunch now. You want to join me?
LISA: Sounds good. Let's go.

When using this approach, students are encouraged to speak quickly, as the native speakers do, and to pronounce the reduced forms in context.

Listening Dictation

Listening dictation can also be used to teach reduced forms. One of the better-known books on listening dictation is that of Morley (1976). In Morley's approach, students have before them a list of blank lines in their workbook. They hear a sentence spoken three times. They are supposed to listen, repeat, and write. To aid them in their writing, the total number of words is given at the end of the blank line as the following example illustrates.

1. ________________________________ (7 words).
2. ________________________________ (5 words).
3. ________________________________ (10 words).

Thus, with Morley's dictation approach, the student might hear the following for number one, which consists of seven words:

Number 1
Listen and repeat: *Bill wants to go to the store.*
Write: *Bill wants to go to the store.*
Check: *Bill wants to go to the store.*

This method has the advantage of involving the student in listening, speaking, and writing at the same time.

Cloze Exercises

One of the most practical ways of teaching reduced forms for listening purposes is to use cloze exercises (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Weinstein, 2001; Williams 2002). Weinstein (2001, p.21) offers the following conversation in her chapter on the forms "what do you"/"what are you" (How-

ever, the unit builds on previous units, and the blanks include other forms). Students fill in the blanks as they listen to the cassette.

Kenji: So, ____________________ __________________ ________________ think we should do first?
Tim: __________________ __________________ __________________ say to __________________ some lunch? Should we eat before we bungee jump?
Kenji: No, that's not a good idea. Tim, __________________ __________________ __________________ __________________?
Tim: Soda.
Kenji: Water is better.
Tim: I drank all __________________ my water. Could I have some __________________ __________________?
Kenji: Sure, but don't drink too much before __________________ jump. Now, let's get ready.
Tim: __________________ __________________ we need to do?
Kenji: Decide who's __________________ first. *You* look ready.
Tim: __________________ __________________ __________________ mean? *I'm* not ready.
Kenji: Tim, ______________ __________________ __________________ __________________?
Tim: My "will."

After listening and filling in the blanks with the missing words, the students practice the conversation.

Cloze exercises do not require entire conversations. They can also be used for sentences that stand alone without being part of a conversation. Williams (2002) has such a section in each unit. For example, in the unit on questions with "when," the student sees the following sentences:

1. ______________ to finish? ______________ dinner?
2. ______________ his degree? ______________ a job?
3. _________ to visit your parents ? ______ to see you?
4. __________________________________ a vacation?
5. __________________________________ to meet us?

The student hears each sentence spoken at normal speed three times with no pause in between. Thus, for number one, the student hears: "*When are you going* to finish? *When are you having* dinner?" three times.

This approach has the advantage of concentrating the student's attention on the forms that are being emphasized in that unit. The method saves time since the

student does not have to write every single word, only the most important ones for that unit.

Musical Cloze Exercises

Students may find it appealing to listen to an English song and fill in the blanks with the missing words. Songs, as in conversation, also contain examples of reduced forms that mimic conversational English. An obvious example of such English is the theme song from the movie "Bad Boys" (1995). The theme song begins, "Bad boys, bad boys, *whatcha gonna* do; *whatcha gonna* do when they come for you?" The song would no doubt lose its emotional impact and appeal if the singer sang without weak forms, "Bad boys, bad boys, *what are you going to* do; *what are you going to* do when they come for you?"

Miller offers the following such exercise using the song "Leaving on a Jet Plane" (words and music by John Denver). The song was specifically chosen because "the melody and rhythm of this song follow the intonation and stress patterns of spoken English" (Miller, 2000, p. 210).

All ________ bags ________ packed, ________ ready ________ go,
________ standing here outside ________ door.
________ hate ________ wake you up ________ say good-bye.
________ ________ dawn ________ breaking, ________ early morn.
________ taxi's waiting, ________ blowing ________ horn.
Already ________ ________ lonesome ________ ________ cry.
etc.

Student Writing

In this approach, students create their own questions using reduced forms. Prompts are given so that the exercise is restricted to the particular reduced forms being studied. The students can then ask their questions to a partner, who will, in turn, ask his/her own questions. Students are encouraged to use reduced forms when asking their questions. Williams (2002, p. 85) offers the following exercises for students to complete in order to practice the reduced forms of "don't" and "won't" (with loss of the "t" sound):

1. What is one kind of food that you don't like?
   I *don't like* ______________________.
2. What is one kind of music that you don't enjoy?
   I ____________________________.
3. Who is one person that you won't ever meet?
   I ______________________________.
4. What is one thing that you don't ever do on Sundays?
   I ________________________.

This approach involves the students in creating their own sentences, which is always advantageous for speech production.

Advanced Listening Exercises

A number of challenging listening exercises can be utilized for advanced students. These include screen English (movies), CNN, and PBS. In listening to these media, students hear authentic English and are forced to try to decipher the reduced speech forms as they hear them. Teachers can use their own creativity to devise ways of helping students understand the weak forms that they hear. For example, a portion of a film can be viewed, and then its language can be discussed step-by-step, with or without a printed transcript.

CONCLUSION

The use of reduced forms in connected speech is a natural part of all varieties of English. For speaking English, using reduced forms is optional for being understood. Most non-native speakers of English will be understood if they speak only with strong forms. However, students who want to sound more like native speakers or who want to live or study in an English speaking country would do well to master reduced forms. While speaking English with reduced forms may be optional, for listening to English, knowledge of reduced forms is mandatory for understanding. English teachers are encouraged to utilize a variety of approaches in helping their ESL students grow in both listening comprehension and speaking ability.

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VI. Grammar

Non-generic Use of the Definite Article *The* by Persian Learners

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ABSTRACT

Non-generic use of the English definite article is one of the problem areas of foreign language learning for Persian speakers. In this study, subjects were placed in different proficiency groups based on the results of a Cambridge First Certificate in English test. The participants responded to an instrument which consisted of 91 sentences by inserting the definite article wherever needed. The results show that out of four non-generic uses of the definite article, cultural use continues to be a problem for all language proficiency groups irrespective of the language proficiency. Structural use and textual use are the next in importance in problematic areas. Finally, situational use is the least problematic area. It is implied here that learners first learn the situational and textual uses and then the structural and cultural uses. The results also confirm overuse of the cultural category by all groups with steady decrease along with proficiency improvement. Finally, missing the obligatory use of the article does not seem to stop with proficiency improvement. Pedagogically these findings could be incorporated into syllabuses.

INTRODUCTION

Acquisition of the English definite article system has been one of the difficult areas for foreign and second language learners. More specifically, it has been one of the most frustrating areas for those learners whose language article system does not bear any resemblance to the English article system. On one hand, Persian is one of the Indo-European languages which, as Faghih (1997) concludes, has no article system equivalent to the English system. However, he believes, the context of discourse makes the meaning clear. For example, “medad” would mean either “pencil” or “the pencil” based on the context. He further comments on the lack of any single word in Persian corresponding exactly to the English definite article *the*. He speculates that the acquisition of *the* will be difficult for Iranian students.

On the other hand, English grammarians and second language acquisition (SLA) practitioners generally divide the use of *the* into two main categories, namely, “generic” and “non-generic.” Species, races, and people of nations are generally referred to by generic use, for example “The English is very fluent,” while in the rest of the situations, non-generic use is employed. Hawkins (1978) identified eight types of non-generic uses:

1. Anaphoric use: Use of *the* when something is mentioned a second time and subsequently, for example, "Last summer we stayed in a hotel in Shiraz. The hotel was a five star one."
2. Visible situation use: Use of *the* for the first time when speaker and hearer can see the object, for example, "Could you pass the salt, please!"
3. Immediate situation use: as in Type 2, but it may not be immediately visible, for example, "Don't open the box. The snake will bite you."
4. Larger situation use relying on specific knowledge: Use of *the* with the first-mention noun because it is known in the community, "The café net in a small village."
5. Larger situation use relying on general knowledge: Use of *the* with something that one can assume people from a country or around the world should know, for example "The moon," or "The White House" meaning the U.S. government.
6. Associative anaphoric use: as in Type 1, but the second noun (instead of being the same noun) is related to the previously mentioned noun, for example, "We went to the class. The lecture was boring."
7. Unfamiliar use of noun phrases with explanatory modifiers: Use of *the* with a first-mention noun being modified by a clause or phrase, for example, "The papers that are published by this journal are refereed by two people."
8. Unfamiliar use in noun phrases with non-explanatory modifiers: as in Type 7, the only difference being that the modifier does not provide explanatory information. For example "My wife and I share the same secret," where the modifier *same* does not inform us as to what the secrets are but "only points to an identity between the two sets of secrets, my wife's and my own" (Hawkins, 1978, as cited in Liu and Gleason, 2002, p.6).

Liu and Gleason (2002) combine some of these categories and establish four main categories:

The first is cultural use, where *the* is used with a noun that is a unique and well-known referent in a speech community. The second is situational use, where *the* is used when the referent of a first-mention noun can be sensed directly or indirectly by the interlocutors or the referent is known by the members in a local community, such as the only dog in a family or the only bookstore in a town. The third is structural use, where *the* is used with the first-mention noun that has a modifier. The fourth is textual use, where *the* is used with a noun that has been previously referred to or is related to a previously mentioned noun. (p. 7)

As these four types of uses require different background knowledge (linguistic or sociolinguistic, or both), it is hypothesized here that they will be learned at different stages by second language learners imposing different difficulty levels for learners with different language proficiency levels.

HYPOTHESES

It is hypothesized here that these four uses, textual, structural, situational, and cultural (1) will be learned at different stages by second language learners and (2) will impose different difficulty for learners with different language proficiency levels.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

A Cambridge First Certificate in English Test was administered to 49 Iranian undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Tabriz. Based on their scores (and according to the quartiles of the scores), they were put into four proficiency groups hereafter called Low (13 subjects), Intermediate (13 subjects), Upper-intermediate (11 subjects), and Advanced (12 subjects). All subjects spoke Persian as their mother tongue.

Procedure

An instrument consisting of 91 sentences was used to test the use of *the* by these learners. They were asked to put *the* wherever they felt it was required. In 60 sentences (15 in each category), the obligatory use of *the* was deleted and the remaining sentences were included as distracters and control items. The subjects were asked to put *the* in these sentences wherever they felt it was needed. The categories mentioned above were later coded and analyzed by the SPSS program.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Missed Obligatory Use of *The*

The mean value of each missed obligatory use of *the* in each category was calculated and the results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.
Means of Missed Obligatory Use of t*he*
by Four Proficiency Groups

Groups	N	Textual	Structural	Situational	Cultural
Low	13	4.31	4.38	2.46	8.08
Intermediate	13	3.38	2.46	1.15	6.46
Upper-intermediate	11	2.91	1.73	1.36	7.27
Advanced	12	2.58	1.58	0.83	6.75

The mean value comparison shows that the number of missed obligatory use decreases as the proficiency level increases. Textual, structural, and situational uses improve significantly with proficiency, but cultural use does not improve, as the mean of missed obligatory use does not show any significant difference between different proficiency groups.

A Kruskal-Wallis Non-parametric Test was run to find out any difference between the groups. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2.
Results of Kruskal-Wallis Test Comparing Missed Obligatory Use of *The* by Four Proficiency Groups

Category	df	Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.
Textual	3	3.620	.305
Structural	3	9.317	.025
Situational	3	12.852	.005
Cultural	3	1.356	.716

As Table 2 shows, no difference was found in textually and culturally missed obligatory uses of *the*, but there is a difference between the groups in the case of structurally and situationally missed obligatory uses of *the* as the asymp. significance is less than 0.05.

Overuse of *The*

The results as shown in Table 3 reveal the difference between the four proficiency groups. The mean values indicate a drastic decrease of overuse of *the* in textual contexts from 3.08 by the Low group to 0.67 by the Advanced group. A similar decrease (one third) occurs as language proficiency increases in situational contexts. Overuse of *the* in structural contexts also shows a steady, but not vanishing, decrease from 6.38 by the Low group to 2.83 by the Advanced group. But overuse of *the* in cultural contexts is a bit complex, as the occurrence of overuse only falls about fifty percent from 4.69 by the Low group to 2.91 by the Upper-intermediate students and slightly decreases to 2.58 in the case of the Advanced students.

Table 3.
Means of Overuse of *The* by Four Proficiency Groups

Groups	n	Textual	Structural	Situational	Cultural
Low	13	3.08	6.38	3.23	4.69
Intermediate	13	1.92	5.08	2.54	4.85
Upper-intermediate	11	0.27	4.09	1.36	2.91
Advanced	12	0.67	2.83	1.75	2.58

A Kruskal-Wallis Non-parametric Test was run to examine the extent of the difference between the groups and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4.
Results of Kruskal-Wallis Test Comparing Overuse of *The* by Four Proficiency Groups

Category	Df	Chi-Square	Asymp. Sig.
Textual	3	18.615	.000
Structural	3	8.156	.043
Situational	3	12.473	.006
Cultural	3	4.873	.181

A significant difference was observed in the textual, structural, and situational overuses of *the*, but no difference was found in the cultural use. This supports the idea that formal classroom training and exposure to foreign language has not helped advanced-level students much to fully grasp cultural knowledge. However, it has helped the learners to obtain the knowledge that is mainly linguistic-based, i.e., to use *the* properly in places where the need for it is signaled textually, structurally, or situationally.

The coefficient of variation (C.V.) analysis could be a test to gauge intra-group variation. The results of this test also could be used to draw conclusions about the ease or difficulty of the various uses of *the.* Based on the comparison of C.V. of various groups and uses, the most difficult to the easiest uses, in general, for all learners could be determined. For example, as shown in Table 5, Textual overuse with a C.V. of 1.19 is the most difficult, and culturally missed obligatory use with a C.V. of .45 is the easiest.

Table 5.
Coefficient of Variation Comparison of Uses of *The* According to Difficulty Level

	TO	STM	SM	CO	STO	SIO	TM	CM
Low	.52	.82	.49	.85	.19	.36	.65	.42
Intermediate	1.09	.49	1.05	.70	.86	.63	.60	.49
Upper-intermediate	2.41	1.13	.82	.64	.66	.95	.76	.50
Advanced	1.72	.78	1.0	.88	.86	.88	.67	.44
Total	**1.19**	**.95**	**.84**	**.82**	**.72**	**.68**	**.68**	**.45**

TO = textual overuse, STM = structurally missed, SM = situationally missed, CO = cultural overuse, STO = structural overuse, SIO = situational overuse, TM = textually missed, CM = culturally missed.

Among the various categories of overuse, only textual overuse and situational overuse show significant difference between groups (refer to Table 4). Therefore, we compare only these two by the inter-group coefficient of variation (the smaller the C.V., the lesser the difference between the subjects within that group). Consequently, the lesser the variation, the more analogous is the use of *the*. Inter-group comparison of the C.V. shows that textual overuse of *the* has increased with proficiency and reached its highest at the Upper-intermediate level (2.41) but slightly decreased at the Advanced level (1.72). In the case of situational overuse of *the,* again it increases steadily to the Upper-intermediate level (.95) but decreases at the Advanced level (.88).

Among the missed obligatory uses of *the*, there were differences in the case of the structural and situational categories (refer to Table 4). First, it dropped from a high C.V. of .82 at the Low level to .49 at the Intermediate level, increased rather significantly at the Upper-intermediate level, but again reaches to a level similar to the Low level at the Advance level, i.e., .78. In the case of situational missing of *the*, it should be said that it starts with a C.V. of .49, then rises to 1.05 at the Intermediate level, but falls to .82 at the Upper-intermediate level, and again rises to 1.0 at the Advanced level.

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It could be concluded that there is significant difference between the groups in the case of structurally and situationally missed obligatory uses of *the*. The comparison of the mean values suggests that they are improved as the proficiency level increases. But the interesting finding (based on Table 2) is that there is no difference between the groups in the case of textually and culturally missed obligatory uses, suggesting that learners have the same difficulty level despite the difference in language proficiency. This implies that they are learned gradually and with difficulty, and that they are not learned completely by formal classroom education.

In line with our research hypothesis, that is, "It is hypothesized here that these four uses, i.e., textual, structural, situational, and cultural (1) will be learned at different stages by second language learners and (2) will impose different difficulty for learners with different language proficiency levels," it could be claimed that in terms of structurally and situationally missed obligatory uses of *the,* our hypothesis is confirmed.

These usages are the first which are learned as proficiency improves, but the weight of imposition of difficulty attributed to proficiency in the case of textually and culturally missed obligatory uses is different from the structural and situational ones. In other words, they impose different difficulties for learners with different language proficiency levels. Pedagogically, it is implied that formal classroom training has been successful in eradicating failure of the learners to recognize the places where use of *the* is required structurally or situationally, but it has not been

able to enable the learners to succeed through getting the feeling of the language where the use of *the* is necessary due to textual requirements or cultural values, as no significant difference is observed between the highly proficient learners and the lesser proficient learners. This suggests that the longer exposure of advanced learners to English language only through textbooks or through training with minimum contact with native speakers, which may help the learners to acquire cultural knowledge of native English speakers, has proved to be inefficient. Inter-university student exchange and sending learners to the country where the language is natively spoken are well-known remedies in this regard.

In the case of textual and situational overuses of *the,* it is concluded that they are improved at the Upper-intermediate level but again worsened at the Advanced level, showing the recurrence or at least traces of difficulty despite the high proficiency. This suggests that adequate competence of use of *the* in textual and situational contexts has not been acquired yet in spite of long exposure to formal language. Again, as expected, there was no difference between the groups in the case of cultural overuse of *the.* This suggests that in acquiring the correct context or usage of *the*, all proficiency groups will experience a similar trauma. It could be said that cultural overuse of *the* is one of the most problematic areas for learners of all proficiency levels where the mother tongue lacks the definite article and where English is learned in a non-native context. Persian and its speakers are an example of this.

Yet another pedagogical implication would be that situational overuse of *the,* after showing a period of recession at the Intermediate stage, again recurs at the Advance level. Juxtaposing this problem (situational overuse) with that of situationally missed obligatory use of *the*, leads us to the conclusion that learners are able to recognize most of the context where use of *the* is required due to situational constraints, but still there are some contexts in which, despite showing some resemblance to previous context (where the use of *the* was obligatory), the use of *the* is not allowed. These situations or contexts are not fully known to the learners, hence the overuse of *the*. It is felt that more educational emphasis is required in these areas.

Finally, the coefficient of variation analysis sheds more light on culturally missed obligatory use. The coefficient of variation within the groups is assumed to be an index of linguistic homogeneity and success of teaching in the relevant area. That is, culturally missed obligatory use with the least C.V. (.45), could be mastered before the textually missed obligatory use. The sequence of learning for the rest of the categories is believed to be as textually missed use, situational overuse, structural overuse, cultural overuse, situationally missed obligatory use, structurally missed obligatory use and, finally, textual overuse of *the*.

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AUTHOR' S NOTE

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VII. Writing

Applying Compositional Theory: Teaching Writing to East-Asian EFL Writing Classes

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ABSTRACT

This paper will explore the notion of reader versus writer responsibility as it applies to East-Asian learners studying English composition. I will seek to extend and, at times, contradict the work done by John Hinds and his followers in an attempt to gain a more specific understanding of Korean compositional theory and how it may differ from that of English. I will also question current methods being used to teach English composition to Korean learners. Finally, I will describe how an EFL teacher can apply this theory to best engage and instruct his or her Korean students.

IS KNOWLEDGE OF EAST-ASIAN COMPOSITIONAL RHETORIC IMPORTANT TO EFL TEACHERS?

With its recently implemented English education systems, the elementary to tertiary schools of China, Korea, and Japan have guaranteed, for at least the next twenty years, that the largest demographic of second-language English writers will hail from the Asian continent. However, very few will likely develop near-native competencies labeled as "well-developed," "cohesive," or just plain "good writing." That, as I have explored in a previous paper (Duncan, 2003), is not to say that East Asians write English poorly, but rather that East-Asian internal logic differs from Western expectations. Furthermore, methods of teaching, correction, and other aspects of writing emphasized by native-English writing instructors differ from East-Asian learners' expectations. Moreover, cultural and historical traditions play a large role in determining a reader' s evaluation of a student's writing (W.H. Teng, 1991). This paper illustrates how these rhetorical differences can be overcome through applied theory in an EFL writing classroom. I offer some examples of useful activities and handouts that illustrate effective principles of EFL writing theory in relation to East-Asian learners.

TWO OPPOSING THOUGHTS OF HOW TO TEACH WRITING

Over the last twenty years, two different systems for teaching writing to second language learners have been propagated. The first involves teaching writing

as a process. In this system, the form of the essay is stressed. Equal attention is paid to the accuracy of the writing, the development of a singular thesis or topic, the pre-writing process and revision, and the construction of connections within the essay and between individual sentences. Students are taught to write an essay through a series of steps, starting with pre-writing. Pre-writing usually involves brainstorming, mind mapping, webbing, outlining, or notetaking (Reid, 1993). After pre-writing, a rough draft is developed, which is corrected via teacher marking or peer review. The rough draft is followed by a second draft, which is also checked and revised. The process ends with a final, polished draft.

The benefits of this form of teaching, as I see them, are that students learn how to construct an essay through a series of well-controlled steps, which can be easily monitored and assessed by the teacher. In addition, the accuracy of the writing is observed and evaluated through several revisions, either peer- or teacher-led. This is a salient point for East-Asian learners who may be studying English composition in order to receive a higher score on the Test of Written English portion of the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). Furthermore, at the end of the process, students are more likely to have a fairly polished piece of writing to display or share with their peers – a factor which can increase students' confidence in their learning and writing abilities.

However, there are several drawbacks to applying this theory to East-Asian learners. First, the historico-cultural nature of East-Asian classrooms often produces a passive learning environment in which peer review and teacher correction may not achieve their intended effect. East-Asian students may feel uncomfortable correcting and critiquing another student's writing. They may also place a hierarchical emphasis on the teacher' s corrections. This may lead to an uncritical self-examination of students' early drafts and may lead to blind correction based solely on teachers' suggestions and without the student's consideration and acknowledgement of the error. Furthermore, the steps of brainstorming, mind mapping, and/or outlining often meet with limited success in East-Asian students, some of whom may feel uncomfortable expressing personal opinions or performing individual, creative-thinking exercises (Duncan, 2003).

A second drawback may be the innovative nature of teaching writing as a process to the majority of East-Asian students. Many East-Asian students are likely to have never seen pre-writing, peer review, draft revision, or other essential steps involved in the writing process. This means a great deal of class time, teacher talk, and teacher correction will be involved. This can slow down the pace of any classroom, creating a sense of confusion. This, in turn, requires a great deal of preparation and marking on behalf of the teacher and often creates a more "lecture feel," meaning teacher-led instruction with little time left for student-centered learning. In addition, the authenticity of teaching writing as a process must be called into question.

Many East-Asian learners may never even take an essay-based writing test such as TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), IELTS (International

English Language Testing System), or ISLPR (International Second Language Proficiency Ratings). They may never write something to be published and critiqued by a native English-reading audience. However, they are more likely to take the largely grammar-based TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) or a civil service exam. They are more likely to write an English resume or business letter, which will more than likely be read by other second language learners with expectations which may not match those taught in the native-English writing process. Simple communications via email or personal and/or business letters in English are also likely writing tasks our learners may encounter in the future. With this in mind, why are we teaching the process of writing an essay?

A final salient drawback is the lack of time spent on improving students' fluency. In a process-based writing class, more time spent teaching the process of writing means less time students actually spend writing. When little time is spent writing, the improvement of students' English writing abilities can be severely hampered.

Due to these drawbacks, a large number of teachers have begun to promulgate an opposing style of teaching composition: freewriting. At the root of this method is the belief that writing cannot be taught but can only be practiced and learned indirectly. The more you write, the more you read; the more you read what you write, the better your writing will become. In this method, students are given a topic, which can be taken from the textbook or created by the teacher, or students are asked to choose their own topic and are given a certain time limit in which to write about that topic. Students are instructed not to make any corrections as they write and not to stop writing before the time period finishes. The benefits of using this approach include, first and foremost, an increase in students' writing fluency. A large amount of class time is spent writing rather than correcting. This saves the teacher time. Getting East-Asian students to move away from revising individual sentences as they write and, instead, to concentrate more on writing fluency is an immeasurable benefit in learning how to write in English.

Second, the classroom achieves a more active, more relaxed, and more student-centered learning environment than does a process classroom. East-Asian students, when placed in a freewriting atmosphere, are less likely to experience the discomfort and tedium of trying to understand the teacher' s explanations of an entirely new style of essay writing, creating and supporting their own ideas, critiquing themselves and their peers, etc. Some teachers even play music (classical, easy-listening, jazz or world music are the most popular) as students write and/or do stretching exercises, chanting, or mediation before, during, and after writing. This potentially creates a more soothing, nonjudgmental environment. However, when teaching in this style to East-Asian learners, several drawbacks arise. First, the quality of the students' writing rarely achieves the degree of focus, clarity, connectedness, specificity, development, and grammatical accuracy regarded as crucial to a native-English reader. Second, the expected benefit of greater production and increased writing fluency rarely materializes. This is often

a result, not of their writing abilities, but of the newness of the teaching style. Just like in the process style, students in a freewriting class may not understand the teacher's expectations, may not feel they are "learning" anything, and may be unfamiliar with the objectives of the lesson. In addition, East-Asian students in a freewriting class may grow to feel that their teacher is not performing any function – they can write anything they like, the teacher will only do a cursory examination, and they will pass the course as long as they write. Students, who may have different expectations than their writing teacher and may expect the teacher to tell them how to write and correct every single mistake, may feel abandoned when this does not occur.

For this reason, many EFL writing instructors in East Asia have learned to combine components of both process and freewriting methodologies. However, it is important to recognize that neither of these methodologies exists in East-Asian students' first-language writing class; therefore, students are bombarded not only with the difficulties of writing in a second language, but with having to digest an entirely new concept of what writing is and how it is taught. As a result, I propose that instructors have a thorough knowledge of the rhetorical differences between East-Asian language writing conventions and English writing conventions. This knowledge can be a great asset in developing a writing curriculum. For this reason, I am suggesting a third, and entirely, different way of how to teach writing to East-Asian learners.

APPLYING THE THEORY

Increasing Fluency with Modeling

Given East-Asian students' familiarity with grammar-based modelimitation and their lack of practice with writing fluency, English writing instructors should be encouraged to initially model sentence-level practice as a means of inducing writing fluency in their East-Asian learners. Below are two examples of possible handouts:

Compound-Complex Sentences

2 Independent Clauses (IC) + 1 Dependent Clause (DC)
= 1 Compound-Complex Sentence (C-C S)

(DC) When Jeongsook broke his arm + (IC) The doctor fixed it. + (IC) The family celebrated. (=C-C S) When Jeongsook broke his arm, the doctor fixed it, and the family celebrated.

(IC) A miracle took place yesterday. + (DC) Before the sun was eclipsed by the moon + (IC) A spaceship landed on Earth. (=C-C S) A miracle took place yesterday; before the sun was eclipsed by the moon, a spaceship landed on Earth.

Make the following simple sentence compound-complex:

1. Taekwondo is a popular sport.
2. Spring is my favorite season.
3. I don't like Hyejin.
4. Heehun flew in an airplane
5. Inae's favorite place is Mt. Sorak.
6. We need to reduce the traffic in Seoul.

Note the use of student-centered interests. Too many EFL writing textbooks use English names, locations, and structures when providing a model (e.g., Joe Smith goes to Yankee Stadium and buys a hot dog and pretzels.) This can demotivate your students and waste your time explaining names, places, culture, and food.

As observed, many East-Asian students have difficulty producing lengthy, discursive, extended sentences. Instead, they are more likely to feel comfortable expressing themselves as simply and succinctly as possible. For this reason, I like to make my students aware of the simplicity of their sentences and model some ways (based on the grammar-imitation above) that they can increase their writing fluency. Below are some simple sentences I collected from my students. Working as a class, and later in groups, we will try to extend them.

1. Korean food is healthy.

   While many Western style fast-food restaurants serve cheap, oily, non-nutritional kinds of foods like French fries, cheeseburgers, and milkshakes, Korean food is healthy because it includes more grains and vegetables, and Korean meals are more often served with water or tea rather than soda pop or coffee.

2. Bukhansan is the most beautiful place.

   ____

3. I love my family.

   ____

4. Seoul is nice.

   ____

5. Korean traditional music sounds pretty.

   ____

6. Hana looks ugly.

   ____

Another example could involve adding onto an existing sentence in a group. Each student in a group of four or five adds one component to the original sentence and then passes it to the next person. At the activity's end, each group should have four or five lengthy sentences. Again, I suggest modeling the activity beforehand.

Extend the Sentence

	Dave swims.
Prepositional Phrase:	*Dave swims in the sea.*
Adjectives:	*Strong Dave swims in the deep, blue sea.*
Adverbs:	*Strong Dave swims slowly and peacefully in the deep, blue sea.*
Dependent Clause:	*When he has a vacation, strong Dave swims slowly and peacefully in the deep blue sea.*
Relative Clause:	*When he has a vacation, strong Dave, who is a champion swimmer, swims slowly and peacefully in the deep, blue sea.*
Additional Subject:	*When he has a vacation, strong Dave, who is a champion swimmer, along with his faithful dog, Buck, swim slowly and peacefully in the deep, blue sea.*
Additional Verb:	*When he has a vacation, strong Dave, who is a champion swimmer, along with his faithful dog, Buck, swim slowly and peacefully and waterski in the deep, blue sea.*
Add Another Sentence:	*When he has a vacation, strong Dave, who is a champion swimmer, along with his faithful dog, Buck, swim slowly and peacefully and waterski in the deep, blue sea; meanwhile, his roommate sleeps in his bed.*

You Try!

Make the following sentence longer by adding the following components:
Chickens eat.
Direct Object: ____ _____
Prepositional Phrase: ____
Adjectives: ____
Adverbs: ____
Dependent Clause: ____
Relative Clause: ____
Additional Subjects: ____
Additional Verbs: ____
Add Another Sentence: ______________________________________

Concentrating on Specific Writing

East-Asian learners who have been inoculated with sentence-level instruction and pattern practice in the writing classroom may have difficulties expressing, supporting, and explaining a single idea at length in a discursive, specific manner. Due to this, a native-English reader may often find overgeneralizations, disconnected sentences, and paragraphs with too many topics, none of which are well supported. One of the most difficult aspects of writing in English is focusing on a single topic and supporting it at length and in detail.

There are two ways I have thought of to overcome this difficulty, both being based on modeling methods. The first involves using English literature as a means of illustrating the principle of specific writing, encouraging extended discourse in the classroom, and motivating students' interest. East-Asian students show a historical and cultural appreciation for classic poetry, the more well-known, the better. Below are two famous poems that can be used to encourage students to focus on specific writing.

"This is Just to Say"
– By William Carlos Williams

This is just to say
I have eaten
the plums
that were
in the icebox
and which
you were probably
saving
for breakfast.

Forgive me
they were delicious
so sweet
and so cold.

"Fog"
–By Carl Sandberg

The fog comes
on little cat feet.

It sits looking
over harbor and city
on silent haunches
and then moves on.

Following the reading and discussion of these poems, the teacher may call particular attention to the use of adjectives (sweet, cold, delicious) or metaphors (the fog looks like a cat) to create a detailed image in the reader's mind. Writing is a form of communication involving the transfer of an image or an idea from one person to another. Unfortunately, the reader cannot read the writer's mind, so in order to make the communication effective, specific language – examples and explanation – is required. This is a simplified explanation of what is meant by reader- v. writer-responsibility. Imagine if the poem read: "This is just to say I ate

something. It was somewhere and someone else wanted it. He or she should forgive me." The lack of specificity fails to create a connection with the reader's interest and imagination. To illustrate further, I would then have the students collect an image in their heads and write a short poem using adjectives or metaphors to describe it in as much detail as possible. When finished, the students could trade poems with a partner. After their partner reads it, their partner draws a picture based on the poems. The picture and the image in the writer's head should match, or at least share some similarities.

Another idea is the Camera Game. Focusing on a single topic and supporting it in detail is a lot like taking a picture. You cannot take a picture of the entire world, but you can take a picture of something specific – if you focus beforehand. Below are some of the models, students can read before writing their own:

A Picture Is Worth a Thousand Words

Have you seen?
the bright red apple
sitting in the tall, ugly tree
on a skinny branch
way out of reach
waving slowly in the wind
and almost ready to fall
Have you seen?
Have you seen?

Have you seen?
my dead goldfish
at the top of the
glass bowl
floating around in
circles like a
drunken clown
with its eyes still open

Have you seen?
a small dog's eyes lighting up
like black and green jewels
while it growls angrily;
it's tangled hair standing up straight
Have you seen?

Students are then instructed to find a partner and move throughout the classroom or go outside and take a picture. One partner will serve as the photographer and the other will act as the camera. The "camera" will close its eyes and the "photographer" will position the camera's head at any angle or direction he or she wants. Then the "photographer" will press the button (the top of the partner's head) and the "camera" will open its eyes for three seconds and close them immediately. With this mental picture, the "camera" will return to his or her desk and write a "Have You Seen" poem about it. By concentrating on a specific image, students learn how to focus their writing, making it more specific.

This assignment could lead into another writing assignment, such as an in-class, freewriting exercise or process-based instruction. I would ask my students

to write an essay of three paragraphs (roughly 500 words) describing their favorite place in the world (no larger than what you could take a photograph of). Below are two models. The first comes from a Korean undergraduate student who attended the first three weeks of class and has given an average production of the overall class. The second comes from a student who failed to attend the previous class on specific writing and was given instructions from her classmate. The students' writing abilities and final grades for the course were nearly equal, the only difference being the attendance of one class [errors intact].

Streetlamps and Benches on the Path

> My favorite place is the path in front of the library in my school. The small path is connected to the road of the main building, so you can go to the main building through the path. The path is more beautiful and mysterious in the nighttime.
>
> The best moment that I love is sitting on the bench in the night. There are many benches; they look like sofas, which makes people's hearts feel at ease and be comfortable. So I sit on the bench, then talk with my friends or read a book or just look around at the scenery. There are lovers who talk to each other on the benches and people who walk by on this path; also, there are such thick, old, enormous trees around the benches. These look like guides who protect me. The trees never say anything to me or move even one centimeter. And the leaves cover the sky as if screening the sky like the palm of a hand. When I sit there, I always meet the wind, which glances off of my face. It smells like a fresh perfume – bitter, cold, and exciting!
>
> There are also misty, comfortable, soft streetlights in the path. These lights dim, so they are not too shiny and not too dark. The light is only soft and warm. This is another reason why I love this place. Imagine the peaceful, fresh night in the dim streetlight scene. When I go there, cool feelings cover me. In that place I can think silently and creatively. And the big reason why I live this place is I can feel this place brings me to another part of the world.

My favorite place

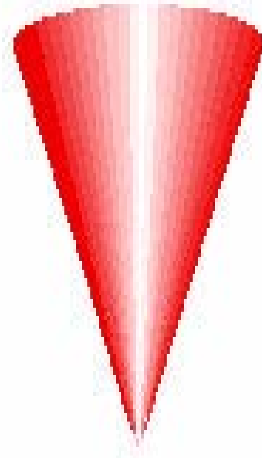
> My favorite place is In-sa dong street. There are Korean traditional teas and drinks.
> Also there are Korean traditional clothes. So most foreigners visit there.
> And there are many art gallery.
> Every Sunday, people who help the poor and sick children open the concert on the street.
> Then the street seems like a small festival.
> For these reason, In-sa dong street is famous for cultural place.
> And I like such a special mood in there.
> So In-sa dong street is a place that I like most.

Illustrating topic sentences and supporting sentences

Where East-Asian students may be unfamiliar with writing theses, topic sentences and supporting sentences in the writer-responsible conception of a piece writing moving from general to specific (Duncan, X), a pictorial representation may be an effective implement.

General: Dogs

Dogs are good.
Dogs are good animals.
Dogs are good pets.
—Thesis—-
Dogs make better pets than cats.
—Topic Sentence—-
Dogs make better pets than cats because of their personalities.
—Supporting Sentences—-
My dog, Sparky, is a better pet than my friend's cat, Tom, because of their personalities.
My dog, Sparky, is a better pet than my friend's cat Tom because Sparky can eat more bananas and everyone knows Tom is allergic to fruit.



Specific

Using a pictorial model can help East-Asian students understand what is meant by the terms thesis, topic sentence, and supporting sentences and how they are related. They can also note how the essay moves from general to specific. Alternative to the pictorial representation, some teachers may want to physically demonstrate the principle of general to specific writing through dance, song, or video. Afterwards, students can use the model to write theses, topic sentences, and supporting sentences about some general topics. Example:

Traffic: ______________________________________
Men and Women: ______________________________
Education in Your Country: ________________________
Tourism/Travel: ________________________________
The Future: ___________________________________
Writing:_______________________________________

Collective Freewriting Based on Modeling

In the too-often solitary and serious environment of the writing class, group work can be a useful tool in creating metalinguistic discussion of a writing assignment, instructive interaction between peers, and a more student-centered atmosphere. Likewise, some of the difficulties involved in freewriting can be alleviated when East-Asian students work together in groups. While Western culture ap-

peals to individualistic expression and debate, East-Asian students tend to seek more of a consensus and may feel awkward performing freewriting exercises without a model or collective help. For these reasons, I have found freewriting to be more effective when East-Asian students work in groups and use a teacher' s model. Below is an example of practice in writing supporting sentences in five varied modes to support a topic sentence. First the model:

Topic Sentence: Korea offers a variety of attractions for foreign tourists.

Supporting Sentences:

Explain further. Whether you are a mountain climber, a student of fauna and wildlife, a birdwatcher, a beach roamer, a volcano aficionado, a rough and tough backpacker, or one who loves to indulge him- or herself in a hot spring mud bath, Korea offers a wide range of natural attractions.

Give a specific example. From the hiking trails and unbelievable views atop towering Sorak Mountain to the cherry blossoms sprouting along the Han River, down to the sun-drenched black coral beaches of Jeju Island, Korea's natural wonders will surprise even the most experienced of travelers.

Relate a personal story. When I first visited Korea, I found myself wandering from one ancient palace to the next, soaking up the long and beautiful history of the country. Nowadays, I find myself falling in love with the distinct shopping districts that can be found hidden throughout the cities.

Insert a quotation. Mark Ebbers of *World Travel Magazine* names Korea "one the best destinations in the world for its combination of historical splendor, cultural intrigue, culinary wonder, and shopping highlights" (Ebbers 134).

Scientific data / Research. In 1992 foreign tourists to Korea numbered 1.5 million; now, with the increase in activities and attractions for foreigners, the number has more than doubled to 3.2 million in 2001 (Upman 56).

Next, the students practice writing their own supporting sentences in groups.

Topic Sentence: Korea offers a great place for foreigners to work and do business.

Explain further: ____

Give a specific example: ____

Relate a personal story: ____

Use a quotation: ____

Scientific data/Research: ____

Finally, the students form a circle. Each student takes a piece of paper and writes down one of their topic sentences (see "illustrating Topic Sentences and Supporting Sentences" above). Then, the student passes their paper to the person on their left who writes a supporting sentence that explains further and passes it on again. The next person writes a supporting sentence that gives a specific example, and so on until all the students in the group have written one example of each

of the five types of supporting sentences. By the time they are finished, the group will have collectively written four or five excellent examples of a well-supported paragraph with a singular topic sentence.

The Top-Down Approach

A problem with teaching by the process method is that students can easily lose sight of the comprehensive structure of an essay and begin to view writing in separate, distinct parts. Because of this, it is a good idea to regularly show students where they are heading by having them read models of essays and identify the various components such as thesis, topic sentences, conclusion, etc. Below is an example with the various components marked:

Long Live the King

> When Elvis Presley died in 1979, the entire world mourned for it had lost its greatest musician and performer. **However, to this day, Elvis Presley remains the single, largest influence on modern, popular music in the world.** Elvis gained this reputation through his live performances, critical acclaim and commercial success, and international and long-lasting appeal.
>
> <u>Elvis Presley was named “The King of Rock ‘n’ Roll” after his appearance on a popular TV show. His unique songs and style of dance were unprecedented at the time the Ed Sullivan Show aired in 1957</u>. Fans were shocked by his bluesy voice and the way he moved his hips when he sang. For example, his rendition of “Blue Suede Shoes” caused many young female members in the audience to faint! The show was viewed by over 60 million that night and was the largest television audience at that time (Reuters 32). Marjorie White, a friend of my father’ s and a viewer that evening, was quoted as saying, “Everyone watching that night knew that his performance was going to change the face of music forever!” Soon afterward Ed Sullivan himself declared Elvis “The King of Rock ‘n’ Roll.”
>
> No other musician in world has earned such lasting critical acclaim and commercial success from their music than Elvis Presley. *With an estimated over 1 billion records sold worldwide and over 150 gold- and platinum-selling records to his name, Elvis remains the top selling artist of all time (elvis.com, overview 1).* In America alone, Elvis earned 2 Grammy Awards, 14 Nominations, and countless awards from various newspapers, cities, music critics, and fans. However, not all of Elvis’ success has come from the U.S. Over 40% of his sales have come from foreign countries, and he has received gold records and awards from Norway, Yugoslavia, Japan, Australia, South Africa, England, Sweden, Germany, France, Canada, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Last year a re-release of his old song, “Way Down,” hit number 1 on the charts in the U.K. (elvis.com). Even 25 years after his death, Elvis Presley remains the most successful musician in the world.
>
> Modern musicians from all countries and all forms of popular music continue to cite Elvis Presley as their biggest influence. From country to African gospel, from rock ‘n’ roll to English punk, from Japanese folk music to Thai disco, hundreds of thousands of musicians continue to list Elvis as their musical role model. <u>I myself was inspired to buy a guitar and learn the chords to “Don’t Be Cruel” after hearing Elvis’ recording of the song</u>. Paul Simon, a popular American folk singer, wrote the song “Graceland” in honor of Elvis’ music.

Johnny Rotten, lead guitarist of the popular British punk rock band, *The Sex Pistols*, has said, *"Elvis opened the doors for all us. Without Elvis I wouldn't be here today." Jackie Wilson, the famous soul singer has said, "A lot of people have accused Elvis of stealing the black man's music, when in fact, almost every black solo entertainer copied his stage mannerisms from Elvis."* In fact, in every style of music, in every country in the world, the memory of Elvis lives on.

Peer Review and Teacher Assessment

Based on the hierarchy of authority, East-Asian students may feel a model of the teacher's expectations is helpful when reviewing their peers' work. East-Asian students, who may feel uncomfortable expressing a personal belief or critiquing another student's work, may appreciate having some teacher guidance. For this reason, a simple handout to direct the students' review should be a mandatory part of any peer review session. The handout can focus on the process and style of the writing or the fluency depending on teacher/student preference. Below are two examples of a guided peer review; I would recommend a combination of both:

Revising Checklist (Process-Oriented)

1. Is the thesis clear and easy to argue in 3 paragraphs?
   ______yes _____not yet
2. Does the thesis state the main idea of the entire essay?
   ______yes _____not yet
3. Does the first body paragraph have a topic sentence that supports the first main supporting point?
   ______yes _____not yet
4. Does every sentence in the paragraph support the topic sentence?
   ______yes _____not yet
5. Are the sentences arranged in logical order?
   ______yes _____not yet
6. Are there transitions to guide the reader from one idea to the next?
   ___yes _____not yet
7. Does the second body paragraph have a topic sentence that supports the second main supporting point?
   ______yes _____not yet
8. Do the body paragraphs provide enough support and specific information to develop and prove the thesis?
   ______yes _____not yet
9. Are there concluding sentences to connect the 3 body paragraphs?
   ___yes ___not yet
10. Does the concluding paragraph summarize the main ideas of the essay?
    _____yes _____not yet
11. Does the last sentence serve as a good ending?
    ______yes _____not yet

12. Does the title of the essay give readers a good idea what the essay will be about?
    ______yes _____not yet

OR:

1 What do you like most about your partner's essay?
  ____
2. What 3 suggestions would you make for improvement?
   a.__________________ b.________________ c.__________________
3. What would you like your partner to pay attention to in your essay?
   ____
4. What is one thing you learned from reading your partner's essay?
   ____
5. What other comments do you have?
   ____

It is interesting to note the differences in teacher assessment between East-Asian teachers and their native English counterparts (Duncan, 2003). Based on previous writing experiences, East-Asian students may expect their teacher to correct their grammatical mistakes and sentence-level structures, yet be relatively unconcerned about mistakes in overall consistency, connected writing, transitions, meaning, and style. Knowing these pedagogical differences, therefore, I would suggest the native English teacher to take a more active role in the correction of students' grammatical miscues, not being afraid to occasionally take out the red pen as students are writing. Students will likely appreciate and expect this effort. I also suggest advising students that you may use additional rubrics to assess their writing that may differ from their former teachers and to make the students aware of these rubrics. East-Asian teachers should take a less critical view of individual sentences and grammatical mistakes and concentrate more on the overall structure of the essay and the writer's fluency.

Collective Brainstorming

Kelen (2000) claims, "Fluid communicative relationships between individuals, partnerships, and groups in a class allow the members of a class to maximize the potential learning benefits they have to offer each other" (para. 53). The creation of ideas in the prewriting stages can be another impediment to East-Asian students' English writing; also having to monitor individual student's prewriting diminishes the teacher's energy and resources, possibly leading to a more teacher-centered environ. In contrast, collective brainstorming and prewriting can be an extremely educational and engaging method for East-Asian learners. Kelen's research on groupwork in conversation classes, based on the French philosopher Michael Foucault's study of prison systems, promotes the use of the panauricon

to increase student interaction and movement. The panauricon, or as my colleague calls it “The Onion Ring,” is a double ring of chairs with an inner circle and an outer circle. The students in the inner circle sit facing the students in the outer circle. After a certain amount of time has elapsed, the two circles rotate in opposite directions so that each student is constantly presented with a new partner. The teacher can stand in the middle of the circle and, like a prison guard, observe all the students, and all the students, in turn, can feel that they are being observed. The idea can also be applied to writing classes, where students share ideas and collectively brainstorm with a large number of peers in a relatively interactive and self-monitored setting. Such collective brainstorming can lessen the fear of creativity and personal expression, which can often retard many East-Asian students during the early stages of writing. “At least if students come to associate language learning with movement, with something they do with their own bodies, there is the hope that they will break from certain ‘spoon-feeding’ assumptions which assure their passivity and limit learning potential” (Kelen, 2000, para. 52).

Writing on the Internet and Creative Projects

While most East-Asian students do their writing on computers and have access to the Internet, computers and the Internet are underutilized in the university curriculum, and especially in the teaching of EFL writing. When was the last time you wrote a five-paragraph essay in class with pen and paper? Use of the Internet can, therefore, be an effective means of establishing more authentic and more interactive writing tasks. MSN Groups, Daum Café, Yahoo Groups, and other websites provide free BBS boards where students can post their writings and view other students’ writings. Teachers can write their critiques as a reply, as can peer reviewers, and any student in the class can read the essay and the reviews from the teacher and from the other students. The Internet is also a great place for publishing student work and finding other students’ work from all over the world.

A variety of creative and authentic student-centered projects can be explored through the Internet. Some examples include publishing a class newspaper in English, writing a script for a movie or TV show, printing a travel magazine or brochure about the students’ city or country, researching a modern fable or ghost story, key pals, on-line chatting, creating web pages, e-mailing, and more. The possibilities are endless and will have to be explored in a later paper. You can find more ideas, handouts, and activities in my book *Building Blocks* (Duncan, 2003) published by OWEI.

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Reader- and Writer-Responsible and the In-between: A Cross-cultural Comparison of East-Asian and English Writing

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ABSTRACT

This paper will explore the notion of reader- versus writer-responsibility as it applies to East-Asian learners studying English composition. I will seek to extend and, at times, contradict the work done by John Hinds and his followers in an attempt to gain a more specific understanding of Korean compositional theory and how it may differ from that of English and other East Asian countries. Finally, I will question the current methods being used to taught English composition to Korean learners, and how an EFL teacher can best apply this theory to design a writing course and a writing curriculum to best engage and instruct his or her Korean students.

WHAT' S IT ALL ABOUT?

In his 1987 paper John Hinds discusses the concept of a reader-responsibility as opposed to a writer-responsibility, as it related to Japanese students learning to write English as a second language. Hinds surmises that there are vast differences, in comparison with English pedagogy, not only in how Japanese students learn to write, but also in the forms they use to convey meaning, show transition, express theses, introduce, conclude, etc. In short, Hinds claims that Japanese uses an entirely different form of writing that contrasts with English forms and thoughts so markedly that it may appear illogical, indirect, and ambiguous to a native English reader.

Hinds (1990) follows up his research with an investigation into the roots of the East-Asian writing style, which he concludes derived from ancient Chinese poetry. This format of ancient Chinese poetry, and hence East-Asian compositional theory, according to Hinds, does not fit into the black-and-white native English speaker (NES) conception of an essay's meaning being conveyed either deductively or inductively. Instead, formal East-Asian writing may be "quasi-inductive," a form most native English readers are unfamiliar with, and therefore, more likely to criticize or negate. Again, however, Hinds' conclusions are largely based on research collected from Japanese students and applied to the larger scheme of "East-Asian" writing. Only general, often stereotypical, assumptions have been

gathered concerning the other East-Asian cultures. For Hinds, too often does the Japanese rhetorical style seemingly constitute the rhetorical style of all of East Asia.

It is my hope then, in this paper and others to follow, to extend Hinds' research and to classify more specifically the differences and similarities between Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and English forms of academic writing. And then, to see if it is, in fact, equivalent to Hinds' (1987) account of the "reader-responsibility versus writer-responsibility" breech or something entirely different.

A SHORT HISTORY

In the fifteenth century, the first popularized theory of East-Asian essay writing (known as the "eight-legged essay") was extolled. This theory of writing developed largely from the teachings of Confucius, whose legendary works, *Four Books and the Five Classics,* form much of the foundation of East-Asian culture (Carrel, 1987). Basically, there are two root principles in Confucian thinking: *ren*, or benevolence; and *li*, or propriety of behavior and loyalty to social traditions. According to a Confucian composition, individual needs and expressions were secondary to the creation of a social harmony. At the time, most essays were written by government officers who had to prove their allegiance to the state by following the strict format of the eight-legged essay. Cai, as cited in Carrel (1987), has designated the eight parts of the essay as *poti, chengti, qijang, qigu, xuhu, zhonggu, hougu, and dajie,* literally meaning "the opening up," "amplification," "preliminary exposition," "first argument," "second argument," "third argument," "final argument," and "conclusion." It seems like a pretty straightforward form of writing, somewhat similar to that of English, but on further inspection, we see that each part was required to fulfill specific guidelines. For example, the *qijiang* had to be ten sentences long and had to elaborate on the topic. The *dajie* would conclude the essay in four sentences. Each of the five middle parts should draw appropriately from the required Chinese classics. Furthermore, the quality of the essays was judged at the sentence level rather than at the paragraph level, and even less as a comprehensive unit. The qualities of "good writing" were determined by the adherence to accepted sentence patterns and their implementation of several revered sources (Cai, as cited in Carrel, 1987). Seemingly then, the ancient East-Asian writings centered mainly on form, model imitation (largely at the sentence level), and pattern analysis; there was little room for personal opinions, explication of thought, and self-expression. Instead of the more Westernized notions of self-expression, ancient writings strove to maintain *li* through their strict adherence to accepted, traditional forms.

"The eight-legged essay is still a powerful organizing principle for many East-Asian students" (Carrel, 1987, p. 39). In the past century, however, Chinese and Korean writers have reconstituted the eight-legged essay into the "four-part model," otherwise known as *qi-cheng-jun-he* in Chinese or *ki-seung-jeon-kyeol* in Ko-

rean. (*qi* or *ki* prepares the reader for the topic, *cheng* or *seung* introduces and develops the topic, *jun* or *jeon* turns to a contrastive and unrelated "subtopic," and *hg* or *kyeol* sums up the essay). Most Chinese and Koreans who attended school within the last forty years have studied and are familiar with this four-part model for writing essays. Below is an example from a former student – a 21-year-old Taiwanese English major, and elementary school English instructor – who used the form to write an essay on *The Crying of Lot 49* [mistakes intact]:

> [*qi or ki*] In "The crying of Lot 49" the author wants to transmit the idea that a signifier will generate a lot of signifiers, and then these signifiers will produce more signifiers continuously. [*cheng or seung*] This is an anti-detective story. As we know, most detective stories have an important signifier; and if the characters trace along with this signifier they get the answer – the only one result which signifier pointed out. However, this fiction tells us an innovation. It does not end in one result but in a lot of uncertain signifiers. [*jun or jeon*] "Reality" is just historians' subjective viewpoint. Therefore, "History" is not fair and moreover, most "Realities" cover a lot of facts. [*he or kyeol*] It [the novel] questions the convention that we have used for a long time and breaks it down and creates a new idea or a new possibility for us.

What is interesting to note is the student's ardent confession that she had duplicated her professor' s explanation of the novel's meaning. The term "signifier" has been lifted directly from the professor' s lecture and used repeatedly throughout the essay. Other complete sentences have been extracted from the lecture as well. The student claims that her acknowledgment of the professor' s viewpoint lends credence to her own opinions and writing, and helps improve her chances of receiving a high grade. In contrast the third part, or *jun*, which she has developed without her professor' s help, appears rather ambiguous and, perhaps, even disconnected to the majority of NES readers. What would normally become the thesis, or central argument, to be developed in greater detail in a standard, English essay, has been passed over rather generically with little or no connection to what has come before or after. Japanese writing, as described by Hinds, also organizes the text according to a four-part framework. The third element, or *ten*, "develops a subtheme which would be considered off-topic in English. It is the intrusion of the unexpected element into an otherwise normal progression of ideas" (Hinds, 1987, p. 144). If the Chinese *jun,* the Korean *jeon*, and the Japanese *ten* share a relation, seemingly then it must have some use rather than to confuse NES readers. Did such a pattern originate in historical Chinese poetry, and if so, what was its original purpose, and how has that purpose changed today?

Currently, and especially in EFL classes, the four-part model is being outmoded in both Chinese and Korean pedagogy by the more NES-acceptable five-paragraph essay model. Unfortunately, it seems the Chinese and Koreans are eschewing their historical and cultural compositional rhetoric in favor of a more NES-ized version – an observation with far-reaching implications. But to say that the cultural/historical rhetoric of East-Asian composition, namely the eight-legged essay and the four-part model, no longer play a role in the way East-Asian students learn to write is like saying Plato's ethics no longer have an influence

over Western culture because he's dead! The question then is: Is the above example an excellent representation of the East-Asian four-part model or a poor undertaking of the NES five-paragraph essay?

WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENCES?

Differences between East-Asian and English writing appear not only in the historical/cultural aspects, but also in the teaching methodologies, the teachers' correctional focus, and the modes of self-expression. First, the most popular methods of teaching writing differ between East Asia and the English-speaking countries. The traditional/historical influence (*li*), which plays such a large role in East-Asian culture, undoubtedly serves influence over the English composition class. The typical Chinese and Korean writing class consists of hours upon hours of repetitive grammar instruction, fill-in-the-blank type exercises, model imitation, and pattern practice. Very little time is spent on teaching the process of composition, editing and revision, self-expression, or free-writing, all major components of NES compositional pedagogy. C. Teng (1991) analyzes the typical methods by which Chinese learn to write English: "such methods as model imitation [largely at the sentence level], grammar-oriented instruction and pattern practice" are used almost exclusively (p. 452A). Notably, these writing methods have become rather passé in the NES pedagogy and have all but been placed in the cellar of modern English writing theory. Today, most NES teachers apply equal amounts of attention to meaning, writing style, personal expression, and grammaticality.

Second, in East Asia there exists a hierarchical tradition of stressing form and grammar above all else (Carrel, 1987). East-Asian rhetoric appeals to history, tradition, and authority, often utilizing proverbs and historical quotations without any seeming argumentative coherence (in the NES reader' s mind). These sayings and allusions, instead, are used to ornament and enliven the discourse, but NES readers often see them as distractions (Carrel, 1987). In addition, when writing, East-Asian students concentrate more on the correctness of individual sentences. More time is spent on grammar, spelling, and punctuation; whereas NES students devote more time to proofreading the content of their writing (W.H. Teng, 1991). Writing in their first language, East-Asian students compose shorter sentences and shorter paragraphs with fewer grammatical and spelling errors than NES students (see Table A), perhaps a mark of their reflex to write simple, grammatically modeled sentences rather than the long-winded, explanatory, and discursive sentences common to NES writers. Carrel (1987), however, claims this tendency might actually suggest an East-Asian ability to "read between the lines" (see Section V). C. Teng (1991) likewise notes that East-Asian students combine drafting and revision into a single step, again illustrating the perfection of individual sentences, but the de-emphasizing of the composition as a whole. Moreover, almost no time is spent by East-Asian students on pre-writing, "that is, as they wrote, they tried to correct mistakes

in grammar, spelling, and punctuation" (C. Teng, 1991, p. 452A). Teng's research supports my own from Chinese and Korean classrooms (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. CHARACTERISTICS OF NATIVE LANGUAGE WRITING

Language	Average Sentence Length	Average Paragraph Length	Average Grammar Mistakes	Average Spelling Mistakes
English	12.6 words**	8.8 sentences	3.6 per paragraph	2.7 per paragraph
Chinese	8.8 words**	6.7 sentences	1.5 per paragraph	>0.5 per paragraph
Korean	7.6 words**	5.9 sentences	1.2 per paragraph	>0.5 per paragraph

* Data collected from 35 native writers from each country at the university undergraduate level.
** Only content words counted.

In his thesis, C. Teng (1991) concludes:

> This misplaced emphasis is the result of the traditional stress on grammar and the paragraph-level model in ESL writing courses, which teach the students a limited sense of writing. Only by introducing a process approach to teaching writing to the students, can one hope for greater fluency and effectiveness in their writing.
>
> (p. 452A)

Apparently then, C. Teng (1991) concurs with the growing East-Asian pedagogical notion that NES culture provides a superior standard not only for English writing, but for writing and language learning in general. Is Chinese or Korean writing any less effective than English writing? Perhaps the intended effect of Korean writing differs from that of English. It is difficult to erode this prevailing notion of superiority and inferiority between languages and cultures, but it is precisely this that must be overcome for the sake of better instructing and a more accurate monitoring of our students' writing.

Third, and perhaps in relation, native English teachers have displayed a greater degree of tolerance toward their students' writing in the areas of grammaticality and sentence structure, but a lesser degree of tolerance toward mistakes in meaning and content than have their Chinese (W.H. Teng, 1991) and Korean (see Table 2) counterparts.

Fourth, it is a general observation that East-Asian students avoid free expression or personal opinions in favor of quotations or direct references. This is often regarded as "plagiarism" in NES writing, but East-Asians may see it more as paying reverence to wiser, more historical sources – keeping in line with the Confucian teachings of *li*. The middle sections of the eight-legged essay often consisted of little more than quotes from historical sources pasted together with little

explication or connection to the central idea. Instead, the quotations were used to pay reverence to these historical writings and allow the reader the opportunity to meditate on their meanings in relation to the topic at hand.

Indirectness vs. Directness: Two Approaches to Conveying Meaning

East-Asians writers are praised for their indirectness: "to express a point of view in a thesis statement at the beginning of a piece is exceedingly problematic [to the East-Asian writer]" (Hinds, 1990, p. 102). Instead, East-Asians commonly bury the thesis in the passage, referring to it neither directly nor indirectly, but in a manner Hinds has termed "quasi-inductively," a method which often implements the use of historical, seemingly unconnected quotes. The following illustration seeks to pictorially represent this quasi-inductive theory:

If the invisible core of the sphere can be said to represent the thesis, central idea, or "meaning" of the essay, then the segmented lines going around the circumference represent the only routes available to express that unseeable core. The writing's theme can be approached in broad references (the widest circumferences) or in more concise references (the smaller circumferences – most likely a combination of the two. The core, or theme of the essay, however, cannot be approached or written about directly without cutting into the sphere and, thereby, destroying or weakening the writing's overall consistency. The core can only be broached through indirect allusions or references.

There are a few benefits to this style. Namely, one gets a broader view of the sphere or the manifestation and/or application of the thesis in its totality. In other words, everything does not focus solely on the unseeable core, or the singular thesis, as a theoretical intangible; but rather, the allusions and encircling references provide a panoramic view of the thesis' applicability, its usefulness, and how it applies to the textual and historical references and other real-world situations. Thus, the thesis is placed not in a linear, academic context – something to be researched, detailed, supported, and proven – but rather, in a "worldly," spherical context – something to be meditated upon, applied, used, and connected to past and future writings. A second benefit is that the reader' s predispositions and opinions toward an issue are not directly challenged or called into question. Another

benefit is that there is no attempt at persuading or arguing an individual viewpoint, which may mock the reader' s intelligence. Instead, the reader is provided the opportunity to, and is expected to, draw his or her own conclusions. Matalene (1985) provides two examples of this hidden core from his Chinese students. The first deals with the East-Asian writer' s fondness for using quotations and allusion:

> Confucius, the ancient Chinese philosopher, maintains that whatever your calling, "The first thing to do is give everything a true and proper name." Now, we have got a name, "tractor", it is true, "A motor vehicle that pulls farm machinery," according to Longman's dictionary. What we should do now is to give every tractor a chance to live up to its expectations. I am nothing of a philosopher, but I have a dream that everyone of us is aware of this simple, pragmatical idea: Call a spade a spade. Use a tractor as it should be used.

(pp. 804-805)

What you may or may not realize is that this writer is actually attacking the Chinese Department of Agriculture and criticizing them for their inefficiencies. The reader, who is expected to be familiar with the Confucian reference to working class men and their reliance on agriculture, though, can apply that quote as he or she sees fit and draw his or her own conclusions. Note that in the "quasi-inductive" method, the use of so many direct quotations actually strengthens the argument because it creates a historical/societal perspective in which experts' and elders' research can be indirectly applied to the writing. Furthermore, the linking of one quote (Confucius) to another (Longman's Dictionary) shows the widespread applicability and the universality of his thesis. Let's look at the second student's essay:

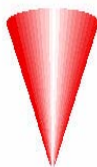
> I am not an economic policy maker, but I have a dream of tractors singing in the fields and trucks roaring effortlessly on roads. I am not an agricultural technical program planner, but I have a dream of seeing farmers science and technology and working comfortably with machinery.

(p. 804)

The tone of this essay is actually very strong and didactic, perhaps too direct for most East-Asians; and yet, relatively ambiguous to the majority of NES readers. The writer is harshly criticizing the Department of Agriculture, but he is doing so in an indirect manner, however thinly veiled, so that both he and the "agricultural technical program planner" do not lose face. In other words, *li* is being maintained, however tenuously, while a differing opinion has not been challenged or disproved. Again, the thesis remains unstated and left for the reader to determine.

NES readers may have difficulty picking up the tone and meaning in East-Asian writings such as these. That is because English writing is said to be largely deductive, rarely inductive. Hinds, however, makes the claim that East-Asian writings may be neither strictly inductive nor deductive; instead, they are mainly an

amalgam of "quasi-inductiveness," a category which may not exist or be understood in NES pedagogical paradigms! Hinds (1980) writes: "English-speaking readers typically expect an essay will be organized according to the deductive style. If they find it is not, they naturally assume that the essay is arranged in the inductive style" (p. 90). Below is a diagram of deductive writing, as I myself learned it while a high school student in the U.S.:



The essay starts with a general thesis, which is to be supported directly with specific facts and a more specific explication of those facts, all directly related to that thesis. The essay and its individual paragraphs move from general to specific, with each specific component directly connected to and supporting the thesis and/or topic sentences. An indirect essay looks similar, but with its top cut off and transplanted onto the bottom; i.e., the reader is to infer the meaning or conclusion at first, but it should later become very clear from the information presented in preceding paragraphs, and will finally be laid out at the end. Hinds (1990) makes the distinction even simpler: "Inductive writing is characterized by having a thesis statement in the final position whereas deductive writing has the thesis statement in the initial position" (p. 89). Where then would one find the thesis statement in a typical East-Asian essay, or quasi-inductive essay? The answer: nowhere. It doesn't exist!

READER-RESPONSIBILITY VS. WRITER-RESPONSIBILITY

So far, I have categorized differences and similarities between East-Asian and NES styles of writing. In grouping these differences together, we can surmise that East-Asian composition may comprise a "reader-responsible" organizational style of writing, while English composition constitutes a "writer-responsible" organizational style. The terms are Hinds' (1987) creation. In writer-responsible languages, the burden to make clear, to establish relationships, to develop purposes, and to convey context as clearly as possible within the conventions of the text is placed solely upon the writer. It is the writer's responsibility to make his or her communication understood by the reader. In contrast, a reader-responsible language expects the readers to do the work of filling in information, determining purpose, establishing relationships, making transitions, and drawing his or her own conclusions; a writer who does all the work for the reader is not highly valued in traditional East-Asian theory. Or as I like to say, NES readers (as well as those of other writer-responsible languages) like to have things spelled out for

them ("say it to me as if I were a third grader"), with the main idea clearly expressed at the beginning of the composition, explained in detail throughout, reiterated at the end, and perhaps repeated two or three time in the middle, too. East-Asian writing (and that of other reader-responsible languages), on the other hand, force the reader to "think for him or herself," to develop their own conclusions and connections to past, future, and present, real-world applications from their own lives. Thus, one might say that the interpretation of East-Asian reader-responsible writing is actually more individualistic than that of the English writer-responsible essay. Hinds (1990) writes:

> Seen in this light, we must recognize the traditional distinction that English-speaking readers make between deductive and inductive styles is inappropriate to the writing of nonnative authors. We may more appropriately characterize this writing as quasi-inductive, recognizing that this technique has as its purpose the task of getting readers to think for themselves, to consider the observations made, and to draw their own conclusions. The task of the writer, then is not necessarily to convince, although it is clear that such authors have their own opinions. Rather, the task is to stimulate the reader into contemplating an issue or issues that might not have been previously considered.

(pp. 99-100)

Hinds' overgeneralization that all East-Asian languages, including Korean and Chinese, fit into his Japanese research-based definition of reader-responsibility, fails to recognize the cultural, historical, and pedagogical distinctions between the three very different countries. While there is much to be learned from Hinds' work in the context of Chinese and Korean languages, one must realize that the organizational strategies in Japanese and those in Chinese and Korean are not exact replications of one another. For this reason, I say that the thesis of a Korean and/or Chinese essay is buried not only within the text, but within 5,000 years of culture, tradition, and educational development. In ancient Confucian writing, the meaning was implied through quote and allusion rather than through direct, supported arguments and personal valuations. This was done to engage the reader in the writing and to make him or her contemplate the wider perspectives of an issue or issues. This organizational strategy has often met with confusion and criticism in an NES reader unprepared to delve meditatively into the writing, realize historical connections, and elaborate their own conclusions. Instead, NES readers likely want and expect the essay to establish and to develop the author' s point of view by support in minute detail. It is little wonder then that NES teachers often perceive East-Asian writing as being indirect, ambiguous, and illogical.

WHO' S READING?

In W.H. Teng's (1991) survey of 60 native teachers of English and 72 Chinese EFL teachers, correcting and analyzing the same twenty-eight erroneous sentences, he finds many sources for agreement: "Both groups considered errors that caused problems in the fundamental structures of English more serious … On the other

hand, improper word choice was also treated with leniency by the two groups" (p. 3352A). However, it is interesting to note that the criterion NES teachers adapted in determining word errors was based on the "perceived" intelligibility, while the Chinese teachers based their criterion more on relative "inference." Additionally, "non-native teachers were also found to be more grammar-concerned, and fairly weak in deciding the proper use of words and style, while native speakers paid equal amounts of attention to meaning, style, and grammaticality" (p. 3352A).

In my own research of 30 NES, 30 Korean, and 30 Chinese EFL instructors reading the same three essays, 10 paragraphs, and 40 sentences, I recorded similar impressions (see Table B). Korean teachers were three times more likely to base their grade on grammatical errors than NES teachers. NES teachers, however, were just as likely to base their grades on the style of the writing and "perceived" intelligibility. In addition, Korean teachers were more likely to figure their grades from use of quotations by a respected source than NES instructors, who more likely expected the quotes to be explained and connected to the student's text. Transitions were also highly valued by NES instructors, while largely disregarded by their Korean counterparts. Improper word choice provided marking difficulty for Korean teachers, and as such, was largely overlooked; however, occasional points were given for incorrect word choice, if and when the word in question was "perceived" to be at a more advanced level of vocabulary. These words received more severe criticism from NES instructors, who placed them below plagiarism on their grading guidelines, but mainly overlooked other improper word choices. This is just to say that not only is there a difference between the way East-Asian and Western students write, but also in how their teachers read and judge them.

TABLE 2. WHAT DO TEACHERS LOOK FOR?

	Language	Spelling	Quotes	Word Choice	Style/ Structure	Vocabulary Level	Grammat-icality	Perceived Intelligibility	Content
Sentences	Korean	6	n/a	3	4	2	1	2	5
	Chinese	6	n/a	2	3	4	1	2	5
	English	7	n/a	4	1	6	5	2	3
Paragraphs	Korean	8	4	3	7	5	1	2	6
	Chinese	8	4	3	7	6	2	1	5
	English	8	7	5	2	6	4	3	1
Essays	Korean	8	6	4	7	5	2	1	3
	Chinese	8	5	3	7	6	2	1	4
	English	8	7	4	2	6	5	3	1

* Data collected from 30 English instructors from each country reading the same 40 sentences, 10 paragraphs, and three essays and asked to grade and rank them based on the guidelines above.

WHAT' S IT ALL MEAN?

In his collection *Philosophical Writings*, Schopenhauer (1998) questions: "When a head and a book come into collision and one sounds hollow, is it always the book" (p.6)? Likewise, NES writing instructors will need to be aware of and to question the rhetorical differences in their East-Asian students' writing, so as to more fairly adjudge and instruct their students without cultural biases.

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VIII. Vocabulary

The Breadth of Vocabulary Learning at a Japanese University

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ABSTRACT

This article focuses on the vocabulary breadth of a population of Japanese university students. Through administering the Vocabulary Levels Test to over 487 learners, there was found to be a wide intra-year-group dispersion of scores but little dissimilarity between the knowledge profile of different groups. While students are largely falling short of the critical 3000 word family vocabulary acquisition threshold, almost 50% of students are on the cusp of this critical mark. In a second aspect of research, there were found to be high correlation coefficients between vocabulary breadth and performance on the university's video-mediated communicative proficiency test.

1. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is a fundamental component of language proficiency. As such, it holds a central role in second language (L2) pedagogy, assessment, and research. However, despite the growing recognition of the importance of vocabulary learning, there remains little consensus on its practical incorporation into an L2 learning program. Reflecting the wider discussion, a microcosm of the debate is ongoing at a Japanese university, Kanda University of International Studies (KUIS). In particular, there is currently consideration of the use of word lists, vocabulary teaching styles, and assessment methods. While the discussion of these issues is undoubtedly positive, any decisions on these matters should be underpinned by a thorough understanding of the students' vocabulary ability levels and the success of current teaching methods. This paper aims to partially address this gap in understanding by informing of the breadth of KUIS students' lexical resources, their rate of vocabulary learning, and the correlation between this knowledge and the students' performance on the university's proficiency test, the Kanda English Proficiency Test (KEPT).

2. CONTEXT

The research for this paper was conducted at Kanda University of International Studies, a private Japanese university. The university has an annual intake

of around 450 English majors. As mentioned in the introduction, there are currently no systematic institution-wide procedures for vocabulary teaching. Specifically, the lack of a coordinated approach to vocabulary teaching has two main aspects.

Firstly, there is no list of words that students are expected to learn. Therefore, although new lexis is presented to students within the teaching materials, the words are not usually systematically chosen on the basis of their frequency. That is, they are selected depending on whether they are useful for the topic being discussed or whether the material writer intuitively believes them to be important.

Secondly, there is no careful program for the reinforcement vocabulary learning. Within the classroom teaching materials, the lexis is recycled to an extent. However, there is the potential for substantial improvement. In addition, there is no orchestrated approach to the use of vocabulary books or direct vocabulary tests. The result is a largely fragmented approach.

An important part of this study relates to the Kanda English Proficiency Test (KEPT). The test has been administered to students at the university since 1992. Each year around 2000 students take the test, making it one of the biggest institutional ESL tests in Asia. It is a norm-referenced, integrative test consisting of five equally weighted sections. The five subtests are comprised of Reading, Grammar, Essay, Listening, and Oral. The first three parts are based on multiple choice style questions, and the last two are assessed using rating scales. There are currently four versions of the test, with a fifth being written. Thus, students take a different form of the test when they first arrive at KUIS from that taken at the end of each academic year.

3. Framework

The study has been divided into a number of segments. Prior to a discussion of the research results, a conceptual framework is established to assist in the interpretation of the figures. That is, Section 4 examines the relation between vocabulary size and the ability to conduct real-world tasks. In Section 5, the selected research tool (the Vocabulary Levels Test) is introduced and explained. Section 6 consists of a brief explanation of the methodology used to collect the data. In Section 7, the debate turns to the presentation and interpretation of the research findings.

4. The Importance of Vocabulary Size

The rationale for vocabulary learning is based on research findings, which show that lexical knowledge directly relates to English proficiency. In the case of everyday spoken communication, it was found that the first 2000 most frequent words covered 99% of utterances (Schonell et al., 1956, as cited in Nation, 1990). In this case and for the purposes of this paper, a word, lexeme, or word family is

defined as a base word plus all its derivatives and inflections, following Nation (2001).

In relation to reading skills, gauging the required vocabulary size has proven much more problematic. Alderson (1984) found that while L2 reading is both a reading and language problem, students need to reach a threshold of linguistic competence before their L1 reading abilities can be transferred. Laufer (1992) found this threshold to correspond to approximately 3000 words. At this point, she noted the significant improvement in students' reading comprehension ability of unsimplified text, relative to students with a mere 2000 words (measured using the Vocabulary Levels Test). Laufer (1997) agreed with Alderson that the reason for the improvement related to L1 readers being able to apply their reading strategies to L2. Until the 3000-word-family point, she found that insufficient lexical knowledge hampered such a transfer.

The importance of the 3000-word threshold is further supported by a separate study (Laufer, 1987, as cited in Nation, 1990). It was discovered that L2 students fared significantly better when they had a 95% comprehension coverage of words in a text than with a 90% coverage. It was posited that when comprehension coverage reaches the 95% level, the meaning of many of the most important unknown words can be inferred from context. Thus, the communicative content of the text can be broadly ascertained. Liu and Nation (1985, as cited in Beglar & Hunt, 1999) and Nation (1990) found that in order to achieve a 95% coverage of general texts, the reader needs requisite knowledge of a minimum of 3000 words.

In terms of academic texts, achieving a 3000-word vocabulary would also seem to be of critical importance. Nation (1997) noted that the most frequent 3000 words cover only 88% of the average academic text. However, he speculated that a further 4% of such texts are likely to consist of proper nouns (these are not included in the high frequency word lists) and a further 3% could reasonably comprise technical vocabulary known to the reader. Therefore, the 3000-word level remains the foundation of English reading proficiency for L2 learners.

When learners reach a vocabulary breadth of 5000 words, research suggests that they can read authentic texts with much greater comfort (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001). This is due to the learner' s broader and deeper understanding of the language, and their increased ability to transfer their L1 reading skills. However, not found are the dramatic increases in comprehension witnessed between when learners progress from 2000 to 3000 word families (Laufer, 1992). It has been assessed that L2 learners may require a vocabulary of 10,000 words to successfully undertake university education in English (Hazenberg and Hulstijn, 1996). However, of more immediate value for university study is recognition of a range of non-technical vocabulary that cuts across a gamut of academic disciplines. This category of general academic lexis will be discussed in the next section.

As discussed, there has been a growing understanding of the practical value of a certain vocabulary size. This understanding has been fostered through the employment of vocabulary tests to collect data. The next section will discuss the

nature of the test utilised in both this research study and a broad swathe of others (Schmitt and Meara, 1997; Laufer and Paribakht, 1998; Laufer & Nation, 1999).

5. THE VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST

The Vocabulary Level Test is a widely used discrete-point test that was originally designed by Paul Nation. It was envisaged as being a diagnostic tool for general or academic purposes. Since its conception in the early 1980s, it has become "the nearest thing we have to a standard test in vocabulary" (Meara, 1996, as cited in Read, 2000, p. 118).

The Vocabulary Levels Test derives its name from its division into distinct word frequency levels. Learners are tested for their vocabulary knowledge at the stages of 2000, 3000, 5000, and 10,000 words. In addition, there is a university word level comprising general academic vocabulary. These word frequency levels were selected carefully. In accordance with the analysis contained in the previous section, Nation (1990) argues that the 2000 and 3000 levels contain words that all learners require in order to function effectively in the language. He asserts that the 5000 level denotes the upper reaches of general high frequency vocabulary. Lastly, the 10,000-word test covers the more commonly occurring lower-frequency vocabulary.

The lexis contained in the 2000- to 10,000-word levels is based on the word frequency work of Thorndike and Lorge (1944, as cited in Schmitt et al., 2001), cross-referenced with data from the General Service List (GSL) (West, 1953, as cited in Schmitt et al., 2001), and Kucera and Francis (1967, as cited in Schmitt et al., 2001). The vocabulary used in the University Word Level Test is sampled from the University Word List (Xue and Nation, 1984, as cited in Schmitt et al., 2001).

In the test, the lexical items are decontextualised. This method was chosen to focus on the learner's vocabulary knowledge and exclude their ability to guess from context. Testees are required to match a set of definitions with the appropriate target words through a number. An example of a question set from the 2000-word section of the test is below:

1. brave	
2. electric	________commonly done
3. firm	________wanting food
4. hungry	________having no fear
5. local	
6. usual	

(Nation, 2001)

Vocabulary knowledge is generally accepted to be multi-faceted (McCarthy, 1990; Hatch & Brown, 1995). Within the range of understanding, the Vocabulary

Levels Test focuses on the breadth of the learner's knowledge, rather than the depth. That is, it takes a minimalistic view of what it means to "know" a word. Consequently, the test is purely receptive, providing no direct information on the test-taker's ability to use the target language productively.

6. The Study

In the original version of the test, each level contained six sections, with each section including six words and three definitions. Despite the widespread use of the test, it was never properly validated. In a revised version of the test, Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham (2001) extended each section from 18 to 30 items. A quantitative and qualitative analysis of the expanded test provided evidence of the validity of the revised format. Therefore, in this study, the extended 30-item version of the test was employed. Schmitt et al. wrote two 30-item tests; in this study, version "A" was administered.

During the data collection phase of the project, emphasis was placed on gathering test results from as large and diverse a group as possible. A number of teachers from the university volunteered to administer the test to their students. Before beginning the task, the learners were asked to complete the work to the best of their abilities. Furthermore, when having no idea about the answer to a question, they were requested not to guess (this instruction was repeated on the test paper). Through these means, it was intended that the test reliability would be enhanced. The learners were given all the time they required to complete each level they attempted. Unfortunately, due to the practical constraints of fitting the test into class time, not all of the students were given sufficient time to complete all five parts of the test.

In total, 487 students took the test in January, 2002. The breakdown of how many students took each level can be seen below in Table 1.

Table 1. Participant Numbers by Year and Department

	2000	**3000**	**5000**	**Academic**	**10,000**
First Year	134	134	134	139	95
Second Year	267	267	267	267	160
Third Year	86	86	86	86	74
Total	487	487	487	487	329

7. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Before embarking on an analysis of the results, it is important to note a caveat. Although all of the students took the first four parts of the test, 32% of them did not undertake the last section. Therefore, to provide an undistorted statistical evaluation of the findings, where necessary, the results from the 10,000 level will be excluded. From a research perspective, it is unfortunate that the final part of the test was not taken universally. However, as noted by Schmitt et al. (2001), if a shorter test is desirable, it may be reasonable to exclude the 10,000 level for lower-level students.

After making the aforementioned adjustments, the findings proved statistically sound. To assess the reliability of the test, the KR-21 formula was used. It is important to recognise that this internal consistency estimate tends to slightly underestimate the actual reliability (Brown, 1996; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). The results yielded a coefficient of 0.89. Vierra and Pollock (1992, as cited in Beglar & Hunt, 1999) assert that for the purposes of educational research, a coefficient in excess of 0.90 represents very good reliability, while a score in the range 0.80 to 0.90 is acceptable.

The Vocabulary Levels Test is founded on the premise that learners generally acquire more frequently used vocabulary before less often used ones. For example, according to the test, a prerequisite for mastery of the 3000-word level would usually be mastery of the 2000 level. To test this theory and attempt to partially validate the test, a Guttman Scaling analysis (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991) was undertaken. Consistent with previous research (Schmitt et al., 2001), the selected criterion of mastery was 26 correct responses out of the possible 30 for each level. The academic word list was excluded from the analysis as it is not based solely on frequency, and thus has been found not to fit the model (Read, 1988). The results strongly validate the test. It was discovered that the coefficient of reproducibility was 0.99, and that the scalability was 0.94. This is well beyond the >0.90 for reproducibility and >0.60 for Scalability deemed as minimal for implicational scalability to be established (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

The test-takers' aggregated mean scores are presented below. It is important to reiterate that the chart represents the students' knowledge towards the end of the academic year. Therefore, from the data, it is not possible to gauge how much student vocabulary learning occurs prior to January of the freshman year.

There are a broad range of conclusions that can be drawn from the data, and the table above constitutes just one representation of the information. The remainder of this paper will be used to draw attention to four significant points.

TABLE 2: CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION OF SCORES

	2000	3000	5000	Academic	10,000	Total*	SD*
First Year	27	22	19	21	6	88	14.4
Second Year	27	23	19	21	7	90	13.1
Third Year	27	23	19	21	6	90	13.5
SD	2.6	4.2	4.6	4.9	3.5	13.6	

*The total column excludes the 10,000 level results.
P<0.01

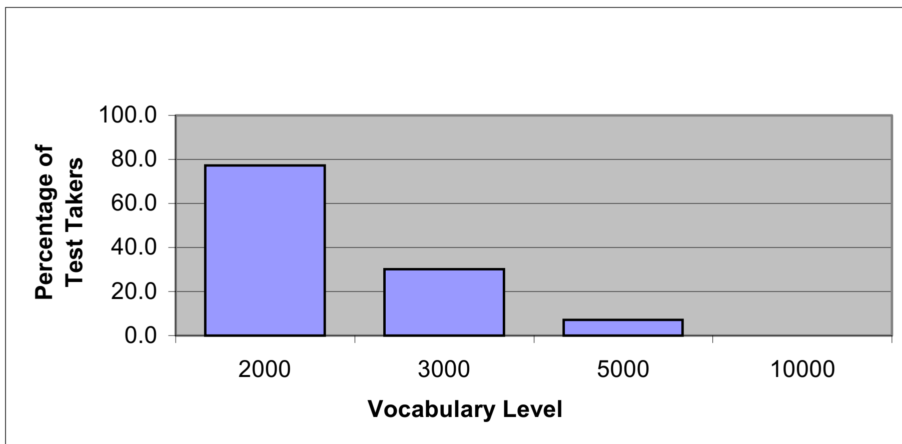
A. Vocabulary Scores in Relation to the Reading Threshold

In Section 3, it was argued that a vocabulary size threshold of 3000 words exists (as judged by the Vocabulary Levels Test). When learners are below this threshold, their ability to read unsimplified, authentic texts is significantly below that of students who have acquired this degree of lexical knowledge.

The breadth of Kanda's students' vocabulary size was assessed in relation to the threshold using a form of Guttman scaling. As mentioned above, the level at which learners are adjudged to have a mastery of the vocabulary level is 26 out of 30 possible correct responses. After calculating the absolute mastery figures, the data was transferred into percentage form and equally weighted by year-group.

Chart 1 depicts the proportion of students that attained each of the mastery levels. As can be seen, 77.3% of all students accomplished mastery of the 2000-word vocabulary level, 30.2% of the 3000 level and 7.2% of the 5000 level. It was found that 22.7% of students were at the pre-2000 level.

CHART 1. ATTAINMENT OF MASTERY LEVEL

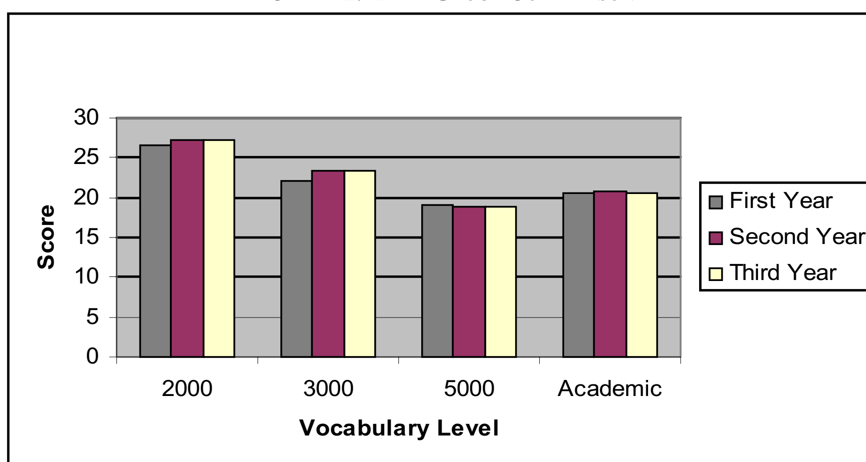


The results suggest that the vast majority of students are not meeting the 3000-word threshold. However, there is also encouraging evidence that almost half of all learners (47.1%) are within range of mastering the 3000 level. That is, they have mastery of the 2000 level but are yet to reach the crucial threshold.

B. Little Inter-Year Differences

The results from the previous section provide a snapshot of the size of the students' vocabulary. However, it is important to augment this perspective with an approximation of the rate of student learning. In Chart 2, the mean scores for each year-group by vocabulary level are displayed.

CHART 2. YEAR GROUP COMPARISON



The significance of the chart is based on a rash of suppositions. These include that incoming freshmen possess a similar lexical knowledge across year-groups and that teaching methods have remained constant. However, despite these caveats, it is striking how little vocabulary acquisition appears to be taking place. The Vocabulary Levels Test is only designed to provide a rough approximation of overall vocabulary breadth. However, assuming that the above conditions hold and that the Test was accurate, the results would suggest that between the first and second year, students learnt around forty 2000-level words, a similar number of 3000-level words, and a handful of academic lexemes.

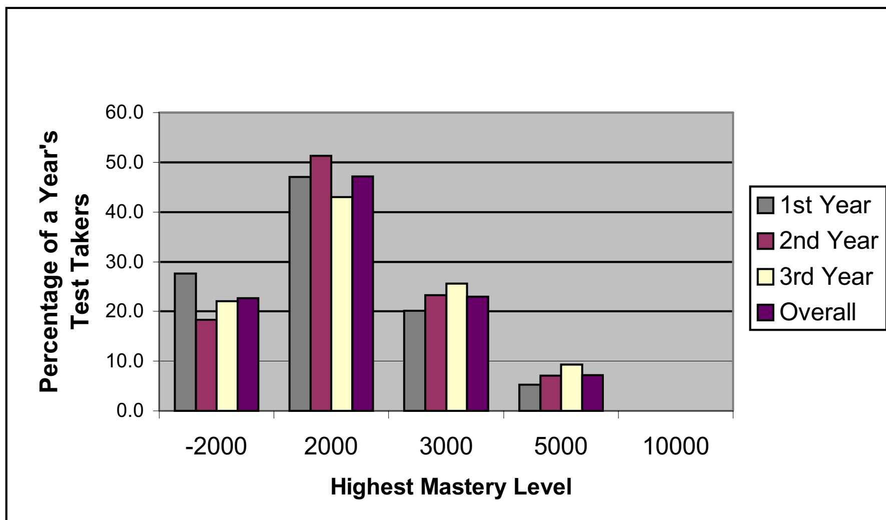
To place these figures into perspective, Meara and Jones (1988, as cited in Schmitt et al, 2001) found that a far greater rate of L2 vocabulary growth can occur. They investigated a group of 53 advanced-level European students who were studying abroad. They found that the average vocabulary growth per person was around 1200 words over the six months of their programme. Although the circumstances were quite different, their findings do suggest learners are capable of much greater levels of vocabulary acquisition than described in Chart 2.

C. Wide Intra-Year Acquisition

As noted described above, there is little difference in the cumulative results from freshmen to juniors. However, within each year-group, there are broad disparities. As noted in Table 1, the standard deviation figures (excluding the 10,000 level) for each year-group from freshmen to juniors are 14.4, 13.1, and 13.5, respectively. As these numbers are greater then 10% of the total number of questions (120), they constitute a relatively wide dispersion of student scores.

Chart 3 only displays the highest mastery level attained by students from each year-group. The chart is different from Chart 1, as it does not aggregate the figures. For example, the chart displays a figure of around 20% for first-year students at the 3000 level. This means that the highest mastery level attained by 20% of first-year students was at the 3000 level. The chart also shows that around 5% of first-year students displayed mastery of the 5000 level. As we gained very high Guttman Scalability results (see Section 7), it is implicit that almost all of the 5% of students with mastery of the 5000 level also achieved mastery of the 3000 level. Therefore, almost 25% (20%+5%) of first-year students displayed mastery of the 3000 level. However, as has been explained, these figures (20% and 5%) are presented separately.

CHART 3. MASTERY LEVEL BY YEAR AND PERCENTAGE



The chart shows two main trends. Firstly, although the mean scores of the year-groups are comparable (see Section 7), there is progression in mastery levels from freshman to junior year. For instance, proportionately 27% more third-year students' mastery peaked at the 3000 level than first-year students'.

Secondly, the chart depicts the broad spread of intra-year vocabulary breadths. For example, around a fifth of juniors were unable to demonstrate mastery of the

2000 most frequent vocabulary items, while around a tenth showed proficiency at the 5000 level.

D. A High Correlation Between Vocabulary and KEPT Scores

At KUIS, the yardstick for student proficiency is KEPT. This broadly based general proficiency test is used in medium-stakes decisions regarding class placement and final grading. The test is designed to assess particular student abilities, which are hypothesised to be part of the language ability construct. Therefore, as there is a well-established relation between reading comprehension and vocabulary breadth (see Section 3), the test should reward such lexical knowledge. Consequently, there should be a clear correlation between Vocabulary Levels Test scoring and performance on the 2002 version of KEPT.

There were found to be 383 students whose scores on the two tests could be matched. However, although all of these students completed the first four sections of the test, a large number of them did not do the 10,000 level. The Pearson correlations between the different sections of the KEPT test and the students' scores on the Vocabulary Levels Test are displayed below.

TABLE 3: INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN KEPT AND VOCABULARY LEVELS TEST FORMS

Level	KEPT Reading	KEPT Grammar	KEPT Listening	KEPT Writing	KEPT Speaking	KEPT Total*
2000	0.32	0.44	0.20	0.20	0.14	0.38
3000	0.34	0.48	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.39
5000	0.27	0.43	0.21	0.15	0.17	0.36
Acdc.	0.37	0.47	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.37
Total*	0.39	0.54	0.22	0.19	0.19	0.44

* This row/column excludes scoring on the 10,000 level.

The magnitude of the figures in the table denotes how well the two sets of test scores go together. It is clear that there is a strong positive relation between KEPT and the Levels Test. The strongest correlations were found in relation to the grammar section (0.54). This evidence supports previous research suggesting that the KEPT grammar construct contains the greatest overlap with external measures of proficiency (Bonk, 2001). The section with the second strongest coefficients to the Levels Test was KEPT Reading (0.39). This data further emphasizes the significance of vocabulary breadth in reading.

In order to assess the degree of KEPT score variance accounted for by vocabulary ability, it is necessary to square the correlation coefficient. The total cor-

relation between KEPT and the Levels Test was calculated to be 0.44. Therefore, the two tests overlap by 0.19 or 19%. When considering the other factors contained within the KEPT construct (such as grammar knowledge, pronunciation skills, reading and listening sub-skills, and writing structure), the overlap is high.

8. Conclusion

As should be clear from the discussion, the results from the Vocabulary Levels Test have yielded a number of insights into the students' vocabulary learning. The research suggests that only around a quarter of third-year students are attaining mastery of the pivotal 3000-lexeme threshold. Furthermore, there appears to be little dissimilarity between the knowledge profile of different year-groups. This result is likely to be symptomatic of relatively limited vocabulary acquisition, in spite of students taking a range of English language proficiency courses. Yet, despite a wide intra-year-group dispersion in scores, around 50% of the students are on the cusp of the critical threshold. That is, they have achieved mastery of the 2000-word level and are within sight of the next mark. This combination of circumstances offers great opportunity, firstly, for significantly improving students' reading comprehension ability and secondly, given the high correlation coefficients between vocabulary knowledge and KEPT, for better scores in the university's English proficiency measure. The challenge that remains is for a systematic and widely implemented approach to be both designed and implemented.

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Author's Note

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Learner Development: A Study of Lexical Guessing Strategies

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ABSTRACT

This paper employs a case study to delineate the types of lexical guesses that L2 learners make when reading and to determine the reasons why learners make such guesses. The data, which is the beginning of a longitudinal study, was gathered through oral interviews with the learner after being asked to read different passages. It was found that pre-conceived notions, including lexical knowledge, seem to override context in determining meanings. The data also suggests that text-processing skills such as perception, parsing, and comprehension may be hierarchical.

INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension requires both an understanding of vocabulary and the ability to use reading strategies. Reading strategies include predicting the content of the text, making inferences, recognizing text type and text structure, grasping main ideas and the ability to guess words in context (Laufer, 1997). The ability to accurately guess the meanings of unknown words is particularly important for L2 readers, given the large amount of unknown vocabulary that they will encounter. However, although numerous studies have been conducted into English L1 lexical guessing, there has been less research into English L2 guessing strategies. In addition, many of the studies of English L2 guessing have been done with learners studying in English L1 contexts; see for example, Parry (1997).

A CASE STUDY

This paper reports on a case study drawn from a longitudinal study of guessing strategies done with English learners at a Japanese university. Initially, two research questions were formulated:

(a) *What kind of lexical guesses do learners make?*

(b) *What are the reasons for these guesses?*

The consultant was studying comparative culture at a Japanese university where the medium of instruction was English. She was given several passages to read and she was then asked to guess the meaning of unknown words. Retrospective

think aloud protocols were then used to record the reasons that she gave for her guesses.

There were two significant findings. First, a detailed examination of some of her inaccurate guesses indicated that she seemed to believe that orthographically similar words may have similar meanings. Second, evidence was found to support the findings of Bensoussan and Laufer (1984), specifically that 'guessability' is less a function of using context than of applying 'preconceived notions.' This, it is argued, raises questions about the role of content schema knowledge in reading comprehension. Both findings do, in fact, have significant implications for those of us teaching L2 reading.

Passage One

The first passage used is given in full below:

> In the 1920s, swimming played an important role in changing the bathing suit into a useful, functional piece of clothing that could be used by the aquatic athlete. In the 1930s the biggest influence on swimsuit design was the sun. Tanned skin became all the rage during the Depression decade. Dr. S. Wynne, commissioner of health in the City of New York, promoted tanning as a cure for everything from tuberculosis to surgical conditions. "The sun-tan craze is the best thing that has happened in America," he said. "The sun is the greatest medicine in the whole universe."
>
> Even better, the perpetual light from the sun was free. But since only those people with ample leisure time could acquire a glossy, brown skin it suddenly became a sign of class, physical fitness and glamour.

Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level: 9.2

The consultant, Keiko (not real name), first read the passage silently. Then she read the passage aloud. After this, she read the passage aloud for a second time. This time the tape recorder was turned on and the interviewer asked Keiko about specific words that she seemed to be having difficulty with. To illustrate this procedure more clearly, here is a short extract from the protocol:

> Keiko: "In the 1920s, swimming played an important role in changing the bathing suit into a useful, functional piece of clothing that could be used by the aquatic athlete."
> Interviewer: "Okay, do you understand this?"
> Keiko: "No."
> Interviewer: "What does 'aquatic' mean?"
> Keiko: "'Aquatic'? Should I guess?"
> Interviewer: "Sure."
> Keiko: "Aqua."
> Interviewer: "What's that?"
> Keiko: "Sea, sea, in the sea. 'Aquatic athlete' means, I guess, 'sea sport.'"

Altogether, Keiko attempted to guess the meanings of 12 words. The results have been classified as either 'correct,' 'partly correct' or 'incorrect.' They are given in the table below:

TABLE 1. RESULTS OF KEIKO' S GUESSING AT THE MEANING OF WORDS

Passage Word	Guess	Result
aquatic athlete	sea sport	partly correct
tanned skin	sunburned skin	partly correct
depression	impression	incorrect
decade	ten, twelve	partly correct
tuberculosis	city name	incorrect
surgical conditions	geographic	incorrect
suntan	sunshine	incorrect
craze	crazy	incorrect
universe	academy	incorrect
perpetual	very	incorrect
ample	in the morning	incorrect
glamour	slim	partly correct

An analysis of the guesses listed in Table 1 shows that Keiko made eight incorrect guesses (66.6%), four partly correct guesses (33.3%) and zero correct guesses. These results appear to support Nation's claim that, "studies of guessing by non-native speakers have not shown large amounts of successful guessing and learning from guessing," (Nation, 2001, p.236). However, three of the guessed words, 'impression,' 'sunshine,' and 'crazy,' are orthographically similar to the original words in the passage, 'depression,' 'suntan,' and 'craze.' In addition, the guessed word 'academy' was conceivably chosen because the meaning of academy is similar to that of 'university,' and 'university' is similar in spelling to the unknown word 'universe.' Lastly, the guessed phrase 'in the morning' appears to be a somewhat unlikely explanation of the original word 'ample,' until we notice that the first two letters of 'ample, 'i.e., 'am' are, in fact, a short-hand way in English of saying 'morning.' Could this be an explanation for the guess?

Another notable feature of Keiko's protocol was the absence of any use of substitution as a strategy. In other words, if she had attempted to substitute some of her guessed words for the unknown words in the passage, given that she understood most of the words that she didn't attempt to guess, then she ought to have recognized that her guessed words simply didn't work in the context of the original sentences. The fact that she didn't try to substitute words, supports the theory that pre-conceived notions, including lexical knowledge, can override context in determining meanings.

Further evidence for this came from the second protocol in the study.

Passage Two

The second passage was chosen because Keiko was very familiar with its content. The passage described Miyazaki prefecture in Japan. This is the prefecture where Keiko was born and raised. It was therefore assumed that she would

have little difficulty in completing the cloze test that followed the passage. However, the replies recorded in the second protocol showed that, in several instances, she relied on her schematic content knowledge in choosing the answer, rather than on contextual clues. Here is the passage in full:

> Miyazaki prefecture is located on the ___________ of Kyushu. The __________ of Miyazaki is about 1.5 million. About 250,000 people live in Miyazaki City. Miyazaki has hot and humid__________ in the summer with a lot of heavy ____________. The winter weather is usually warm, although sometimes a cold wind blows from the north. The main form of economic activity in Miyazaki is ______________. Various types of fruit are grown locally. These include oranges and _______________. As well as the _______________ of fruit, rice is also grown. _______________ is also another important activity in the region and fir trees are grown on many of the ______________. Many people in Miyazaki enjoy going to the beaches when they have some spare time. Miyazaki has some of the best beaches in Japan. Some popular sports are surfing, scuba diving, swimming and _______________.

Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level: 7.8

1	land	island	area	region
2	people	members	population	citizens
3	climate	weather	days	condition
4	rain	wind	snow	frost
5	industry	agriculture	sport	leisure
6	pineapples	apples	citrons	peaches
7	cultivation	farming	production	growth
8	forestry	hunting	fishing	gardening
9	mountains	lakes	roads	gardens
10	fishing	skiing	horse-riding	golf

Let's examine some of Keiko's answers and the reasons that she gave for them. For the two blanks in the tenth sentence she answered 'fishing' and 'mountains.' So the completed sentence read: 'Fishing is also an important activity in the region and fir trees are grown on many of the mountains.' Although 'mountains' is the correct answer, the choice of 'fishing' as the main subject of the sentence is illogical. However, when Keiko was asked why she chose the word 'fishing' rather than 'forestry', she replied: 'Because Miyazaki prefecture is around of sea, so people do fishing.' In other words, her content knowledge overrode the sentence context in determining her choice. As for question 10, Keiko chose 'golf' as her answer and so the complete sentence read: 'Some popular sports are surfing, scuba diving, swimming and golf.' Although grammatically accurate, the choice of 'golf' is odd because the previous sentence reads: 'Miyazaki has some of the best beaches in Japan.' Clearly there is a theme of ocean activities that links the two sentences, but Keiko did not mention this in the protocol. Instead, when asked why she chose golf she replied: 'Recently, there was a golf tournament in Miyazaki. Famous players came to Miyazaki, so I chose it.'

Keiko's answer to question 2 was also revealing because the protocol reply showed that she had understood the text well enough to be able to refer to both the second and third sentences in her answer. In other words her answer revealed an understanding of linguistic cohesion. Specifically, when asked why she chose 'population' as an answer, she replied: 'Because after the sentence there is 'people' so...(At this point the interviewer clarified her meaning by asking: 'You mean 'people' in the next sentence?) Keiko confirmed this adding: 'Yes, so I thought all of the people in Miyazaki, before the sentence means, so I took population, okay?'

Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, she did not indicate that she had used her understanding of linguistic cohesion when she answered question 8, instead she relied on content knowledge. This finding raises a number of interesting questions that are worthy of further investigation. Could it be, for example, that text-processing skills such as perception, parsing and comprehension are hierarchical, with content schema knowledge tending to dominate in the early stages of L2 reading comprehension? Why are such skills applied inconsistently?

Conclusion

This paper has reported some of the results from on-going research into L2 reading. The research is exploratory, rather that hypothesis-driven, and so the main goal up to this point has been data gathering. As with all longitudinal research, a lot of time will be needed before any conclusions can be drawn. In addition, any conclusions must inevitably remain tentative until they can be supported by quantitative analysis done with a significantly larger number of consultants. Finally, it is hoped that more teachers will become interested in research into L2 skill development and experiment with introspective research methods.

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11th Korea TESOL International Conference
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October 18-19, 2003, Seoul, Korea

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