KOTESOL Proceedings 2004

Expanding Horizons: Techniques and Technology in ELT

Proceedings of the 12th Annual KOTESOL International Conference
Seoul, Korea, October 9-10, 2004

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

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Edited by Korea TESOL

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FOREWORD

The 12th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference was held at Sookmyung Women's University on October 9-10, 2004. The theme of the Conference was "Expanding Horizons: Techniques and Technology in ELT," which speaks to the recent growth and expansion of ELT in our global community. The Conference presented a forum for interaction and exchange among people vested in ELT, from practitioners, researchers, and administrators, to patrons. Two exceptional plenary speakers provided insightful presentations: **Dr. Joy Reid** of the University of Wyoming, USA (Retrospective: Reflections on Learning Styles and Students), and **Dr. Paul Nation** from Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand (Evaluating a Vocabulary Program). Seven featured speakers presented throughout the Conference: famed Korean personality of English-language TV and radio, **Lee, Boyoung**; curriculum developer, **Dr. Kathleen Graves**; CALL expert, **Dr. Frank Otto**; international Englishes explorer, **Dr. Kensaku Yoshida**; discourse analysis specialist, **Dr. Brain Paltridge**; authority on bilingualism and language identity, **Dr. Joe Lo Bianco**; and famed journalist and author of books on Korea, **Michael Breen**. Over 120 presenters from around the globe ? Australia, Belarus, Canada, Hong Kong, Iran, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, Thailand, UAE, UK, and USA congregated in Seoul to present over 160 presentations on a plethora of ELT topics.

The papers appearing herein are products of those numerous presentations and equally representative of that plethora of subject matter. We are delighted to be able to begin this volume with Dr. Yoshida's featured-speaker paper on moving the learner from a "fish bowl" environment to the "open seas." The remaining twenty-three papers in the volume are arranged into six categories. The first section, "Online Learning," deals with implementation into EFL courses of online grammar, electronic journals, web-based instruction, and Moodle software. The "Young Learners" section addresses TEFL-friendly literature, cross-age reading, and a comparative analysis of Far East English textbooks. The next section is entitled "Course Design" and introduces the reader to not only general EFL course design, but also to incorporating listening tasks into homework and helping students to develop language study skills. The fourth section, "Assessment," discusses pronunciation techniques for native Korean speakers, a university-level English program in Iran, in-service teaching in Taiwan, and cooperative learning and peer assessment at the tertiary level. The "Intercultural Communication" section deals with promoting non-culturism in English, teaching world standard English, and lifelong English education through the Internet. The last and largest section, "Classroom Techniques," explores digital audio for teaching conversation, school-wide English-only policy, and motivation, entrepreneurship, and essential resources for teaching and learning.

It is our hope that the papers presented within the pages of these KOTESOL Proceedings 2004 are as stimulating to you, the reader, as the presentations were to the more than 800 participants at the 2004 Korea TESOL Conference.

David D.I. Kim
David E. Shaffer
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Featured Speaker

The Fish Bowl, Open Seas, and International English

Kensaku Yoshida
Sophia University, Japan

ABSTRACT

"International English" is a term which has been in use for quite some time. Theoretically, it has been considered as a kind of English which is equidistant from native English and non-native Englishes. A problem with this concept in the actual teaching context has been what actually to teach the learners of English as a foreign, or international, English. I consider this idea within the context of what I have called the "Fish Bowl" and the "Open Seas." I argue that International English is something that develops spontaneously in the Open Seas, in the context of real communication, and is not something that can be taught in the Fish Bowl, where the kind of English taught will very often depend on the educational needs of the learners and the model used will tend to be that of native English.

INTRODUCTION

The 21st century is a century in which, although the number of languages in the world is predicted to decrease by almost one half of what it is today by the end of the century (cf. Crystal, 2001; Nettle & Romaine, 2000; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; Abley, 2003), ironically, multilingualism and multiculturalism has become the norm rather than the exception. As McLuhan predicted over 30 years ago, the world is now a Global Village, where the movement of people, technology, and information across borders is an every-day phenomenon. What happens in one part of the world now affects the whole world.

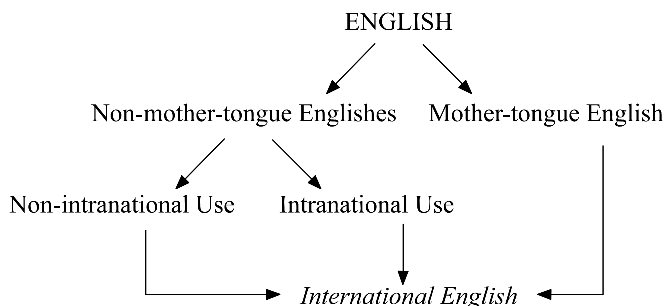
When the world becomes as small as it has in recent years, the creation of a common means of communication which makes it possible for the peoples of the world to understand and cooperate with each other becomes a must. Fortunately or not, English has *de facto* emerged naturally as that common language. Kachru (1990), Smith & Forman (1997), Crystal (2003), and others show that the number of people in the world today who use English as a second or foreign language greatly outnumbers those who speak it as a native language.

However, this does not mean that everyone in the world is using American English, or any of the other so-called Native Englishes. According to Crystal (2003), there are over 60 countries in the world where English is spoken either as the native language or second (or official) language, and all of these Englishes have their own linguistic characteristics. Indian English, Malaysian English, Nigerian English, Cameroon English, Hong Kong English, Tanzanian English, etc. all have unique pronunciations and vocabulary as well as, to a certain extent, grammars. In many cases, the Englishes spoken intranationally in

these countries are mutually unintelligible. Furthermore, as Jenkins (2000) shows, English learned as a foreign language is also unique to each country. For example, the English spoken by speakers of Japanese (English is not used intranationally in Japan) is very often not understood by speakers of other languages, either, even though it might be understood by other speakers of Japanese.

It is, therefore, important for us to acknowledge the importance of the existence of a kind of English which could be used to override the differences which might very well inhibit mutual communication between peoples who speak different versions of "Englishes." Based on previous theories on international English (cf. Strevens, 1980; Smith & Forman, 1997; Crystal, 2003; etc.), it can be said that under the overall cover term "English," there are several kinds of Englishes which must be distinguished. There are areas in the world where English is used as the mother tongue, areas where it is used not as a mother tongue but as either a second or official language, and areas where it is used as a foreign language only. In the first two areas, since English is used for communication purposes within the country – among the people themselves – we can refer to them as "intranational" varieties of English. On the other hand, in areas where English is used not among the people of the area but only with people from outside, we can refer to it as a "non-intranational" variety of English (Fig. 1). We could say, therefore, that the English used in the Philippines is an intranational variety of English, whereas English as it is learned and used by the Japanese in Japan is a non-intranational variety.

Figure 1. Types of Englishes



An important point to note, however, is that non-mother-tongue English is not the same as the so-called International English, which, presumably, is a kind of English which can be used and understood by speakers of any of the different Englishes shown in Figure 1. International English is not the same as any of the different Englishes used for intranational purposes, nor is it the same as the Englishes used in non-intranational environments. As Strevens and others contend, International English is, at least theoretically, equidistant from any of the varieties of English mentioned above.

The crucial question, however, is the following: Are there any specific structural characteristics of International English which could be commonly taught to all non-native speakers? McKay (2002) cites studies in which it has been found that, so far as grammar (or syntax) is concerned, there seem to be only minor differences between mother-tongue English and non-mother-tongue intranational Englishes. Jenkins (2000) notes that pronunciation is probably the

one most important area of language which can cause misunderstandings between people who speak different varieties of English. However, she argues that there are at least some core phonological features of International English which could presumably be taught commonly to all non-native English speakers.

What I will try to do in this presentation, first of all, is show that depending on what foreign language teaching model one advocates, the standards of the English to be taught will necessarily change. I will further argue that International English is a performance-based concept, and as such, becomes a reality only in the context of “real” communication between people who do not share a native language.

TWO MODELS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: FROM THE FISH BOWL TO THE OPEN SEAS

Let me first note that the two models I present in this section are based on the non-intranational English teaching situation – more specifically that of Japan – and therefore, should be taken in that context (cf. Yoshida, 2002).

No matter how much a student might succeed in learning a foreign language to meet the goals of a community created for a very limited and specific purpose, that does not necessarily guarantee that he will be able to function outside that community where the language might also be necessary for a wider range of objectives. For example, a student might do extremely well on foreign language tests, opening doors to the best universities in Japan, and eventually providing him with an opportunity to find employment in the best companies and government agencies. However, whether these “elites” in Japan will also succeed in a wider international arena is a different issue. As Funabashi (2000) points out, there are extremely few people in responsible government positions who are capable of using English on an equal footing with their counterparts from other parts of the world. In other words, even though their knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary; their reading comprehension ability, at least in terms of their ability to translate English into Japanese; as well as their ability to translate given Japanese sentences into English are usually quite good, the criticism is that they cannot really use English outside of what I will call Japan's foreign language teaching “Fish Bowl.” The English they acquire might not have much value outside of the Japanese “Fish Bowl.” In other words, it might have very little value in the “Open Seas” outside of Japan.

THE FISH BOWL

What are the characteristics of this English learned in the Fish Bowl? Let us begin by first looking at the characteristics of the fish living in a Fish Bowl.

Reliance on others

- The water must be changed
- The fish must be fed

Preservation of an ideal (perfect) environment

- The temperature of the water is kept constant.

- The bowl is cleaned and fungi and molds are cleaned away.
- The best feed is used.

Isolation – artificially limited environment

- The fish are isolated from other fish outside the Fish Bowl.
- The Fish Bowl provides for an artificially created, limited living space.

ENGLISH IN THE FISH BOWL

If we were to apply these characteristics to the learning of English in the Fish Bowl, we would see the following:

Reliance on others

- Teacher-centered, passive learning (waiting to be fed)

In this model, the students are always given materials to learn, drills to do, dialogues to memorize, patterns to repeat, etc. Everything is provided by the teacher. Students studying in this model are passive, asking questions such as "Do I have to memorize this," "Is this going to be on the test," "Do I have to do this assignment," etc.

Preservation of an ideal (perfect) environment

- Perfection – intolerance of errors

The goal is "accuracy" because that is what is expected of the students in tests, which will most probably be at the end of the learning process to check the knowledge of the language acquired.

- Use of native language speaker models/use of native-language-speaker values

Since there is no need for the students to use the language, and the primary goal is to acquire "perfect" knowledge of its structure, only the most ideal (i.e., native) model is used.

Isolation – artificially limited environment

- The English learned cannot be extended to other situations (non-communicable)

The English might be unnatural and pragmatically unacceptable in real-life communication. However, if that is the kind of English that the students are required to learn to survive in the Fish Bowl, that is what they will have to learn.

- The English learned is determined by and is applicable only to the specific environment in which it is learned

The English learned in the Fish Bowl is "good" in so far as it serves the purpose for which the Fish Bowl was created. If knowing the various meanings and functions of the perfect or the subjunctive is going to make a difference in whether or not the student will succeed in the Fish Bowl, then he will have to learn them, even if the knowledge might have no or very little significance outside the Fish Bowl.

THE OPEN SEAS

In contrast to this foreign language learning and teaching in the Fish Bowl, the characteristics of the fish living in the Open Seas would look like the following:

Reliance on self

- Choosing own water to live in
- Finding own food to eat

Adaptation to existing environment

- Constant change in quality of water
- Existence of fungi and other alien substances
- Food provided naturally by the environment

Co-existence – naturally selected habitat

- Co-existence with many different kinds of fish, animals, plants, etc.
- A natural living environment, commonly shared by all things living in the same sea

ENGLISH IN THE OPEN SEAS

Again, if we were to apply these characteristics to the learning and teaching of foreign languages, we would see the following:

Reliance on self

- Learner-centered, active learning (getting one's own food)

Through meaningful, communicative activities, students learn to contribute to their own learning. The interests of the students themselves become materials for their learning. They ask teachers for advice on how to seek out their own materials and strategies for learning.

Adaptation to existing environment

- Tolerance for mistakes and non-native norms of language

Learning through experience to convey meaning in many different ways is considered more important that knowing one accurate form (rule) to express it. The development of learner language (not necessarily “correct” from the native speakers' perspective) is considered to be an essential feature of foreign language learning

- Acknowledgement of acceptable English and diversity of values as the norm

The acknowledgement that it's all right to have different kinds of Englishes depending on the learner's background and situation is accepted.

Co-existence – naturally selected habitat

- Importance of cross-cultural, intercultural understanding

Strategies in cross-cultural communication comprise an important part of the development of teaching materials and methods. Simply knowing about different cultures is not enough. Students must learn ways of communicating efficiently in situations where differences between cultures exist.

- The English learned must be communicable in international settings

Communicability is considered the most important criterion for the learning of English as a foreign language; the development of “my” English into “our” English – communicable among a diverse group of peoples. Simply being able to communicate among one's own group (e.g., classmates, family, school, community, etc.) is not sufficient. Students must be capable of communicating with people from other groups in international settings.

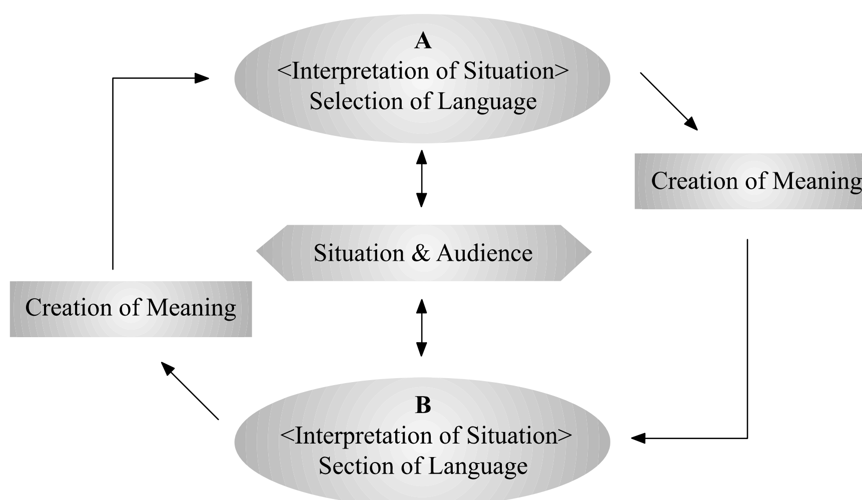
INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH AS A CONCEPT IN THE OPEN SEAS

From the discussion of the two models presented above, it should be apparent that International English is not the kind of English taught in the Fish Bowl. It is the "perfect" native (mother-tongue) model which must be learned in the Fish Bowl. Mother-tongue English pronunciation, grammar and usage are what the students aim to acquire, because that is what the tests are based on.

In the Open Seas model, however, there is no "ideal (perfect)" model on which the students' acquisition of English is based. A key concept in this model is "communicability," which refers to the potential of the language used in the communication process to be understood by the learner, as well as the language produced by the learner to be understood by the listener. What level of language is communicable will depend, therefore, not on any objective criteria common to all speakers, but on the individual situation existing between two "real" speakers. In other words, it is assumed that, in the Open Seas, communication and use of language are created each time – differently – by the specific communication situation in which the interactants find themselves (cf. Schegloff, 1987).

In the Open Seas, people constitute environments for each other, and it is through the monitoring of the effects of her/his performance on the listener that the speaker can see how effectively s/he is interacting (cf. McDermott & Tylbor, 1986). This dynamic process of communication might be visualized as in Figure 2 (based on Tanaka's theory of "Imizukeron" or "Creation of Meaning"). Interactant A "creates" the meaning s/he wants to convey to B on the basis of his/her perception of the situation in which the interaction is taking place and what s/he believes B knows about the topic – based on his/her cultural and social background. B, then, interprets A's "meaning" on the basis of his/her background knowledge and the situation in which A has created the meaning, and responds accordingly by, in turn, creating his/her own meaning.

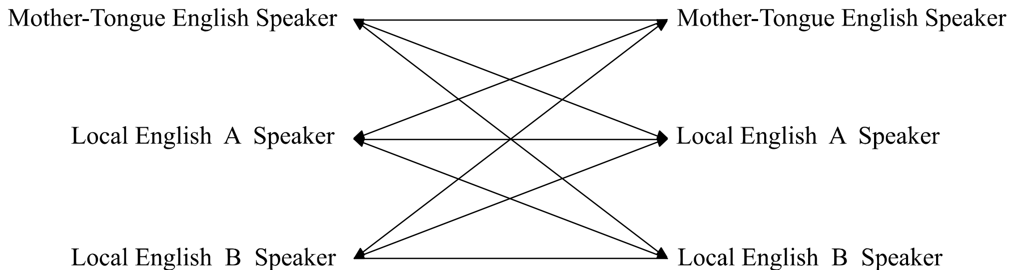
Figure 2. Creation of Meaning in the Process of Communication



An important corollary in this figure is that if the interactants come from

different cultural backgrounds, they must try as much as possible to "de-culturalize" their speech in order to create a common ground on which they can understand each other. In other words, we could say that International English is basically "culture-independent" and that it is used to create a unique situationally determined "micro-culture" (cf. Schegloff, 1987) every time it is used. Consider the following cases:

Figure 3. Relationships Among Speakers of Different Englishes



When speakers of the same language are interacting with each other (solid lines), there will be more influence of the shared common culture (macro-culture) as well as shared linguistic forms in the process of communication. However, as the dotted lines show, when people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds communicate with each other, there will be an increased need for the creation of a unique micro-culture, dictated by the concrete situation in which the interaction takes place. In fact, it is in the relationships represented by the dotted lines that International English is used.

Comprehensible Input Created Through Communicable Interaction

How, then, is this micro-culture created? As Jenkins (2000), McKay (2002), and others note that it is not easy for people from different macro-cultural backgrounds to really understand each other. This is true from the point of view of differences in cultural experiences as well as linguistic experiences. Research in child language as well as SLA has shown that communication is possible if the speakers are able to modify their language to the level of comprehensible input (cf. Krashen, 1982) of the listeners. Although the literature on comprehensible input usually centers on the modification of language by the "expert" speaker to meet the level of the "novice" learner (e.g., caretaker talk, foreigner talk, teacher talk), it is equally possible to assume the modification of the various Englishes spoken by both native and non-native speakers in communication situations as noted in Figure 3 above. This would mean that it is not only the native speaker of English who has the task of modifying his/her speech to meet the level of the non-native speaker, but the non-native speaker must also modify his/her speech to help the native speaker understand his/her version of English (cf. Jenkins, 2000). This happens in cases where a non-native speaker – very often someone using English intranationally, but also sometimes non-intranationally (as in the case of Japanese English) – speaks a version of English

which can only be understood by people who come from the same linguistic and cultural community. However, the ability to modify one's speech to make it comprehensible to the listener becomes even more important when non-native speakers of Englishes from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds must speak with each other.

In other words, the creation of comprehensible input is a mutual requirement wherever International English is used. It can be said that International English will differ depending on who the interactants are and the nature of the communicative situation. Thus, International English can be defined as that English which is communicable between interactants who come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It does not necessarily have an "objective" linguistic structure (syntactically, lexically, or phonologically) which can be defined outside of the specific interaction taking place. It is the result of the efforts made by the interactants to provide comprehensible input to each other.

We can, therefore, summarize the above by saying that there are no native speakers and only non-native speakers of International English, and because there is no native speaker of International English, there is no macro-culture attached to it. Everyone must create comprehensible input for each other, and a unique culture is created in each situation, depending on the interactants' linguistic background, communicative situation, communicative purpose, etc.

WHAT MODEL SHOULD WE USE IN OUR SCHOOLS?

Even if we were to accept the above concept of International English, an important pedagogical problem remains: If there is no objective structural image of International English, what can teachers use as the model to teach their students?

Unless we are talking about Fish Bowl objectives (Yoshida, 2002), where the model would have to be the idealized native-speaker model, for the purpose of international communication, the most communicable, and the least problem-causing English should theoretically be the model.

A further problem is how do we know what model of English is most communicable and least problematic? The answer to this question will depend on the quality of English used by the instructor. If the instructor has never really used English in international communication (e.g., with foreign teachers, foreign visitors and tourists, etc.), and if the instructor does not employ communicative activities and tasks using English as the means of communication in the classroom, it would be very difficult to provide the most communicable and least problematic model to teach. However, if the instructor has experienced ample success in communicating with foreigners in English, and regularly teaches English communicatively – emphasizing the transmission of meanings and intentions – then his/her English can probably be used as an appropriate model to teach. Of course, what is communicable and non-problematic will depend on the content and level of communication – greetings and script-based transactions will not be as difficult as discussions and negotiation. The more difficult the content and task, the more native-like English will probably become necessary – at least in terms of structure and vocabulary. However, communicable pronunciation will not necessarily have to approximate the native model, as long as it is used consciously as a means to communicate meanings and

intentions.

After all is said, there is one final point to keep in mind: Teachers must be tolerant of their students' English, because no matter what model is used to teach English, learners will inevitably end up producing their own English, or what Tanaka calls "my English." What is important is whether our students' "my Englishes" are communicable and cause only minimal, in any, problems in communication. If they are, the English that teachers use to produce such students should be recognized as a "good" model in teaching International English.

THE AUTHOR

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Online Learning

Grammar Online: Supplementation Through Student-Specific Activities

Andrew Finch
Kyungpook National University, Korea

ABSTRACT

This presentation explored the use of the Internet as a means of posting student-specific, textbook-related, interactive grammar activities for students. Rather than requiring students to spend valuable time in class practicing grammar (instead of developing performance skills), students can be directed to web sites which contain quizzes and puzzles based on the grammar of the relevant lesson. Teachers can also design and post their own student-specific exercises online and ask students to complete these and to submit their answers by email. This presentation gave suggestions on how to do this, along with a brief summary of current web sites offering grammar-based activities.

INTRODUCTION

EFL learning is significantly different to ESL learning in that performance of the target language (in the EFL situation) occurs almost exclusively in the classroom. When students leave that classroom, they naturally revert to their L1 for interactions, negotiations, and transactions since everyone they meet employs that language. The ESL teacher thus has an enormous advantage in that his/her students walk out of the classroom into a target-language environment, and the classroom can therefore focus on form and structure. For the EFL teacher, there is no target-language community offering unlimited opportunities for rehearsal on the other side of the classroom door, and it is vital that class time be used for the promotion of performance skills, giving students regular practice in using the language and helping them to develop motor skills (e.g., pronunciation), mental processes (cognition), affective skills (emotional management), and awareness of social appropriateness (pragmatics).

The Internet has made available a number of ways of taking memory-based learning out of the classroom and thus offers various possibilities for the EFL teacher. One classroom-based approach is the use of form-focused, interactive activities (see section II) that teachers can download, print out, and use to supplement textbooks or to focus attention on specific difficulties identified by them in their students. A second approach is to find appropriate grammar quizzes and puzzles on the Internet and to ask students to visit these sites in their own time (section III). The emphasis here is on giving students opportunities to acquire the required learning content in their own time, at their own speed, and with maximum success. A third, very user-friendly, method is to make student-/class-specific exercises using *Hot Potatoes*, a software authored

by the University of Victoria and freely available on the Internet (section IV). This software has greatly improved since its inception and offers a simple means of designing and posting activities that are relevant to students' learning needs. *Hot Potatoes* is, however, not intended for use in a testing format; the focus is on stimulating students to learn enjoyably and successfully. For teachers with the desire to design more complex online activities, section V examines *FormArtist*, a software which allows the user to make professional-looking surveys and other forms (e.g., tests) to receive email feedback and to analyse that data.

FORM-FOCUSED ACTIVITIES

A perception often voiced by teachers and students about communicative activities is that they pay too much attention to fluency, at the expense of form (Skehan 1996, p. 51). Pedagogues are thus fond of talking about a form/fluency teaching pendulum (cf. Spada, 1997). However, there are a number of downloadable resources on the Internet which integrate grammatical forms with communicative language use. In Figure 1, for example (Finch & Hyun, 2000), a questionnaire uses "Do you...?" "Have you ...?" and "Can you...?" constructions. Students ask other members of the class more than twenty questions such as "Do you walk to school," "Do you come from Busan," and "Have you been to Chinhae?" They then write in the names of people who say "Yes, I do" or "Yes, I have." This activity can go on for some time, since five affirmative names are required

Figure 1. Online Questionnaire

For each question. By the end of the task, the required functions have been thoroughly, and meaningfully, rehearsed by the students, who have been using

the language to learn the language. Other form-focused formats can include surveys, matching games, role plays, information-gap activities, and board games. Board games are a particularly effective means of rehearsing grammar in an interactive setting, since children learn by playing and are quick to become involved in the activity, often making their own rules. Figure 2, *Can you...?* (Finch & Hyun, 2000), uses the board-game format with action verbs written on the squares. There are also sets of picture noun-cards available, which are placed face-down on the board. According to the rules they have made, students shake the dice, move round the board, and construct a sentence combining the word on the board, the picture card, and "Can you..." (e.g., "Can you buy a bridge," "Can you kiss a parrot," "Can you cook a crocodile?"). The possible construction of grammatically correct but semantically dubious sentences makes the activity all the more interesting and enjoyable. This format can be used with other structures, such as "Have you..." "Would you..." and even "I wish..." according to the judgment of the teacher and the teaching aims of the curriculum. The net result is that students are happy to focus on grammar in such a non-threatening manner.

Figure 2. Online Grammar Board Game

Activities such as the ones described above can be found on the author's site: www.finchpark.com/books. The activities found there are downloadable and free, and teachers are welcome to use them in their classes. The form-focused, interactive materials are contained in various books:

- *Tell Me More!*: Form-focused conversation activities
- *Now You're Talking!*: Form-focused travel English
- *The Way Ahead*: Project English (university level)
- *What's New?*: Basic dialogs for children

Thumbnails are provided in these books so that teachers can get an over-

view of the contents. Once an activity has been chosen, it appears as a graphic file (.gif or .jpg), which can be downloaded onto the computer. This graphic can then be put into an HWP or MS Word file and printed out. There are also teacher's versions of the books online so that teaching resources (cards, pictures, etc.) can be downloaded and lesson suggestions can be read. Other online grammar-based teacher resources can be found at a number of sites. Rather than mentioning them here (given the tendency of web links to become redundant) the reader is recommended to try a web search using keywords such as "EFL teacher resources." An informative source of such materials (CAL Resource Guides Online) can be found at http://www.4english.cn/research/wbi_cal_activities.htm.

Online Grammar Sites

There are a number of reliable grammar sites online, and these can be used by teachers to enhance classroom learning. The following is a list of some of these sites, although, once more, the reader is recommended to perform a web search.

GRAMMAR EXERCISES

- http://iteslj.org/links/
  Great links hosted by the Internet TESL-J
- http://web2.uvcs.uvic.ca/elc/studyzone/330/grammar/index.htm
  330 grammar topics, University of Victoria, Canada
- http://www.eslgold.com/
  A comprehensive site
- http://www.chompchomp.com/menu.htm
  Grammar Bytes
- http://members.chello.at/english4u/main.htm
  English 4 U
- http://english.specialist.hu/
  English Specialist

GRAMMAR QUIZZES

- http://www.manythings.org/
  Many activities for students
- http://eslus.com/LESSONS/GRAMMAR/POS/pos.htm
  Interlink
- http://a4esl.org/q/h/grammar.html
  Self-study quizzes on the Internet
- http://webster.commnet.edu/grammar/index.htm
  Guide to grammar and writing, with computer-graded quizzes
- http://a4esl.org/
  Javascript Activities for ESL Students
- http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/quiz/
  Dave Sperling's ESL Quiz Center
- http://esl.about.com/library/quiz/blgrammarquiz.htm
  ESL grammar quizzes

- http://www.eslpartyland.com/quiz_20center/quiz.htm
  Karin's ESL Partyland: The Quiz Center
- http://quizzes.englishclub.com/
  EnglishClub.com: ESL Quizzes
- http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/class/material/quiz/
  Quizzes by Kenji Kitao and Kathleen Kitao

A problem with most of these sites is that they are not indexed. Teachers or students simply arriving at the sites find a wealth of activities but little direction as to how to use them, Teachers planning to use such resources, therefore, need to spend some time sifting through the activities and finding those which are pertinent to the syllabus and beneficial to their students.

The last example of grammar quizzes (above) is hosted by university professors in Japan and is an example of the sort of thing that teachers can do to make the activities more learner-specific. To explain more about this, the next section investigates the software *Hot Potatoes*.

HOT POTATOES

The University of Victoria in Canada has developed a free authoring software and has made it available on the Internet for some time. This software, *Hot Potatoes*, is now in version 6 and is extremely user-friendly. It allows the teacher to design his/her own grammar exercises in a number of formats (cloze exercises, matching exercises, multiple-choice exercises, scrambled sentences, and crosswords) and to post these on the Internet. If the user does not have a web site, the exercises can be posted on the *Hot Potatoes* homepage, though it is easy these days to get a free homepage from *Naver*, *Yahoo, Dreamwiz*, *Finesugar*, or *Tripod*, for example.

To summarize, there are a few main points to look out for when using *Hot Potatoes*:

1. While being made, the activity is saved as a file such as *.jmx, *.jcw, or *.jmt. It is useful to keep these files on your computer, since you can use them to alter the activity if wished. Once completed, the activity can be easily converted into an HTML file by using the "Create Web Page" option in the "File" menu. The surprisingly small html file can then be uploaded.
2. The "Options" option on the top menu bar has a function (at the top) called "Configure Output." This function is extremely useful, since it allows the user to change the appearance of every aspect of the game/puzzle/activity. This function also allows the user to insert a timer, to change the instructions, and to link the activity with other web pages, thus allowing for a series of activities.
3. The crossword-maker (JCross) is a very effective tool, though it can be difficult to use at first. The correct sequence is to enter the words and clues first, using the "Add Clues" button. The user should then go to "Manage Grid" on the top menu bar, and choose the function "Automatic Grid Maker." The activity can then be saved for the web.
   It is important to note that clues must be added, or the crossword will not be created.

An important aspect of this approach to grammar is that students have time to work out their answers. If they perform the activities at home, they can take as much time as they like in getting the right answer. Individual activities can have time limits put on them, but the students can repeat the activities as many times as they wish, in order to get a perfect score. Every student can thus be successful, and grammar can become an enjoyable, rather than a competitive, subject.

If teachers wish to receive feedback from students regarding their scores, this can be done using *Formmail* (www.formmail.com). However, the makers of *Hot Potatoes* stress that it is not meant to be used for testing purposes. *Formmail* might be used beneficially, however, as a means of checking that everyone has completed the assignment. The fact that they will all have 100% is a bonus! The main point is that grammar has been taken out of the classroom and has become a guided self-study subject. *Hot Potatoes* can be downloaded free from http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/halfbaked/#downloads, and sample activities can be viewed at http://www.finchpark.com/courses/hotpot/.

An associated software, also from the University of Victoria, and also free, is called *Quandry*. This is a problem-solving, maze software, and though focusing on reading skills rather than grammar, it can be very useful as an online learning tool for teachers and students. The player (or interactant) is presented with a short passage to read, along with a number of options for actions to be taken regarding the desired outcome of the passage. Having chosen one set of actions, another, consequent passage appears, along with its own further choices of actions. The online tutorials offer some good examples, though there is usually a “correct” course of actions to be found. However, this software is open to creative use by the teacher, who is free to promote interactive story-making or even deductive reasoning (logic puzzles) using this technique. Making online versions of the activities is also very simple, as in *Hot Potatoes*. *Quandry* can be downloaded from http://www.halfbakedsoftware.com/quandary.php.

FORMARTIST

A feature of making one’s own activities (surveys, tests, questionnaires, etc.) and putting them on the web is that it can soon become very technical, and the unfortunate designer can find him/herself confronted with technical terms, cgi files, and requests to obtain permission from the web server to use various functions on that server. It is heartening for the barely computer-literate EFL teacher, therefore, to find that there is a very user-friendly software which takes care of these problems. *FormArtist* allows the user to make online surveys, questionnaires, tests, etc. and to have the results of these sent to one or more email addresses. Rather then meddling with cgi files or html, the user simply fills in the proposed URL of the survey/test along with a profile of that site, and then designs the form. This task is made even easier by the provision of a number of ready-made style-sheets and even pre-made forms, which can be adapted to the user’s needs. There are also various useful functions on the toolbars, which can be simply dragged and dropped onto the form. In addition to a series of check-boxes, also available are lists, date/time boxes, text input, numeric input, Yes/No boxes, multiple choice boxes, and emoticons. In all, this software makes the use of student-specific online surveys, tests, etc. a definite possibility

for EFL teachers. The free version can be downloaded from http://www.quask.com and tutorials are available from the "Help" function (click on "Contents") of the top menu bar. *FormArtist* is used by schools and other institutions (e.g., hospitals) since it provides automatic data analysis of online forms. However, this function is not included in the free version. Teachers can make their own online instruments and receive professional-looking feedback in their email inbox, but they have to do their own data analysis.

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Implementation and Evaluation of Electronic Journals

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ABSTRACT

Recent research into L2 electronic interactions has indicated that they may lead to increases in student linguistic and communicative skills, motivation, and participation, and also reduction of anxiety. Electronic journals provide the ideal opportunity for such interactions and are easily incorporated into the course curriculum. This paper outlines the procedure for implementing electronic journals which involves the regular use of email exchanges between non-native speakers (NNSs) in the Intensive English program at Kwansei Gakuin University in the course of one semester. The paper also presents the results of a questionnaire regarding student attitudes towards electronic journals as well as their perceived progress in L2 acquisition through the use of these journals.

BACKGROUND

Carroll (1967) demonstrated that an environment in which the focus of speakers is on the content of the communication rather than on the language itself has a beneficial effect on learner proficiency. Those foreign language learners who studied abroad or participated in a study-abroad program generally outperformed those who had never studied in a target-language country. Carroll argued that the target-language environment maximizes natural-language exposure. With careful planning, natural-language exposure can also become available in a foreign-language learning environment, and the use of the Internet is instrumental in making this possible.

The recent breakthrough in communication technologies and the consequent widespread use of email offer an incredible opportunity for the introduction of authentic communication in the language classroom. One of the earlier studies on the subject, by Barson et al. (1993), indicated successful development of communicative competence in French through authentic communication in the target language via email. Oliva and Pollastrini (1995) reported an improvement in Italian writing skills in learners and suggested possibilities for the improvement of listening and speaking skills through the use of email, newsgroups, and Internet chat. Van Handle and Corl (1998) conducted an email exchange in their German language classes and found improvements in accuracy and expansion of vocabulary. Torii (2002) introduced an email exchange project between her students of English in Japan and Japanese language students in the

US, and demonstrated that the project not only met many of the goals of the National Standards but also deepened the students' cross-cultural knowledge and improved their critical-thinking skills.

The research into email exchange programs has been conducted primarily in cross-cultural settings, in other words, those in which non-native speakers (NNSs) were paired with native speakers (NSs). However, many teachers are often faced with the problem of a lack of suitable exchange partners abroad or other similar pragmatic considerations. The only viable option for many is to conduct an exchange involving only NNSs. The question that arises is whether such exchanges are as effective as those between NNSs and NSs. Although until recently NNS-NNS email interactions and their benefits to language learners remained relatively unexplored, there is a growing body of evidence showing that they can indeed have a positive impact on L2 acquisition. Liaw (1998) investigated the efficacy of email exchanges between Taiwanese students and found increased motivation, interaction, and authentic language usage. Lu (2002) followed up with a quantitative analysis of the improvements in Taiwanese students' writing ability in terms of length, complexity, and accuracy as a result of NNS-NNS interactions. Stockwell and Gray (2002) demonstrated an increase in lexical and syntactic development among Japanese students involved in a five-week email exchange project. Absalom and Pais Marden (2004) concluded that the integration of email into the course added to motivation, participation, and development of linguistic abilities among NNSs in the Italian program at Australian National University.

In their comprehensive analysis of current theory, research, and pedagogy on the use of various Internet features in English teaching including email, Web bulletin boards, and chat rooms, Warschauer, Shetzer, and Meloni (2000) state that the Internet undoubtedly encourages interaction and creativity. They identify five main reasons for using the Internet for language teaching: authenticity, literacy, interaction, vitality, and empowerment.

ELECTRONIC JOURNALS

Electronic journals (e-journals) are simply electronic interactions facilitated by an Internet group page. The students are assigned a topic each week and are required to post a message and reply to at least one other message by email or through this group page. These messages, or journal entries, are anonymous and should express the writer's thoughts, feelings, experiences, and opinions on various topics suggested by the students themselves and selected by the instructor.

The advantage of e-journals over traditional pen and paper journals is increased interaction. Not only are the students provided with an opportunity to share their opinions with a larger audience, they also have the opportunity to read and respond to all of their classmates' journal entries. This increased interaction translates into an increase in comprehensible input, motivation to express one's opinions, and a reduction of anxiety though the formation of a friendly learning environment.

PROCEDURE

The e-journal project was conducted during the fall 2003 semester in the Intensive English Program at Kwansei Gakuin University. The participants were 97 students from the Business, Economics, Humanities, and Sociology Departments who were enrolled in Intermediate English classes. Each of the four classes was completely separate, and students only participated in exchanges within their own class.

We found that integrating this e-journal activity into our courses was not difficult. However, the prospect of beginning such an undertaking seemed daunting. In order to make the process less intimidating, we found it easier to divide this process into individual steps that could be carried out over a period of a few weeks.

We began on the first day of class by introducing the e-journal activity. We explained that the students would be writing one message every week on an assigned subject and replying to at least one of the messages that their classmates wrote. We further explained that the messages would be sent electronically and posted on an Internet bulletin board that could only be accessed by the class members. We also provided the rationale for the activity: that by expressing their thoughts, feelings, experiences, and opinions, they could find that they had similar interests, experiences, concerns, and goals. In addition, by writing these messages, they would gradually become better at expressing themselves in English and perhaps improve their reading and writing skills. We explicitly stated that the students were to focus on the expression of ideas rather than writing mechanics.

The second step was to get the students signed up for an email account. We asked the students to choose an anonymous username so that they could express themselves freely and then explained how to set up an email account. For homework the students were asked to send their email addresses to us using their new email accounts.

After collecting all the new email addresses, we sent an invitation to each of the students to join the class "Group." In the following session, we explained to the students how to join the Group, and for homework, the students were simply required to complete this third step, which was to join the Group.

The fourth step, after verifying that all the students had signed up for the class Group, was to explain how to post a message to the class Group page. After explaining this, we let the students choose from three possible topics: "What are your goals for this class?" "Why are you taking this class?" and "Why are you studying English?" Since the students had a choice of topics, they had the freedom to write about what was more interesting to them. For this first assignment, we only required that they post a message, and we would reply to the other messages later.

The next logical step was to explain how to read and reply to the messages on the Group page. Of course, their homework was to reply to at least one of the messages that their classmates had written. Before proceeding, we verified that all the students were able to post, read, and reply to messages, and we assisted those students who needed additional help.

After verifying that all the students knew how to do this activity, we generated a list of topics for the e-journals and began the weekly routine. We generated a list by first reminding the students that the e-journals were an oppor-

tunity for the students to express their thoughts, feelings, experiences, and opinions on topics of interest to them. We then brainstormed possible topics and made an extensive list of appropriate topics on the blackboard. With this list, we were able to begin the weekly e-journal assignment of writing one message and replying to at least one message. Some of the topics discussed throughout the course of the semester were students' dreams and goals, personal heroes, family problems, and gender equality.

Throughout the semester, we read the students' messages and replies, and gave informal feedback in class. We had decided not to participate in the e-journals. We didn't reply to any of the messages that the students posted, although we were often tempted to do so after reading the insightful or controversial comments that the students had written. We had decided that this activity would be for them, and we kept our opinions to ourselves except for general comments in class. We had also decided that in the spirit of journal writing, we would not focus on grammar, unless we saw a common error. When we felt compelled to address a common grammar error or an expression that was often misused, we did so only in the classroom and only as something we had noticed and wanted to bring to their attention.

At the end of the semester, we followed up on the activity by asking the students to fill out a questionnaire. After the students finished their last e-journal assignment, we wanted to find out their impressions of the e-journal activity.

Discussion of Questionnaire Results

To understand how the students felt about the e-journal activity as a whole, a questionnaire (see Appendix), which included both closed-ended and open-ended questions, was distributed to 95 participants. Their responses were largely positive and included some interesting and helpful suggestions and comments. The following questions present both the numeric results and the responses that were most characteristic of the students' views:

Question 1: Would you recommend using e-journals in future courses?

Yes (= 87%)	No (= 8%)	Undecided (= 5%)

Question 2: What did you like most about e-journals?

- Fun to exchange opinion or idea through e-journals.
- I could broaden my horizons.
- It is really happy for me to get the reply.
- I can write English without ashamed.
- Don't need to write name; it makes me honest.
- When I heard classmates' dream same as mine, I'm very happy.

Question 3: What did you dislike most about e-journals?

- Because I don't have a computer in my house, so it was troublesome to use the school computer.
- No one correct my wrong sentence or word, so I could not notice what was wrong.
- I was little sad when no one replied me.
- I couldn't talk to the person who had another sense of values face to face.
- I wished we could have guessed who was writing the messages.

Questions 4-7. Improvement of Skills

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4. How much did the e-journals help you to improve your writing skills?

   a. a lot (= 21%) b. somewhat (= 66%) c. very little (= 12%) d. not at all (= 1%)

5. How much did the e-journals help you to improve your reading skills?

   a. a lot (= 15%) b. somewhat (= 49%) c. very little (= 34%) d. not at all (= 2%)

6. How much did the e-journals help you to express your opinions?

   a. a lot (= 42.5%) b. somewhat (= 45.5%) c. very little (= 11%) d. not at all (= 1%)

7. How much did the e-journals help you to become more familiar with computers?

   a. a lot (= 34%) b. somewhat (= 39.5%) c. very little (= 24.5%) d. not at all (= 2%)

Question 8: Do you have any suggestions for improving e-journals?

- I think it is good for us that the teacher is a native takes part in and write e-journals too.
- I couldn't know sentences which I wrote were right, so I wanted you to check them and correct them is there is mistake.
- My suggestions is that our homepage has pictures of our classmates and lesson.
- I think it is better for continue the same topic for several weeks; by doing so, we can talk more deeper.
- I wanted to carry on discussing a topic not only on the computer but also in our class.

Question 9: Please write any additional comments about e-journals.

- I had never seen the American site before starting e-journals so it was fun.
- I really enjoyed exchanging opinions through e-journals because we seldom say out ideas in public.
- I came to like computers.
- Through the e-journals I could try to write English and speak English also in class.
- I learned to type the keyboard more fast little by little.

Question 1 clearly indicates that the overwhelming majority of students liked the e-journal activity and saw it as beneficial to their learning of English. As for the reasons why students enjoyed this activity, Question 2 and Question 9 both include some of the more typical comments we received. These comments confirm our assumptions that e-journals provide an authentic setting in which students can share opinions and ideas with more confidence. This in turn results in increased interaction and a lower affective filter.

There is always a downside to any classroom activity. The three most common complaints (see Questions 3 and 8) were the lack of easy access to computers, the lack of error correction, and the lack of teacher participation. The lack of easy access to computers is a potential complication for any out-of-class computer-based activity, especially considering that the majority of our students do not have computers at home and that the computer labs at the university tend to be crowded. One possible solution is to extend the deadline for submission of messages. Another type of complaint relates to the lack of error correction. Our rationale for providing minimal error correction is that the goals for this activity were fluency and communication of ideas rather than grammatical accuracy. Although we did address some of the more obvious grammar errors in class, the students clearly wanted more. We believe it is up to the individual teachers to decide how to deal with error correction depending on the needs of the class, the number of students, and personal philosophy on error correction. Some students also suggested (see Question 8) that the teacher participate in the activity. We believe that teacher participation changes the whole dynamic of the interaction, affecting the authenticity of communication, and moving away from student centeredness, which may result in the students writing what they think the teacher wants to hear. In sum, we minimized our participation because we did not want the students to write for us, the teachers, rather than for each other.

Another interesting issue was the choice of an anonymous user name. Some students clearly liked the anonymity (see Question 2), while others did not (see Question 3). For some students, the anonymity served as a springboard for expressing their true thoughts and opinions with more confidence, whereas others found that they would have liked to have known who they were corresponding with. In fact, some of the students revealed their identity from the beginning. We addressed this issue by reiterating that anonymity was not enforced but suggested, and that this was something they could and should take responsibility for by deciding for themselves whether or not to divulge who they are.

Our initial impetus for embarking on this activity was the premise that elec-

tronic interactions would lead to increases in student linguistic and communicative skills. In the questionnaire we elicited the students' perceptions of their improvement of the following skills: writing, reading, expression of ideas, and computer skills (see Questions 4-7). As predicted, the majority of students felt that they had improved in all four areas. A significant majority indicated that their writing skills and ability to express their opinions had improved either a lot or somewhat. As for reading skills, only 15% perceived a considerable improvement, whereas 49% and 34% felt that there was some or very little improvement, respectively. A possible explanation for this could be that students either didn't read many messages or did not recognize the value of input generated by other non-native speakers. As for computer skills, it is clear from the figures in Questions 4-7, as well as the comments in Question 9, that many students became more familiar with computers. Perhaps some of the 26.5% of those who responded that they had very little or no improvement were already proficient with computers.

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, we received positive feedback from our students, which confirmed our premise that electronic journals are a valuable tool for language learning. Students clearly enjoyed this activity and perceived improvements in writing, reading, expression of ideas, and computer skills. The questionnaire results provide us with sufficient evidence to suggest that NNS-to-NNS interactions contribute to the development of linguistic abilities and authentic language usage.

More research is needed to quantitatively confirm both teachers' and students' impressions of student progress. Although this research is difficult to conduct, it could provide valuable insight into the effectiveness of electronic interactions. Another possible future direction for research is to determine what influence email exchanges have on learners' speaking abilities.

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APPENDIX

E-JOURNAL QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Would you recommend using e-journals in future courses? Why?

2. What did you like most about e-journals?

3. What did you dislike most about e-journals?

When I introduced the e-journal assignment, I presented the goals of the e-journals. For questions 4-7, I'd like to know your opinion about whether we achieved these goals and to what extent.

4. How much did the e-journals help you to improve your writing skills? (Please circle one.)

   a. a lot   b. somewhat   c. very little   d. not at all

5. How much did the e-journals help you to improve your reading skills? (Please circle one.)

   a. a lot   b. somewhat   c. very little   d. not at all

6. How much did the e-journals help you to express your opinions? (Please circle one.)

   a. a lot   b. somewhat   c. very little   d. not at all

7. How much did the e-journals help you to become more familiar with computers? (Please circle one.)

   a. a lot   b. somewhat   c. very little   d. not at all

8. Do you have any suggestions for improving e-journals?

9. Please write any additional comments about e-journals.

Implementing Web-Based Instruction in EFL Courses

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the use of course management software in an English as a foreign language (EFL) course to expand language learning opportunities and introduce learners to online communication. Students in the course were non-English majors in their first year at a private university in Japan. The paper focuses primarily on aspects of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) as they relate to course design. The first stage in planning for the course involved examining the results of a student survey about computer access and preferences with regard to online tasks. Next, features of the course management software, Moodle, were evaluated to develop tasks appropriate to the teaching context and the learners. The discussion highlights some implications of using web-based instruction, such as the need to train students, sequence instruction, and develop classroom activities to encourage wider participation in online learning.

INTRODUCTION

The question of how to integrate computer technology into language course design is of increasing importance. To explore this question in the context of a university English as a foreign language (EFL) course, an action research project on using a course website to extend learning beyond the classroom was initiated in the first semester of 2004. This paper attempts to illustrate the process of planning and implementing a website intended to engage learners in a first-year English class at a private Japanese university in computer-assisted language learning (CALL).

There were two main reasons for examining the potential for using computer-assisted learning in this course, the first of which concerns an issue raised by students. The Japanese university first-year students in Essential English, who are majoring in psychology, education, and management, meet for 90 minutes per week over a 13-week semester. When asked, these students often comment that while they enjoy the lessons, they would like to use their English more. CALL, in Beatty's (2003) words, "any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (p. 7), provides an opportunity for learners to continue their study of English outside the classroom. In addition, by adopting a perspective on communicative language teaching that incorporates access to online discourse communities as a goal (Kern & Warschauer, 2000), it was hoped that students would acquire the skills and confidence to participate in online communities in English related to their own

academic fields.

The following research question was intended to guide the project: How can online tasks be integrated into a first-year university English course?

MATERIALS

SURVEY

To examine students' preferences with regard to online tasks, several items were added to a mid-course evaluation form which 50 students in two classes completed at the end of the first semester. While the main purpose of the course evaluation survey was to elicit student opinions about the course design, teacher, and their efforts to learn, three questions added at the end of the anonymous form asked the students about the availability of the Internet, both where they live and at school, and invited them to select as many online tasks from the seven items below as they thought would be useful to their English study. These survey items were worded as follows:

1. Do you have a computer with Internet access where you now live?
2. Can you easily access the Internet at the Sagamihara campus?
3. Which of these online course activities would be useful to your English study? Please check as many as you like.

_______ Chat
_______ Polls (rating ideas or opinions)
_______ Forum (a discussion group)
_______ Glossary (a list of words created by students)
_______ Journal (writing about a topic)
_______ Quizzes
_______ Resources (links to the WWW, readings, videos)

COURSE MANAGEMENT SOFTWARE

Moodle, a free web-based course management software application offering the above checklist of activity modules, in addition to allowing the creation of other modules, was used to address the goals of this project: extending learning opportunities and introducing students to using English online. Dougiamas and Taylor (2003) provide a background to the Moodle project, and illustrate how it has fostered the development of an online learning community for teachers interested in using the software.

PROCEDURE

Because the challenges of learning to use online applications and the necessity of spending time at computers connected to the World Wide Web (WWW) may cause students anxiety and take time away from other important academic tasks, Warschauer and Whittaker (1997) promote integrating CALL activities in-

to the design of courses rather than adding them on to an already full load of coursework and seeking student consultation regarding activities. Therefore, it was decided that, rather than introducing online activities as a supplementary resource, the online tasks would become part of the assessment criteria for the course.

While the survey responses regarding task selection gave some insight into student preferences, an additional means of evaluating the tasks was provided by Chapelle's (2001) criteria for CALL task appropriateness. The six criteria included in this framework are: language learning potential, learner fit, meaning focus, authenticity, positive impact, and practicality. Chapelle calls the first of these, language learning potential, the most critical consideration, drawing a distinction between opportunities for language use and potential for language learning, but concedes that the importance of each criterion will vary depending on the purpose of the task, and also notes that the appropriateness of any task is context-specific. The task selection procedure involved analyzing and considering data on student preferences, and a judgmental evaluation of tasks supported by the Moodle software.

Evaluation of CALL Tasks

This section demonstrates how Chapelle's (2001) six guidelines for the judgmental analysis of CALL tasks and the student data were used to specify appropriate tasks for use in the context at hand.

LANGUAGE LEARNING POTENTIAL

The Essential English course aims to help students use English to understand and express opinions about a broad range of conversation topics, from family values to current events issues. Language goals include weekly vocabulary and interaction tips, and the emphasis in the classroom is on fostering oral fluency. A CALL task with ideal language learning potential might provide students with chances to recycle the vocabulary and discussion language studied in class as well as encourage a focus on form, complementing the in-class focus on fluency.

LEARNER FIT

Learner fit concerns whether the task invites language use that is neither too easy nor too difficult for learners. Because students placed into Essential English vary in their English proficiency, creating tasks that target a given level would perhaps be unfavorable in this context. For example, while vocabulary instruction is a part of each class and a number of students indicated a preference for quizzes in the student questionnaire, vocabulary quizzes could be problematic in the sense of learner fit because they might be too easy for many students. Additionally, quizzes might be considered questionable in their degree of meaning focus, since they do not involve exchanging meaning for the purpose of communicating.

MEANING FOCUS

While a focus on meaning is one of the primary concerns of task-based language teaching, new technology may divert our attention away from the value of promoting language development through the communication of meaning. Fortunately, Moodle was developed to encourage collaborative discourse, in accord with a number of theoretical perspectives on online learning (Dougiamas & Taylor, 2003). Features such as chat and forum allow students to communicate with one another through text-based messages and emoticons.

AUTHENTICITY

On the question of authenticity, Chapelle (2001) claims that “pedagogical tasks that learners see as relevant to their language use beyond the classroom should help to engage learners' interest and therefore their willingness to participate” (p. 56). In response to the survey question, “Which of these online course activities would be useful to your English study,” students ranked Moodle tasks according to their perceptions of usefulness. While quizzes were the highest-ranking option, only 50% of students chose it, indicating that there was little broad agreement over the usefulness of any one task.

POSITIVE IMPACT

This criterion may be the most difficult for language teachers to judge prior to instruction, as positive impact deals not with language learning potential, but with the potential of CALL tasks to teach students “more than language.” Nevertheless, an awareness of this element is useful in judging the broader outcomes of pedagogical tasks using computers, information about which can be gathered through open-ended questionnaire items and informal discussion with students.

PRACTICALITY

Practicality has to do with the access to resources and guidance necessary for students and teachers to implement CALL tasks. The student questionnaire raises some important concerns about practicality, because five students reported that they did not have Internet access at home and could not access the Internet easily on campus. A suggestion made by Opp-Beckman (2004), to assign pairs of students as “study buddies,” seems especially useful in the present context. Since 43 students (86%) reported that they could access the Internet easily on campus, a buddy system might help students become more familiar with on-campus computer facilities because partners can tell each other where they accessed the website last. In addition, although students could access the course website from the Internet, two class meetings in computer classroom facilities (one in the third week and another in the eighth week of the semester) were scheduled so that the process of registering at the website could be demonstrated and a follow-up session be held.

TASKS INTEGRATED INTO THE COURSE

It would appear that Moodle's chat and forum modules have qualities that, especially with regard to language learning potential, learner fit, and meaning

focus, would make them valuable tools for achieving course goals in Essential English. Based on this analysis, a chat area and forums for exchanging opinions on course topics were added to the website prior to the semester, and students were expected to register for the website, make three replies to discussion forums, and create one new discussion forum on a class topic of their own choosing as part of their second-semester assessment. Appendix A contains a screenshot of a discussion forum initiated by the instructor.

DISCUSSION

In the second semester of the course, during the implementation stage of this project, students were introduced to the website, tasks, and learning goals described above. Despite the issue of the website's Japanese language kit not working, all students enrolled in the course were able to register for the Moodle website during the beginning of one lesson. A handout with instructions and screenshots was prepared and given to the students one week ahead of time. In the next class, held in a computer room, the students sat in pairs and followed along as the instructor lead them through the registration process. A lesson plan for introducing the website and using a discussion forum to practice modals appears in Appendix B.

USING WEB-BASED INSTRUCTION IN EFL CONTEXTS

A positive feature of introducing the website and CALL tasks in this way was that, while training students on the website's features, individuals often drew the teacher into negotiation in English when they needed to clarify or confirm a procedure. A variety of practical issues triggered this communication, from how to log on to the computer room's machines without a student identification card to how to transfer digital photos stored in a cellular phone to a PC in order to upload them to the website. This is interesting because of the implications it holds for establishing a meaningful context for interaction in the target language, particularly relevant to EFL settings.

One of the original goals of this project was to provide opportunities for students to use their English outside of the classroom. However, in the ninth week of the course, 24 students (48%) had not accessed the website other than during classes held in the computer room. Class time spent training students on software may involve meaningful language practice, but it should also increase language learning opportunities for all students involved. To achieve this, teachers need to ensure that students learn how to use course management software efficiently and that they understand all of the ways they can use it. Some suggestions about how this can be done prior to and during instruction follow.

First, when designing the course, it is advisable to plan computer-room lessons carefully. In my case, sequencing all of the necessary training as early as possible might have encouraged more students to access the website on their own. Web-based technologies such as Moodle software might best be introduced at the beginning of a yearlong course (rather than mid-year, as was the case here), thus inviting student use throughout the year. This would also allow more extended observations of the ways students interact and learn language in the online context. Next, presenting sign-up procedures, general instructions,

and hyperlinks in the students' L1 or bilingually would help cut down on training time. In fact, Moodle software is available in a number of languages so it is ideal for this.

In the classroom, teachers can enhance student involvement in web-based CALL by devising activities that recycle student contributions to the course website. Printing out forum postings can lead to numerous classroom activities. Two examples of using forum postings as input for speaking tasks include asking students to write and perform dialogues based on their postings and handing out the postings with the name of the writer concealed and asking students to find the author by asking questions. Such activities may attract interest in using the website outside of class. Moreover, teachers can point out features of the website that may assist in second language development during class. Rather than leaving students to discover the advantages of web-based learning opportunities on their own, efforts such as these may be necessary to help promote the value of CALL in providing EFL students with a learning environment outside of the classroom.

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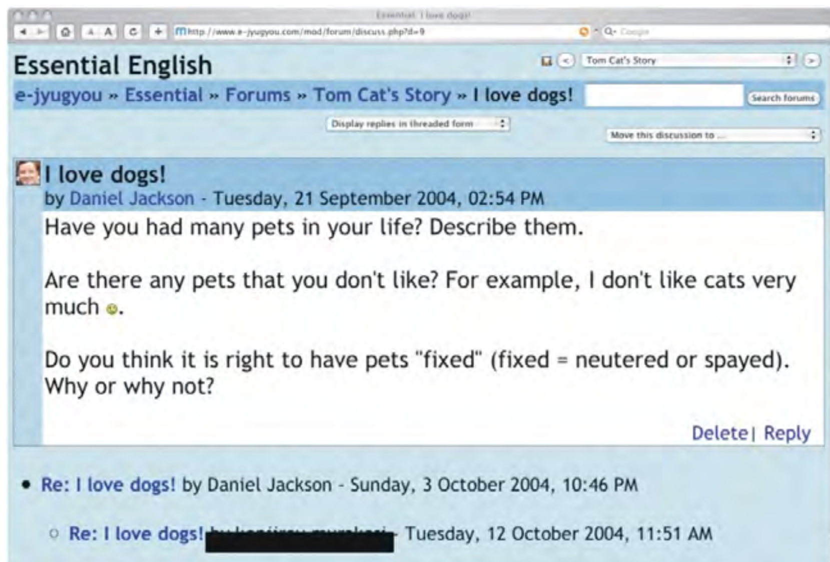
APPENDIX A

A DISCUSSION FORUM POSTED BY THE INSTRUCTOR



APPENDIX B

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN: COMPUTER CLASS 1

Objective

Students will post a reply to a discussion forum started by the teacher

Language Focus

Using modal verbs

Procedure

Step 1: Students register for the website, providing assistance to neighboring peers as necessary.

Step 2: The teacher explains the procedure for posting a reply to a discussion forum using the projector screen.

Step 3: The teacher introduces language focus, using the projector screen to display incorrect examples (e.g.,*I think that we must not to fix pets) and elicit corrections modeling the correct forms for the class. Students then look for examples of modals in the text and share these with the class.

Step 4: Students are encouraged to use modals in posting their replies to the forum. The teacher circulates to help them while they write.

Step 5: After they have posted their replies, students browse the website and read their peers' replies.

Confessions of a Muddled Moodler: A Beginner's Attempt at Using Open-Source Software in the ESL Classroom

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ABSTRACT

Many teachers are interested in using the Internet and incorporating online learning into their ESL classrooms but are often unsure of how to go about doing so. This brief workshop was an attempt to introduce teachers to Moodle, an open-source software application for classroom management. In this paper, I will expand upon areas that were briefly touched upon in the workshop and discuss in more detail the potential that Moodle has for ESL teachers, especially those who feel muddled by technology.

INTRODUCTION

Six months before the 2004 KOTESOL Conference, I had never even heard of Moodle, let alone imagine that I would be standing up in front of a group of colleagues explaining how I had incorporated this software into a couple of my own classes. I had had a vague interest in using computers to supplement my teaching but really had no idea of how go to about it. I was jolted into action when our university built a computer-assisted language learning room that I was supposed to use from the spring of 2004. In a panic, I attended as many CALL-related presentations at the JALT 2003 Conference as possible. One of the presenters demonstrated how a textbook had been linked to the Internet to supplement its chapters. Your World (Culhane, 2003) seemed to be just what I was looking for, though the level was a little low for my students. The book focused on global issues, and I figured that the supplementary materials that the Internet would provide would make up for any level deficiency. The deciding factor in choosing that textbook for my class was the fact that Internet support was completely free and students would be able to access it from their own computers.

After a rather rocky beginning of getting the students (and myself) used to using the new computers, we got down to the business of studying. Somehow, I had expected the Internet materials to be all in place and that all I would have to do would be to direct students to the links provided. Through trial and error, I came to discover many possibilities connected to this web site: quizzes, forums, assignments, journals, and so on. However, I quickly realized that I would have to be the one that would actually set up all of these wonderful things. The problem was that I lacked not only the computer know-how, but also the confidence to “take a risk” to do anything on my own. I found the “Help” section and read the following: “Don't be afraid to experiment: feel free to poke

around and change things. It is hard to break anything in a Moodle course, and even if you do, it is usually easy to fix it." Two thoughts came to mind. First of all, I was relieved to know that I couldn't damage anything by experimenting with the web site. And then I wondered, "What the heck is a Moodle?" I clicked on the link provided and discovered that this homepage I was using was not designed specifically for this particular course but was a classroom management software program that could be adapted and applied to any course. I explored the Moodle homepage and began experimenting. I became bold, adding links, setting up forums, and making quizzes. I began to see the advantage of using Moodle in my conversation, writing, and pedagogy classes. I decided that I wanted my own Moodle. Eventually, I managed to muddle my way through the process of getting Moodle set up and in shape for my students to use.

This workshop report is aimed at technologically challenged teachers like me who are a little intimidated by using computers with their teaching. If I managed to set up and start using Moodle, I am convinced that anyone else should be able to do the same. First, I will briefly introduce Moodle and give a few tips on how to get started. Then I will demonstrate how I have been using it in one of my classes and talk about how my students feel about this kind of study.

WHAT IS MOODLE?

Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment; at http://www.moodle.com) is a free, open-source software program created as Martin Dougiamas's Ph.D. dissertation project and supports a social constructionist philosophy where members of a class (including students and teachers) learn together through collaboration and participation.

If you do a web search on Moodle, you will find that there are more than 300,000 listed web pages demonstrating its growing popularity among educators interested in creating e-learning environments for their students. Moodle is free to download and use but there is no technical support available. However, there is an on-line community (http://moodle.org/), including a division for language teachers (http://moodle.org/course/view.php?id=31) where support is readily available from experienced Moodlers. The participants in these communities range from teachers who have experience in writing their own software code to total beginners who are just beginning to dabble in using e-learning. To get a more complete understanding of how Moodle works, see Thomas Robb's (n.d.) informative article.

WHY USE MOODLE?

Most classes at the tertiary level meet for 90 minutes per week. If we want our students to really master English then it is necessary to provide them with more opportunities to use it. E-learning can be one way to supplement a language class. There are two reasons why Moodle is a good choice for this. The first one is the cost. Outside of possible initial set-up fees for establishing a domain name and a website server, it is completely free. The second reason is its

simplicity and adaptablity. A course can be set up with weekly, topic-based, or social (discussion-based) formats. A teacher can choose to make the course open to the general public or to lock the course so that only those with the password can access it. An entire semester could be blocked out in advance and the teacher can choose when to allow the students to view the assignments and activities.

Features that are available include forums, chats, quizzes, choices, journals, assignments, workshops and so on. Files and lecture notes can be uploaded, connecting classroom material with self-study time. Assignments and journals allow teachers to give feedback, and grades are recorded for each student, simplifying evaluation. Participation logs inform the teacher when students access the web site and also what they looked at or did while on line. These administrative tools are not seen by the students, but they can see their own grades and also look at their own participation logs.

There is ample opportunity for interaction between students and teacher, especially in the forums. One feature that is particularly useful is having photographs of participants next to their postings, making it easy to connect names with faces. Anyone can add links or photographs when posting to a forum, all of which contribute to a friendly sense of community.

GETTING STARTED

I was quite naïve thinking that I could just go to the Moodle homepage, download Moodle onto my computer, and start to use it immediately. In fact, that is exactly what I tried to do. I assumed that it would be as simple as downloading other things from the Internet. When I contacted a friend to find out what it was that I was doing wrong, she explained to me that I needed to have a domain name and a site server. After thinking it over for a few weeks, I decided to have her go ahead and set me up with both.

If you are considering using Moodle for your classes, a good place to start would be to see if the support staff of the CALL room at your school could set up Moodle on their server. If that is not possible, you could ask a professional organization to set up and maintain Moodle for you. The Moodle homepage has a list of a number of such organizations in various countries. There are also some individuals who are willing to help for a very reasonable fee. In Korea, for example, Sean Smith (eslteacher@ gmail.com) has helped a number of teachers get started with Moodle.

In reality, getting Moodle up and running is the hardest part. Once that is accomplished, you won't have to worry too much about it again unless you want to upgrade to the next version. In my case, I decided to upgrade about six months after installing Moodle. I just called my computer-savvy friend again and had her walk me through the procedure by telephone. I think I might even be able to do it by myself next time.

MY MOODLE

My Moodle site is located at http://www.dnagatomo.com/moodle. I currently have seven courses running, two of which are open to guests. I created

Moodlemania 101 as a demonstration of Moodle for the 2004 KOTESOL conference. The other course is English Resources for Interested Students, open to anyone learning English. Other courses are locked to protect the privacy of the students.

The class that I am currently using Moodle the most in is English Writing for second year English majors. I have taught this class a number of years and found it relatively easy to Moodle-ize. Class time is spent with the usual discussion of thesis statements, topic sentences, and organizational strategies. Moodle is a supplement for this course and gives the students the chance to write for fluency (forums and journals) and for accuracy (their ordinary homework of paragraphs and essays). My comments on students' journals and to forum posts are related only to the content. Student essays, uploaded Microsoft Word documents, are evaluated according to grammatical accuracy and organization, and are returned to students as an email attachment with comments. Rewritten essays are resubmitted and their grades adjusted.

I organized this class using weekly formats, following different types of writing (process, cause and effect, persuasive, etc.) and included links and activities that pertain to each week's focus. I also included several entertaining elements and bonus-point activities to keep the students interested in dropping by the site on a regular basis.

DO MY STUDENTS LIKE MOODLE?

A preliminary survey shows that my students in the writing class are quite pleased with the structure of this course – probably due to its novelty and because of the sense of camaraderie they feel when they communicate with each other. The average amount of time spent by students outside of class on our Moodle page is 2.2 hours per week, with one student online for as much as 5 hours.

Students seem to like using Moodle in this class. One student comments, "I visited here five times a week because I'm looking forward to seeing my friends renew their journal every day. When I arrive at home, I lose no time in opening my personal computer to see this home page. This action became my habit…"

A different student made me realize that the extra time and effort I put into organizing this new type of lesson was worthwhile when she said, "I enjoy this homepage every time! Thank you very much for your making this homepage."

CONCLUSION

Moodle is not so difficult to set up, and it is easy to personalize the site to fit your own students' needs, and more importantly, to fit your own computer skills. I recommend spending at least a few weeks (or months) playing around with Moodle before actually using it in the classroom. But for me, I have learned the most while keeping one step ahead of my students this semester. I am already planning what to do next year for other classes. There are so many possibilities for using Moodle effectively, but my lack of technical knowledge slows me down. Nevertheless, I intend to just keep on muddling my way

through Moodle until I get there.

The Author

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Young Learners

Using TEFL-Friendly Literature with Beginning Children

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ABSTRACT

Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) shy away from the use of children's literature with beginner children because the text is difficult to comprehend. However, books leveled according to second language proficiency can be used as a springboard to English conversational skills for oral language practice and for dramatic activities. This paper reports on research undertaken to find and systematically rate books for their usability with beginners.

INTRODUCTION

Many children's books have an overwhelming amount of complex English for a child in the initial stages of learning English. Children books are often written to expose English speaking children to poems and art, to reading, and to narrative language. These purposes are incompatible with the needs of the earliest beginner in English (Lado & Daly, 2004). Using literature with beginners presents some challenges. However, many teachers like teaching with children's literature. They either develop appropriate EFL activities that mediate between the language of the books and the language proficiency of the students, or they find books with simple English that match their proficiency.

Teachers are challenged in several ways when using literature that is beyond the capacity of their students. One problem is that it diminishes the opportunities for students to practice with the books independently. They are dependent on the teacher. Another is the problem of time. Teachers need planning time in order to develop comprehensible learning activities for each book. Also, getting through a challenging story takes time as the students slowly progress through the new vocabulary, making the enjoyment of the book less spontaneous. The field of teaching reading in English as a second language is not new, but the focus has been on intermediate and advanced speakers (Carrell et al., 1988). Given the difficulties with beginners, some advocate the postponement of using authentic literature until students are beyond a certain stage (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994).

A number of investigations report on the use of interactive strategies with English language learners (Carrel et al., 1988; Cox, 2002; Drucker, 2003; Hadaway et al., 2002; Klesius & Griffith, 1996). Several promote the benefits of a specific teaching technique for vocabulary, reading aloud, and the use of tape-recorded books (Hickman et al., 2002; Koskinen et al., 1998; Wood & Salvetti, 2001). Some research not only calls for the use of a technique, like

choral reading, but also provides a short list of books to use (Allen, 1994; Cox, 2002; Rasinksi & Padak, 2002).

To date, there has been little research on the ways in which books can be matched to students in the different stages of language proficiency within the beginner level. Hadaway et al. (2002) called attention to this problem and has provided the largest list of books for English language learners available. It includes only three levels of proficiency, beginner, intermediate, and advanced. In addition to these investigations, research must focus on the unique ways in which literature can be matched to the needs of English language learners. It is particularly important to provide teachers with useful, detailed lists of books to help them plan EFL lessons for different proficiency levels.

The field of teaching beginning reading has quite a number of resources for its teachers. A reading teacher can look up descriptions of reading proficiency levels and books to accompany each level. Fountas and Pinell (1999) have attempted to provide leveled information on well over 1,000 children's books, integrating information about the books in meaningful ways for reading instruction. While their work provides some link to the lesson planning of an EFL teacher, the goal of the EFL teacher is not reading but launching the students into learning a second language. Knowing about reading levels of a book can have some relevance to EFL, but this is not enough.

The purpose of this article is twofold. First my research describes some of the features which can make a book an EFL teacher resource. That is, I investigated information related to the following:

- The usability of a book for beginners in EFL
- Its compatibility with EFL teaching strategies
- Its interest to beginners of different ages, cultures, and circumstances

This is the type of information that is not readily available to teachers. Teachers must invest time in order to find the right books for beginners. They have to examine a book's compatibility with a teaching strategy, for example, whether a book introduces verbs useful for TPR. They have to determine the proficiency level as well as the amount and complexity of the text. They need to check the topic for appropriateness for the age of their students, and so forth. Second, since current book lists can be a good starting point for finding books, I provide examples of books rated for their language proficiency stages within the beginner level. The examples provide insights into the complexity of judging books according to English language learning features. The study provides the educator with a link between the techniques used by teachers to develop English language skills and books that are compatible with those techniques. A systematic approach to selecting literature for EFL purposes maximizes support for teachers unfamiliar with easy children's literature.

The research project was infused with the idea of making effective teaching of beginners even better through the use of books. The approach entailed a commitment to presenting teachers with approaches to integrate literature that they could easily use in a school classroom. My goal was to reduce a teacher's time spent navigating a sea of barriers to using literature with beginners.

More than two years were spent examining books and their use with beginners. Data was collected in several phases. First, information was gathered on the language learning strategies of beginners. Next, I assembled the information on useful, interesting, and easy books. Information about books help-

ed categorize them into stages of proficiency. As needed, these were then piloted to test the book with students in different settings, of different ages, and at different proficiency stages. In each phase of the investigation, new books were analyzed, and cross-analysis was conducted to continue to identify the major features applicable to the English language learning situation. Conversations with teachers and students were conducted to ensure relevance. Piloting strategies for individual books with English language students helped clarify questions as they arose.

In the following sections I focus on the identified key features that are common to easy books in each stage of beginning language proficiency.

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

As with all language learning, English language learning is a continuum. Yet there are commonly accepted developmental benchmarks or stages (Hudelson & Serna, 2002; Wong Fillmore, 1991). Children's abilities differ widely between the starting and ending points of the beginning level, and children differ widely in the pace of their learning (Cox, 2002). With absolute beginners, teachers make significant adjustments in their speech just in order to obtain successful interaction. As the child progresses, fewer adjustments are needed.

For the purposes of using literature, the continuum of beginning level learners can be grouped into the following four stages:

- Stage One: Silent Period
- Stage Two: Early Emergent Speech
- Stage Three: Speech Emergent
- Stage Four: Speech Production

A child in the First Stage needs specially adjusted speech in order to begin talking. Teachers use a limited amount and talk to them slowly and deliberately. When these types of accommodations are not made, children can remain in the Silent Period longer than needed because the absolute beginner needs to be exposed to language that is decipherable (Gee, 1994; Tabors, 1997). Once a child reaches the final stage of the beginner level, they are able to learn from English presented in a more natural context.

In the same way that teachers present beginners with a limited amount of oral language, we present beginners with books selected for their limited amount of written language. We, in the field of EFL teaching, select literature that mirrors the ways that teachers adjust to the different stages of beginners. The issue of amount of English is important. It is also one of the easiest and most straightforward to determine when examining a book. Collecting data on the amount of English in a book is actually used extensively in the field of beginning reading. For example, we can begin looking for books for beginners in EFL by examining books listed as easy in a list of books for beginning readers. We can select from these lists the books with relatively fewer running word totals.

For EFL, we then also need to count the number of new words. Two books can both have the same number of running words; let's say, 270 words, but actually be quite different in difficulty level if one of them has only a few different words while the other has a large number of different words. In EFL, the num-

ber of different words in a text is significant even if a book is "wordless." Wordless books can differ widely as to amount of English presented. One wordless book may have 25 pages in which each page has 4 photographs making for 100 new vocabulary words, while another may have just 12 pages of photographs making for 12 new words. In sum, lists of books for English students lack information about the amount of words in books.

The amount of text is only part of the language proficiency issue. Complexity is another. Let's take the example of a book which is a rhyming poem. For an English speaker who has a command of hundreds or thousands of spoken words, the rhyme forms a pattern that helps him/her predict words and learn about phonics. In beginning reading lists of books, patterned and predictable books are often one and the same. This is not the case for beginners in English. When listening to English vocabulary for the first time, a patterned set of sentences does not translate into the ability to predict a new word. Many children's books are written with poetic phrasing which, in order to achieve rhyme, use some infrequent words and unusual syntax. These can be difficult and problematic for the EFL child. Books with heavy emphasis on phonics create problems for those not ready to decipher similar sounds and conduct detailed analysis on words they don't understand. It dampens a more natural sequence of language learning using interaction with familiar content.

EFL-Friendly Features of Books

Another adjustment is the topic. The most popular topics of children's books involve animals, both fictional and non-fictional. Often the topic is incompatible with the needs of beginners because of their need for transparency in order to comprehend the input. They may be of a different age, background, and literacy ability than that assumed by the author. Again, using the example of "wordless," some cover abstract topics, others tell elaborate stories steeped in cultural assumptions, and so on. Finally, in terms of topic, in the EFL settings, cultural knowledge cannot be assumed. There are educational programs which promote learning of another culture without addressing language, and these programs use books with culture or multiculturalism as a topic. In other programs, a teacher must decide whether learning an unfamiliar culture will slow down the goal of competency with learning the language forms.

Dealing with topics brings us to the issue of student ages. With English speakers, it can be assumed that those learning oral skills are toddlers and that those dealing with learning to read are 1st graders. Therefore, many children's books focusing on oral language development also focus on topics of interest to a toddler audience. But beginners in English are most often school-aged and not toddlers. In addition, school programs vary greatly in their goals and pace. In one program, children may move beyond a beginner level in a short time, while in another program, a student may remain a beginner for years.

In addition to language and topic issues, teachers of beginners use a distinct style of English that provides extensive extra-linguistic support. Books that are compatible with providing extra linguistic support are easier with beginners. Some books provide illustrations that give this extra support. Others provide it through repetition, or an interactive style. Different styles of literature provide for different levels of difficulty. For example, a book with a repetitive ques-

tion-and-answer style can be used easily with call-and-response chanting; a book with action verbs is compatible with TPR; a tiny, "lift-the-flap" book, with one-on-one tutoring. The style of a book may make a book easier or more difficult, given a child's background. Children unfamiliar with storytelling conventions may find a straightforward, fiction book more accessible.

While a teacher can adjust simultaneously to the language, topic, and style needed by a child in any one stage, it is rare to find a book in which every feature is perfectly matched to a particular beginning stage. Therefore, in devising a system for selecting books based on proficiency stages, we determine the levels of each feature (language, topic, and style) and add teacher judgment. An overall rating of a book needs to be based on a combination of these as best they relate to the instructional setting.

The sample books contained below are a subset of books used in a presentation at the 2004 Korea TESOL International Conference. The descriptions include relevant information about a book's language features, topic, and style considerations, combined with salient educational features. This system of finding EFL-friendly books can be replicated with other books.

SAMPLES OF EFL-FRIENDLY BOOKS

The following books are sequenced in order of the stages they represent. For Stage 1, a good example is *Ten Seeds* (Brown, 2001). It is a board book with less than 50 total running words and about 30 different ones, "Ten seeds, one ant, nine seeds, one pigeon, eight seeds..." Stage 1 children recite the predictable number sequences.

There are several examples of books for Stage 2. *Bunny* (Deschamps, 2002) is a board book with about 40 total running words and different words. Although it has a sentence pattern, it is not predictable. The photographs and short sentences describe a rabbit. This book can be used with several stages. The teacher can bring in a pet and use the book as a model for writing a Language Experience Approach story.

Squirrel Is Hungry (Kitamura, 1996) is a short board book with about 50 total words and 30 different words. It is patterned, and even Stage 1 beginners learn to chime as the question "Here?" is answered with "No." Stage 2 students can dramatize it.

Walking Through the Jungle (Harter, 2001) is a considerably longer book with upwards of 150 words but with only 30 different ones. It is written with the same structure as *Brown Bear,...* (Martin, 1992) and *I Went Walking* (Williams, 1989). The book is a fictional account of a school-aged girl traveling to see animals on different continents. Students learn the verbs through TPR and drama, and the question and answer patterns through chanting.

As an example of stage 3, I chose *My Car* (Barton, 2001), a colorfully illustrated, nonfiction account of a bus driver and his car. The book has about 90 words with about 50 different ones, and is written in the first-person, singular form of grammatical person. The objects related to his car can be made into props and the story can be dramatized.

Finally, an example of a Stage 4 book is *Each Orange Had 8 Slices: A Counting Book* (Giganti, 1992). It is written in patterned questions: "How many slices are there?... How many are there in all?" Students who are at Stage 4

like to play a game with questions and answers about objects from the pages of the book or objects brought in by the teacher. It is similar to a book by the same author titled *How Many Snails?* (Giganti, 1994).

Below is a compiled analysis of these books (Table 1).

Table 1. EFL-Friendly Books for Beginner Children

TITLE and STAGE	FEATURES OF BOOK	CLASSROOM CONSTRAINTS	TESOL STRATEGIES
Ten Seeds Stage 1	Total 45 words, different 30. Topic: plants. Two-word phrases.	Board book. Broad age range. Photographs	Use for oral recitation. Drama.
Bunny Stage 2	Total 45 words, different 45. Concrete topic. Patterned text.	Small board book. Broad age range	Use as model for LEA.
Squirrel Is Hungry Stage 2	Total words about 45. Concrete topic. Patterned text.	Small board book. Broad age range	Drama.
Walking Through the Jungle Stage 2	Total 150+ words, different 30. Patterned text.	Paperback. Broad age range.	Use for TPR, Question routines, Drama.
My Car Stage 3	Almost 100 words, about 50 different. Story told in first-person singular.	First-person story of a driver. Simple illustrations	Drama.
Each Orange Had 8 Slices Stage 4	350+ words, 100 different. Patterned questions.	Paperback.	Use with realia, question-and-answer routines.

Conclusion

Currently, there are few resources available for teachers wishing to use literature with EFL beginners. My research project considers a multiplicity of factors involved in using literature with beginners. The objective has been to develop a system of describing books that is easy to use in the teaching of English. The information that is needed by teachers includes whether the book is useful, appropriate in its English proficiency level, and interesting. Several books quite suitable for use with EFL beginners have been selected and described in terms of language, topic, style, and instructional considerations.

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Cross-age Reading in a Multi-age Bilingual School

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ABSTRACT

This paper will look at the presenter's program of cross-age reading in Korean, Japanese, and English. Experiences have ranged from K-1 ESL students reading to Pre-K students in English, Grade 3-5 students reading to Grade K-2 students in Korean and currently Middle and High School ESL students reading with K-2 students in English, Japanese, and Korean. The older students took pride in shining, which in their own classroom setting they were not so able to do. The impact has been school-wide, bringing the school together as a student and faculty body. Handout and Power-Point presentations highlighted both multi-age facets and cross-age benefits.

THE MULTI-AGE CLASSROOM

The idea of cross-age reading fits well into the multi-age philosophy. We will examine this philosophy briefly and relate it back to this cross-age reading paper. Stone (1996, p. vii) defines the *multi-age classroom* as a "mixed-age group of children that stays with the same teacher for several years." She suggests that the stability of staying with the same teacher for several years is beneficial to the children. They become more than just friends and classmates, but develop a relationship closer to that of a family. They are able to develop skills at their own pace, since there are children who are both older and younger than they are. They can find role models and act as role models.

One has only to observe siblings "studying" together, where the very young child imitates the older sibling studying for school. Often the younger sibling will progress faster because of this role model. I was reminded of this when observing the young son of a Korean friend recently. I had taught him as a four- and five-year-old in Tokyo, when he was unable to focus and had a number of problems in class, mainly of staying on task. His mother had recently remarried a Korean-American living in New York. They put him in a great school in mid-town Manhattan but were concerned that he would have difficulties there. Imagine everyone's surprise on a recent visit to New York. He sat and did his first grade homework all on his own and read a book to us. When I discussed this with his mother, she explained that her husband had to get up early in the morning to do his business overseas. Jun, her son, had a little desk next to him and every morning before school he would get up and proudly "study." It began with ten minutes and gradually became half an hour each morning. Role modeling is important and can be instigated in a family. This little boy is living proof of this.

Again, in the days of one-class schools, all ages were mixed. It may be that this was not as truly multi-age as Sandra Stone's model, since those children were often instructed at their own level. In Sussex University, England, there was a study written about a one-class school where the teacher, Sybil Marshall, used Beethoven's Fifth Symphony as the integrated day curriculum for the whole of the first semester. It was a wonderful experience for the students. It worked because the teacher was dedicated and organized. Of course, it makes one realize that nothing is new! She was a much respected educator and fit into the Open Plan teaching, which was new at that time. Most of the integrated day activities come from that era and from that part of England.

Organization is a key also in the multi-age classroom. Organization between the team teachers is of utmost importance. It takes dedication and flexibility. The New International School in Tokyo is a multi-age bilingual Japanese/English school. Probably the most difficult part for the teachers is to find the time to meet and organize their week. They need time to liaise with other teachers, and schedules in schools sometimes make this difficult. The school has a rich schedule with lots of specialist teachers, for example, in Chinese and Taekwondo. By reducing the number of specialists, one reduces the variety and opportunities for the students. By having a rich program, teachers have a hard time organizing. It is a catch-22 situation!

This was one of the main difficulties in this cross-age reading program. If one involves students from different parts of the school, life becomes quite complicated! The organization of such a program takes precious time from teachers. That is why it is important for the teacher implementing the program to have a schedule set out with alternative times available for the providing teacher to choose from.

Cross-age reading allows children to listen to an older student reading to them. It allows them to ask questions and have them answered by another student. It allows the older, often insecure, students to blossom and to bask in the sunshine of the younger child's acceptance and enjoyment of them as the "teacher." Vygotsky (1976) talked about the advantages of peer instruction in a child's development. The success of this process has undeniable snowballing effects on the older student's learning process. "Children look to each other and not just to the teacher for learning opportunities" (Stone, 1996, p. 4).

The benefits of this small first effort in our school community were many. It involved six different classes. This equates to a lot of students knowing about the "readers" going off to read to younger students. It was a definite morale booster, and it brought students from different parts of the school into the Elementary EAL (English as an additional language) world in a very special way. Since there are four different buildings, these older students would have no occasion to visit the other part of the school. They were proud to receive Certificates for Cross-age Reading at the end of the school year.

BILINGUALISM

A brief look at the New International School program will show it is a satisfying approach to the students' mother languages as well as to the bilingual aspect of the school. The two languages taught in the school are Japanese and English. Many students also take Chinese during the school day. In this pro-

gram, Korean was the chosen language for cross-age reading because of the many Korean students in the EAL classes. It is important to honor and respect the students' mother tongues. For the students, both the readers and the listeners, it was exciting. They were also proud to receive their certificates at the end of the school year. A question was raised about the fact that only a few students received these certificates. This is quite right, since only those who read to the younger students received them. It was a particular moment of pride to come in front of their class and be recognized. It is not so often that their language is in the forefront. It should be remembered that these students all have to learn both Japanese and English, and many are also learning Chinese. That makes four languages! Korean is becoming more and more accepted in Japan, which equates to Koreans being accepted. It is noticeable that there are maybe two weekly programs in Korean on TV this year. Five years ago, this was not the case.

The author has been involved with bilingualism for many, many years since living and studying in France, and then working for the UN. Her own daughter is bilingual in French and English. In fact, the author's final paper for teacher training studies was on "Language Development in the Child of Two Nationality Parents." That was a long time ago! She is happy to see multilingualism flourishing in today's world. The belief has to be that it can only bring understanding and cultural acceptance to many corners of the world.

PLANNING

First and foremost, as in any other project involving homeroom teachers or other teachers, it is essential to consult and consolidate plans with them. When the idea comes to you, plan it for yourself. This means the logistics, the schedules of all parties concerned. Then, and only then, go to the homeroom teacher and make your plans known to them.

The best time to plan an activity such as cross-age reading is when you yourself have the EAL students, at least one part of the students. It means some disruption, and some ability to be flexible on the part of the homeroom teacher to have you coming in and taking students out of their classes. Once you have seen a time or times which would seem feasible, then take this suggestion to the other teachers concerned.

In the case of this cross-age reading project, reading an article in Bilingual News of the TESOL Bilingual News was the inspiration. Returning from a two-day vacation in Kanazawa, the author had brought the Bilingual News along to read while sitting on the plane. It is hard to manage to do this during the school week. This is a lesson in itself; take the time to read those journals, articles and workshop papers, which we seem to have endless piles of. But only read them when you are open to new ideas. Sometimes, after a busy school day is not the ideal time. After a wonderful, restful, great-sightseeing and good-food weekend, refreshed and ready for the week ahead, was just the time to take in something new! One of the people on this trip happened to be a high school English teacher. On being told of the great idea, an approach which she could try with her students and the elementary EAL students, she was intrigued at my enthusiasm. Remember, though, sometimes teachers are not so open to new ideas. It is not because they are not enthusiastic about teaching, but rather that

their day is already overburdened with changes and details. However, usually elementary teachers are happy to have their students participate in activities which will be beneficial to them. Try to take as much responsibility as possible for the activity so that their day can go on smoothly.

Present the times in writing, giving alternative times. Give the homeroom teacher a list of the suggested students for the program, and ask for names of suitable EAL students in their classrooms who would participate by doing the reading. Once the names of students have been established and times found for the activity to take place, then approach the homeroom teachers of the participating EAL students who will be on the receiving end of the cross-age reading. Now you are ready to go!

The next step is to meet the reading students and discuss with them what books they would like to read. Make sure that you have plenty of books to offer them. Some may want to read their own books, but mostly they will no longer have books suitable for the young students. We had Big Books for them, and let them come to the EAL room and look for other books. For the Korean reading, the students brought their own books. It was quite special to see the older students from 8th Grade reading very young children's books. The ones who did not have books borrowed them from their Korean friends. So now you have all the elements ready for a successful program.

KOREAN CROSS-AGE READING

Having found the Korean students in the middle school who would read to the EAL elementary school students, we made sure that they were all able to read in Korean. They would work in pairs and practice their stories together. They were excited at the idea of reading to the young students. The teachers concerned were very helpful, and reminded the students to have the books with them and to be ready on the day to come over to the EAL room. One of the middle school teachers came with them. We took photos, some of which were used in a PowerPoint presentation. One of the middle school students subsequently used the photos for her own presentation.

In the New International School, there are two elementary multi-age bilingual classes, each of around 22 students. Since the EAL room is on the same floor as one of the classes, it is not very complicated to collect the students for classes. All the Korean students in these two classes were listed and the list was given to the homeroom teachers. The program had, of course, already been discussed and they had been happy at the idea of these students having stories read to them in their own language. Although not all of these Korean students were in the EAL class at that time, it did not pose a problem for the teachers.

The younger students were thrilled to have stories read to them, particularly when some of them were familiar stories. They had brothers and sisters in the other classes, and this was particularly good for them.

UPPER SCHOOL STUDENTS' CROSS-AGE READING

From a scheduling point of view, this program was a nightmare! It is true

that our school does have a particularly busy schedule, but it will always be difficult when one tries to arrange cross-age programs during the normal school day. However, the benefits are definitely worth it.

The same procedure was followed, finding suitable students to do the reading. Here it meant that they had to be willing, as the benefits were not so obvious for them as for the middle school students. They were older, some of them in fact did not read very well in English themselves, and they were more prone to be shy. However, four students, two boys and two girls, were ready and willing. The time was fixed during the EAL scheduled time, with a slight lengthening on one day.

The high school schedule changed on a couple of occasions, so that the students did not read as many times as we had hoped. However, the young students looked forward to their visits, and the older students benefited greatly. Their self-esteem went up and their reading improved! They practiced reading in the EAL room when it seemed that they were having difficulties before the reading sessions. They also read Japanese stories on a couple of occasions, as many of the students were Japanese and most understood the language. They returned to their classes feeling great.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' CROSS-AGE READING

You might say that these young children stole the show, but in fact their program was as successful as the older students' program. It took a little organizing, but, as is usual with the very young pre-kindergarten classes, it was pretty simple to arrange a suitable time and just make sure we got there on time. It should be mentioned that again this part of the school is in a different building, so it entailed taking the kindergarten and first grade students down the road to Teddy Bears (Pre-K) class. The children were waiting, so there was quite some excitement. There were a number of siblings, which made it fun for them all. The older students were very serious reading their little books, which in fact were from their phonics book, which they loved. When they had read their books, again in pairs, they let the younger students choose one of their books to keep. Then in good Pre-K style, fruit and juice was enjoyed with the two classes. After a couple of songs and games, the program was over.

This sort of school-wide activity is beneficial to the school community. The students feel connected. When they see one of the students from their cross-age reading program, they are proud of the connection. It gives an opportunity for the less able English speaker to shine as a reader and to feel more confident. At one stage, the question was asked as to what the point was of such a program, but it was possible to bypass that link, so the obvious never had to be explained. However, it is quite a daunting experience from the organizational point of view, and it was good to have far-seeing, helpful educators to work with.

I am hoping to be able to implement the cross-age reading element into the school program. To put it into the curriculum would be too demanding, and I believe it should be a program, which can be implemented only if it does not unduly disrupt the school day. The joy of the students is well worth the effort.

The Author

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A Quantitative Analysis of English Textbooks of China, Korea, and Japan

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes an analysis of English textbooks from three countries (China, Korea, and Japan) across a span of 140 years. The motivation for this work lies in our belief that these texts shed important light on the nature of English language teaching. This study adopted both diachronic and synchronic perspectives and quantitatively analyzed eleven sets of Japanese, one set of Korean, and one set of Chinese English textbooks. These texts were analyzed in terms of (a) token, (b) type, (c) new type, and (d) token / new type ratios. This investigation has revealed insights on the nature of English textbooks and English language education in the three countries, as well as on the historical development of English textbooks in Japan. Firstly, it was found that the Chinese textbooks had the greatest number of tokens; the Japanese had the lowest, with the Korean in between. Secondly, Chinese textbooks had the greatest variety in types, with the Korean texts in second and current Japanese texts in third place (with the least number of types). Thirdly, the introduction of types in the Korean textbook increases gradually (chronologically) from the first to last volume, while those of the Chinese set show up-and-down variation. Although the average or total values might be the same in types (number of different words) between the Chinese and Korean textbooks, they differ in the distribution of types across the five volumes. These facts are attributed to differences between the three countries in their milieu, the English language education system, and the degree of student motivation.

AIM

The aim of the present study is to compare English textbooks of Japan, Korea, and China from diachronic and synchronic perspectives. This is achieved by analyzing them quantitatively, using readability, frequency of appearance of lexical items, and other metrics.

METHOD

Materials

The English textbooks analyzed in the present study consist of:

1. Eleven sets from Japan, used across a span of 140 years from 1868 to 2004
2. One set of current English textbooks from the Republic of Korea

3. One set of current English textbooks from the People's Republic of China

The eleven sets of English textbooks from Japan are as follows:
1. Sanders, C.W. (1861-7). *Sanders' Union Reader*s. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. (*Union*, UR). Originally an English textbook used in the U.S.A.
2. Barnes, A.S. (1883-4). *New National Readers*. A.S. Barnes & Co. (1883), American Book Co. (1884). (*National*, NN). Originally an English textbook used in the U.S.A.
3. Ministry of Education (Dening, W.) (1887-8). *English Readers: The High School Series*. Ministry of Education. (*Dening*, DE)
4. Ministry of Education (Toyama, M.) (1889-90). *Seisoku Mombusyo Dokuhon*. Ministry of Education. (*Seisoku*, MS)
5. Okakura, Y. (1907). *The Globe Readers*. . Dainihontosho. (*Globe*, GR)
6. Kumamoto, K (1907). *New English Drill Books*. Kaiseikan. (*Drill*, ED)
7. Kanda, N. (1916). *Kanda's Crown Readers*. Sanseido. (*Kanda*, KC)
8. Palmer, H.E. (1926). *The Standard English Readers*. Kaitakusha. (*Standard (P)*, PS*)*
9. Takehara, T. (1932). *The Standard English Readers*. Taishukan. (*Standard (T)*, TS)
10. (a) Hagiwara, K., et al. (1940). *New Jack and Betty: English Step by Step* (1, 2, 3). Kairyudo. (*Jack and Betty*, JB)
    (b) Hagiwara, K. et al. (1951). *New High School English* (1, 2). Kairyudo. (*High School*)
11. (a) Shimaoka, T. et al. (1986). *Sunshine English Course* (Junior High, 1, 2, 3). Kairyudo. (*Sunshine*, SE)
    (b) Tsuchiya, S. et al. (1987). *Sunshine English Course* (Senior High, 1, 2). Kairyudo. (*Sunshin*e, SE)

The corpora comprising the three volumes of junior high school texts and volumes 1 and 2 of the senior high school *Jack and Betty* textbook series were combined to form a corpus equivalent to that of the prewar days. Also, the corpora of *Sunshine* for junior high school and senior high school were combined to form a corpus equivalent to that of the prewar days.

The set of Korean textbooks comprised the following:
1. Chang, Young-hee et al. (2001). *Middle School English, I & II*, Tusan. (Korea)
2. Kim, Sung-kon et al. (2003). *High School English, I & II*. Tusan. (Korea)

The set of Chinese textbooks was as follows:
1. People's Education Press & Longman (Eds.) (2001). *Junior English for China*. 6 vols. (China)
2. People's Education Press & Longman (Eds.) (2001). *Senior English for China*. 4 vols. (China)

As was the case with the Japanese textbooks, the Korean junior high school and senior high school texts were combined to form a corpora equivalent to the Japanese prewar ones. In this analysis, volumes 1 to 3 of the junior high and volumes 1 and 2 of the senior high Chinese textbooks were put together to form a single corpus.

ANALYSIS

As a starting point, the aforementioned Japanese, Korean, and Chinese English textbooks were digitalized, and separate data files were created for each set of textbooks. Thereafter, this textbook corpus was analyzed quantitatively. In the third stage, the results of the textbook analysis were compared quantitatively in terms of (a) token, (b) type, (c) new type, and (d) token / new type ratio.

The analysis of token, type, new type, and token / new type ratios was carried out using Wordsmith Tools (n.d.), V.3.0, a computer program developed by Mike Scott at the University of Liverpool, U.K. "Token" is the number of all running words encountered as Wordlist processed the text file(s). A word is counted as a string of valid letters with a separation at each end. "Types" are the different words stored as Wordlist first processed the text. A file containing one million running words may have 50,000 different words. They tend to include different forms of the same lemma, e.g., *swim, swimming, swam, swims*. Only words meeting the settings criteria of Wordsmith (e.g., minimum and maximum length, hyphenation, numbers) were included in this number.

"New types" are types that are newly introduced in each text of the set. New types were computed by subtracting the accumulated types of the previous textbooks from the accumulated types of a book. For example, if the accumulated types of Book 2 are A, and the accumulated types of Book 3 are B, the new types of Book 3 are B − A. "Token / new type ratio" (TNTR) is the percentage of type, which is counted as the measure of the density of new words in the text. This is the ratio of different words to the total number of texts in a file (computed by the formula: type / token x 100). The values of TNTR tend to be distorted depending on the size of a file. If a file is small in size, the TTR value tends to be greater than that of a larger file. We aimed to secure an equal condition for the computation of TNTR by dividing a file into 1000-token files.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of our quantitative analysis are shown in a series of tables and figures. Table 1 and Figure 1 show the tokens in each set of English textbooks of the 13 sets from Japan, China, and Korea. As can be seen from Table 1, the set of Chinese textbooks exhibited the greatest number of tokens across all 13 sets of textbooks. The number of tokens was even larger than for Japanese textbooks authored by native speakers of English. The *Union* (1861-79) and the *Dening* (1887-8) textbooks seemed to include more tokens than individual Chinese textbooks, but only in the higher-level texts. The sudden increase of tokens at higher levels, instead of a gradual development, may well undermine the value of this increase. The Chinese texts seem to achieve a balance in the introduction of tokens, and so appear as best among the textbooks compared in the present study. That the Chinese texts contain the greatest number of words in each textbook suggests that Chinese students, who are highly motivated to English study, are willing to be exposed to a larger quantity of English input. In contrast, the Korean textbooks contained far fewer tokens than their Chinese counterparts, although the former exhibit a higher number of tokens when compared with their Japanese counterparts.

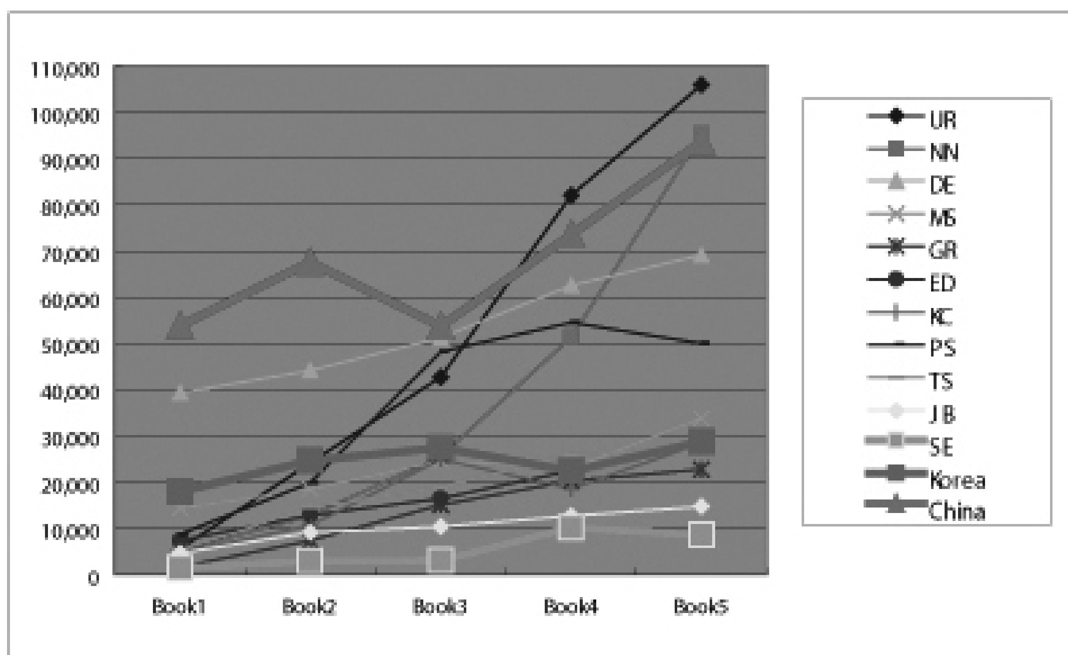
TOKENS

Figure 1 shows the tokens in each set of English textbooks for the 13 sets from Japan, China, and Korea. As can be seen from Figure 1, the Chinese textbooks exhibited the greatest number of tokens across all 13 sets, except *Union*, in which only Books 4 and 5 showed a comparably high number of tokens.

Table 1. Tokens

	UR	NN	DE	MS	GR	ED	KC	PS	TS	JB	SE	KOREA	CHINA
B1	5,606	5,116	39,397	14,353	1,599	7,413	4,637	8,752	5,249	4,691	1,458	17,930	53,876
B2	24,198	12,744	44,115	18,448	7,307	12,875	10,612	19,833	14,495	9,084	2,883	24,683	67,623
B3	42,790	25,544	51,300	24,640	15,061	16,463	25,018	48,188	18,965	10,364	3,040	27,452	53,675
B4	82,065	51,371	62,643	23,050	20,329	22,550	18,542	54,501	25,929	12,744	10,158	22,399	73,514
B5	105,882	95,147	69,156	33,806	22,743	28,350	28,540	49,965	27,467	14,748	8,527	28,767	93,686

Figure 1. Tokens



TYPES

As is clear from Table 2 and Figure 2, the Chinese textbooks were greatest in type count among all of the 13 textbooks of Korea, China and Japan. The types in the Chinese textbook seem greater than in many Japanese textbooks used over 100 years in Japan. Chinese textbooks show a gradual and systematic increase of types in each text. This reveals that new words introduced in Chinese formal English education are the greatest in number of all textbooks

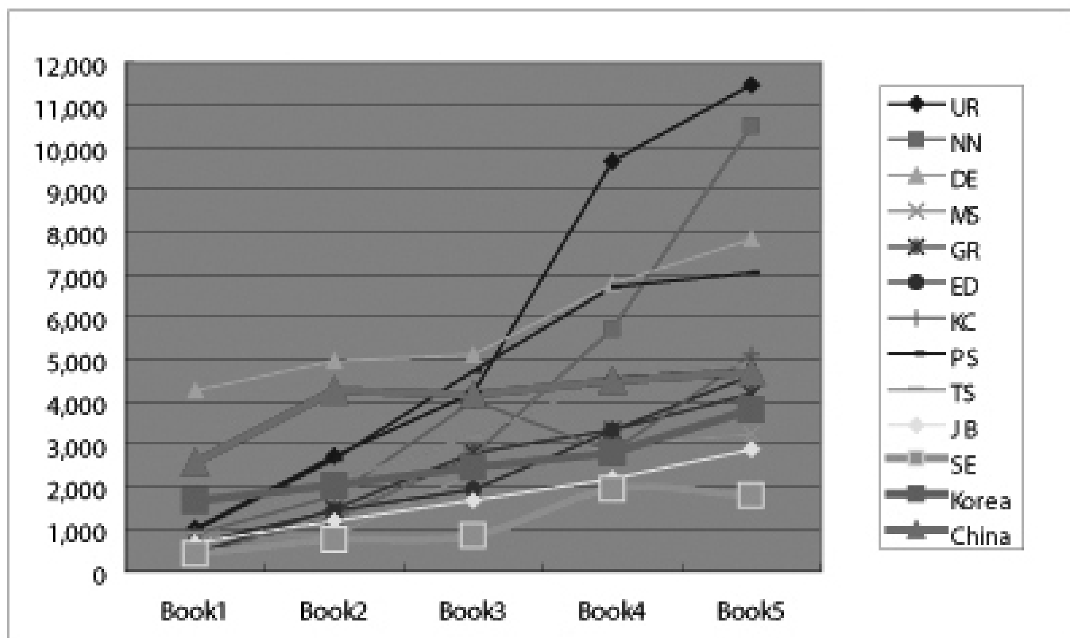
analyzed in the present study. The results show that Korean textbooks contain more types than current Japanese textbooks, while they were equal to Globe (1907) and Seisoku (1889-90) – almost the same in size as for textbooks published in prewar Japan. The results suggest that Chinese and Korean students are much more motivated to English study and able to accept a larger quantity of English input than their Japanese counterparts.

Table 2. Types

	UR	NN	DE	MS	GR	ED	KC	PS	TS	JB	SE	KOREA	CHINA
B1	1,006	451	4,259	793	422	653	884	972	925	675	405	1,657	2,569
B2	2,721	1,256	4,971	844	1,469	1,432	1,776	2,648	2,126	1,186	746	2,027	4268
B3	4,219	2,743	5,112	2,309	2,793	1,933	4,027	4,720	3,165	1,669	838	2,451	4,165
B4	9,671	5,718	6,784	2958	3,333	3,319	2,822	6,711	4,592	2,183	1,944	2,798	4,499
B5	11,478	10,506	7,836	3,228	4,185	4,625	5,106	7,032	4,888	2,876	1,793	3,812	4,702

Figure 2 shows a sudden increase of types in Books 4 and 5 in some prewar Japanese textbooks, and this might have created great difficulty for students to cope with new types. A comparative study of types among these texts revealed that China comes out on the top; Korea, next; and Japan, third.

Figure 2. Types



NEW TYPES

As can be seen in Table 3, Japanese textbooks ranked lowest in introducing new types in current textbooks and show a slower increase of new types.

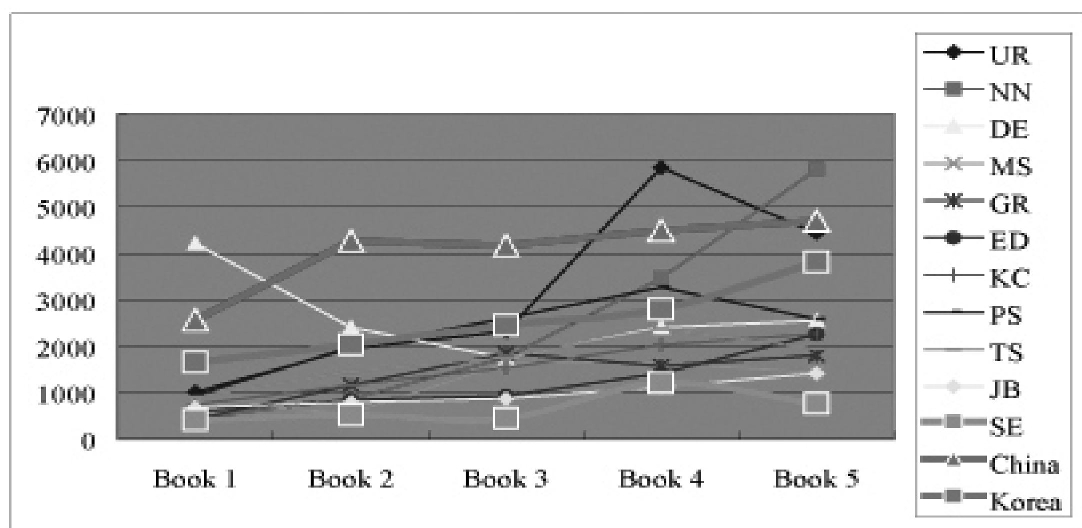
Korean textbooks seem better, while the considered Chinese texts appear to be the best. Even though native-speaker-authored textbooks of prewar Japan contain more new types, there is no discernible balance in new type introduction, and it is difficult to find a rationale for such imbalance.

Table 3. New Types

	UR	NN	DE	MS	GR	ED	KC	PS	TS	JB	SE	KOREA	CHINA
B1	1,013	449	4,215	788	422	591	746	942	897	672	404	2,569	1,657
B2	1,946	865	2,406	551	1,162	839	1,160	1,983	1,459	790	516	4,268	2,207
B3	2,317	1,751	1,739	1,638	1,854	933	1,532	2,601	1,766	874	446	4,165	2,451
B4	5,855	3,468	2,406	1,629	1,575	1,418	2,033	3,269	2,363	1,117	1,206	449	2,798
B5	4,436	5,807	2,559	1,439	1,803	2,258	2,268	2,582	1,953	1,411	761	4,702	3,812

As indicated in Figure 3, Chinese textbooks showed the highest value of new types, i.e., the Chinese texts introduce the greatest number of new words. It is surprising that this value is higher than any of Japan's textbooks authored by native English speakers. Compared with Japanese textbooks, Korean textbooks rank higher in new types. Sunshine, the current Japanese textbook, indicates the lowest level of new types.

Figure 3. New Types



TOKEN/NEW TYPE RATIO

Table 4 indicates that Chinese textbooks record the highest ratio value. Korean texts are next in ranking, with the Japanese texts last. Overall results show that current Japanese textbooks have a low ratio value, while some prewar Japanese textbooks authored by native speakers (i.e., Union, Dening, and National record a high ratio value).

Table 4. Token/New Type Ratio

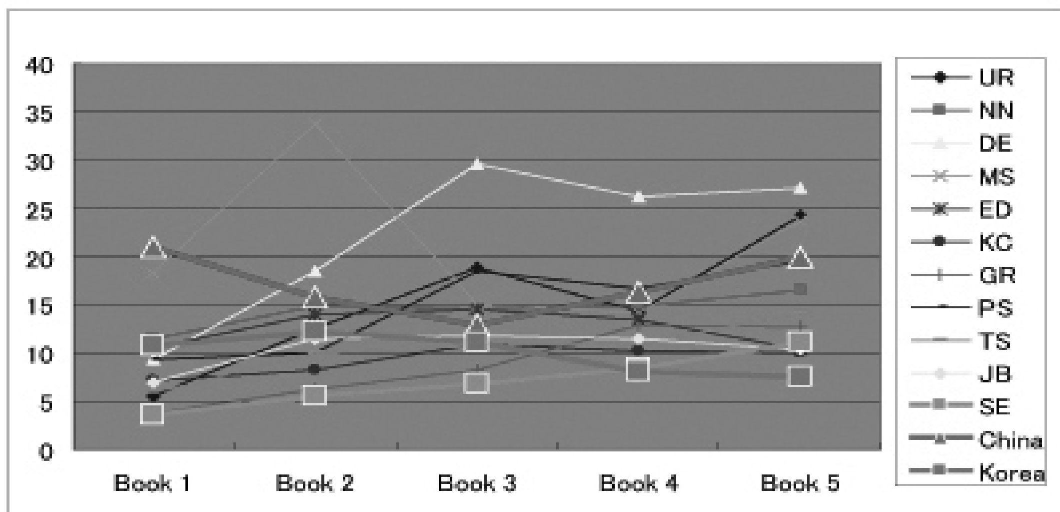
	UR	NN	DE	MS	GR	ED	KC	PS	TS	JB	SE	KOREA	CHINA
B1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.61	10.821	20.972
B2	12.55	14.82	18.42	33.71	6.33	14.02	8.32	10.02	9.96	11.53	-	-	-
B3	18.86	14.61	29.68	15.09	8.17	14.48	10.92	18.56	10.75	11.85	-	-	-
B4	14.31	14.88	26.2	14.19	12.98	13.38	10.25	16.75	10.99	11.41	-	-	-
B5	24.3	16.44	27.12	23.62	12.67	10.45	10.04	19.47	14.12	10.46	-	-	-

Our comparative study of current textbooks of China, Korea, and Japan suggests that the Chinese textbooks rank highest in token/new type ratios, while the Korean and Japanese rate low in this value. These results may indicate that the Chinese textbooks are more natural as a teaching vehicle.

CONCLUSION

The analytical and comparative data analysis employed in this study presents the opportunity to compare quantitative data across 13 sets of English textbooks from Japan, Korea, and China. Findings of the present research suggest that the Chinese textbooks rank greatest in total words and total different words, with Korean textbooks second and Japanese textbooks last. This implies that the Chinese textbooks are the most difficult and Japanese the easiest, with the Korean textbooks lying in between. Prewar Japanese textbooks authored by native speakers seem more difficult and advanced, yet inconsistent. One textbook proved to be very advanced, while the other was at a preliminary level. Many words were introduced in one textbook and few words in another.

Figure 4. Token/New Type Ratio



The differences in tokens, types, new types, and token/new type ratios

across the textbooks from the three countries are due to a great many factors related to their approaches to English language education. Among these, at least three issues: milieu, TEFL system, and learners' affective factors, are the most likely candidates. First, the social, economic, and cultural backgrounds are different across the three countries. In China, with her rapid economic development, English communicative ability seems to be highly desired, while in Japan the need may be less influential on individual lives. Second, with respect to learners' affective factors, their motivation to learn would be higher in China than in the other two countries. Finally, a felt urgency for English communication ability has led China to emphasize the quality and quantity of the English education system. Such factors have a plausible impact on the differences among the textbooks.

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Course Design

Helping Students Develop Language Study Skills

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ABSTRACT

Mastering a language takes thousands of hours of study and practice, far more time than can possibly be covered in the classroom. For students to become successful language learners, it is often what they do outside of the classroom that is more important than what they learn inside the classroom. Unfortunately, most students are overly dependent on their teachers and do not know how to study effectively on their own. This paper stresses the importance of adding a study-skill component to the language classroom and further argues that there are three main study habits and skills that can form a highly effective basis of language study outside the classroom: goal planning, vocabulary study, and extensive reading. Although these certainly do not encompass all good study skills and habits, each can make an enormous impact on students' progress in language acquisition.

INTRODUCTION

The notion of learner autonomy has taken hold in English language teaching pedagogy and language study skills are now becoming a crucial part of many ESL/EFL curricula. Language cannot be mastered within the classroom alone. Our contact with students is far too limited to give them the thousands of hours of exposure to the language that they need to become advanced language users. More and more scholars and teachers are realizing that what the students are trained to do after the English course is finished can be much more important than how much language they actually learn in the class.

Learning development and skills enhancement do not thrive if they are divorced from the students' overall teaching and learning experience (Cottrell, 2001). Students need more than just a lecture; they need "hands-on" experience as much as possible with the language they are learning. Teachers should be careful, however, about introducing student autonomy principles too quickly, especially if the students are coming from a very teacher-centered learning background. Students often become frustrated and demotivated when teacher-centered instruction is suddenly withdrawn (Press, 1996; Hurd, 1999).

All language skills can be developed and practiced outside of the classroom, but it is beyond the aims of this paper to cover all possible study skills. This paper will argue that for high-beginner to high-intermediate students, there are three central, independent study skills and practices that every language program should promote to have the largest impact on students' language development. These are setting goals and a study plan, mastering high-fre-

quency vocabulary, and developing extensive reading habits.

ESTABLISHING LANGUAGE GOALS AND A STUDY PLAN

It seems intuitive that establishing goals and organizing a study plan should have a substantial positive impact on achievement. Setting goals not only motivates students to perform but also clarifies their objectives and how they need to go about achieving them. Skye (2000) conducted an experiment with freshman university students in Korea in which one group established goals while the other did not. The same material was covered in both groups, but Skye found that the goal setters outperformed the non-goal setters by a ratio of 3 to 1.

Setting realistic goals and establishing an effective study plan are not innate abilities, however. The majority of students in the average classroom do need guidance. Often students are tempted to set grand goals that are simply not feasible. Although the students begin well, they soon realize that they cannot keep the pace they have set and, as a result become discouraged and give up on all of their goals completely.

Cottrell (2001) has a comprehensive chart of an effective goal setting and planning process (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Structure Reflection to Improve Learning and Performance

Orientation

- Direction: What do you want to achieve? Why?
- Appraisal: What are your strengths and weaknesses?
- Review: Where are you now in relation to your goals?

Strategy

- Establish opportunities: Resources, advice, guidance, support, experience.
- Consider alternatives: What options are available?
- Action plan: Identify specific actions, identify priorities, set targets (SMART-F Targets) and timescales.
- Focus: Identify how you will manage motivators and inhibitors. How will you maintain your motivation?
- Preparation: Organizing resources (space, time, others, tools, materials).

Action

- Follow through: Work through your action plan.
- Monitoring: How well are you doing?
- Cyclical review: Review your orientation and planning: do changes need to be made?
- Recording: Demonstrating reflective and effective learning; gathering evidence.

Evaluation

- Evaluation: What have you achieved?
- Extrapolation: What have you learned about the process itself?

(Cottrell, 2001, pp. 153-154)

The above chart, though quite comprehensive, might be overwhelming to most stu-

dents if presented in this form. The challenge to the teacher is to present these principles to the students in a more manageable and student-friendly way. Figure 2 shows a study-plan worksheet that attempts to do just that.

Figure 2. Study-Plan Worksheet

1. What is your motivation to learn English? What good things can you get if you speak English well? What negative things can you avoid?
   1 ______________________________
   2 ______________________________
   3 ______________________________
   4 ______________________________
   5 ______________________________

2. What long-term goals do you have for your English ability?

In five years, I want to be able to..	In 10 years, I want to be able to..

3. Now determine some immediate, daily goals. What small things should you do every day to accomplish your long-term goals?

Language Area	Typical-Day Study	If I'm too busy for my "typical day study," I will at least...
Vocabulary		
Reading		
Speaking		
Listening		
Writing		
Other (1)		
Other (2)		

The biggest obstacles to my goals are______________________________

However, I can overcome these obstacles by______________________________

The best thing my teacher can do to help me achieve my goals is to______________________________

(Miles & Song, 2005, p. 68)

As a conversation and brainstorming exercise (Part 1) students develop their lists of reasons to study English. Next, the students develop and share their long-range goals, and finally, they are ready to make the day-to-day goals that will help them reach these goals (Part 3). The final questions are there to assist students in the "action" phase of the plan. Potential obstacles are identified, and the students work together to come up with ideas on how to overcome them.

To help students with the evaluation process, the teacher should regularly (once every two weeks or so) have the students take 5-10 minutes to discuss how well they are doing on their goals. Students who are not meeting their daily goals (and this is often the majority at first) should take this time either to identify and solve the problems they have or revise their goals to something more practical. Again, this can be done as a communicative activity in which students share their difficulties and work together to find solutions.

Effective Vocabulary Study Habits

Just what the students' goals may be is up to each individual student, of course, but two fundamental goals and practices that every high-beginning to high-intermediate student should be encouraged to address are vocabulary development and extensive reading. Let us start with vocabulary.

Language learners simply cannot get very far in any of the four language skills without a strong vocabulary base. In reading, for example, Nation (2001) notes that to read an average text with minimal disturbance, language users need to know about 15,000-20,000 words. In order to use reading strategies to understand new words from context, readers need to know at least 95% of the running words in a given passage (Liu and Nation, 1985, cited in Nation, 2001). This requires that students know the 10,000-12,000 most common words in English before they can be considered advanced language users. To build up their vocabulary effectively, students need to know (a) what vocabulary to study and (b) how to study it.

WHAT VOCABULARY TO STUDY

Nation (2001) strongly argues that students need to know the value of high-frequency words. Far too often students learn vocabulary without any thought as to how common and useful the words are. The most common 2,000 words compose roughly 81% of *any* kind of text or conversation. Language students will struggle in all four language skills without a strong knowledge of the 2,000 most common English words, and thus these should be mastered as quickly as possible.

How can students know what these words are? The West General Service List (1953), though a bit dated, is still very useful and can be found on various websites (see Appendix). Better yet, learner dictionaries often include information on frequency and are generally more accessible to students. COBUILD, Macmillan, and Longman learner dictionaries all provide this crucial information. Teachers can greatly assist their students by helping them gain familiarity with these valuable resources.

After mastering the 2,000-word list, students should move on the next 1,000 most frequent words (known as the 3,000-word list) and the high-fre-

quency academic word list for students. The COBUILD and Macmillan dictionaries provide this information.

HOW TO STUDY VOCABULARY

Students need to move away from reliance on direct translation in their private vocabulary study. Though including the L1 translation on a vocabulary card is not necessarily a bad practice, if it is the only information they include, then the vocabulary study is lacking. What is on a good vocabulary study card is a matter of debate and personal choice (see Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995, for a more comprehensive look at vocabulary cards), but the following components generally should not be excluded.

Model Sentences That Show How the Word Is Used in Context

Chin (1999) found that Korean students learned vocabulary better through context instruction (presenting vocabulary in various contexts through model sentences), as opposed to other strategies (study of words in isolation with analysis of word parts). Model sentences are ideal for showing how the word is actually used.

Students have trouble making their own sentences, however, and typically find the process laborious. This is another strong argument for promoting learner dictionaries, as these resources are more likely to provide model sentences that are comprehensible to high-beginner and intermediate students.

Common Collocations and Grammatical Information

These complement the use of model sentences. Words are rarely used in isolation. Knowing an item of vocabulary means not only knowing the word, but also how to use it in a sentence. For example, English has a rather complex preposition system (or lack of a system) which causes L2 students endless grief. Mistakes like *I agree to his opinion* are very common. When students learn a new word, they should learn the common collocations that go with it at the same time as a single lexical unit.

Pronunciation Information

Students will eventually need to speak with newly learned vocabulary words, and this requires having an idea of how to pronounce the words. If the students are familiar with a phonetic alphabet, a phonetic transcription is very useful. For those who do not have this knowledge, even just noting the syllable stress of a word can be helpful.

Repetition

The primary goal of learning vocabulary is not just the initial rote-memorization of words but keeping the vocabulary in long-term memory for future comprehension and use. Regardless of the method used to learn a vocabulary item, the word will slip from memory if the learner does not see, hear, or have need to use it within a relatively short time. Unfortunately, many students do not make provisions for repetition in their vocabulary study, and thus, hundreds of learned words are later forgotten.

There are some excellent websites which automatically provide students with

repetition of learned words. *Flashcard Exchange* (see Select Bibliography) is one of the more popular sites. If teachers have access to classrooms with Internet connection, familiarizing the students with one of these websites is perhaps the best way to get them interested.

Incorporating a repetition system into one's vocabulary learning is not dependent upon computers, of course. Pimsleur (1967) developed a systematic repetition program designed to facilitate retention. Based on memory research, Pimsleur developed the spacing of repetitions on the principle that the space between each repetition should become exponentially larger (Table 1).

Table 1. Pimsleur's Memory Schedule

Study Session	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Time Between Sessions	5seconds	25seconds	2minutes	10minutes	1hour	5hours	1day	5days	25days	4months	2years

Students often find the schedule a little imposing for the first four repetitions. It may be more desirable to suggest that students just skip to the third repetition stage (two minutes) after initially memorizing the words.

Merely explaining the method is not as effective as actually walking the students through it in class. To show students the value of repetition and to get them familiar with this kind of repetition schedule, select five words that most of the students do not know, and review them as a class in the following manner:

1. Near the beginning of the class hour, spend about three to five minutes teaching the words (including model sentences and common collocations).
2. Leave the vocabulary words for a moment and move on to any non-related short activity that can be completed in roughly 10 minutes (short conversation, listening exercise, etc.).
3. After 10 minutes have passed, go back to the vocabulary words. Write them on the board again and see if students can remember their meanings. Then, return to your normal lesson plan with whatever activities you have planned for the day.
4. Finally, at the end of the class hour, quiz the students one more time on the vocabulary words, and then assign homework for them to do that night that will require them to review the words yet again.
5. During the next class, review the words once more with another brief quiz.
6. Review the words once more in class during the following week.
7. Leave the words alone for a month, and then give a "surprise quiz" along with five other new words that were introduced the previous month but did not go through the repetition schedule. For most students (if not all), the five words that went through the repetition schedule will be retained far better than the five that were not.

Admittedly, this is not exactly following Pimsleur's schedule, but it is close

enough to have the desired effect. I have found running my students through this "experiment" to be far more effective than just talking about it, as the students have the chance to test the method for themselves.

EXTENSIVE READING

Extensive Reading (ER) is simply reading a lot at a fairly easy level. Lack of exposure to English is one of the key reasons why the results of EFL in countries like Korea are generally disappointing. Many scholars argue that extensive reading is the most practical way for students in an EFL environment to reach advanced levels of proficiency.

Extensive reading has amassed an impressive array of studies that show its benefits. Krashen (1993) surveyed 53 studies on extensive reading and found that in 51 of these, students in free reading experimental groups (students who spent most, if not all, of class time simply reading books) were at least as good, if not better, in the language than those who only received regular instruction. Furthermore, in studies where students spent at least one year in such reading programs, they were nearly always better than students who received instruction in all four skills.

Note that these studies did not only look at improvements in reading comprehension. Many measured language ability among all four skills and found substantial increases in all of them. Eskey's (1987) "book flood" studies showed that students who only read improved in *nearly all* language skills, with improvements in reading and writing the most dramatic. Tsang (1996) reported that EFL students who engaged in self-selected reading for 24 weeks made significant gains in writing, but those who did extra writing did not. Tsang's results were replicated in a study by Mason and Krashen (1997).

One study that should perk the attention of all students obsessed with TOEFL- and TOEIC-type tests was conducted by Gradman and Hanania (1991). They found that outside reading was the strongest (and only) factor correlated with TOEFL scores, while factors such as time spent living in an English-speaking country and years of formal schooling failed to show any effect. There are also studies that suggest reading for pleasure has a positive effect on grammar acquisition (Stokes, Krashen, & Kartchner, 1998; Lee, Krashen & Gribbons, 1996).

How is it that just reading alone can bring all of these benefits? Extensive reading of high-interest material gives the necessary reinforcement and recycling of language required to ensure that new input is retained (Grabe, 1986). Again, the principles of continued exposure and repetition play a key role in language acquisition and retention. In an input-poor EFL environment, this kind of daily exposure to the language is crucial.

Our students need to know that ER, sustained for at least a year, will have a huge impact on their language acquisition. Kim and Krashen (1997) recommend the following for language teachers:

1. Inform students and teachers of the benefits of extensive reading (especially in an EFL context).
2. Give L2 readers easy access to a wide variety of books.
3. Give guidance on what books to choose (books of interest and of appro-

priate difficulty level).
4. Help students overcome ineffective reading strategies and habits they might have.

Special attention should be given to [3] above. High-beginner to high-intermediate students are not generally ready to read most authentic English texts. The students need information on how to find books appropriate to their level. The answer is graded readers. Our experience with freshman students in Sogang University indicates that level four books from the Oxford Bookworm series (in addition to Longman's Penguin graded readers series) were suitable for most students at that level. Students should be encouraged to find a level of graded reader that they can read with comfort. This generally means that students can read and comprehend the books without need of a dictionary. After reading five books at a particular level, students may try to go up to a higher level.

These are rough guidelines just to get students started. It is crucial that they understand that if a book is too difficult to enjoy for any reason, they should stop reading it and get a book at a lower level. Students who incorporate extensive reading into their daily study plan assure themselves of continual exposure to the language that will give much needed support and repetition of language items learned in the classroom.

Final Notes and Issues

SHOULD KNOWLEDGE OF STUDY SKILLS BE PRESENTED IN THE L1?

A strong argument can made that in the long run it is extremely beneficial to ensure that the students really understand the hows and whys of study skills. Ideally, of course, we want the students to hear and speak English as much as possible, but if there is a chance that students might misunderstand the principles and practices of good study habits then the teacher may (if able) wish to consider briefly discussing these issues in the students' first language.

SHOULD YOU TEST STUDY-SKILL KNOWLEDGE?

If you include study skills and strategies as a part of the curriculum, they definitely should be tested in order for you to see how well your curriculum objectives are being met. Students typically learn what is tested. What and how we test sends an indirect message to students about just what we really feel is most important in language learning. If we as teachers talk about the importance of good study skills and habits, but fail to include this knowledge on our tests, we are sending the students mixed signals.

Conclusion

It is sometimes difficult to really know if we as teachers make much of a lasting impact on our students' language ability. However, we can give students the knowledge and the tools to make their independent study effective and put them on the road to language mastery. It is not just what the students learn

in the few short months they are in our classrooms that is important but the skills they take with them after the class is finished that put them on the road to language mastery.

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Select Bibliography of Internet Resources

http://www.lextutor.ca/ This site has lists of high-frequency words, including the West General Service List.

http://www.extensivereading.net An excellent resource for extensive reading articles, advice, etc.

http://www.flashcardexchange.com/ A vocabulary learning site (pay site) that includes an automatic repetition schedule to review learned words.

In Pursuit of Excellence: EFL Course Design

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ABSTRACT

Awareness of course design by everyday teachers holds promise as a tool with which to provide better educational outcomes. A course design which meets the needs of students should increase teacher control over the course outcome whether they use just an assigned text, supplement it, or greatly augment it with other materials. Having a personal plan for courses, with clear and pertinent educational objectives, should empower teachers to get the best results from whatever resources are available to them. By analogy, methods, schedule, and materials are the tools needed to teach the course, while the course design might be viewed as a detailed map showing the best route to desired objectives. From this perspective, the tip of the course design iceberg would be the syllabus: a simplified map of only the major items. This paper argues for wider use of course design basics, provides a model or paradigm from which teachers might work, and describes some of the basics of course design.

INTRODUCTION

It is my opinion that most administrators and teachers in Korea would not consider their native-speaker professors qualified to design EFL courses. This view could be supported by considering the qualifications of most native speakers teaching here. (No insult is intended to sincere teachers working outside their original area of training. I also started without specific EFL qualifications and learned on the job.) Even among those who are aware of it, course design is likely thought to be too complex and best left to experts.

This view is reasonable and defensible, but to be thorough, we must also consider reality. Recall your first, or your most recent, teaching assignment. Most likely, on arrival you received a list of classes, texts, and classrooms, along with a semester schedule and notification that a syllabus was needed in the computer by a certain date. For some classes, it is likely that neither text nor syllabus were provided. Being given total responsibility for a class means that one becomes the course designer, qualified or not. This is one reason why it seems prudent to me that teachers learn something about course design. Another productive use of course design concepts relates to the use of commercial texts in academic courses.

Every semester, around the world, teachers find themselves with assigned texts, written by distant authors, that must be applied to situations those writers did not anticipate. When there is a good match between the target classes and the actual classes, commercial texts can work very well.

In 2003, for the first time in Korea, I taught a university class which was a perfect match for a popular text, and the course went beautifully. Previously, the text was a mismatch with the abilities and motivation of my students.

When new teachers get into such a situation, they may have no recourse but to muddle through under duress. It may not be clear to them how to make the assigned text work for the students sitting in their classrooms. Experienced EFL teachers will have a "box of tricks" which has worked with some previous classes, and may be used to augment, supplement, or replace portions of a commercial text which are not working. Why do some teachers rise above problems that arise from using commercial texts, while others flounder?

I propose that teachers who are able to use other resources well when a text is clearly inappropriate have an agenda distinct from that of the textbook author. I assert that such teachers are following their own plan, no matter what they might call it, and using the text to make their own plan successful, rather than the other way round. My point is that following a personal course design, as opposed to blindly following an assigned text, should increase control and flexibility in ways that empower teachers to provide the best possible educational outcomes for their students.

To provide an analogy, the schedule, teaching methods, and class materials are the work tools, while the course design might be thought of as a detailed map. It shows the best route to reach the desired objectives. The syllabus, or syllabus brief, might be thought of as a simpler map showing only the most important of the features on the larger map.

For readers to better judge my opinions, it is appropriate that I should share my background in higher education. In the USA, I was active in science, specifically, aquatic biology and environment. As a graduate student, I taught a number of biology and ecology courses. As an instructor, I later designed and taught courses in biology and fisheries. Periodically, I have taught a graduate course in Korea about the environmental roles of water.

In the area of EFL, I have designed and taught a new course for informed, but non-conversant, Korean students of English conversation, as well as adapting a number of typical courses for advanced English practice, business English, English composition, and reading comprehension. Finally, I have taught English conversation classes, at many levels, based on more than twenty different texts. These activities have encompassed nine years, three Korean universities, and several thousand students.

In particular, during creation of the novel conversation course, I began to consider design details of which I had previously been unaware. The result was a growing awareness of a great deal of potential for better results, now untapped in many Asian EFL classes. To realize this potential, teachers who are unaware of course design concepts must be made aware and shown how they might be used. In this paper, I present arguments for this position, prepare a model (paradigm) from which teachers might work, and describe some of the kinds of decisions needed for course design.

Since the meanings of words used in EFL literature vary substantially from writer to writer, the most important ones in this paper are given simple and distinct definitions. Here, "curriculum" refers to the body of courses needed to acquire a degree. "Syllabus" and "course design" are defined in the following section. "Testing" herein always refers to measuring student achievement, and

“assessment” refers to any means by which educational outcomes (for students, teachers, courses, or entire programs) might be judged objectively.

COURSE DESIGN BASICS

To set a context for course design itself, let us first consider the steps required to create an exceptional EFL course. First, we would create a robust course design and extract the details needed for the syllabus brief. Next, we would teach the course and note both positive and negative outcomes. As the last step in the first cycle, or the first step in the second cycle, we would use this feedback information to modify the design.

At this stage in my professional development, I prefer to think of a course design as the set of assumptions, and the derivative abstraction or template, from which the syllabus will be extracted, and also from which the course of study will be realized. Given this, four aspects of a course might be recognized: (a) an underlying course design, (b) a syllabus which reflects the essence of this design, (c) the teaching materials used, and (d) the actual class (that which results from application of design and materials to a group of students). These are not the course design, but the decisions and the responses which deal with them all comprise the course design.

Generally, a syllabus describes goals and objectives of a course, the activities planned to accomplish them, and a schedule by which this will be done. A progressive syllabus would provide clear goals supported by content and process objectives in forms which could be assessed. It would provide materials and methods by which the objectives might be achieved. It would also provide the means by which course results could be assessed. Finally, it would provide a non-arbitrary schedule of presentation – one which, from the teacher’s perspective, is superior to other arrangements.

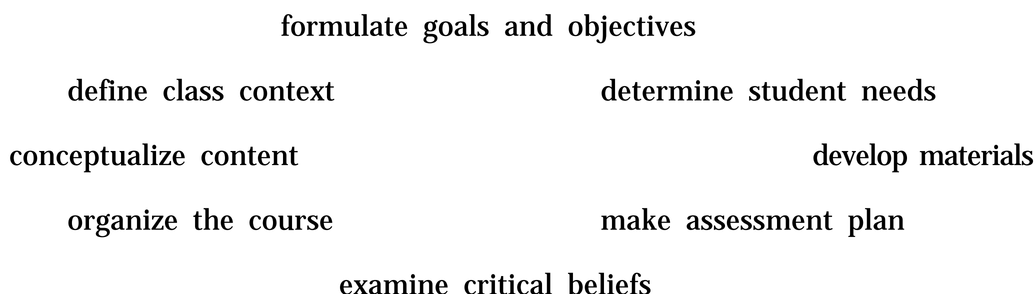
Here, I will distinguish two forms of syllabus. The kind which is a thorough record of most of the course design, I will call a “detailed syllabus.” It may run to dozens of pages or more at some universities. In contrast, most universities, including those in Korea, most often use a much shorter computer form with formatted spaces for course name and objectives, a summary of methods to be used, notes on testing and grades, and a one-semester schedule. This is what I mean by a “syllabus brief.” It is a short, selective, convenient (and often vague) description of the course.

The focus here should be upon the relationship between the course design and the syllabus, in whatever form. We might say a syllabus is but the visible tip of the iceberg, which is the course design. No students, and few administrators, see those parts of the course design not expressed in the syllabus. From this, one might create a course design without setting forth a specific syllabus, but it would not be possible to put out a syllabus without making some decisions about the underlying course design.

Once teachers decide that a knowledge of course design might benefit their teaching, they need a place to start. A novice designer might be well guided by the focal points presented in Illustration 1 (simplified from Graves, 1999, p. 3). Graves points out the high levels of interactivity among these. The decisions made while considering one focal area affect the options available for the others, thus each change causes adjustments.

If you imagine yourself at the center of the diagram below, it should be clear that any is a good place to start, as long as you handle all the areas. In practice, creating a mature, stable, successful course requires that all the areas be addressed several times. Though there is some overlap, they are sufficiently distinct to be useful. Following the diagram are brief comments to further explain the essential nature of each of the focal areas. An alternative set of questions is presented in the Appendix to show how the design categories and specific questions might be varied.

Illustration 1. Focal Points for Good Course Design



FORMULATE GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

While any starting point is possible, I prefer to begin with a tentative set of goals and objectives. It is likely these will be modified by decisions made as the work proceeds. Goals and objectives are distinct, and should not be rewordings of the same ideas. Goals express the overall outcomes desired for a course and are broad, though specific. Goals should be few: having too many goals causes the design to lose focus. Each goal should be supported by those objectives necessary to realize it.

It is the objectives which precisely define the blocks of content, tasks, or processes which students are expected to master. The wording of each objective is critical, as its statement determines whether it is possible to assess student success in achieving it. See Illustrations 2 and 3.

Illustration 2. Comparison of Goals and Objectives

Generally, if the objectives are achieved, the goals should be reached.

Goal:	To lose 10 pounds.
Objective A:	Exercise at least one hour each day. (Measurable by clock.)
Objective B:	Eat less at each meal. (Measurable by scale or balance.)
Objective C:	Eat fewer calories at each meal. (Measurable with calorie counter.)

Illustration 3. Comparison of Testable and Untestable Objectives

Form A: Writing exercises will be used to improve the English ability of the students. (Untestable; this is better as a goal.)

Form B: To improve those aspects of EFL proficiency measurable by qualitative assessment of student portfolios, by means of frequent writing exercises. (Means for testing specified.)

DEFINE CLASS CONTEXT

Once goals and objectives have been defined, other focus areas can be addressed. Here, we will next explore the course context, since it includes conditions which set limits on the course. These include such factors as the types of students taught, how many students are expected in each class, the range and depth of student abilities, the time available for each class, and other resources needed.

DETERMINE STUDENT NEEDS

A natural extension of defining the class context is assessing student needs. Student needs assessment is considered by Graves (1999) to be an ongoing interaction between teacher and students to determine the students' educational needs and preferences. Typically, surveys are given to students before, or early in, the course. They might be asked about their backgrounds, goals, interests, current EFL condition, or attitudes toward study.

While I am in agreement with the purposes of this step, I have found that the demands of high-volume academic positions (teaching hundreds of students per semester) make it nearly impossible to do the work needed to adapt classes to students in any meaningful way before the semester ends. As classes get larger, the problem of conflicting needs also becomes more likely. My conclusion is that this step is worthwhile, but difficult to apply to large numbers of students in a semester. I have settled for a periodic survey for my EFL students. Provided no obvious changes were observed, results are assumed to remain true until the next survey.

CONCEPTUALIZE THE COURSE CONTENT

A significant part of needs assessment is deciding what students most need to learn in a course. This moves us into another focal area, that of conceptualizing the course content. The key point here is to select from among the things students might learn, those which would be best in this particular course, or in other words, what information must be provided to allow students to achieve the course objectives. At the core is the necessity for choosing an organizing principle. For example, one course might emphasize conversation, while another focuses on writing skills. This process would be greatly enhanced by specific knowledge of what the course is expected to provide in relation to the parent curriculum.

DEVELOP MATERIALS

The expression "where the rubber meets the road" highlights a critical interface required for results. In the EFL classroom, this interface is between students and the teaching materials. A good rule of thumb might be "Vision first, materials follow." When it is clear what must be done (objectives), it is much easier to select only those materials needed to accomplish it. Here is where decisions must be made to use a single or multiple texts, or provide supplementary or replacement materials.

ORGANIZE THE COURSE

By this stage in the design process, it is generally possible to begin seeing how all this might fit into a semester (or two) of classroom activity. Organizing the course (many call this part syllabus design) is a lot less intimidating if several realities are accepted at the beginning: (a) You cannot teach the English language in a single semester, so you must select a subset; (b) There is not only one correct way to teach; and (c) Content and methods should be chosen for defensible reasons that make good sense to the teacher. The actual work here is selecting an optimal sequence for the content, then parceling it into lesson plans based on units, modules, or strands.

This is when the general schedule (before holidays are taken into account) is created. After the unifying concept of the design and the content have been selected, some sequences of material will clearly be more effective than others. The organization of those courses, which transfer large amounts of factual information (law, medicine, and science), are largely a matter of convenience, though a logical sequence of presentation helps. Language courses involve progressive stages each of which requires mastery of some previously learned content and skills, so the timing of the introduction of content and processes will have a significant impact on the success of the course. Students, for example, cannot be expected to write essays before they can make basic sentences.

MAKE AN ASSESSMENT PLAN

At some point, and sooner works better than later, it is necessary to consider how student progress or achievement will be assessed. This assumes that attention has already been given to formulation of objectives in ways that enable assessment. It is important to verify that the exams truly test what the teacher needs to establish. This involves balancing adequate testing against the need for sufficient teaching time, an awareness of how much of the teacher's time is available for processing exams, and thus, what limits there might be on the number of tests given.

In a well-designed course, "teaching the test" is a sign of focus and efficiency rather than a shortcoming. Course objectives are stated in ways that makes them testable. Class time provides activities by which the students may make progress in achieving those objectives, and nothing else. Tests measure only those factors presented in the objectives, and thus are legitimate documentation of whatever achievement students demonstrate.

EXAMINE CRITICAL BELIEFS

In the present context, critical beliefs are those which affect teaching effectiveness. Often lurking just out of awareness, safe from inspection, they may influence our actions to a surprising degree. They may include such as an illogical preference for ineffective methods, cultural or sexual biases which limit our support of certain students, or – my personal favorite – absolute certainty about "how things should be." From time to time, it will be a good idea to reassess our feelings about what and who we are teaching, and make adjustments to produce the best educational outcome for them. At times, problematic beliefs can be found in texts as well, and teachers may need to respond to these or work around them. As an example, some texts I have taught from included activities which required very specific knowledge of certain US cities. The lack of references or maps within such chapters, or in any appendix, suggests a belief that the urban areas of the USA, the economic and military center of the universe, should be thoroughly known by all. The reality is that knowledge of American cities is irrelevant to the lives of most of the Asian billions, even when there is a pressing need for a working knowledge of international English.

GETTING A GRIP ON DESIGN

If you are feeling giddy, sick, or worried by the thought of having to design all your future courses, relax a bit, for relief is on your desk. Most of the decisions needed have already been made and are included in the design of better textbooks. In the best, there are supplemental materials such as workbooks, reviews, and tests which make them a complete package: all the tools needed to teach from a mature course design. For this reason, when we make a syllabus based on commercial materials, we should draw heavily on the design incorporated into the book.

Given that we must often use texts selected by others, the question becomes "What is the design of the authors," and more importantly, "What is yours," "Are they the same," "Are they parallel," "Are they wholly incompatible?" Just because you must use a text, does not mean that you must follow it blindly. To determine to what extent a text will be useful, teachers must have their own plans for comparison. Responsible teachers have every right to modify, augment, or supplement as necessary to give students their best chance to meet the syllabus objectives. The writers put a lot of effort into each text, but they are not the teacher and they do not know your classroom context or your students – only you do.

Whenever you are assigned a class without a selected text or a prepared syllabus, you have become a de facto course designer, qualified or not. When you are given an assigned text that is poor or simply not a good match for your students, you are faced with making needed changes. In both cases, you are now better prepared to put together (in the time available) a design and syllabus which, while they may not be perfect, may at least have a professional basis and intent.

After the Course Design is Finished

After considerable effort, we now have a bright new syllabus in hand (or computer). We have specified the course goals, objectives, and assessment details. Our schedule allows the effective introduction of the blocks of material we have selected and organized. We have tests planned for each block or each set of blocks that we will teach. By our choices among content, methods, and materials, we have accommodated the needs and abilities of the students to the extent that we can and still achieve the course objectives. We have now reached the presentation phase: teach the course.

The "perfect" plan never works perfectly the first time. Keep in mind that, even when plans go awry, the class is not the end of the process, but the beginning of a new cycle. The class results show us how, and to what extent, our course was effective. Teachers must sustain professional detachment (stay positive) so that even poor results can be used to make constructive changes. Be ready to notice and record information useful in making improvements. Even experienced teachers may require several teaching cycles for a new course to mature. In other words, an excellent course is not so much a destination as an ongoing process.

We must also recognize that many good ideas are limited by circumstance. A student teacher with responsibility for twenty students for one month can do some innovative and highly personal work, which is beyond the dreams of a professor with hundreds of unmotivated students each semester. Certainly, we must appreciate our limitations, but as professional teachers, we should also strive for excellence with the resources available.

Even given the potential shortcomings likely to afflict the design of a course by everyday teachers, I believe strongly that a well-planned course has a higher probability of being successful than an unplanned or a poorly planned one. Certainly, these types of activities should be supported by administrators and faculty alike. It is my sincere hope that you now agree that efforts to improve course design (and therefore, syllabus design) have great potential for improving outcomes in Asian EFL courses.

The Author

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APPENDIX

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS FOR CREATING AN EFL COURSE DESIGN

Topics could be addressed in any order, and questions could be arranged in other groupings.

Addressing Assessment

How will the success of students be measured? How will the success of the course be measured? Are the objectives stated so that they can be tested? What test method or methods would make this possible? How often during the course should students be tested? How many teacher-hours are likely to be tied up in giving and grading these exams? Given the resources available and the schedule, which test methods is likely to be most efficient? Upon what criteria, and with what weights, will grades be assessed? (They should be related to the objectives.) How will students be made aware of the grading criteria, which will be the basis of their grades?

Addressing Beliefs

Do I favor boys over girls, or girls over boys? Do I favor wealthy students over poor ones, or the other way around? Do I favor or disfavor those of certain cultures or religions? Do I favor attractive over less-attractive students? Do I favor those of certain ages? Do I disfavor troubled students over those who seem well adjusted? Do I teach only to the most intelligent or knowledgeable students? Do I keep my feelings to myself, or do I signal them by my classroom behaviors? Do my students deserve my best, or as little as possible? Does my resentment or anger over administrative problems affect my behavior toward my students? Am I content to be teaching at this time; at this place; to these students? With all my beliefs, can I present a relatively uniform educational opportunity to all my students?

Addressing Context

For what target students (age, level of study, level of motivation, general ability in this area, overall level of effort likely by the group) is this course being designed? Under what conditions will the course be taught? How long will classes be? How many times per week will they occur? How many weeks or months will the course run? Will it be offered in units of years, semesters, or quarters? At what times of day or night will the classes be held? Do the likely conditions match the needs of the students? Are there severe environmental considerations which might affect students during this course? (Examples might be lack of good ventilation, monsoon flooding, extreme heat or cold, extreme noise.)

Addressing Content

Given the nature of the course, the specific needs to be met, and the characteristics of the target students, what are reasonable goals for this course? (I suggest that having more than two goals causes the course to begin losing focus.) Given the conditions under which the course will be taught, the likely ability of the students, and the resources available, what specific objectives could be used to accomplish the course goals? (These should be focused, not too many, and specific enough to be testable.) What minimum class materials (one source or many?) will be needed to give students the preparation and practice needed to accomplish the course goals? Are there additional materials which would make achieving the course objectives significantly more likely, or easier, for students or teacher?

Addressing Methods

Will the main focus of this course be the transfer of large amounts of factual information, the teaching of a sequence of processes, or of a combination of sequential batches of information and processes? (Note that this clearly affects scheduling also.) Given the objectives, available resources, and the level of effort and ability these students are likely to apply, what teaching method or methods are most likely to enable students to accomplish the course objectives?

Addressing Purpose

This course will satisfy what unique need or needs in what specific curriculum? Will it be used in more than one curriculum? If so, will this need to be accommodated? How was this need (or these needs) identified? (This may affect the credibility of the results.)

Some possible answers to the last question include: survey of needs in the workplaces where our students hope to place, requirements for accreditation, student demand or desire, administrative/faculty demand or desire.

Addressing Resources

What is the most likely teacher/student ratio for this course? How many teachers will be available to teach this course? At what times, and for how many hours, will they be available? What space and facilities will be needed for the duration of this course? Are any others available to assist with non-teaching tasks for this course? Will this course require technical support or equipment beyond the ability of the teacher (or teachers)? Has administrative support been committed for this course (permission, space, facilities, budget, etc)?

Addressing Schedule

Considering all conditions, into how many units (classes, modules, units, chapters, strands, etc.) must the course content be divided? Which among the potential arrangements of these is most likely to achieve the course objectives? How will students be made aware of the class schedule? Are environmental conditions (in the broad sense) likely to interfere with the proposed schedule? (Will

there be times when the classroom is too hot or too cold for students to work productively? Are there likely to be extreme noises or odors which could interfere with class activities? Might such conditions be severe enough to reduce class time or reduce days of class offered?) After considering all this, will students receive enough class time to make the effort worthwhile?

Provide Listening Tasks for Homework!

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ABSTRACT

When teaching EFL/ESL it often appears difficult to deal with all aspects of language learning, including reading, writing, listening, and speaking. There is neither enough time nor opportunity to focus on oral skills, so students often end up with only limited reading and fill-in-the-gap writing skills. Even when learners are advised to watch English-language TV and films, such input may simply be viewed as overwhelming noise. In addition, there is no means by which they can get feedback as to whether they understood any oral English correctly. The author would like to inform readers of his approach in helping learners carry out carefully structured listening comprehension assignments that provide them with the means of finding out how well they really understand "authentic" English. Such tasks are meant to redress the imbalance that one often finds in language learning.

INTRODUCTION

You can be the greatest language teacher in the world, but you may still produce underachievers who exhibit social incompetence in a foreign language. There are, of course, physical restraints (limited learning time, large classes, etc.) as well as the gap between L1 and L2 language structure, not to mention a learner's overall motivation.

Even if these problems could be dealt with, one further obstacle lies in the nature of homework assignments to be done either before or after the lesson. They are often composed of reading or writing tasks. With little scope for interaction in large classroom settings, the bulk of language learning excludes effective listening tasks, especially those involving non-contrived speech.

To overcome this difficulty, language teachers and their students need to put more emphasis on out-of-class listening tasks that satisfy the following criteria:

1. They can be easily accessed by the learners.
2. They provide clear sound and images (for non-verbal communicative signals).
3. Pre-listening data is available to provide listening context.
4. The listening segment is adapted to learner levels and abilities.
5. Comprehension questions are supplied to help learners focus their listening.
6. Learners can get adequate feedback for their responses.

ACCESSIBILITY

A major problem with traditionally administered classroom listening tasks is that the means of listening are entirely in the hands of the teacher. Input depends on whether the teacher switches on the classroom tape recorder or inserts a video into the VCR. For many students, this is unsatisfactory because they may still not catch the gist of a dialogue even after a couple of replays and feel discouraged as a result. From the teacher's point of view, it is difficult to be aware of which students can follow the exercise and to test them on it comprehensively. The use of listening exercises in class therefore provides limited exposure to a language, and listening comprehension feedback for individual learners is difficult to manage.

These problems can be dealt with if the listening material in the form of a video file is embedded into Web pages for students to access. Most schools have online facilities which would allow a student to access a URL address. The video clips can be edited to match students' language levels so that after they view a segment, they can answer comprehension questions. This data can be submitted to the teacher's mailbox for him or her to correct and send back to the student.

Of course, some will argue that online facilities do not always exist, and if they do, they are not always reliable. One can therefore think about an offline means of achieving the same results. The videos can be saved on the hard drive of the laboratory computer or on CD-ROMs, which can also be borrowed by those students with computers at home. Answers to comprehension questions can be written on paper to be handed in. Then teachers can use the paper to supply feedback. The main point is that learners need the chance to access the materials by themselves and take the time needed to be confident in producing answers that will receive personalized feedback.

CLEAR SOUND AND IMAGE

It is good for the teacher to keep in mind the benefit of learners listening to a voice as opposed to reading a text. For example, Hughes (1989) alludes to the fact that listening tasks exercise a learner's microskills such as the interpretation of intonation patterns (e.g., recognition of sarcasm). Further detail on the importance of intonation is provided by Nagamine (2002) as he states that:

> [Intonation] functions to clarify the contrasts between different question types (yes/no questions or information questions) and the ways in which questions differ from statements. In addition, intonation is used to express speakers' personal attitude or emotion along with other prosodic and paralinguistic features. Furthermore, it gives turn-taking clues in conversation and may also reveal social backgrounds of the speaker as well. (Introduction, para. 2)

Using a non-contrived listening segment is key to building an effective task. The segment can be in the form of news reports, dramas, speeches, or other oral works that are originally designed for native speakers of English. Schrum and Glisan (1994) argue that such authentic materials which integrate culture are

necessary for successful language learning. Having said that, even smooth and clear audio may unintentionally create confusion for a listener. Rutherford (1987) warns that "forms such as determiners, prepositions, complementizers, etc. – the very cues that can enable the learner to improve his processing routines – are usually barely audible in speech" (p. 171). Clearly, listening comprehension for learners could be enhanced if they could actually see the speaker(s).

Weir (1990) reinforces this view by suggesting that the problem with the tape recorder, i.e., using only audio, is that the visual element, the wealth of normal exophoric reference and paralinguistic information, is not available, and this makes the listening task that much more difficult for the listener. Kellerman (1992) also advocates the visual as well as the audio means in the following assessment:

> For the L2 listener, who might not be able to recognize and understand aspects of the spoken language, the kinesic behavior and non-verbal communication of the speaker may be particularly helpful in providing clues that will be of assistance in understanding the message and chunking the input appropriately. Audio recordings preclude test-takers from exploiting the speaker's kinesic behavior and non-verbal communication to aid listening comprehension. (p. 240)

The combination of audio and visual recordings therefore maximizes listening potential for language learners.

PRE-LISTENING

Before being exposed to video content, it is advisable for the teacher to provide learners with some background information. This context, which can be in written form, can help learners adapt to a particular cultural theme. For example, before listeners watch a video on the merits of recognizing gay marriage, it might be helpful for a Korean or Japanese listener, who is unlikely to be familiar with this issue, to be given some information as to why the issue is controversial in the first place. Without this pre-listening information, some language learners may have difficulty understanding the issue, depending on where they are from. Once learners are familiar with the issue, they are in a better position to add to their knowledge through English-language programming.

VIDEO-CLIP ADAPTATION

An important skill, often based on intuition more than anything else, is to provide listening material that is suitable for learner abilities. You want the task to be challenging but not overwhelming.

There are many factors that go into determining whether a listening task is suitable. These may involve the extent to which a learner is interested in or has prior knowledge of a topic, can properly hear and see the audio-visual scenes, and knows what information is to be obtained through listening. If obstacles can be effectively dealt with or at least minimized, the teacher needs to look into learner aptitudes to assess what they can truly handle.

Since aptitudes vary, learners may have difficulty identifying the gist of an utterance or inferring meaning from a spoken text. Wagner (2002) notes the aptitude to deduce meaning of unknown vocabulary through the context of an utterance as an important characteristic for listening. This will demonstrate a learner's strategic competence, i.e., the ability to use guessing strategies to compensate for missing knowledge of words. Nuances in the form of puns, euphemisms, and other concepts with hidden meanings also require the learner to exercise a certain amount of insight into the target language.

Predicting whether or not a learner can handle listening exercises is quite a "stab in the dark" for teachers who are embarking on a new project with new students. Teachers will learn through trial and error as learner listening-comprehension answers are gathered and analyzed.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Up until the 1960s, listening comprehension for content was considered of little importance. One prominent authority on language testing, R. M. Valette (1967), stated that a learner's "degree of comprehension will depend on his ability to discriminate phonemes, to recognize stress and intonation patterns, and to retain what he has heard" (p. 47). This opinion, however, was somewhat contradicted by later authors such as Chaplen (1970), Morrison (1974), and Ryan (1979), who discounted the importance of discriminating sounds and emphasized the need for learners to understand the context of an authentic listening text.

This change in attitude towards listening comprehension was described by Davies (1977) as a move away from linguistics toward what is known as sociolinguistics and from breaking listening tasks down into discrete parts toward integrating them and building them up into the whole. Therefore, comprehension questions should test whether students can get the gist of a monologue or dialogue. The questions require learners to pick out ideas as opposed to individual words or phrases.

TEACHER FEEDBACK

Once learners submit their listening comprehension answers, the teacher decides what constitutes an error and deciphers how it arose in connection to the video clip. Carter (1987) points out that locating an error in language production due to lexis is not easy. In analyzing general lexical errors, he shows that:

> In the early stages of learning a language, errors may result from a mismatch in morphophonemic correspondence (the fit between sound and written form), from... failing to locate grammatical dependencies, from inaccurate first language transfer (often leading to specific semantic errors), and from intralingual confusion, that is, as a result of failing to distinguish appropriately between and among lexical items in the target language. (p. 65)

Teachers can correct student writing, offer tips, and even send back model answers through email. Over time, such sources of student data will give teachers a good idea as to what level of input students can manage successfully. In addition, a closer bond may develop between the teacher and student as non-task issues also enter the email correspondence. On top of this, email submissions provide teachers with a wealth of data for doing more comprehensive research into what types of errors students make in listening tasks.

TECHNICAL LAYOUT

In great numbers, teachers from elementary school up to higher education are trying to equip themselves with the technical skills necessary for using information technology in the classroom. These skills are time-consuming to develop, but with patience, they can lead to a listening project that can be reliable and accessible and provide learners with personal care. Here is a brief example of a process for setting up a project.

1. Build a Web page with html/JavaScript. If you want more elaborate features (e.g., moving video screen panels, and appearing and disappearing objects, etc.) for effect, you can use a variety of software available on the market.
2. Acquire a video-capturing device for transmitting information from a TV to your computer. (Make sure you comply with copyright regulations!) This device can be connected externally or in the form of a card that fits into your computer hard drive.
3. Once you have the video clip in your computer as a file (e.g., AVI, MPG, MOV etc.), you will need to edit it with video-editing software. Tasks will include cutting frames from the clip, adding transitions (e.g., fading in and fading out), and text, if need be.
4. When you have the video clip in a form that is presentable to students, you have to lighten it so that it will be accessible for most computers. More technically, the video clip needs to be compressed, which can be done by downloading a suitable encoder (e.g., WME, Helix, etc.).
5. Finally, you need to make sure that the website's form boxes will transmit student information to the teacher through email. Some people use what is known as the "mailto" code, but CGI script from an Internet provider is far more reliable.

The individual teacher can manipulate the technical details. Assuming that everything goes smoothly up to this point, future problems will undoubtedly occur. Technology is often unpredictable, as Internet servers go down and some days are just bad days for video digitizing. In addition, students inevitably need technical support, which can be time-consuming. Nevertheless, greater technical skills and preparation on the part of the teacher will minimize these hiccups.

CONCLUSION

Listening exercises have always been a part of language learning. However, since the advent of CALL (computer-assisted language learning), listening tasks can finally be more readily accessible to learners. The effectiveness of these activities may depend on the ability of the teacher to assess learner aptitude, provide pre-listening support, ensure that the listening material is technically reliable, and build a network that allows learners to submit writing and receive personalized feedback.

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Assessment

Native Korean-Speaking English Teachers-in-Training Assessing English Pronunciation: Validation of the English Pronunciation Test and Comparison of Two Assessment Techniques

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ABSTRACT

This study is part of a program of systematic research of English pronunciation assessment in Korea. Research investigating the utilityof the English Pronunciation Test (EPT; Kim & Margolis, 1999) by native Korean speakers will be briefly outlined. Furthermore, the micro/discrete assessment technique of the EPT will be compared to the micro/discrete technique of the Newly Developed testing technique. In addition, this paper will present statistical results demonstrating the utility of the EPT by native Korean-speaking English teachers-in-training in assessing English pronunciation.

These coordinated research projects attempt to address the following English pronunciation assessment questions: (a) What should be attended when assessing English pronunciation (macro/holistic vs. micro/discrete), (b) How reliable are the assessments of a single assessor (*intra-assessor*reliability) and between two or more independent assessors (*inter-assessor* reliability), and (c) Is it possible for non-native English speakers to assess English pronunciation accurately and reliably?

The results demonstrate the utility of the EPT in showing (a) the reliability of both macro/holistic and micro/discrete assessments by native Korean speakers, (b) ahigh degree of consistency of assessment for any one single assessor as well as among the various independent assessors, demonstrating both *intra-* and *inter-assessor* reliability, (c) accurate and reliable assessment of English pronunciation by native Korean speakers, and (d) the superiority of the EPT assessment technique in comparison to another assessment technique.

INTRODUCTION

Nelson (1998) raised an important question concerning the assessment of English pronunciation: To what degree can teachers "effectively and consistently evaluate speaking characteristics of students" (p. 19)? In short, this question addresses test reliability: Can a single teacher grading the same test more than once arrive at similar results? Nelson looked at *intra-assessor* reliability and found correlations were high for first- and second-time assessment by one assessor of the same pronunciation material, therefore, demonstrating intra-assessor reliability.

Kim and Margolis (1999) developed the English Pronunciation Test (EPT) as

an extension to Nelson's initial study, improving upon it in several important ways. First, an *inter-assessor* dimension was included in the study, thus incorporating the investigation of assessment reliability of two independent assessors. Second, a greater range of pronunciation features for assessment was included, containing samplings of specific (micro/discrete) instances of a particular pronunciation feature, based upon greater clarification of feature specifications (definitions/criteria). Third, a newly developed script provided standardized reading material to be assessed, containing components conducive to micro/discrete assessment.

Kim and Margolis (1999) found high correlations between first and second total assessment scores for both assessors, demonstrating intra-assessor reliability. Also found were high correlations between assessors on both first and second assessments, demonstrating inter-assessor reliability. Accordingly, they stated these outcomes enabled their test to be used in the classroom to consistently assess English pronunciation of Korean students. In addition, because the test targeted each pronunciation feature separately using specific samples, it permitted a highly detailed assessment.

Woo and Lee (2000) also replicated the original Kim and Margolis (1999) study. The two assessors in their study were native Korean speakers with extensive English exposure experiences. They found high correlations between total scores, providing statistical evidence that native Korean speakers ability to assess English pronunciation of Korean students using tests and procedures developed by Kim and Margolis. In their view, given the language differences between native and non-native speakers of English, that non-native speakers could achieve assessment results similar to those of native speakers is an important finding.

BRIEF OUTLINE OF PRESENT RESEARCH STUDIES

The primary focus of this presentation is to address the following research questions: (a) Will a replication of the Woo and Lee (2000) study yield similar results, i.e., will other native Korean speakers (in this study, five other Koreans) be able to assess English pronunciation reliably, as found in Woo and Lee (2000), and (b) Between the EPT assessment technique and a newly developed technique, which would result in superior intra- and inter-assessor assessment reliability of consonant/vowel sounds?

Procedurally, this study replicated the original Kim and Margolis (1999) study, utilizing a new set of reading recordings produced and assessed by the native Korean speakers (NKSs). The demographics for the NKSs are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographics of Native Korean Speakers

Number of Assessors	5 native Korean speakers
Gender	All female
Age(mean)	26.2 years old

Table 2 contains information concerning the amount of English exposure experiences for the NKSs. Kim & Margolis' (2000) English Listening and Speaking Exposure Survey was utilized to determine the amount of English speaking and listening exposure by the NKSs. As can be seen in the table, the English teachers had a limited amount of exposure to English language listening and speaking experiences, a total of 319.2 lifetime hours in Korea. However, these native Korean speakers were also asked about their travel (and study) to English-speaking countries. The travel experiences to English-speaking countries, were found to be on average 15.6 months per NKS, which represents 1.3 years of travel to an English-speaking country. These results suggest that, despite a limited amount of English listening and speaking exposure in Korea, they have had an extensive amount of exposure to the English language during their travels to English-speaking countries.

Table 2. English Exposure of Native Korean-Speaking English Teachers

Instructor/Instructional Category	Native English Speaker	Native Korean Speaker
Academic Institution: ***School***	48.0	9.6
Private Institution: ***Hagwon***	170.4	14.4
Individual Private: ***Tutor***	76.8	0.0
Total Hours: ***Lifetime***	295.2	24.0

Note: Mean lifetime hours of English listening and speaking exposure

REPLICATION OF WOO & LEE (2000)

Table 3 shows correlation results for inter-assessor reliability of NKSs analyses for their first assessment. That is, the results address the question of whether NKSs can consistently assess English pronunciation similar to other NKSs and native English speakers (NESs).

As shown in the table there is a high level of correlation among all the NKSs for total scores,[1] testifying to the consistency of assessment of English pronunciation among the NKSs and a NES. Also, there are significant correlations between the total scores for NKSs and the NES, suggesting that the NKSs are able to assess English pronunciation similar to NESs.[2]

Table 3. Inter-Assessor Reliability of NKSs and NES: Total Scores

Total Scores:First Assessment							
		Assessment					
		NKS 1	NKS 2	NKS 3	NKS 4	NKS 5	NKS 1
Assessment	NKS 1	1.00					
	NKS 2	.93	1.00				
	NKS 3		.83	1.00			
	NKS 4	.92	.81	.91	1.00		
	NKS 5	.93	.96	.93	.92	1.00	
	NKS 1	.95	.97	.85	.86	.95	1.00

Note: Only correlations that reached a significance level of p> .01 or p> .05 (underlined) are displayed.
NKS = Native Korean Speaker, NES = Native English Speaker

COMPARISON OF ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

The above results in Table 3 shows correlation results for total scores among the NKSs. The following section examines results derived from one of the micro/discrete assessments, i.e., consonants and vowels. Table 4 shows correlation results for inter-assessor reliability assessment scores of NKSs and NESs, comparing their consonant score assessments for the first assessment, using the EPT assessment technique and the Newly Developed (ND) assessment technique. The EPT technique embedded to-be-assessed words into a sentence, while the ND assessment technique presented isolated single words for assessment.

Table 4. Comparison of Assessment Techniques: Consonants

EPT / Newly Developed							
		Assessment					
		NKS 1	NKS 2	NKS 3	NKS 4	NKS 5	NKS 1
Assessment	NKS 1	1.00					
	NKS 2	.71/.70	1.00				
	NKS 3		NS/.77	1.00			
	NKS 4	.66/.73	.91/NS		1.00		
	NKS 5	.72/.73	NS/.84	NS/.81	.65/.80	1.00	
	NKS 1	.80/.73	.89/.85	NS/.78	.85/.87	.78/.93	1.00

Note: Only correlations that reached a significance level of p> .01 or p> .05 (underlined) are displayed.
NKS = Native Korean Speaker, NES = Native English Speaker

The results address the question of which assessment technique (EPT or ND) is superior in producing reliable assessments of consonants sounds. As the shown in the table both techniques produced relatively similar numbers of significant correlations (EPT=9/15, ND=12/15), suggesting that both techniques

were similar in producing reliable assessment of consonant sounds.

A dramatically different pattern of results can be seen when assessing vowel sounds. Table 5 shows correlation results for inter-assessor reliability assessment scores of NKSs and an NES comparing their vowel score assessments for the first assessment, using the EPT assessment technique and the ND assessment technique. As mentioned above, the EPT technique embedded to-be-assessed words into a sentence, while the ND assessment technique presented isolated single words for assessment. The results address the question of which assessment technique (EPT or ND) is superior in producing reliable assessments of vowel sounds. As shown in the table, it would seem that the two techniques produced a drastically different pattern of significant correlations, with only one correlation result being significant for the ND technique, compared to ten significant correlations for the EPT technique, suggesting that the ND technique produces unreliable assessments, while the EPT assessment technique produces relatively reliable assessments. These results clearly show the EPT assessment technique to be superior to the ND assessment technique.

Table 5. Comparison of Assessment Techniques: Vowels

EPT / Newly Developed							
		Assessment					
		NKS 1	NKS 2	NKS 3	NKS 4	NKS 5	NKS 1
Assessment	NKS 1	1.00					
	NKS 2	.81/NS	1.00				
	NKS 3	.76/NS	.79/NS	1.00			
	NKS 4				1.00		
	NKS 5	.66/NS	.86/NS	.74/NS	NS/.74	1.00	
	NKS 1	.84/NS	.89/NS	.72/NS		.88/NS	1.00

Note: Only correlations that reached a significance level of p> .01 or p> .05 (underlined) are displayed.
NKS = Native Korean Speaker, NES = Native English Speaker

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the above results show that native Korean speakers are able to assess English pronunciation consistently using the EPT. Also, it was shown that the ETP technique is superior in producing reliable assessments when assessing vowel sounds; however, for consonant sounds, the two assessment techniques (ETP and ND) were similar in producing relatively reliable assessments.

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FOOTNOTES

[1]Total scores were derived by tabulating scores from all micro/discrete categories from the EPT. That is, scores from the following micro/discrete categories: (a) *first language interference* to English pronunciation, (b) *vowel articulation*, (c) *consonant articulation* (d) *suffix articulation*, (e) *syllable stress*, (f) *intonation*, and (g) *rhythm*.

[2]Similar results were found by Kim (2002), i.e., a significant and high degree of correlations among a group of ten NKS English teachers and two NES English teachers.

The Prerequisite English Course: Efficient or Not?

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ABSTRACT

According to Islamic Azad University (IAU) regulations, those entering students whose raw scores are below 33.3 in the English subtest of the IAU entrance examination should take the Prerequisite English Course (PEC), the syllabus of which is purely structure-based. If the PEC is to continue as a means of improving the English proficiency of low-ability students, it must be rigorously evaluated, and if necessary, substantially altered. The main purpose of this experimental research was to determine whether the PEC could lead to a higher attainment of English language proficiency. A total of 1657 freshmen in 22 different majors at IAU-Ardabil were the subjects of this study. Following a one-group pretest-posttest design, seven different tests were administered to them twice in the form of pretests and posttests. Although very slight improvements were witnessed, the outcome indicated no efficiency on the part of the PEC. Therefore, fundamental modifications in both the textbook and syllabus seem inevitable.

INTRODUCTION

In the last century, language teaching methodology has changed in approach and method of grammar teaching. From the mid to late 19th century, the dominant trend was a non-communicative approach. With the Grammar-Translation Method, grammar was taught deductively in an organized and systematic way through studying grammar rules, which were practiced in the form of translation exercises. The Direct Method, best exemplified by the Berlitz Method, reflected the Reform Movement after the age of the Grammar-Translation Method. Here, grammar was taught inductively although there was still an emphasis on the usefulness of teaching correct grammatical structures.

In the 1950s, the Audiolingual Method, derived from Structural Linguistics, appeared in the United States. In structural linguistics, an important tenet is that the primary medium of language is oral. The linguistic system is pyramidally structured, i.e., phonemic systems lead to morphemic systems, which in turn, lead to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

With a paradigm shift since the mid-1970s, sociolinguists such as Hymes have offered the notion of communicative competence to language teaching, which now aims at focusing on communicative proficiency by replicating contextual and purposive features of real communication in the classroom. One of the primary characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is that

the target linguistic system is learnt best through the process of struggling to communicate.

Not only sociolinguistics but also psycholinguistics played an important role in the decline of grammar instruction in language teaching methodology. This process was intensified by the notion of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), offered by Chomsky and others in the 1960s and 1970s. They claimed that every human being is born with a LAD, which contains basic knowledge about the nature and structure of human language. Chomsky's conception of the child acquiring his mother tongue and being equipped with a LAD has had a great influence on Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Tonkyn (1994) stated:

> Krashen's view of the second language acquisition process according to which an inbuilt acquisitional mechanism would operate under the right conditions of comprehensible input and low affective filter, marginalized the role of form-focused instruction. (p. 4)

However, a rediscovery of grammar has been observed both in mother-tongue teaching and teaching English as a second/foreign language since the mid-1980s. Krashen's approach to the learner's internalized language has been questioned and the importance of externalized language or formal instruction has been acknowledged instead. According to Tonkyn (1994), Ellis (1993) has suggested that dimensions such as the complexity of processing operations and of form-function relationships may explain the degree of teachability of different grammatical forms and posits the necessity of formal instruction so that premature fossilization may be prevented. Also, in an interview (Ellis and Hedge, 1993), Ellis has commented that consciousness-raising might help learners to construct their own explicit grammar.

Swain and Lapkin (1995) have questioned the adequacy of practicing pure communicative approaches in leading to an ideal proficiency and insisted on the necessity of some sort of formal instruction and focus on form. The present authors take the position of Swain and Lapkin. It should, of course, be noted that advocating some formal instruction and focus on form does not at all mean that language teachers and instructors should make a U-turn back to the traditional methods of language teaching, but rather it refers to the inclusion of some formal grammar instruction in the class with meaning still playing the number-one role. "Focus on form...overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991, pp. 45-46).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The Prerequisite English Course (PEC), which has long been offered in Iranian universities, has a structural syllabus. The PEC is expected to build on the students' previous English knowledge and raise it to a threshold level (criterion raw score of 33.3 out of a possible score of 100 on the nationwide university matriculation examination). This paves the way for the students to take courses such as English for General Purposes (EGP), and more importantly, English for Specific Purposes (ESP). A brief review of the syllabus indicates that teaching grammatical forms in this course is the focal point and the

instructors are required to teach only the structures of English in the PEC, so they naturally pay less attention to functions and notions considered to be of utmost significance in communicative English language teaching.

Consistent with the structural syllabus, the main coursebook for the PEC, *Grammar Through Patterns* (Khademzadeh, 2000) appears to be an attempt to cover the grammatical points identified in the syllabus; hence, it is a structure-based coursebook. To what extent the PEC can be a success or failure is the main focus of the present study. Reviewing the existing literature on the PEC, grammatical syllabi, focus on form, and grammar instruction leads to the following research question: Does the PEC lead to a significantly higher attainment of English language proficiency?

METHOD

SUBJECTS

The subjects of this study were initially the 2030 students who took the PEC in the Islamic Azad University (IAU) of Ardabil, Iran, during the period July, 2003, to Januray, 2004. All of these students had scored below 33.3 in the English subtest of the 2003 nationwide IAU entrance examination. In order to make the experimental group more homogeneous, only freshmen were included, eliminating the sophomores taking the PEC. Those students whose pretest scores were not available and those who were absent from the posttest session were excluded from the study. All guest students from other IAU branches were also excluded. After all these reductions, the number of students came to 1657 in 49 intact PEC classes of students in 22 majors (see Table 1 below).

Table 1. Classification of University Courses and Number of Students per Course, Category, and Group

AAD	Industrial Electricity	94	148	AAD=Associate of Arts Degree
	Horticulture	15		
	Physical Education	39		
MS	Obstetrics	42	92	MS=Medical Sciences
	Nursing	48		
	Medicine	2		
FL	English Language and Literature	65	65	FL=Foreign Languages
EAS	Agriculture	62	335	EAS=Empirical and Agricultural Sciences
	Chemistry	125		
	Empirical Sciences	148		
MES	Power Engineering	90	181	MES=Mathematical and Engineering Sciences
	Mathematics	91		

H	H2	Law	97	477	836
		Persian Literature	82		
		TPLL	147		
		Religious Studies	63		
		Theology Teaching	27		
		Theology	61		
	H1	Management	181	359	
		Elementary Education	69		
		Psychology	55		
		Geography	54		

H=Humanities

TPLL=Teaching Persian Language and Literature

The testing office of IAU divides university courses into the following seven main groups: Humanities (H), Mathematical and Engineering Sciences (MES), Arts, Empirical and Agricultural Sciences (EAS), Foreign Languages (FL), Medical Sciences (MS), and Associate of Arts Degree (AAD). IAU-Ardabil has no courses belonging to the third group (Arts). All of the remaining six main groups have one relevant category, except the first group (Humanities), which has two. These seven categories have one or more subcategories, each one consisting of a number of courses (group > category > sub-category > course). Table 1 above shows the number of students per course, category and group.

Of the 1657 students, 686 were male and 971 were female. Table 2 presents the distribution of subjects with regard to sex in the different groups.

Table 2. Composition of the Subjects in the Study

Sex \ Group	H	MES	EAS	FL	MS	AAD	Total
Male	338	103	126	0	0	119	686
Female	498	78	209	65	104	17	971

H = Humanities
MES = Mathematical and Engineering Sciences
EAS = Empirical and Agricultural Sciences
FL = Foreign Languages
MS = Medical Sciences
AAD = Associate of Arts Degree

MATERIALS

All the instructors of this course agreed to teach the book *Grammar Through Patterns*, which was strongly recommended by the Central Organization of IAU.

Seven different tests were used in this research because there were seven categories of subject areas at IAU-Ardabil. That is, the university entrance examination is different for each of the seven categories. All of these seven tests were parallel, with each test consisting of four main item types: structure, vocabulary, cloze, and reading comprehension. All BA students had four hours of instruction per week in a four-credit PEC, while the AA students had two hours of instruction per week in a two-credit course. In both cases, the course length

was 16 weeks.

PROCEDURES

Each of the seven different tests was administered twice – once as a pretest and again as a posttest. The administration of the first test (pretest) was in the form of the administration of the actual English subtest of the nationwide IAU matriculation (university entrance) examination while the second test (posttest) was the end-of-term examination in the PEC (the same exam as the pretest), taken simultaneously by all of the subjects. In a meeting, all 17 PEC instructors were briefed about the details of the project. The syllabus was offered and discussed.

All of the pretest scores of the examinees were downloaded from the IAU website, www.azmoon.org. Because of exam security precautions, researchers themselves scored all of the 1657 exams. In scoring both the pretest and posttest, one point was deducted for every three wrong answers.

DESIGN AND ANALYSES

This study was a pre-experimental one with a one-group pretest-posttest design. The PEC was the independent variable, and the relevant dependent variable was achievement in English language proficiency, while sex and methodology were moderator variables. The study had three control variables, namely syllabus, textbook, and final exam. The variable of syllabus was controlled since all the instructors were supposed to follow the same syllabus offered by the Higher Programming Council of the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. With regard to the textbook, all instructors agreed on teaching the same book, so this variable was also controlled. And the variable of the final exam was controlled since all examinees took their tests simultaneously.

The statistical analyses used in this project were the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test and eta squared ($\eta 2$).

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for scores on the pretest and posttest are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Pretest and Posttest

	N	M	SD	T-Value of Skewness	T-Value of Kurtosis
Pretest	1657	6.412	9.823	14.783**	.483 ns
Posttest	1657	9.260	11.812	10.633**	7.441**

**p< 0.01
ns = not significant

A quick look at Table 3 reveals that the distributions of both pretest and posttest scores are not normal.

Figures 1 and 2 present the histograms for pretest and posttest scores of the students, respectively. Figure 1 shows that the histogram of pretest scores is positively skewed, and Figure 2 shows that the histogram of posttest scores is both positively skewed and peaked. Since neither set of scores is normally distributed, in order to compare the performance of participants on the pretest and posttest, the Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-ranks test was applied.

Figure 1. Students' Scores on Pretest

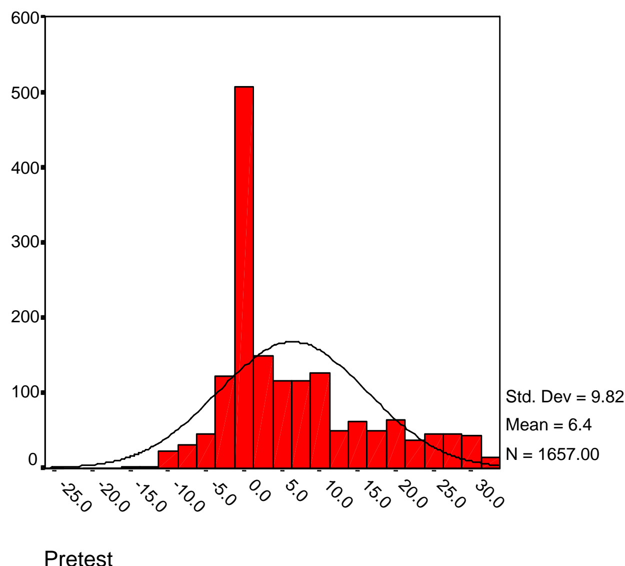

Figure 2. Students' Scores on Posttest

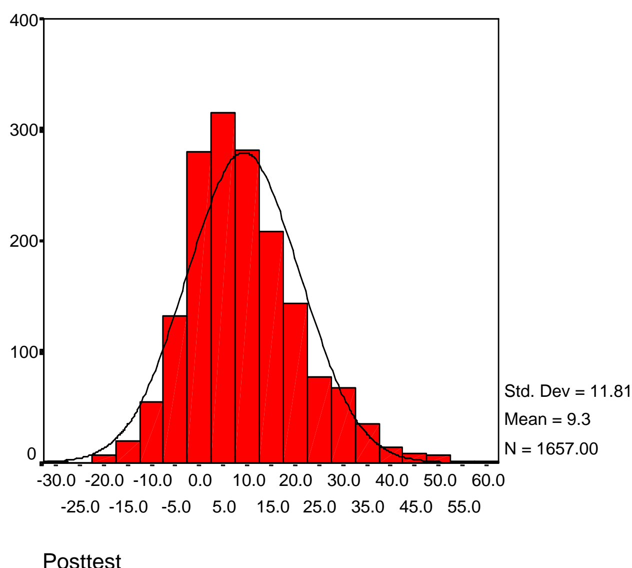

Table 4 presents the results of the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test. It indicates that the performance of students on the pretest and posttest

were different at the 0.01 probability level, so the major null hypothesis of the research, which takes students' performance on both tests to be the same, can be rejected.

Table 4. Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test on Pretest and Posttest

Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
-10.256 [a]	.000

a. Based on negative ranks.

In order to check the importance of differences between pretest and posttest scores, that is, to determine how much of the overall variability in the data can be accounted for by the PEC, we should determine its strength of association. Eta squared (η^2) was used to measure the strength of association, which came to be 0.06. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is only a weak relationship between the two variables (achievement in English and the PEC). The overlap of the two variables is only 6%, leaving 94% yet to be accounted for. With this association, we would not be very confident of our conclusion that the two variables of achievement and PEC are related in an important way. Accordingly, there are other factors that need to be highlighted in future research. A look at the mean pretest and posttest scores of students in Table 3 above also shows that the students' mean performance rose only from 6.412 on the pretest to 9.260 on the posttest, which is again far from reaching the criterion score of 33.3.

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Prerequisite English Course (PEC) in raising students' threshold level to meet the criterion raw score of 33.3 set in the nationwide university matriculation examination. However, the results revealed that the course has not achieved its goal mean scores rose from only 6.412 to 9.260. By using IAU's own evaluative devices we have shown that the PEC has not been able to meet the course objective of raising students' English proficiency to the level of 33.3 on the PEC final examination.

There are two probable reasons for this failure. The first reason seems to be related to the syllabus, which is a structural one. In such a syllabus, there is no emphasis on communication, and the student is only learning to manipulate discrete segments of language without actively participating in the negotiation of meaning in different linguistic tasks. The researchers recommend an amalgam of communicative and structural syllabi for the PEC as each of these two syllabi is not satisfactory per se.

The second reason for failure may be associated with the recommended textbook, which is again a structural one. It is full of direct explanations of grammatical rules followed by monotonous exercises that focus only on structures. Such materials in language teaching are already obsolete. There are

no communicative tasks or exercises in the book, so the researchers propose the use of a textbook which is communicatively organized with occasional focuses on form.

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Tonkyn, A. (1994). Introduction: Grammar and the language teacher. In M. Bygate, A. Tonkyn, and E. Williams (Eds.), *Grammar and the language teacher* (pp. 1-14). London: Prentice Hall International. structures. Such materials in language teaching are already obsolete. There are no communicative tasks or exercises in the book, so the researchers propose the use of a textbook which is communicatively organized with occasional focuses on form.

Mind the Gap: INSET Needs and Provisions

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ABSTRACT

With global concerns about the importance of lifelong learning, teachers' in-service education (INSET) has already become an issue for many countries. In Taiwan, both the government and English teachers largely acknowledge the importance of it. However, do INSET providers clearly know what these teachers need, and do they accordingly offer proper training? This paper examines English teachers' perceptions of their INSET needs and current INSET provisions in Taiwan. The findings suggest that, firstly, a deep perceptional gap exists between English teachers and INSET provisions. This is because teachers' voices are not heard sufficiently, their differentiated needs are not accommodated properly, and their demands for involvement in designing INSET are not adopted seriously. However, the results also indicate that most English teachers in the study have reflective attitudes towards their work role, which implies their INSET needs should be identified more directly, and correctly, to enhance self-reflection and improve their teaching. A reflective teaching model is provided for promoting teachers' reflective teaching. The study also suggests that it is not simply the providers' and teachers' jobs to make INSET work, but also that the school itself must play an important role.

INTRODUCTION

In 1998, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan enacted a series of procedures to develop INSET (In-service Teacher Education), which is part of *New Actions in Education, 1998* (Ministry of Education, 1998). The act emphasizes the urgency of amending laws in order to encourage teachers to join INSET and to set up of a series of programs to facilitate teachers' self-development. Hence many public and private institutions in Taiwan are eager to provide teachers with as many INSET programs as possible (this is a huge market for profits).

The government and the teachers both realize the importance of INSET. However, what about the INSET providers? Do they clearly understand what these teachers really need in INSET? Is there a gap between teachers' perceived INSET needs and the INSET provision? This is the major concern motivating the present study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

INSET

Teachers are living in a spreading, moving world, and an effective teacher needs to realize that the content of the subjects and topics s/he teaches is changing fast, especially the pursuit of a broad range of subject knowledge and a large repertoire of teaching skills (Wragg, Haynes, Wragg, & Chamberlin, 2000). An understanding of the needs of continuous education, and career-long professional development for teachers, have therefore occurred rapidly since the 1990s (Burgess, Connor, Galloway, Morrison & Newton, 1993).

Teachers' educational activities can be termed *in-service teacher education* or *in-service teacher training*, depending on the purpose or context of an activity. However, some argue that there should be a clear distinction between these. Purdy (as cited in L.G. Peng, 2000, p. 16) explains that *teacher training* simply focuses on acquiring how to use different teaching methods, procedures, or skills. However, *teacher education* also includes the changes of personal teaching attitudes, belief, affect, and behavior. Nevertheless, some do not emphasize the difference and thus may use the two terms interchangeably (Roberts, 1998).

Johnston (1971) sharply points out two main aspects relating to INSET. I define one aspect as *internal growth* and the other as *external growth*. The former refers to the fact that INSET can help teachers extend knowledge, consolidate and reaffirm knowledge, acquire new knowledge, acquaint themselves with curriculum and psychological developments, realize educational changes, and develop new teaching methods/skills. In addition, teachers can develop greater understanding, better performance, an understanding of education systems, self-respect, and self-satisfaction (Johnston, 1971). When the importance of INSET is examined contextually, it can then help restore the status of teachers (Ho, 1982).

Second, INSET can increase the quality of citizens in a nation. Teachers' attitudes towards learning can influence those of their students, who are future citizens. Besides, Wu (1995) also clearly points out why teachers need INSET. He proposes that modern teachers need INSET to help them adapt in a fast-changing world, either in their roles as teachers or in the acquisition of new knowledge.

L.G. Peng (2000) further develops some of Wu's viewpoints. He mentions that INSET can raise the issue of lifelong learning for teachers, which is currently a major concern in education worldwide. As mentioned by Johnston (1971), teachers can view INSET as necessary or important for them in their pursuit of a higher salary, status, or promotion, or by impetus from their school or government/laws.

LAWS RELATED TO INSET IN TAIWAN

Generally, teachers in primary and secondary schools in Taiwan are obligated to attend any INSET courses for at least 18 hours (equal to one credit) accumulated within an academic year or 90 hours (equal to five credits) accumulated within five academic years. *The Regulations on the Pursuit of Professional Development for Primary and Secondary School Teachers in*

Taiwan (Ministry of Education, 1996) also states that for teachers' professional development, teachers are guaranteed and encouraged to "attend in-service training programs or visit other schools and observe their teaching, to study in graduate schools for credits or degrees, and to do research, approved by the authorities concerned" (Du, 1999).

Currently, the types of INSET in Taiwan normally include regular in-school conferences, school-based courses, school-based workshops, long INSET courses, short INSET courses, peer observation, and private study (Du, 1999). In addition, with the spread of the Internet, the government also encourages each school to design websites providing INSET resources for teachers to access easily (Ministry of Education, 1998).

Indeed, as Roberts (1998) says, there is still a shortage of empirical research into INSET for English teachers whose mother tongue is not English. This statement is also applicable to Taiwan. Lu (1999), in his Ph.D. thesis, used questionnaires to investigate the problems of teachers' professional development in primary schools. He classifies the reasons that influence teachers' intentions for joining INSET. These factors include gender, teaching experience, degrees, jobs, the scale and location of schools, and the credits and length of INSET courses.

Quite different from Lu's (1999) research method, Chang (2000) used a case study consisting of observation, interviews, and document analysis with three primary school teachers, to discuss the relationship between INSET and professional development in Taiwan. She discovered that with the help of INSET, the participants were able to re-examine themselves continuously (self-reflection), increase their confidence in teaching, acquire new teaching methods, and open their minds to absorb other's experience and new knowledge. These four points exactly match what Johnston (1971) states are the reasons teachers need INSET.

In her study, L.G. Peng (2000) discusses the advantages and necessities of carrying out school-based INSET in Taiwan, but she also mentions some problems it may confront. These include the fact that successful school-based INSET should also greatly rely on support from other (including teaching and administrative) staff, the principal, school culture, educational environment, and social condition. Concerning the likely difficulties of carrying out school-based INSET, Eason (1985) mentions that introducing some changes into schools may result in pressure to both individual teachers and to staff as a whole, which makes some become aggressive, some gloomy, and others withdrawn. What is worse, mistrust may possibly permeate the school within an atmosphere of tension.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, there are three main aims. Firstly, I set out to identify the English teachers' perceived needs in INSET courses in Taiwan. Secondly, I investigate whether there is a gap between English teachers' INSET needs and INSET provision in Taiwan. The final aim is to offer INSET providers in Taiwan with suggestions made by the language teachers, to make their INSET design more suitable and helpful. Accordingly, these three research questions were set:

- What are the perceived INSET needs of English teachers in Taiwan?
- To what extent do the English teachers think that current INSET provisions

match their needs?
- How can the INSET provision be made more helpful, relevant, or appropriate to their needs?

This study is divided into two stages, and two different research methods are used (open questionnaire and semi-structured interview). There were 17 non-native English teachers who participated. The questions in the questionnaire are:

- Have you ever taken any INSET courses before? If so, what were they about?
- What made you take these INSET courses?
- What are your general comments on these INSET courses? (Suitable, useful, met your needs, any difficulty before or while taking them?)
- What areas of study do you think you need in INSET courses?
- What suggestions do you have for the INSET providers?
- Have you experienced any problems in taking INSET courses so far?

The interviews were semi-structured and designed to probe deeper perceptions about INSET needs and provisions. Key questions included (a) what will make you believe you need INSET courses, (b) what kinds of course do you need urgently, (c) what further comments do you have on INSET providers and provisions in Taiwan, and (d) what are the most likely factors to discourage you from taking an INSET course?

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

For each question, I will show the question first, and then list the categorized responses. Finally, I will discuss what the responses mean with reference to the literature.

HAVE YOU EVER TAKEN ANY INSET COURSES BEFORE? IF SO, WHAT WERE THEY ABOUT?

All respondents replied that they had taken INSET courses before in Taiwan. They were about:

- Professional teaching in English: methodologies/methods (including how to teach writing, reading, listening, and speaking), how to implement the new curriculum, innovative teaching (e.g., activities and materials design), testing, and evaluation.
- Competence in being a teacher: classroom management, computer skills, collaborative teaching and learning, special needs education, teacher appraisal, evaluation of peer-teaching, art therapy, and relationship management with parents.
- Lifelong learning for a teacher: personal development, career planning, and lifelong education.
- Personal interests: the death-experience (to experience the feeling of being dead), Chinese and western paintings, and English literature.

It is interesting to note that most teachers in the study viewed the courses on how to teach English efficiently as the priority, compared with other INSET topics. From this, it can be inferred that since English is not these teachers' native language, they need a sense of security when teaching. Therefore, the teachers need these INSET courses to increase confidence in their English teaching ability. Roberts (1998, p. 97) asserts that one characteristic of the non-native English teachers' learning need is that they "may lack confidence in their English language ability and give their own language improvement a high priority," which is confirmed to some extent from the responses in this study.

Ms. L in her interview said, "When I noticed my students' grades in English decreasing, I realized that it was time for me to take some courses to strengthen my English teaching ability." The question *How do these teachers perceive their INSET needs?* is greatly influenced by the status of English in a society. Both the *purpose of English education* and the *English language curriculum* play crucial roles in affecting how these English teachers perceive their INSET needs (Roberts, 1998).

In Taiwan, English is learned and taught as a foreign language, and is usually related to passing tests. Therefore, when learners do not perform well on tests, many teachers will assume that perhaps it is their fault, and they need some INSET courses about professional teaching, especially those of how to teach English more *effectively*.

WHAT MADE YOU TAKE THESE INSET COURSES?

The reasons why the participants took the INSET courses can be grouped into three types:

- Passive reasons: 13 out of 17 participants replied that they were "forced" or nominated by the school administration to take the courses. Some responded that there was a rotation list in the office, and every English teacher took turns taking INSET courses, regardless of whether they were suitable or not.
- Active reasons: Some respondents said they took the courses because they believed they were helpful, and they thought it was better to keep on learning something new about teaching. Therefore, these participants took part based on their needs and intention
- Passive + Active reasons: Two wrote that taking INSET courses for 18 hours (or one credit) within an academic year is a regulation for teachers in Taiwan. They sometimes attended just to accumulate hours in order to obey the law. These teachers joined actively, without being pressured by their school, but they were passively "pushed" by the regulation.

The responses can also be classified into intrinsic reasons and extrinsic reasons. Those like teacher improvement, self-development, and experience sharing can be intrinsic, while those like a pay-rise, credits, or promotion, are more extrinsic. From the responses, it seems that most teachers have a negative attitude towards what made them take the courses. Self-awareness of why and how to be an English teacher did not figure in strongly; however, there were some examples. One responded, "I believe firmly that teachers should keep learning all the time because the world, our society, and our students are always changing, and we teachers also need some changes to adapt ourselves in this

changing world." Another said, "I clearly know that what I have learned in the teacher's college was too limited and insufficient. I need to grow and need to make my students grow as well. So, I need these courses."

Interestingly, when the two interviewees were asked why they chose to study abroad (the U.K.) for their INSET fulfillments, both replied that in addition to learning the latest English teaching trends, they could also expose themselves to authentic English and its related culture, and that that was very important for an English teacher in Taiwan

WHAT ARE YOUR GENERAL COMMENTS ON THESE INSET COURSES? (SUITABLE, USEFUL, MET YOUR NEEDS, ANY DIFFICULTY BEFORE OR WHILE TAKING THEM?)

The responses can be categorized into two major groups, positive and negative.

- Positive: A large majority agreed that to some extent INSET courses are useful, helpful, interesting, inspiring, and innovative. They said the courses generally introduced new teaching activities, updated teachers' knowledge, helped them deal with classroom problems, and met their needs.
- Negative: The participants complained that sometimes the courses were too theoretical, irrelevant, and not practical in a real classroom. The speakers were usually experts, but only good at conveying, not giving, teaching tips. One mentioned that the speaker only spoke "empty words" because what was said could not realistically be carried out in her classroom. Ms. L. in the interview made the criticism that many INSET courses were sponsored by book publishers, and usually ended with the promotion and sale of a book.

In addition to these comments on the courses, a fair percentage of the participants also expressed having had difficulties in signing up for the courses. For example, some mentioned that they received limited information, the venue was too distant, or the audience size was too limited. Furthermore, it was difficult to find other teachers to cover their classes during the in-term INSET course period, so, unfortunately, they lost the opportunity to participate.

WHAT AREAS OF STUDY DO YOU THINK YOU NEED IN INSET COURSES?

As mentioned earlier, none of the participants were native-speaking English teachers; therefore, how to become competent and confident in teaching English seems to be their highest priority (Roberts, 1998). The areas of study suggested can be grouped into four types as follows.

- Professional English teaching: This refers to those topics of study that can make English teaching more effective. It includes applications of new English teaching methods, effective use of curriculum/materials, innovative teaching and English activities, materials design, evaluation and testing of English teaching, demonstration of effective English teaching, and the introduction of new English teaching methodologies (e.g., communicative approaches).
- Professional teaching: This group refers to those topics that relate to the

teaching profession in general. It includes the application of computers to teaching, student counseling, classroom management, lifelong learning, how to handle learner differences in large classrooms, and how to motivate students in learning.

- Student-related topics: This refers to those topics that focus on helping students in their learning, such as how to make students understand they are learning, how to help students develop learning strategies, and how to keep a good relationship with students' parents.
- Personal interests: This group contains some INSET topics that are not so directly relevant to (English) teaching, though some may argue that the areas of study are still related to teaching to some extent. These areas are about Taiwan culture, drama training, music appreciation, or feminism.

WHAT SUGGESTIONS DO YOU HAVE FOR THE INSET PROVIDERS?

Quite a few suggestions emerged from the participants, either for the lecturers or the course itself, the course provider (institutions), or the teaching schools.

- Suggestions for the lecturers: Most respondents suggested they would like an expert with practical experience in how to teach English, rather than an expert with a huge number of theories. One teacher said, "The lecturer must be an informant or real resource for me rather than a renowned speaker."
- Suggestions for the institutes: The teachers strongly advised that providers should investigate what teachers really need for the INSET before designing any courses. They suggested that providers periodically design a questionnaire researching teacher needs.
- Suggestions for the courses: It seems that nearly all participants responded that what they need is practical knowledge, such as tips, skills, demonstrations, or "secrets" to successful teaching. They did not show much favor for theoretical lectures. This preference is greatly influenced by the status of English teaching in Taiwan.
- Suggestions for the teaching schools: Some teachers replied that they hoped their schools would not force or appoint them to take INSET courses; on the contrary, the schools should know teachers' needs and respect their intentions.

HAVE YOU EXPERIENCED ANY PROBLEMS IN TAKING INSET COURSES SO FAR?

Some of the problems these teachers had experienced have already been transformed into the suggestions they made above. Therefore, their responses to this question may overlap with previous points.

- Personal problems: These include teachers' physical conditions (e.g., sickness or fatigue), a family to take care of, unaffordable registration fee, unqualified background, and difficulty in understanding speakers' English.
- Provider problems: These refer to problems such as a distant venue, unsuitable time, scarce opportunities, and insufficient information about courses.
- Course problems: These refer to courses being irrelevant, boring, unhelpful, or

too theoretical. Speakers frequently offered theories rather than practical suggestions.

- School problems: The participants' schools were not willing to look for teachers to cover for them during INSET. The participants mentioned that they had to exchange many classes with colleagues if they hoped to attend INSET courses, which usually discouraged them from participating. Some respondents felt the schools seemingly did not encourage teachers to take any INSET courses because this would cause problems for the administrative unit or would influence the teaching schedule.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this section, I will discuss the results of this study from three different dimensions: the providers, the teachers, and the schools.

Firstly, there seems to be a gap between English teachers' perceived INSET needs and INSET provision in Taiwan. Many participants complained that either the content of courses or the invited speakers disappointed them, and they found the courses unhelpful. This suggests that teachers' voices and needs have not been researched sufficiently by INSET providers. In general, current INSET courses are usually one- directional. That is, they hope to pass down experts' personal knowledge to each teacher, and to tell him/her to take this knowledge back to the classroom and implement it directly, regardless of differences (teachers, students, and schools) in context (Bax, 1995).

In fact, participants of INSET courses expect to be more involved in such teacher training courses, and also expect that the local context, either from teachers themselves or from students, can be taken into consideration when the courses are designed (Bax, 1995; Du, 1999). Here, constructivists' views on teacher education can provide another perspective for INSET providers. Williams and Burden (1997; as cited in Williams, 1999) propose that each person can construct his/her own knowledge/reality only when the knowledge/theories/ideas make sense to him/her in a personal way. This implies that INSET courses are helpful or meaningful only when input from them matches what teachers perceive in their original knowledge/experience. Therefore, "a constructivist view of LTE (language teacher education) will see an intervention (such as a classroom experience, a lecture on learning theory, or a peer observation) not as a model or as a 'bolt-on' additional bit of content, but as an experience which we select from and then construct in our own way" (Roberts, 1998, p. 24). Hence, what the provider can do is work from each teacher's personal theories (Williams, 1999). In this way, teachers' perceived knowledge/needs should be researched before any INSET course is implemented.

In order to take individual differences into consideration, the topics of INSET courses can be broadened to meet individual needs and local context. It can be suggested that INSET courses should be differentiated on the basis of teachers' service years, specialty, and local context (L.G. Peng, 2000). As Pennington (1990) proposes, teaching can be more effective if a teacher can teach and learn based on his/her knowledge of being a particular teacher and learner.

Secondly, the results imply that most English teachers in the study have reflective attitudes towards their role of being a teacher in general and of being

an English teacher. The premise of suitable INSET course design is teachers' self-awareness. Only when teachers keep reflecting on themselves and their teaching can teachers' needs be identified more directly and correctly. "A reflective teacher knows the art and craft of teaching, and considers it carefully both during and after interaction with students" (Lange, 1990, p. 247).

A teacher is not merely a person who teaches students, but also a researcher who can identify a problem in a classroom and then solve the problem; in other words, teachers also can be initiators in classrooms (McDonald and Shaw, 1993). Classroom action research helps teachers focus on a specific situation or problem in a personal setting. The methods of classroom research can vary depending on teachers' purposes. Interviews, questionnaires, observation, peer-collaboration, fieldwork, documentary analysis, or even interaction with the school can be used (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989).

Vulliamy and Webb's research (1991) reported that teachers who can conduct classroom research claimed the process had brought the greatest impact on their teaching. Besides, research also gives teachers "added motivation, increased confidence, analyzing and evaluating information to inform decision-making and a recognition of the roles of pupils, other staff and institutional structures in the change process" (Vulliamy & Webb, 1991, p. 234). In short, action research serves not only as a means of remedying teaching problems in a classroom, providing teachers with new teaching skills, and heightening self-awareness, but also links the communication gap between teachers and INSET providers (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Therefore, based on this study, action research is highly recommended for teachers' awareness and development.

Thirdly, it is not simply that providers' and teachers' jobs make INSET work, as the school also plays an important role. Vulliamy and Webb (1991) argue that there are, indeed, many thinking and more effective teachers, but not too many thinking schools. In fact, teachers are the learners of INSET, and should be offered the right to choose topics or courses they are interested in and need (S.L. Peng, 2000). If not, it will result in those who need INSET not being allowed to participate, and those who do not need it occupying seats.

It cannot be denied that though school-based INSET still has issues and difficulties in implementation (budgets, workloads, pressure, etc.), it is widely accepted that school-based INSET is still seen as an effective way of transmitting ideas, interests, and values for teachers because it can combine what teachers' need with local context (Eason, 1985; S.L. Peng, 2000; Du, 1999). Another important factor determining teachers' INSET needs is the school culture – the context. Many teaching problems are actually contextualized, and the characteristics of action research are situational, or context-based; collaborative; participatory; and self-evaluative (Nunan, 1990). Therefore, many problems can be solved more efficiently by doing school-based action research and by designing school-based INSET programs for teachers to work through.

S.L. Peng (2000) suggests that schools should encourage teachers to do action research and then share honestly what they have gained with their peers by holding professional discussions or seminars. When the school itself becomes a professional place for INSET courses, the development of teachers and the school can experience a longer-term effect. Hence, he concludes that any INSET course in Taiwan can be more effective if it is designed on the basis of being school-based and teacher-centered.

CONCLUSION

INSET has become a crucial and urgent issue in modern society. However, ironically, the results of this study show that many teachers in Taiwan are not satisfied with current INSET provisions. Both the government and teachers themselves realize that high quality teachers are the base of successful education, and INSET will usually help to promote such quality. Nevertheless, if teachers are simply forced or nominated to participate in unwanted INSET courses, and if there is a gap existing between teachers' perceived INSET needs and current INSET provision, how can we ensure positive effects?

Therefore, the authorities concerned, and INSET providers in Taiwan, are strongly advised to spend some time listening to teachers, investigating what they really need in INSET, and designing appropriate programs with suitable speakers, before any course is implemented. INSET should not be carried out in a top-down direction; instead, it should be built bottom-up. Teachers' needs and voices need to be the basis of INSET implementation. In short, it should be teachers themselves who decide what their INSET needs are, rather than higher authorities or the INSET providers making these decisions.

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The Power of Peer Assessment

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ABSTRACT

This paper addresses instruction techniques such as cooperative learning and peer assessment strategies in the classroom. It is the author's recommendation that universities use cooperative learning and inquiry assessment practices to cultivate critical thinking and reflection skills in students.

INTRODUCTION

Recent trends in higher education show an increase of cooperative learning and peer assessment strategies in the classroom. University and degree courses have theoretical goals such as “students will become autonomous learners” or “students will be able to cooperate effectively in teams.” In practice, however, institutions and educators are struggling to implement peer assessment procedures in the classroom. Internationally, the literature shows that few universities emphasize the process of learning either as a desirable student or an institutional outcome (Hanrahan & Isaacs, 2001).

I recently explored these issues during eight months of teaching undergraduate English at Kanda University of International Studies. The university is located in metropolitan Chiba, Japan. The class is comprised of 22 females and 4 males who are ethnic Japanese between 18 and 19 years of age. The class met four times weekly for 90 minutes and used the communicative language approach prescribed by Johnson (1972).

Through classroom observations, I became interested in instructional techniques that promote students' procedural and conceptual skills, such as time management, negotiating, problem solving, cooperation, critical thinking, reflection, learner responsibility, and inclusion. Therefore, to enhance pedagogical development and student motivation in the classroom, this project was designed to investigate:

- How cooperative learning affects student motivation.
- The impact that criteria-based negotiation assessment will have on student performance.
- The impact that holistic peer assessment will have on student learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW: COOPERATING TO LEARN

Over the past several decades, the use of group work has become widespread in higher education. The literature shows the following:

- Cooperative learning helps build higher-level cognitive skills as well as interpersonal skills (Michaelson, 1992).
- Cooperative groups have been shown to obtain significantly higher post-test achievement scores compared to individualistic groups (Sherman & Thomson, 1986).
- Cooperative groups give rise to a feeling of achieved success, which in turn enhances self-esteem. Students thus look forward to coming to school and meeting their group (Slavin, 1980). This positive feeling towards school is present among students involved in a cooperative group, as compared to others who are not involved in a cooperative learning experience (Slavin, 1987; Divaharan & Lourdusamy, 2002).
- Cooperative experience is considered desirable by potential employers (Cheng & Warren, 2000; Johnson & Johnson, Pierson, & Lyons: 1985 Ravenscroft, 1997).
- Cooperation enhances verbal communication skills (Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot, 2000).
- Group experience promotes learning through encouraging discussion, justification of ideas, conflict resolution, problem solving, leadership, and understanding new perspectives (Ballantyne, Hughes, & Mylonas, 2002; Butcher, Stefani, & Tariq, 1995; Oldfield & MacAlpine, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978, 1981; Webb, 1995).
- Cooperative learning provides a peer group outside of class that can discuss and assimilate information (Brooks & Ammons, 2003).

In the cooperative classroom, time management, negotiation, peer correction, problem solving, and ideas exchange are essentially the learning events.

Benefits outlined by the literature do not account for how universities and teachers should assess problem solving, negotiation, and discussion. Other potential outcomes of cooperative learning include:

- Dysfunctional groups (Beckman, 1990), negative interpersonal relationships (Fiechtner & Davis, 1985).
- Dilemma regarding the assignment of grades for group work; awarding the same mark to all group members vs. awarding individual marks reflecting the contribution of each student (Butcher, Stefani, & Tariq, 1995; Brooks & Ammons, 2003).
- Free riding or social loafing within a group (Brooks & Ammons, 2003).

THE POWER OF ASSESSMENT

Assessment implies that expert judgments are made about student work. These value judgments highlight the discrepancies of power between staff and students, as learning is then limited to what institutions and teachers define as

legitimate.

Clearly, assessment procedures have profound behavioral consequences in the classroom. Boud, Cohen, and Sampson (1999) states:

> Assessment is the principal mechanism whereby staff exercise power and control over students. Assessment practices not only exercise direct influence over students, but also promote forms of self-surveillance which discipline students through their own self-monitoring, without them even being aware what is occurring. Students learn first to distrust their own judgment and then act as agents to constrain themselves. After years of exposure to knowledge-based systems, students have been taught to distrust their innate ability to wonder, to speculate, and to inquire after their own ideas. (p. 413)

The institution's curricular goals, and a teacher's choice of assessment procedure, define the parameters of interaction that will occur in the classroom. Assessment is the mechanism in education that determines our social relationships, communicates which ideas are valued, and identifies which strategies are employed by the teacher and student to be successful. Assessment has been called the single most powerful influence on learning in formal courses (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 1999). Traditional forms of assessment inculcate controls and conformity of thought, and marginalize learning into a simplification of right and wrong answers.

WHY INQUIRY ASSESSMENT?

Research shows that including students to the assessment process affects deeper learning strategies. Inquiry assessment requires students to consider the value, worth, quality, or success of a piece of work produced by peers of similar status (Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot, 2000; Falchikov, 1988; Searby & Ewers, 1997). Ballantyne, Hughes, & Mylonas (2002) argue that peer assessment encourages students to become critical, independent learners as they become more familiar with the application of assessment criteria and develop a clearer concept of the topic being reviewed. Thus, assessment becomes part of the process of learning between stakeholders involved in the event. In summary, peer learning:

- gives students practice in planning and teamwork, and involves them as part of a learning community (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 1999).
- increases possibilities for students to engage in reflection and exploration of ideas when the authority of the teacher is not present (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 1999; Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999).
- allows students to articulate their understanding and have it critiqued by peers, as well as learn from adopting the reciprocal role (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson 1999).
- improves verbal communication and negotiation skills, as well as the ability to give and receive criticism (Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot 2000).
- peer learning is a vital *learning how to learn skill*, and provides practice for the kinds of interaction needed in employment. Learning to cooperate with others to reach mutual goals seems a necessary prerequisite for operating in

a complex society. (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson, 1999; Dochy, Segers, & Sluijsmans, 1999; Mowl & Pain, 1995; Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot, 2000).

Peer assessment enhances cooperative classrooms through group submission and evaluation. McDowell (as cited in Divaharan & Lourdusamy, 2002) found that students who participate in peer assessment foster interpersonal relationships, time, and project management skills, which are all important characteristics of the assessment tasks.

While most staff and students are familiar with traditional assessment methods, peer learning is relatively new. The following section explores assessment techniques that engage students in the evaluation process.

NEGOTIATED ASSESSMENT

Inquiry procedures involve students in the promulgation of assessment criteria, whereby primary stakeholders in the classroom negotiate their learning goals, criteria, or outcomes for assignments (Anderson & Boud, 1996). Incorporating students into the generation of evaluation criteria enhances the transparency of assessment procedures and promotes processing skills during the discourse of assignments. Anderson & Boud (1996) notes that negotiated assessment is often needed in order to accommodate the varying opportunities which exist in peer learning to demonstrate performance. Negotiating assessment is inherently flexible, as students tailor criteria to meet individual or group needs.

Cooperative learning and peer assessment strategies are inquiry techniques that cultivate the conceptual and procedural skills that are valued in higher education, business, and society.

CONCLUSION: THE POWER OF PEER ASSESSMENT

In order to bridge the gap in between theoretical goals and classroom practice, a fundamental shift in institutional priorities, pedagogical approaches, and assessment procedures in higher education is necessary.

Kanda University of International Studies currently is reviewing the Basic English Proficiency Project (BEPP) and has a tremendous opportunity to pioneer autonomous learning and inquiry assessment practices in post-secondary education. All of these suggestions are a step in the right direction towards designing effective assessment programs. They encourage curriculum writers, teachers, and institutions across the globe to promote freedom and responsibility through assessment, which empower students in the spirit of true inquiry.

Experimenting with different types of peer assessment, I discovered that each procedure is used for developing specific skills in the learner. For example, negotiating assessment criteria is an instructional technique that should be used to clarify teacher expectations and criteria for assignments. This activity is inherently flexible across subjects, to measure the final product of assignments.

After reflecting on the action research cycles, the recurring theme with re-

gard to peer assessment was that it has a two-fold effect on student learning. In second language acquisition, the dedicated product skills of reading, writing, discussion, and listening are engaged in the discourse of the assessment task. Students use these skills to achieve the final product of a peer evaluation.

However, the secondary and far more beneficial to student learning is development of the following processing skills:

- Self- and peer-reflection,
- Responsibility, leadership, time management
- Personal values, shared life experiences
- Pooling of human resources
- Clarification, establishment of learning goals
- Mutual cooperation, teamwork
- Conflict resolution, problem solving

Universities that use peer assessment concurrently teach dedicated skills and generate an environment in which deeper skills are more likely to be developed through the process and promulgation of assignments. Therefore, this paper recommends that universities and schools shift the emphasis away from the recycling of product knowledge and to the processing skills of learning.

All of these inquiry strategies use assessment as another vehicle that students can use in order to learn. In the future, I will endeavor to use assessment procedures that incorporate equality, transparency and inquiry in the classroom.

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Intercultural Communication

Promoting Non-culturism in English Teaching in Asia

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ABSTRACT

This proposal is meant to focus on the importance and possibility of English teaching which is not overly inclined towards the cultural aspects of the English speaking world. I will claim that more emphasis must be placed on universal aspects of the teaching contents instead of just on facts related to a particular culture. In order to analyze the non-cultural aspects contained in teaching materials, I will introduce the notion of content elements. Through such an evaluation we will be able to know the degree of universality or particularity of our teaching materials and methods. When we consider the fact that English is now used in multicultural contexts, as for example in this region, it is clear that it is not always necessary to learn a particular English-speaking culture in order to learn the language. It will be more important to develop language skills that facilitate communication in cross-cultural or culture-neutral contexts. The article includes sample applications of content element analysis and some sample material of the kind that the author has used successfully in his teaching.

CULTURISM VS. NON-CULTURISM

Non-culturism in language teaching is a concept based on the view that language can be taught with less emphasis on cultural background and focusing instead of on its communicative and expository functions. In other words, teaching is culture-neutral, but it aims at English which is required for facilitating communication in various cross-cultural situations, or presenting ideas and giving expositions in culture-neutral situation such as conferences and lectures. Non-culturism in teaching will be relevant and meaningful for English in Asia, where the language is mainly used in inter-cultural or cross-cultural settings.

Culturalism, on the contrary, is the concept or approach based on the view that a language and its culture are closely related, and that learning the language entails learning the culture in which it is mainly spoken. For most languages, culturism in learning and teaching is taken for granted, or as a necessity. Learning a language is almost equated to learning the culture. For example, we cannot even imagine learning Korean or Japanese without mention of our food cultures and foods like kimchi or sushi. English is different from Korean and Japanese in this respect.

UNDERSTANDING DIFFERENT CULTURES BY USING ENGLISH

Understanding different cultures by using English and learning English through its background cultures are two different things and should not be confused. We are now well aware of the importance of the former in English teaching, and we often find materials in textbooks dealing with various cultures. However, merely revealing a variety of facts from different cultures will not be sufficient. Particular facts about a particular culture will not go beyond that culture. The present-day role of English is to provide a universal medium through which people encounter various communicative settings and perform communicative activities. In order to create this universal basis, it is important for teachers to be critical about the characteristics of the contents of their teaching materials.

I am not claiming that learning facts about a particular culture is meaningless. In order to achieve better a understanding and communication having some knowledge about different cultures is both useful and necessary. However, learning such facts will not be a primary target; teachers' perspectives have to go beyond that.

CONTENT ELEMENTS VS. GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS

Each piece of teaching material, or each topic, will contain some elements which can be analyzed as constituents of the content, just as each piece of material contains grammatical elements which are related to the language skills to be pursued in a lesson.

Analysis of grammatical elements and grammatical content is well established in the field of linguistics, and language teachers are well aware of its importance, whether they put much greater or lesser emphasis on grammar in their teaching.

Likewise, it is also important to be aware of the constituents of the content in our teaching materials and of the fact that the materials are composed of what I would like to call content elements. This is exactly analogous to the fact that a paragraph is composed of sentences, and a sentence, in turn, consists of smaller elements such as clauses, phrases, words, and morphemes.

My proposal is that in promoting non-culturism in English teaching, teachers should make a conscious effort to find more universal content elements in their teaching materials, evaluate them, and apply them to other materials.

The notion of non-culturism can therefore be restated as an approach or an attitude of teachers by which they place more emphasis on, and address more awareness to, dealing with universal content elements instead of putting emphasis on learning particular facts about a culture. I would like to emphasize that any cultural material can be taught in a non-culture-specific way by having a perspective for universal content elements. The basic tenet underlying non-culturism is that a particular cultural feature of a culture does not go beyond that culture.

HOW TO ANALYZE CONTENT ELEMENTS

(1) is an example of material which exhibits universal content elements. Because of its universality, students are able to develop some skills that are applicable to novel situations. The material is taken from a coursebook unit in which the students are required to describe some countries. (It is not my intention to promote or criticize a particular textbook; similar examples, either typically good or typically unfavorable, will be found in other textbooks.)

In this material, we find some universal content elements, as in (2), which are applicable to any country. The material deals with some facts about a particular place, but the content elements are not specific to that place.

Note that this unit, entitled *The Way We Live*, is designed so that students will understand people's various ways of living, with a grammatical focus on the use of present tenses. In this introductory section of the unit, the students are asked to fill in the blanks with key words, a task which can be analyzed as being either grammar- or content-oriented. Note, however, that the teacher's analysis of the content elements will give the result shown in (2), and this will provide the possibility of a rich expansion of class activities.

As a contrast, (3) shows an example of cultural material that might be said to lack universal content elements. This activity is given as an introduction to an article on the best shopping street in the world, and seems to be intended for brainstorming before reading. I am not negative about its brainstorming effect, but merely learning these facts would fail to provide students with motivation for more learning.

(1) Example of material that is suitable for content element analysis:
Complete each text with the words in the box.

elephants	grows	black	climate

This country has a population of about 45 million. Of these, 76 percent are ___________ and 12 percent white. It has a warm _____________. Either it never rains, or it rains a lot! It is the world's biggest producer of gold, and it exports diamonds, too. It __________ a lot of fruit, including oranges, pears, and grapes, and it makes wine. In the game reserves you can see a lot of wildlife, including lions, ___________, zebras, and giraffes.

(American Headway 2, Student Book, Unit 2, p. 10, "The way we live"; Oxford University Press, 2002.)

(2) Universal Content Elements:

Population
Composition of the population
Climate
Products,
Natural setting

(3) An example of cultural material that may typically lack universal content elements:
Match a famous shopping street with a city, a store, and a product.

Street	City	Store	Product
Fifth Avenue	Hong Kong	Guerlain	sweaters
Champs-Elysees	London	Tiffany's	silk
Oxford Street	New York	Shanghai Tang	jewelry
Pedder Street	Paris	Marks and Spencer	perfume

(American Headway 2, Student Book, Unit 4, p. 30, "Let's go shopping," Oxford University Press, 2002.)

I would like to emphasize however that the teacher's critical thinking with regard to abstracting content elements and the assessment of their universality will substantially change the situation.

(4) Universal content elements of (3), if any:
There is a typically busy or famous street in big cities, and there are some typical products you will be able to find there.

This kind of content analysis will give us a perspective for creating richer class activities than those provided in coursebooks. Without such a perspective, this material would end merely as a checklist of pieces of knowledge about particular cultures.

I must admit that determining what can be content elements and how, is at present rather arbitrary; a reliable method is yet to be developed. In spite of this, I would like to show some of the typical content elements and their categories that I have found useful in designing activities for my classes.

(5) Categories of content elements (tentative):
Relations: contrast, comparison, cause-and-effect
Orders: sequential, chronological
Data (number): weight, size, currency, date

Just as grammatical elements can be divided into larger elements like sentences, clauses, phrases, and smaller elements like words and morphemes, some (but not all) of the content elements can be classified in a similar manner. The above categorization is made according to my interests in materials I have used and my style of organizing class activities.

SUGGESTED MATERIALS FOR NON-CULTURAL CONTENTS

Those materials that have worked well in my classes typically contain objective facts such as numbers, statistics, and facts with cause-and-effect relations. (1) above contains some of these elements. Among materials that I have often used and that have worked very well are ones dealing with wildlife and ecosystems. In many cases, those topics are scientifically well studied, and

consequently contain objective facts and networks of facts exemplifying cause-and-effect relations. Relational elements in general provide good topics for systematic writing. Eye-catching animal figures provide opportunities for language activities using visual materials such as photos and videos. The reader may be able as well to apply a similar perspective to materials dealing with human activities.

(6) and (7) show an example of material and its content analysis.

(6) Sample reading material:

Contaminated: PCBs Plague British Columbia's Killer Whales

Found in industrial products like transformers, toxic PCBs were banned for most applications by the U.S. and Canada in the mid-1970s. Yet today, PCBs have been detected in killer whales off British Columbia. Peter Ross of the Institute of Ocean Sciences tested 47 orcas, residents that eat mostly salmon as well as transients that feed on marine mammals. "The PCBs may come from leaking dumps or may be deposited from the atmosphere into the ocean," says Ross. The orcas averaged PCB levels two to five times as high as beluga whales exposed to industrial pollution in the St. Lawrence River. (National Geographic Magazine, May 2000. Accompanying photo omitted.)

(7) Some useful content elements in the text:

Comparison: Resident orcas versus transient orcas
The residents eat salmon. The transients eat marine mammals.
Numbers: 47, two to five times as high
Reporting: Test and the result, findings

Materials about wildlife and ecosystems are always rich in universal content elements. The following is a list of common content elements and suggested activities related to the corresponding elements.

(8) Typical content elements found in wildlife or eco-centered materials.

Content Elements	Examples	Suggested Activities
Objective	Where/What, etc.	Show and tell.
Facts	What are the names of the animals? What do they eat?	Description practice, writing.
Numbers	Size and weight of the animal. The number of animals The area of their habitat.	Dealing with numbers. Note taking. Organizing data.
Reporting Function	The result of the research. What did the researchers do? What did they find?	Basic presentation, writing.

<table>
<tr><td>Compari-son</td><td>What is the difference between one type and the other type of orca?
E.g. Transient orcas vs. resident orcas.</td><td rowspan="3">Logical thinking.
Systematic paragraph writing and presentation.
Telling differences.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cause-and-effect Relations</td><td>Why do the animals gather here?
Because a lot of salmon come here to spawn.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Other Relations</td><td>Food chain, symbiosis, parasitism, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Problems</td><td>The numbers of animal species are declining.
High-level toxic concentration.</td><td>Expressing one's own opinion for a solution to the problem.</td></tr>
</table>

CONCLUSION

Think of a Korean and a Japanese having a discussion about their research or business. What kind of English do they need if neither speaks the other's language very well? A Chinese and a Thai fellow join them the next time they meet. Now, everybody understands the importance of the English that is to be spoken in our regions and cultures. What kind of English teaching is ideal in order to meet the demands of our part of the world?

This article is intended to give an answer to the above question. *Non-culturism* is a keyword of the answer. However, I have encountered skepticism, resistance, and reluctance to acceptance of this as a solution. *Analyzing content elements* and *finding universal content elements* constitute the main part of the answer, which I hope will give a hint of the "how-to" for practicing the idea of non-culturism and alleviate the skepticism.

Finally, I would like to emphasize that *content element analysis* is an essential process not only for non-culturism but for all kinds of teaching, which will always give teachers the imagination necessary for developing inspiring materials and conducting creative activities.

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Teaching World Standard English: Sociolinguistic Considerations

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to discuss goals related to sociolinguistic competence that are realistically achievable in Korean EFL classrooms and provide some practical ideas for meeting these goals. The goals can be met through incorporating cultural instruction into EFL classes using techniques such as teaching speech acts and teaching conflict resolution.

INTRODUCTION

Sociolinguistic competence is an important element of communicative competence and English learners in Korea are likely to be learning English in order to communicate with people from other cultures. Therefore, the goals that will help Korean EFL learners achieve sociolinguistic competence must be identified. To achieve these goals, instructors must introduce students to diverse cultural contexts, and equip them to resolve conflicts when they do occur. Instructors need to consider how much of which types of culture should be taught and why. In addition, the question of how sociolinguistic competence is acquired needs answering.

WHAT SHOULD TEACHERS DO TO HELP EFL LEARNERS ACQUIRE SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE?

That language and culture are related is quite clear, but the exact nature of the relationship is not. Nevertheless, since one aspect of communicative competence is sociolinguistic competence (Brown, 2000, p. 247) and since language, culture, and identity are dependent on each other, language teachers must consider how classroom activities enhance students' sociolinguistic competence and their understanding of the relationship between language and culture.

Wardhaugh (2002) explains that “we tailor our language to fit, making it appropriate to the situation and the participants as we view these” (p. 236). It follows, then, that learners need the cultural knowledge to assess a situation and the linguistic knowledge to act on that assessment. Nishida (1999, p. 759) offers a useful explanation of how people analyze cultural context through schemas, socially constructed concepts that allow an individual to recognize situations and act appropriately.

This cultural knowledge needed for the sociolinguistic aspect of communica-

tive competence is not often dealt with by teachers of English (Kim, 2002), but it is clear that learners need to recognize situations and act appropriately. Kim points out some of the difficulties teachers face when trying to teach culture: the variety of theoretical approaches, conflicting views about the role of the native culture, and the fact that English is the world's lingua franca.

Before considering a theoretical approach or the role of native culture, one must ask which cultural schema learners need. Alpetkin (as cited in Kim, 2002) argues that discussing the inseparability of language and culture is to oversimplify the issue because English is not tied to one particular culture. Indeed, English is spoken by people from many different regions and cultures, and Wardhaugh (2002) writes that "regional, social, and ethnic origin" affect the varieties of language that people use (p. 10), indicating that there are many varieties of English tied to different cultures. Mangubhai (1997) also argues that "the way and purposes for which language is used in one's primary socialization may have some impact upon second language learning and use" (p. 40). This means that people from different cultures will use English differently. It also indicates that, while ESL teachers may be able to teach the local language variety and the local culture, EFL teachers teaching World Standard English must help students realize that people from different English speaking communities will interpret social situations differently, based on varying cultural expectations.

An example from Romaine (2000) is that some English-speaking communities consider long silences awkward, but there are also communities that are comfortable with long silences. A second example from Romaine (2000) is that some English-speaking communities are more likely to give and accept compliments than others.

The huge number of people learning English as a non-native language means that learners should understand speech acts from different cultural contexts. Since learners will never understand every context that English can be used in, they need to be trained to solve cultural misunderstandings (such as those that can arise when what is appropriate for a given situation is interpreted differently). EFL teachers should aim to introduce students to different cultural contexts and give them the tools to resolve misunderstandings.

HOW MUCH DO LEARNERS NEED TO KNOW?

Developing sociolinguistic competence means that teachers must help their students interpret social situations based on their cultural context. Wardhaugh (2002) explains that "culture is the 'know-how' that a person must know to get through the task of daily living" (p. 219). In an ESL setting, the need to adapt to common practices in the host culture would naturally lead to cultural instruction that aims to help learners adapt (or, more idealistically, acculturate) toward the host culture. In an EFL setting, many learners will have no need to adapt, and, like language instruction, cultural instruction must reflect the needs of the learners.

This indicates that teachers must first consider the types of "know-how" students are likely to find useful by determining the types of tasks students will perform in English. Judd (1999) argues that EFL students who will be communicating with native speakers need "both receptive and productive use of pragmatics" (p. 161). She also maintains that students who will be in an ESL setting

have a need for "pragmatic ability in English (but not a pressing one)", and that students who communicate with other nonnative speakers have little need for "productive pragmatic ability in English because local pragmatic rules can be observed" (Judd, 1999, p. 161).

Local pragmatic rules could be observed if Korean EFL students only wanted to speak to other Koreans in English, but EFL students in Korea are probably learning English to communicate with people from other cultures, where "local pragmatic rules" will be of limited use. Therefore, EFL learners must be able to handle a wide range of linguistic tasks in various cultural contexts and develop an understanding of what Vygotsky calls the sociocultural importance of many different types of activities, each with differing values, goals, and roles for participants (as cited in Hall, 2002, p. 49).

However, there are important limitations to sociolinguistic competence, including the fact that mastering the pragmatics of all English varieties is not possible (Judd, 1999). This means that a student who wants to communicate with English-speaking friends from several different cultures will not fully understand many of the cultural factors affecting each friend's language use. The question then becomes what type of and how extensive of an understanding can teachers help EFL learners achieve. Lantolf (1999) concludes that the degree of second culture acquisition in classroom learners is quite limited, meaning that learners should not be expected to develop the schemas that are acquired when one lives in a host culture (Nishida, 1999). This is understandable considering that "people learn how to perform social tasks, which are part of daily living, through time and experience in our activities with the more experienced members" (Hall, 2002, p. 49). The two requirements, time and activities with experienced members of a community, are limited in classroom settings.

These limitations mean that teachers must be careful when setting goals to help learners develop sociolinguistic competence. Byram (as cited in Lantolf, 1999, p. 29) warned that "the goal of culture instruction cannot be to replicate the socialization process experienced by natives of the culture, but to develop intercultural understanding." Language learners must acquire the tools to further develop sociolinguistic competence on their own. Learners should have the ability to guess the appropriateness of utterances in social contexts that have not been practiced in class. Further, learners must understand that "pragmatic miscues will continue" (Judd, 1999, p. 166). Therefore, learners must also have the ability to resolve misunderstandings.

HOW CAN CULTURE BE TAUGHT?

TEACHING SPEECH ACTS

Judd (1999) divides activities with sociolinguistic aims into three categories: "cognitive awareness, receptive skill development, and productive use" (p. 154). Cognitive awareness consists of consciousness raising activities designed to help students notice not only the grammar in speech acts, but also sociolinguistic information such as situations and participant values, goals, and roles. Receptive skill development consists of helping students understand naturally occurring speech acts and their functions. Productive use activities help students use speech acts.

Hinkel (2001) offers one possible activity for raising cognitive awareness in which students prepare questions about cultural concepts and sociocultural norms and behaviors that cannot be observed, and then ask these questions to a native speaker (p. 455). Expanding on this idea, the questions can be answered by any person familiar with speech acts in another culture. There are dangers to be aware of. As Judd (1999) points out, the use of language cannot always be consciously analyzed: Speakers might say they do one thing with language but actually do something else with the language.

Engelbert (2004) suggested a similar activity in which the teacher invites someone from another culture into the classroom. However, students are not guided toward preparing questions about sociocultural norms. Instead, learners speak to this person about whatever they are interested in. The teacher should then “get out of the way and let them learn.” Other possibilities include discussing research findings when these are available and having learners gather examples of speech acts (through observation) if they are able to.

A suggestion related to observing speech acts from Hinkel (2001) is to use movies and TV shows to examine “the influence of culture on language (e.g., routine expressions, “softening devices”), interactional practices, body language, [and] turn-taking” (p. 456). In a deductive approach, the teacher draws learners' attention to a speech act. In an inductive approach, learners are asked to identify the speech acts. It is impossible to analyze the sociocultural norms for every culture in the way Hinkel (2001) suggests, but if a range of scenes is used, learners can experience the impact of several different cultures on language.

One activity that I have found useful is presenting one part of a lesson based on the sit-com *Friends*. Monica has a conversation with Michelle (the daughter of an ex-boyfriend) after beeping into to the ex-boyfriend's answering machine. We hear and see Monica:

Monica: Michelle? Yeah, that was me. I dialed your number by mistake.
Michelle: You're so sweet.
Monica: Yeah, we were a great couple. I really miss him.
Michelle: Yeah, well you know how it is.
Monica: Michelle, I only beeped in so I could hear my own message. I mean? that's allowed.
Michelle: Yeah-huh.
Monica: You know, I would really appreciate it if you didn't tell your dad about this.
Michelle: What do you mean? You don't feel comfortable about this?
Monica: (Hangs up) That b*tch always hated me!

By filling in Michelle's lines in pairs and acting out the phone conversation, students get some experience with roles, values, goals, interactional practices, turn-taking, and body language.

Kim (2002) uses a scene from Mr. Baseball in a lesson designed to raise student awareness of cultural misunderstandings. The movie is about an American baseball player who goes to Japan to play baseball. In four 50-minute lessons, students discuss culture shock, compare certain types of behavior to what would be expected in the students' own culture, watch the movie scene, begin a sociocultural journal, and study expressions that can be used to resolve misunderstandings. The important aspect of these lesson plans is that they raise

student awareness of cultural misunderstandings and help equip students with the linguistic tools they need to solve communication problems.

Students need practice in using the language, so after focusing on awareness and linguistic resources, it is a good idea to move on to productive use by adding one or more lessons on producing certain speech acts and using different strategies to resolve cultural misunderstandings. This can be done through cloze exercises with speech acts missing, role-plays, discussing relevant movie clips and readings, or discussing personal experiences. Possible questions could include "How could this situation have been resolved," "How was this situation resolved," or "What would you have done?"

Judd (1999) points out that cloze activities are unnatural and may not be transferable. Students must know when to use a speech act and how to use a speech act when no language at all is provided. Judd (1999) also points out some problems with role plays: Students may produce unnatural language and the roles may not be relevant to students. However, these difficulties can be overcome. The problem with unnatural language can be a learning opportunity if the teacher provides appropriate feedback. Irrelevant roles can be avoided through carefully constructed role cards (the teacher can create these or the students themselves can suggest roles they are likely to play in real life, now or in the future), or the problem can be mitigated by having learners switch roles. Judd (1999) warns that teachers may have "incorrect assumptions about the forms that natural language takes" (p. 160). Thus, teachers must evaluate their ability to create tasks that will elicit speech acts and provide feedback that will guide learners toward using speech acts effectively. Working with a colleague may be helpful.

For example, in an American classroom, it is rare for college students to tell the professor how attractive s/he is, but it happens in Korea. Perhaps a way to help students realize that having the language to say something does not make it an appropriate thing to say would be to discuss the differences between how Korean teachers and western teachers are treated. Issues to explore would be whether Korean teachers receive compliments about their physical appearance, whether learners do it because it is acceptable in their culture, or whether they do it because they think it is acceptable in the western teacher's culture? This would be a consciousness-raising activity that could lead to productive use that borrows from Ishihara (2003). After a worksheet on cultural values reflected in compliments given to professors in Korea and in America, appropriate transcripts could be studied, deflecting compliments could be examined and role plays could follow. One speaking activity presented by Ishihara (2003) is as follows: Practice giving and responding to compliments in a mingling activity. Students form two concentric circles, each facing a partner. One compliments the other, who responds. The outer circle rotates and each student finds a new partner and repeats the process, the circles switch roles after practicing sufficiently.

This could be fun but is devoid of situational context, participant values, roles, and goals. Normally we compliment people for a reason, not because the teacher says to. Despite the lack of context, the activity could help students get used to using the structures needed for compliments and could then be followed by role plays.

After these activities, learners should have a much better idea about who, how, and on what to compliment. However, this requires quite an investment,

as Ishihara's (2003) plan covers five lessons. Clearly, it is not possible to instruct learners on the myriad ways speech acts can function in different cultures. As a result of the vast number of people with different cultural expectations of language use who speak English, students who are preparing to use English for international communication need to concentrate on studying how misunderstandings can be resolved.

TEACHING INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Awareness is the first step. English speakers who are aware of the difficulties inherent in cross-cultural communication should recognize the need for patience in dealing with misunderstandings. Learners will realize that they cannot know everything about others' world views and will take the time to learn more about the other speaker's perspectives. A suggested process for conflict resolution is offered by Andrea Williams (as cited in Glaser, 1998):

> The resolution process should start from the parties' acknowledgment that their conflict contains a cultural dimension. Next, there should be willingness on all sides to deal with all conflict dimensions including the cultural one. Third, systematic phased work on the conflict is needed. Williams identified four phases: (1) the parties describe what they find offensive in each other's behavior; (2) they get an understanding of the other party's cultural perceptions; (3) they learn how the problem would be handled in the culture of the opponent; (4) they develop conflict solutions. Resolution of the conflict is particularly complicated if the conflict arose not just out of misunderstanding of the other's behavior, but because of incompatible values. (para. 9)

Students might benefit from a role play in which there is a cultural misunderstanding built in. One possible situation is presented by Tidwell (1997):

> An American friend of mine lived for many years in the Philippines before moving to Japan. When he returned to the Philippines for a visit, a close friend remarked that he had become cold and unfriendly. Why? When he greeted his Filipino friends, he briefly bowed and then shook hands, in keeping with the customs of Japan. But they expected him to embrace them and chat with his arm around their shoulders, as was customary in their culture. Since he didn't, he was labeled as unfriendly! (para. 12)

One student would play the American who had lived in Japan, while the other would play the Filipino friend. During the role play, students would try to follow the process presented by Williams (as cited in Glaser, 1998). A follow up to the role play could be to ask pairs of learners if the misunderstanding was resolved and which strategies were used to resolve it. If it was unresolved, which strategies failed? Why?

Learners could also be given an opportunity to work in pairs or groups to create their own role cards based on potential misunderstandings between Koreans and people from other cultures. Learners would then exchange role cards with other pairs/groups and try to resolve the cultural differences in each role-play situation. The cultural conflicts dreamed up by students do not have to be likely in real life; students may end up “inventing a culture.” Solving a

"fake" intercultural communication problem requires the same skills as solving a real one. The important thing is that students involved in the role play do not know the cause of the conflict at the beginning of the activity. This is why students exchange their role cards. It is important to discourage students from showing each other the role cards.

CONCLUSION

Halliday's (1981) argument that language makes humans social beings (p. 12) is a vital one. Language teachers cannot know exactly how language and social identity are related. However, teachers must understand that language is made meaningful by its cultural context. This cultural understanding, or sociolinguistic competence, is needed for full communicative competence. Also, since English is spoken by people from many different cultures, different interpretations of appropriate behavior are likely. This will sometimes result in misunderstanding, so learners should be trained to solve these potential cultural misunderstandings.

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Lifelong English Language Education in Japan and Korea Through the Internet

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ABSTRACT

Education is a continuing process which should be a lifelong endeavor. Unfortunately, many in Asia believe that education ends with graduation from high school or university. My current research focuses on comparing this Asian attitude and practice to that of Great Britain. This research will clearly show that there is a current need for promoting and fostering lifelong English education in countries such as Japan and Korea. The paper will also touch upon the many possibilities that now exist, through the Internet and other technologies, for the government of such lifelong English education between the people of Korea and Japan. For the past year or more, we Japanese have been experiencing a big wave of Korean culture. It is the time to build a bridge between Japan and Korea through the use of continuing education in English. Although we live in the modern technological society, we should not neglect person-to-person communication.

As we enter further into our new century, there is a deep need to consider the current value of and need for lifelong education. Society has been changing very rapidly into what is now called the post-industrial, or high-tech, globalized world. In this complex, far reaching, and consumer-oriented global society, goods, services, and financial matters are at the center of everyone's life. Compared to just ten or twenty years ago, those who are about to retire or who have already retired cannot deal with current multifaceted social matters if they are equipped with nothing more than the knowledge they acquired when they were young. In addition, those who are taking an active part in society have a constantly increasing interest in further developing their skills and abilities in order to get a better position or to move from temporary work into a full-time job. Both the current and retired work force needs an evolving education that corresponds with such a changeable society, particularly in the face of a continuing weak economy. Therefore, it is now essential for all members of society to have access to the latest trends, methods, and applications of lifelong education.

Added to this is the readily observable fact that the lifespan of the average individual is on a seemingly continual increase. This is especially true for Japanese who have the longest average lifespan in the world. For this reason, it is currently a common topic of discussion among Japanese as to how they might spend the last third of their life in retirement. In such discussions, one often hears words such as "older adult" and "senior citizen" to describe what is becoming the majority in an ageing society. Since these elders are still potentially active members of society, they have the right to continue developing their

potential through further education. Senior citizens have a great deal of experience and energy to contribute to society – experience and energy which should not be ignored.

Besides the elderly, there is another hidden treasure in our modern societies which can make great contributions from continuing education. Japanese women who have university degrees don't often have the chance to contribute to society under its present structure. In Japan, once women get married, they maintain the household and obey their husbands and other seniors. If they could have further education, they would bring a certain amount of fresh power to society, which would also produce economic benefits. In this regard, it will become more and more necessary to create mutual understanding and cooperation between men and women so that the female gender is allowed to grow according to its own given abilities.

Thus, education should not be limited to a condition where it normally ends with graduation from high school or university. Education must be seen as a lifelong process during which the individual continues to grow according to the needs of society and their own interests, needs, and potential.

Among the developed countries of the world, Great Britain has a long history of having a well-organized system of adult education. Most of its universities have a department of continuing education. These universities provide continuing education courses which are closely related to job qualifications and advancement. In addition, the National Institute of Adult Continuing Education (NIACE) was created in 1921. NIACE has played an important role in education for a great variety of people at all levels of society.

The Japanese have a traditional way of thinking which comes from Confucianism. As in Korea, which has similar roots, Japanese society places great emphasis on academic background. Recently, however, universities in Japan have become known as diploma factories because degrees are considered guarantees of lifelong employment. This held true until the economic bubble burst and Japan entered a prolonged period of recession. This effectively did away with the myth of being employed for life. Though thousands of students still graduate, many of these graduates become what are known as "freeters" – those who are "free" because they can only get part-time employment. These recent graduates are quickly finding that they not only need the basic academic knowledge that they acquired while in college, but are also deeply in need of more highly developed practical skills in order to find and retain satisfying work.

Previously, office workers were able to participate in company sponsored training programs. This opportunity has now come to an end due to the ongoing recession. Those who work in the rural areas of Japan have even fewer opportunities to refine and expand their skills than those who work in the urban settings. There is an urgent need for training programs to be initiated and supported by local governments. As it stands, rural areas offer little more than hobby or culture-oriented classes to housewives or elderly citizens. A change can only come with raising the awareness of lifelong education throughout Japan.

As we proceed further into the twenty-first century, we find that Japanese society is becoming increasingly involved with the culture, education, arts, and economies of foreign countries. Due to this trend, English has become an international language, and its necessity has been increasingly emphasized. We are

deeply aware of the significance of English through the highly observable realms of diplomacy, economic activity, and culture. Therefore, it is well understood that English education in our schools, continuing education in English for job creation, and culturally related English education will be increasingly developed in the future. Those who missed their chance to study English earlier in life, who need English to improve their employment prospects, or who would like an opportunity to continue their study of English as a lifelong endeavor should be given the opportunity to fulfill their needs and dreams.

The situation must be very similar in Korea. Since we now live in an age where the general use of the Internet has allowed us to instantly bridge gaps of space and time, it has become apparent that an effort to share lifelong learning between the people of Korea and Japan is not only possible, but, in very many ways, highly desirable. Not only would we be advancing the cause of extended learning in both countries, but we would also be establishing a better understanding of the two cultures through an intercultural bridge of lifelong education.

For the past year or more, we Japanese have been experiencing a wave of Korean culture. Many Japanese have become fans of Korean actors and actresses due to a number of very popular television dramas. Department stores frequently hold Korean food fairs while the number of Korean restaurants has been on a rapid rise. All of this indicates that now is the time to build a bridge between Japan and Korea through the use of continuing education in English.

The steps in developing this bridge would be as follows:

- Make contact with a Korean teacher or teachers who are using the English language as a tool for advancing lifelong learning.
- Create a joint Internet website.
- Recruit adult learners of English in both Korea and Japan. It would be best if the learners are at a communicative stage in their studies. In other words, they would not be studying English, but rather using it to communicate with their foreign counterparts. It would be emphasized that this is not an English school, but rather an English speaking community where the members meet to share their ideas in English. Also, membership fees should be kept at a minimum and should be as equal as possible in both countries. The membership fees would be used for the maintenance of the website and for other administrative purposes such as renting a space for meetings, etc. This project is meant to be a non-profit venture.
- Put members' photos and profiles on the website along with current group photos of all members in Japan and in Korea.
- Find articles from the newspaper in both Japan and Korea that could be used as "Monthly Topics."
- Have the members get together in each country to discuss the topics, perhaps by first reading each topic together and then by discussing it for one hour each.
- After discussion, have the members volunteer to write short opinions about the two topics. The opinions could be 200 to 300 words long. These opinions would then be posted in a special section of the website. The articles can be read at the next meeting before discussing the next topic.
- Allow members to post photographs of their life, hobbies, hometown, families,

etc. on the website. Short writings about the photo, about five to ten sentences, should also appear.

- Members can decide to put aspects of their own culture, such as fairy tales, cooking recipes, and current popular topics on the website. All of these activities should be coordinated by the teachers in both countries so that there is always a proper balance between things Korean and things Japanese.
- Another idea is to make the website public so that high school or university students can learn from it. However, the contents of the website should be contributed by and related to adult speakers of English in order to promote the primary goal of lifelong learning.
- Although the computer is a very important tool, we should not neglect person-to-person communication. In this regard, if members are willing, we can promote telephone exchanges between individual members. Furthermore, should members be in favor of the idea, trips to Japan and Korea could be arranged so that members could meet in person and further develop both personal friendships and intercultural understanding. In this way, the sharing would become one of heart-to-heart communication and learning.
- Additional ideas and goals could be developed as the project proceeds.

Robert Kowalczyk, Professor of Communications at the Graduate School of Kinki University, has been my advisor for the past two years. Professor Kowalczyk was a U.S. Peace Corps volunteer based in Seoul for three years during the early 1970's. For the past twenty years, he has been teaching and doing research in educational theory and communication at Kinki University in Osaka. He has had a wide range of experience in international cooperation and educational activities, and has many years of experience in both Japan and Korea. Professor Kowalczyk has kindly agreed to be the International Advisor for this project and will assist with all efforts towards establishing friendship and understanding between the peoples of Korea and Japan. For this, I am most thankful.

Isn't it time for us to build this kind of lifelong learning bridge? This is my dream and one of the reasons why traveled to Korea to present on this topic. I hope that you will share this dream with me so that someday we can create a strong and lasting bridge that will span our two cultures.

THE AUTHOR

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Classroom Techniques

Exploring Digital Audio for Teaching Conversation

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents an argument for the use of digital audio technology in EFL classes. A summary of technical basics is presented as background for teachers with little technical experience. A brief description follows of the ways that digital audio has been used in my classes, and by others. This sets the stage for exploring ways that digital audio technology might be used in conversation classes.

INTRODUCTION

Imagine written exams changing to blank paper within minutes of completion. Unless we made notes to recall the highlights of each exam (even assuming we could watch each student work), our result would be a hazy partial recollection of what had occurred. It would be unlikely we could persuade others that our grades had any basis in fact, except that making permanent records of written exams is routine and unremarkable. In contrast, EFL voice work, even exams, is most often not recorded.

For example, administrators of the Oral Proficiency Interview, and its many standardized siblings, typically record evaluations of speech events without recording the actual events. For years, I also worked on a distinct marking system to record scores from voice tests, rather than the exam performances. This left only a record of the marking, not of the speaking. The marks on paper are a poor substitute for the complexity and nuance of the student voices which have been lost forever. Further, there is no chance of reviewing those performances. Voice exams must be reduced to grades, but surely, the speech events which they measure are significant enough to be preserved in the same way that written exams are.

Sound recordings have been possible for some time, and some teachers and institutions do work with audio- and videotape for recording voice performances in EFL. However, recent technology has provided the means to make permanent records of vocal events truly easy. In this paper, I will argue for the use of digital audio technology to record voice events for EFL teaching. Many teachers will require a period of learning to get started, so the first section is devoted to basics: concepts, hardware, and software. In the next section, I describe how this technology was used in my recent classes and present ideas gathered from other sources. This sets the stage for a general discussion of ways that this technology might be beneficial for teaching languages, with particular focus on conversation.

GETTING STARTED WITH DIGITAL AUDIO

I will use "voice records" to mean speech or song stored in a "permanent" form. This includes plastic records, tapes, CDs, flash memory chips, or hard disks. If we retrace the progress in sound recording, it is the beginning of digital sound recording and storage that marks a new plateau of technical ability. Unlike all previous storage media, only this one allows sound to be preserved without recording the original sound. How can this be so?

First, the original sound is sampled at very short time intervals. Only the sample data is saved as digital (numeric) electronic bits. The sound may be digitized using any of a number of protocols. Mathematical models, or algorithms, are used to provide estimates of the sound missing between the samples. Each kind of computer software dealing with sound uses certain of these protocols and algorithms. The result is a group of digital audio formats, each with specific ways to sample, code, and decode sounds.

There are many of these, but to do our work, we need only know a little bit about a few of them (see Table 1). The first digital sound format standard, called "wav," arrived with the Microsoft Windows 95 operating system and is still with us today. These are uncompressed files which require a lot of memory for storage. A particular kind of wav file, called cda, is what is used on commercial music CDs. (This is also why only about 15 songs can be put on one.) The sound quality of good CDs has been adopted as a kind of informal standard used in comparing the quality of other digital formats.

From this beginning, arose a number of methods for reducing the size of the sound files. We will consider two of them: mp3 and wma. The advantage offered by the mp3 format was much smaller file sizes. To do this, those sounds not heard by humans received much less sampling. This allowed an mp3 file to be almost 19 times smaller (i.e., less memory) than a wav file of the same music. Recently, Microsoft introduced the "wma" format, which provides good sound quality and uses only about half the memory of a similar mp3 file. Each audio file requires a player able to reconstruct the sound digitized by the recording software. Firmware (programs stored in core memory) allows portable players to use more than one sound format. (For more information on sound formats, see Davies, 2001.)

Table 1. Just Enough About Some Common Sound File Formats and Players

Format: wav	Storage: About 600 mb/hour of music (uncompressed).
Meaning:	Short for sound wave.
Players:	Windows Media Player, and many other players.
Note:	Commercial CDs use a form of wav file (often labeled cda).
Format: mp3	Storage: About 32 mb/hour of music at CD quality.
Meaning:	Moving Picture Experts Group (mpeg) 1, Audio Layer 3
Players:	Winamp and other players available from the web
Note:	Files compressed by reduction of sounds humans don't hear.
Format: wma	Storage: About 16 mb/hour of music at CD quality.
Meaning:	Windows Media Audio
Players:	Windows Media Player; firmware exists for some players
Note:	Even better compression than mp3, with very good sound.

Most audio formats were designed to capture and replay music: instrumental and vocal. The difference in complexity between music and human speech is extreme. Thus any of the formats designed for recording and playing music, is vast overkill for recording and playing simple human speech. In terms of quality, any should be more than adequate for storing EFL voice assignments or exams in digital audio files.

To be sure of this, I converted some voice files from wav to mp3 or wma formats and could hear no difference. For this reason, we may select any format with good compression, for which hardware and software are readily available, and which students already use. Though it is neither the best, nor most compact, the mp3 format meets these conditions.

There is currently an immense amount of popular activity involving mp3 music files. As a result, there is a lot of hardware, and related software, which might be turned to our use in EFL education. Specifically, many of the smallest portable mp3 players (iAudio, Sharp, iRiver)[1] are also digital voice recorders. Each of these devices records voice in a special format. The newer ones can convert recordings into wav or mp3 files directly. The older ones require software downloaded from the Internet to do this.

With such devices, students may record voice files then transfer them to a computer using a cable which is provided when purchased. Once in the computer, the digital file can be attached to email, moved around, edited, or copied at will, or stored permanently, perhaps as a compact disc (CD). This is a very convenient way to store sets of digital files, and there are several things to know which will make use of CDs easier.

Regardless of the format used, information on a CD is stored as tiny pits burned into the under surface by a laser inside the CD writer. For this reason, they are often called burners. In addition to the burner, there must also be software to direct the transfer of data from the computer memory onto the surface of the CD. For example, I use an LG ultraspeed CD read/writer (burner) with Nero 5.0 software for burning new CDs.

Burning a new CD requires a choice between several kinds. Most general is the data CD, which can contain different kinds of data. There are also video (often photo) and audio (often music) CDs. For those who might wish to store voice files along with materials of other types (spreadsheets, word processing files, etc.), the data CD would be the best choice. There is one complication: playing data CDs requires access to the software for each type of data recorded on them. In contrast, all files on commercial music CDs are one type (cda) and can be read by any CD player.

For those with access to computer systems which use the Windows XP operating system, this is no problem. If a CD contains wav files, Media Player can play them. If a CD contains mp3 files, either Winamp can play them, or free software can be downloaded from the web and installed to do this. I currently use Audio Player, a program which arrived with my most recent Samsung keyboard. Similarly, software for each of the other kinds of files must be on the computer used. Of course, computers using Windows 98 or Linux operating systems can be made to do such work as well, but will require different knowledge and effort than I have outlined here.

In addition to the use of portable mp3 players with voice recorders, wav or mp3 files can also be created by recording directly into a computer. This requires (besides the computer) software to control the recording and saving of

the sound files. Since nearly all modern personal computers have a sound card with jacks (holes) for microphones, it is easy to have students record directly into the computer. Most sound cards have one microphone jack, but there are double jacks which can be plugged into the one hole. I currently use such an arrangement so that students can record in pairs with two microphones active at the same time.

For this to work well, microphones (mikes) must be appropriate to the conditions under which the recordings will be made. For work in noisy environments, typical mikes pick up too much background noise. Most of the mikes which come with headsets (earphones with attached microphone) are of a type which is very insensitive. That is, they only pick up sound a few centimeters from the mike surface. This is great for eliminating nearly all the background noises, but there is a price to pay for this characteristic.

If students do not speak with the microphone essentially touching their lips, their voices will be very faint in the resulting voice files. This will require that an audio editor be used to boost (amplify) the files until they are clearly audible. This does an almost miraculous job of making soft sounds intelligible, but excessive amplification makes breath noises sound abrupt and startling. Listening to many such files becomes a bit disturbing.

What about teachers without computers? There are desk-top sound systems which play both CDs and digital format music files. One such example is the Pioneer DEH 9650. It costs roughly W500,000 but would be economic for multiple-class-use where no computer was available. The smallest portables such as iRiver typically play sound through earplugs. In theory, this output could be played through the boom-boxes often used in EFL classrooms. The catch is finding a cable able to connect the two.

Another option would be to change mp3 files to cda so that they would play on any CD player and many DVD players as well. I have seen some older software which can perform this transformation, but it is not so common on newer software. Herein, lies another story of our times. In using modern technologies for recording EFL speech, we teachers find ourselves in the midst of the battle between producers and users of commercial music.

Many users seek to gain access to commercial music for free, while producers seek to protect their work even when it is public. The impact of this on us, is that use of cda can be problematic at times. For example, if my sound editing software (iMagic Audio Editor) trys to open a cda file, my computer stalls to such extent that it must be reset manually. I recommend that teachers new to digital audio, use cda only if there is no alternative.

Of course, a teacher could commit to permanent voice records without using digital audio, for example, using audiotape. The benefits of the digital approach are several. Most immediate is the issue of storage. In Table 2, I have compared the volumes needed to store an equal number of exams. I started with the following assumptions to create standard needs for the three media: 1) Each student would make three midterm voice files and five final (thus eight) mp3 voice files. 2) Midterm files would be about two minutes long and use about 1 meg of data storage. 3) Final files would be about three minutes long and use about 1.5 meg of data storage. 4) Each tape and compact disc would be enclosed in typical plastic protectors.

Table 2. Comparison of Estimated Storage Volumes for Tapes and CDs

Storage Media	Students[1]	Events[2]	Units[3]	Volume[4]
Cassette Tapes	200	8 x 200	200	2.1262
Microcassettes	200	8 x 200	200	0.4950
Compact Discs	200	8 x 200	4	0.0350

Note. 1) Number of students whose work would be preserved. 2) Number of voice tests or assignments to be recorded. 3) Number of individual pieces of storage media required. 4) Cubic meters of storage space needed.

Widely available CDs now hold about 700 megabytes (mb) of data. Some of this is used for technical information, but 600 mb of usable space would store around 600 short voice files (1 meg each) or 400 longer ones (1.5 meg each). One meg of data is a reasonable estimate for two minutes of student conversation at the low-intermediate level. The typical files my beginning students made took up about one-half meg for four simple tasks (an average of 0.67 mb for 26 files by 13 different students). My low-intermediate students used about 1 meg for four tasks which were somewhat more involved (an average of 1.17 mb for 30 files by 15 students).

Careful readers of Table 2 may have noticed that this is not a fair comparison of tape and CD storage capacities. One problem which arises in work with many students is that winding tape forward and backward is very time consuming. For this reason, I don't allow students to fully pack a tape. Each student puts their midterm work on one side and their final work on the other side of a single tape unit (cassette or microcassette). This wastes a lot of storage space but saves time in working with the tapes. Because of this, students usually used only small portions of one 60-minute (30 per side) tape per semester for both microcassette and cassette tapes.

USES FOR DIGITAL AUDIO IN EFL CLASSES

Without reservation, I admit that using digital audio will require planning, preparation, and resources. This brings up the logical and legitimate issue of why teachers should add this technology to their teaching toolkits. There are issues of personal preference (technophobia, etc.) which cannot be ignored, but will not be addressed here. For those considering the use of this technology, I will now provide examples from my own work and some ideas I have gathered from other sources. In this way, I hope to fire your imaginations to explore how this convenient and readily accessed technology might assist you in your own work.

During some recent tourism conversation courses, the opportunity came up to compare tape and mp3 technologies for recording and storing vocal assignments and oral exams. Once a decision was made to record vocal performances, the need for long-term storage of oral exams quickly became pressing. As shown in Table 2, the digital sound files were clearly the best form for storage of voice work, and these were later burned onto CDs for long-term storage. At first, I accepted both tape and digital files. It was so much easier and faster to work with the digital files, however, that only digital voice recording was used in later

classes.

My tourism conversation students worked with voice files in two ways. First, I gave them voice assignments to acquaint them with the technology and to force them to get access to (not necessarily ownership of) the needed hardware. These were task-based assignments in which students used English to solve common tourism problems. The voice exams were similar in that students used English to solve a subset of tourism problems from a test list. They were given the list with time to prepare, but were not able to use any materials at the exam. Their performance was recorded as it progressed. To reduce anxiety in using this new technology, students were able to stop, confer, and restart as they wished. This worked well.

For the early voice assignments, many students used the small, portable mp3 players with voice recorders. I received files from students using Sharp, iRiver, and iAudio devices. The Sharp recorder was old enough that I had to seek special software to convert the voice files to mp3. Students with the other devices were able to convert their files to mp3 on their own and upload them into their computers. The files were then sent to me as email attachments, whether or not I was in my office. This worked well and had the additional benefit of the time stamp being placed on all email. One student made wav files. For EFL voice work, even the wav files are not very large.

Evaluation of both voice assignments and voice exams occurred after I received files from all students. (A more energetic person might have evaluated students while they performed, then reassessed the files later to compare and get an idea of reliability.) Before the exams started, criteria were established by which the files would be judged. Then files were labeled in a consistent manner (student labels were chaotic) and listened to. Judging the work of about 35 students was comfortably done in three 2-hour sessions. Similar exams were used for midterm and finals, both for basic English conversation and tourism conversation classes.

How Others Are Using Digital Audio

Since I was designing and teaching these courses on the fly, there was limited time to reflect on ways that I might use digital audio to improve them. Later, I began to look around, and I found a number of good ideas which others had already worked with. For example, Randall Davis (2000) came up with the idea of having students prepare digital audio journals. This was pretty exciting to his students.

It is only a small conceptual leap from this to that of Steven Quasha (2003) to have students use their cell phones to create digital photo journals. It would take little more effort to combine these two, for example, an mp3 English narrative to go with the photos. The trick here is to channel the excitement with the technology back toward learning English. This also certainly fits the frequent recommendation for including realia (objects from real life) in EFL teaching.

In another approach, I searched the Internet for examples of EFL activities which use digital audio. There were a number of computer and other learning programs using digital audio to help students. Table 3 is a list and description of the most interesting of these.

Table 3. Language Learning Examples Featuring Digital Audio

Accent Lab Software
Students were able to listen to pronunciation files produced by the teacher for their particular problems and could then record their own speaking efforts. Other files were used for listening comprehension. URL: http://www.accentlab.com/

www.english-test.net – Free English Tests Online
Some of the examples provided showed modules (mp3 files) for listening tests. These included tests for beginner, intermediate and advanced levels. URL: http://www.english-test.net/index4.html

About English as 2nd Language – English Listening of the Week
Each week, learners could download a new digital audio file of discussions about literature or current events. The subject matter suggested levels of upper intermediate to advanced. URL: http://esl.about.com/library/listening/bl_weekly_listening.htm

Berlitz Publishing – Learning English Game: Holidays
Learners listen to several mp3 files about the selected topic. Listening comprehension of these voice files was then tested with an assortment of multiple choice responses. URL: http://www.berlitzpublishing.com/berlitz/quiz3.asp?TAG=&CID=

TextAloud MP3 for Teaching ESL
Mp3 files and voice synthesis combined so learners could have email or text read aloud. URL: http://www.efl-ac.com

REVIEW AND DISCUSSION

By now the physical advantages of digital storage of significant voice events should be clear. Much more work can be stored permanently in digital formats than in the same space using other media. With care in recording, digital file quality can be very good. The existence of permanent voice records provides means for teachers to review them after the events.

I can envision at least three applications for this potential in relation to exams. First, the reliability of the rating system might be measured by scoring the exams again. Next, the work of those who tested early and late in the exam process might be compared. In this way, exhausted teachers might reassert objectivity by comparing the efforts of students with similar scores before turning in the grades. Third, voice records might provide students with grounds to redress unfair evaluations or show they were fair.

Classroom uses for teachers might include voice assignments by which to evaluate one-time or ongoing pronunciation, or to force students to prepare for upcoming exams or performances. (A recorded assignment cannot be easily dodged.) Students might also be asked to use digital audio to produce some authentic English study materials of immediate relevance to their everyday lives. There are some considerations about the situations of individual students which must be addressed if digital audio is to be used during classes.

In Korean classes these days, nearly all students have a cell phone, and many have access to computer systems. However, many do not have access to small, portable digital player/recorders. Care must be taken not to marginalize

those without such devices. During classes, such students must make arrangements with others to make in-class recordings. This is not comfortable for some students. Except for classroom recording, a set-up might be created in an office or language lab for students who need it.

Digital voice files also have some clear uses in research. Most simply, an archive of voice files provide data which might be used in later research. Secondly, digital recordings might be made of voice work already stored on tape. In limited cases, some poor tape recordings might benefit (with effort) from the editing possible after conversion to digital forms.

Of even more importance for EFL, how might students use digital audio during their studies? One use might be reviewing digital recordings of earlier voice work to help motivate those who reach intermediate level and find it hard to gauge their own continuing progress. Playing records of their earlier exams from time to time might provide a clearer recognition and appreciation of the improvement that they have made.

Students might be taught to make frequent digital recordings of speaking practice for review by their teachers, their peers, or tolerant native speakers outside their classes. In particular, digital files of specific pronunciation problems can easily be sent to teachers for help. Students seem to enjoy creating journals or reports for language practice if they can use their voice recorders and cell phones in the process. Adding to the excitement is the mobility of these devices. Because of this, students could do creative work in dynamic, realistic surroundings and report the results back to class, or back to the teacher. Finally, students might learn to use digital voice files in connection with email for personal communication.

Most of my students have reacted favorably to the use of digital audio in our class work. Some are clearly excited to use it in their EFL studies. Of course, some were intimidated at first. Even these gained confidence when given quiet technical support to allow them to focus on their language studies. Stress about using the microphones and the computer often lead to early anxiety about making mistakes. I explained simply and often, how easy it was to start or stop the recording. Students were able to start when ready and stop to start over when they felt it necessary. This was deemed acceptable since in real speech, restarts, negotiation of meaning, and other adjustments are common practice.

Not many language teachers are familiar with much of the current high technology, but there are good reasons to learn to apply some of it to our language teaching efforts. In my opinion, the use of digital audio is one area with particular promise. I hope you now agree and will give it a try.

THE AUTHOR

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FOOTNOTE

1. Mention of specific hardware and software in this paper is for information purposes only and does not imply approval or recommendation by either the author or this publication. No endorsements are involved.

Video in the Classroom

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ABSTRACT

Ideally, a class would be comprised of learners who have been carefully screened so that they are homogeneous relative to their level of proficiency. In reality, we find our classes comprised of students with a very wide range of competence. Finding appropriate instructional material can test the resolve of the most ardent teacher. There is a solution: Video! Videos are an excellent source of material for this typical multi-level class, especially authentic videos, i.e., those intended for the native-English-speaking audience. They can provide the rich source of input that is sorely lacking in the TEFL environment. Additionally, they can be used for instruction in pronunciation, prosody, grammar, vocabulary, idioms, phrases, discourse, culture, and humor. This paper will focus on the proper selection, preparation, and implementation of video material so as to leave learners of all levels satisfied, happy, and challenged, and more importantly, leave teachers with a well-deserved sense of accomplishment.

INTRODUCTION

Video, which includes both television programs and motion pictures, is a wonderful classroom resource for the English teacher in the foreign, or second, language setting. This paper will first present the reasons to utilize this media, then present a method of preparing the material, and conclude with a technique of administering it.

RATIONALE

Videos are most often produced with the native-English-speaking market in mind. Although being scripted and unrealistic in the sense that perhaps no one has ever uttered these exact lines, they do produce discourse that does not violate the expectations of native speakers (NSs), and hence they could be deemed **authentic**. I would differentiate this from **genuine**, defining the latter as actually occurring speech between NSs (Widdowson, 1990, 1998). So, video can provide our students with authentic samples of language that NSs not only encounter, but also seek to experience.

Students can easily become accustomed to the acoustic qualities of the voice of their teacher. Video can provide many other sources of aural input. Additionally, this input is performed by professional actors, who are both well

skilled and trained in delivering their lines with the proper pronunciation, intonation, and dramatic intent. This gives our students a variety of exemplars.

It also contains many common phrases and examples of conventionalized language that scene writers deliberately include to make the text attractive to the NS audience. Accordingly, we can provide our students an exposure to these in a reasonable natural context.

PRODUCTION

MATERIAL SELECTION

The primary step is the selection of the video to be used, and in this there are several items that warrant our consideration. First of all are those relating to the learner. What age level is the class? Mature content for a lower age group may not be the most appropriate choice. Although in Korea, with our normally homogeneous learner population, this is not of great concern, the ethnic composition of the class does need to be considered and the video screened for offensive content. Additionally, there is a threshold level that the learner should have attained for maximum benefit.

Next, the availability of the particular video deserve attention. What sort of equipment is available for playback and recording? In what format is the video offered? DVD is very convenient, but setting bookmarks for repetitions may need to be done every time the DVD disk is removed from a player, necessitating additional setup time for a class. VHS allows copying of a particular scene and several recordings of it can be made on the same tape. This procedure allows the tape to be played continuously without cumbersome rewinding.

If the teacher wants to use a particular genre, that will also influence the choice of video. Personally, I favor comedy, as it quite frequently juxtaposes common situations and conversational elements with unusual comedic forms to highlight the latter, and thereby provide a rich source of conventionalized forms for the learner.

The content of the video and particular scenes will affect our selection. Perhaps the teacher wishes to demonstrate introductions or shopping or invitations; then a video with these elements will be highly desired. Likewise, if the teacher wishes to focus on a particular grammatical form, (the passive voice, subjunctive, or imperative), this will also influence the selection of the video.

The characters in the video will also have an effect on the decision of which one to use. How interesting are the characters to the student population? Should the characters be homogeneous, or wildly different? Is it desired for the student to identify with the character? If so, should the identification be with the current level of the students' proficiency or the target level.

Finally, there are acoustic considerations that enter into our decision. How fast is the dialog spoken? Will our students be overwhelmed by the speed of it? Or, on the other hand, is it so slow that they will be bored? Another significant factor is that of clarity. How clear is the speech? Are some passages unintelligible? Is this desirable, or will it serve to confound learners? The teacher needs to choose accordingly.

MATERIAL PREPARATION: THE SCRIPT

Sources

An accurate written text of the video is absolutely essential. Two major sources are available for obtaining one: the Internet and transcription. Of these, the former is the fastest and the easiest, but not all videos are available, and the precision of the script may not be as good as we require for the classroom. The latter method, transcription, is very tedious, and requires a good bit of skill, but it can be as accurate as the teacher desires to make it.

Division into Scenes

After acquiring an accurate script of the video, we must divide it into scenes. These scenes do not follow the strict definition of "scene," in that when the locale changes, a new scene is created, but rather a loose content grouping which amounts to a double-spaced typewritten page which represents approximately two to three minutes of spoken dialog from the video.

The rationale for such division is that adults are more concerned with recovering meaning than focusing on language. Older learners are quite adept at obtaining this meaning from non-linguistic information. On the other hand, younger learners (i.e., less than 14 years of age) do not have the same schemata as adults, but they are more adept at linguistic learning (Skehan, 1998). Therefore, to show longer stretches of material would encourage older learners to use their existing knowledge to understand what they are seeing and hearing, whereas younger learners would become easily bewildered by the overload of input.

Information Preview

The script should be examined for items which need to be presented and explained to the students prior to the viewing of the video. The teacher must rely on experience and intuition when making the decisions of what to include.

To begin with, what lexical or phrasal items would require explanation for our students? Needless to say, low-frequency items or unusual usage of common terms should be on the list. Idioms and colloquial expressions with which the students may be unfamiliar should be included. Additionally, any background information that would aid comprehension should be given. This may be cultural, historical, or contextual. If a single scene is to be presented, it may be necessary to provided additional detail for smooth continuity.

Creation of the Listening Cloze Section

A listening cloze activity can engage the entire range of students in your class. Using one of the scene sections you have previously prepared, select the items to be deleted from those that you feel would be challenging and interesting to your students. A word of caution here: You must listen to the tape when you do this (Ur, 1984). Otherwise, an item that appears to be an excellent candidate for deletion on the script may not be that intelligible on the video.

There are several methods for creating item difficulty when you do this. First, what lexical choice will be made? These can be easily adjusted to the overall level of the class. Secondly, will the deletions be single words, multiple words, or entire phrases? Mechanically, blanks uniform in length are more diffi-

cult than proportional blanks (proportional blanks reflect the length of the word). To add another level of difficulty, multiple word deletions can be given as one large blank, with no indication of the number of words deleted.

Testing the Listening Cloze Section

Before you administer the cloze section, you should test it, and the best way to do that is to take it yourself. First of all, can you hear everything? Do you have sufficient time to write and listen? How many times did it take you to achieve 100% accuracy? You may need to adjust your deletions. Every time you present a scene, treat it as a pilot test, and make revisions to improve its quality.

Common and Useful Expressions

By their very nature, videos provide a wealth of common expressions that the language learner will find useful. Again, as with the items for informational preview, selection of these require the use of the teacher's experience and intuition. Basically, they should be common language chunks that are established in the NS repertoire. Of course, if there is a particular target structure that the video is being used to highlight, then the choices should reflect this.

Next, the teacher needs to create either syntagmatic or paradigmatic variations of the particular expression selected from the text (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). (Syntagmatic variations maintain the exact syntax of the original, whereas the paradigmatic maintain a much looser connection.) It is helpful to create a chart with the constant part of the expression in one column, and the varying part in another. The first item in the chart is, of course, the extract from the scene.

ADMINISTRATION

Now we come to the actual administration of the prepared video lesson in a class. The following is a sample procedure that has proven quite successful in a wide variety of situations with diverse student populations.

CONTENT PREVIEW

First, we need to present the class with the lexical and phrasal explanations that we have previously prepared. This is to familiarize them with any unknown items that they may encounter in the upcoming scene. Depending upon the particular class, and the particular scene, additional background information may also need to be supplied.

PRESENTATION OF THE SCENE

The scene is now played. Although eager to complete the cloze section, students may be advised to watch the scene in its entirety first to gain an overall sense of what is happening (but not necessarily to acquire the gist of it). From experience, four showings of the scene will result in approximately 80% accuracy on the cloze section, but this will vary considerably from group to group.

VERIFICATION OF CLOZE SECTION RESPONSES

Students will be eager to verify their responses, and this can be accomplished in a variety of ways. First, as a communicative task, it can begin as pair-work with the partners comparing their answers, or be done in small groups. Then, it could branch out into an information gap task involving the entire class. After the students have exhausted their resources, the teacher would then supply the accurate responses. The scene should be played one more time, so that the students can confirm each item.

PERFORMANCE

PREPARATION

Now we enter into the performance phase of our class. In this phase, the students will re-enact the scene that they have just observed. To begin, the teacher models each line of the dialog with the students repeating chorally. This is followed by one more replay of the scene with the students' attention being directed to the pronunciation, prosody, and delivery of the lines by the actors, and to prime them for the upcoming rendition. Finally, roles are assigned to members of the class.

RE-ENACTMENT

The selected students now perform the scene with the teacher playing the role of director, producer, and acting coach. The focus here should be on pronunciation, prosody, and dramatic delivery (Cook, 2000). After completion of the scene, other students are assigned the roles on a rotating basis, and the scene is performed again. The ideal situation here is to have each student perform each role. If the class size is large, the students can be divided into troops, each with a student director. The teacher may now assume the role of executive producer and supervise each of the ensembles.

This performance serves as a fluency exercise, a necessary component of our instruction for our student to gain mastery of the language (Nation, 2004).

LINGUISTIC EXPANSION

COMMON EXPRESSIONS

Upon the conclusion of the performance part of the activity, we proceed to the Common and Useful Expression section. The teacher models the expression from the scene, and then the variations with the students repeating chorally. Students may then be called upon to recite individually until a satisfactory level of performance is attained.

Now the students are called upon to produce their own variations of the expressions. This can be an individual or a communicative small-group activity. The teacher would provide direction to suit the particular intent of the lesson

(structure or form). The individuals or groups now share their variations with the class, and the students not presenting can evaluate the appropriateness of the variation being presented.

WRITTEN SUMMARY

Students now produce a written summary of the scene they have just viewed and performed. This can be an individual activity, or it can be a collaborative effort of pairs or small groups. As with the common expressions, after the summaries have been written, they may be presented to the class, with those students not presenting evaluating the quality of the summaries.

CONCLUSION

Videos are a most valuable resource and can be used for a variety of purposes in the classroom. They do require a significant amount of commitment by the teacher, but they can easily be adapted to serve a wide variety of purposes. Perhaps, most importantly, they offer a fresh, challenging view of the language to our students, and from this, they may spark their interest and desire to pursue their study in earnest.

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The Three Essential Resources of Language Teaching and Learning

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ABSTRACT

Sometimes talk about resources for teaching and learning language assumes the best teaching and learning environment must have state-of-the-art technologies and equipment combined with the highest academically trained professionals. This may be desirable in some cases. However, the "essential resources of teaching and learning language" are found in the milieu that comprises where the teacher and learners are, what their cultures are separately and together, and how they use these to give meaning to their lives. In such an environment, whether complemented with state-of-the-art technologies and academics or not, the three essential resources of teaching and learning combine to enhance the purpose and value of learning a language, providing a solid platform for the opportunity to be a competent participant in the local and global world of the 21st century.

DISCUSSION

The main points covered in this paper are:

1. The under-resourced language teaching and learning environment
2. The three resources essential to the efficient and effective language teaching and learning environment
3. How to put these resources together to ensure effective and efficient language teaching and learning does occur

Many factors contribute to the existence of a perceived or real under-resourced teaching and learning environment. The situations most frequently cited include:

1. The "Stick and Dirt" teaching and learning environment, truly devoid of the stuff considered vital for teaching and learning
2. The "Inadequately Resourced" environment
3. The "Inappropriately Resourced" environment
4. The "Fully Resourced" environment which is lacking direction, motivation and creativity
5. A "New or Developing" English Language School on a tight budget

Rather than deeply defining the under-resourced teaching and learning envi-

ronment, this paper aims to present an opportunity in which to reflect upon one's teaching practice. The only three constant resources one will ever have in the teaching profession are:

1. The teacher
2. The students
3. The environment

Throughout this paper, pause and reflect on your practice, how the ideas presented can be "adapted" to your unique situation, and explore what motivates, inspires, and challenges your current philosophies and practices.

The pedagogical philosophies that underpin my practice are largely constructivist, co-constructivist, experiential, multi-modal, learner-centered, and the Total Physical Response method of delivery, (Absalom, 2000; Bramwell & Vial, 2000; Crystal, 1987; St. Hill, 2000). The practitioners who have provided me with inspiration and motivation are Paulo Friere, Sylvia Ashton Warner, Lev Vygotsky, Leo Bascagllia, Katherine Gow, and Elwyn Richardson (see Spener, 1992).

INTRODUCTION: AN EXAMPLE OF A LOW RESOURCE ACTIVITY FOR THE FIRST DAY OF TEACHING

By means of introduction, the first example of the three constant resources working holistically in an under-resourced teaching and learning environment is an Alphabet Frieze.

Many teachers feel an Alphabet Frieze is an important resource in the language learning classroom. To create an Alphabet Frieze, we can use our learners names, since these are much more personally significant to most language learners than A for apple, B for ball, C for cat, or D for dog.

Using recycled paper and crayons (or mud paint, or water in the sand, or water on a dry sidewalk), follow these instructions:

1. "Put the letter your name starts with at center top, then create a happy face in the middle of the page, and along the bottom write your name."
2. "OK... Introduction Time... If your name starts with A, let's see you, B..., C..., D..., Hi everyone!"

As, a professional teacher ask yourself, "What have I noticed from doing this activity?" Amongst other things there will be gaps in the alphabet. Is this important? Yes and No.

There are three reasons the gaps do and don't matter:

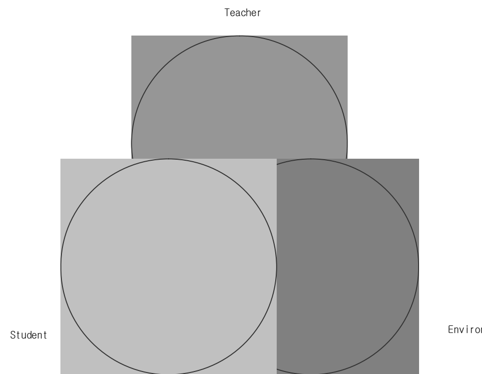
1. Regarding the student: It says immediately where the student is at, i.e., their ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development).
2. Regarding the teacher: It provides formative assessment on which to base immediate and future teaching.
3. Regarding the environment: It reflects the learners' linguistic background.

For instance, there are certain sounds that the Korean language does not have (e.g., /f/, /v/, and /z/), and there are some unusual English spellings that are used to write the sounds that Korean does have (e.g., the word-initial spellings kk, tt, pp, ss, and jj).

In the normal course of events, we put the frieze on the wall, and this activity would form probably one lesson at the start of the year.

Designing a Teaching and Learning Plan from the Three Constant Resources

Model 1. The Teaching and Learning Resource Pool



Note: The three circles are labeled *Teacher, Student, and Environment.*

Model 1 indicates the relationships between the three essential resources of teacher, students, and environment. The area of optimum teaching and learning efficiency and effectiveness is the point at which all three circles overlap. The size of the overlap indicates the degree of teaching and learning efficiency and effectiveness. What is most important about these three circles is the point at which all three overlap. This point of overlap is the point of harmony, the place where all three separate entities are functioning holistically, for the benefit of all three. How do we get to this point in our teaching?

Model 2. Teacher, Student, Environment Analysis: Exercise Model

Dreams **Goals/Aims**	**Common Ground** **Functional/Practical**	**Reality:** **How It Is**
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Students	Students	Students
Environment	Environment	Environment

Note: The three rows have the same names as the three circles in Model 1.

Your first task is to write as many aspects as you can in Column 1, “Dreams,” regarding (a) the teacher, (b) the students, and (c) the environment.

Leave Column 2 and work in Column 3, "Reality: How It Is." Here write as many things as you can about the real aspects regarding (a) the teacher, (b) the students, and (c) the environment. If you teach in several different environments and have more than one student group, you will require a separate analysis for each environment and student group. Using the information in Columns 1 and 3, try to discover the common ground, the areas in which your dreams and reality meet or come close. If you really cannot find anything that is "common ground," start to explore ways in which to bridge this gap. Make these notes in the center column.

ISSUES REGARDING RESOURCES I HAVE REPEATEDLY ENCOUNTERED

1. Money
2. Place to teach, furnishings, texts, materials, photocopying, state of the art equipment
3. The milieu of stuff that makes your classroom a language learners' classroom, i.e., the alphabet frieze, paper

MONEY

It is an excellent practice to budget a little of your own money for teaching resources, even in a fully and adequately resourced environment. This budget gives you freedom of choice and a little more power over what you choose to use in your teaching (see Appendix 1: "Recommended Resources for Teachers"). It is your professional obligation to have these basics, and not to rely on anyone else to provide them.

THE CLASSROOM

Maybe you don't have a classroom. However, what is the most important consideration is to establish a place which you and your students recognize as the formal learning environment. Any place will do; it is the psychological effect of having that place that is more important than the place itself. Once you have a place "with" your students, label it, put your mark on it (boldly, in English), and make certain your students do this, too. In this way, they will come to own the place.

Everything in the classroom and throughout the school needs an English name. Initial activities can include the making of signs:

- ENGLISH LANGUAGE FLOOR 2
- ENGLISH CLASSROOM
- TOILET
- OFFICE
- TEACHER'S ROOM
- KITCHEN
- CUPS
- DRINKING WATER
- TAP
- SINK
- BENCH
- WASH BASIN
- HAND TOWEL

And in the classroom:

- DOOR
- WALL

- WINDOW
- CEILING
- FLOOR
- LIGHT
- CUP
- etc.

Memory games and TPR activities (see Appendix B) can be undertaken once signing is completed.

How do you make signs and labels?

1. Use old recycled cardboard or paper.
2. Cut letters from the newspaper and paste them on.
3. Make larger signs from papier-mache.
4. Use old, colored wrapping paper, fabric, or plastic.

But let's stop for a moment. The traditional desk and chair layout of a classroom is not necessarily ideal for language teaching and learning. A circle is better (on the floor if you don't have a round table). In fact, much of the state-of-the-art equipment believed necessary for teaching and learning is not ideal or necessary for the language learners' classroom (Firchow, 2001). Also a room without desks and chairs is perfect for doing things, especially if you teach using TPR and multi-modal learning.

Create a circle on your floor. Circles are extremely effective for conversation, chain, and choral activities and lend themselves very efficiently for moving into physical activities. Korean students are comfortable on the floor, so a mat or cushions, (which can easily be found at local clothing dumps, and can be washed and aired if needed), can add to the comfort.

There is a wonderful furniture depot near every school. The staff are friendly and helpful, and this chain of depots is international. Depending on where you live, it is known by a variety of names, ranging from "refuse station" and "recycling depot," to "rubbish dump," "waste disposal center," "charity bin," and "furniture dump."

What you cannot do with a bottle of *Clorox* and some water after scrounging through the trash is not worth thinking about. If it's furniture you need, such as soft furnishings, shelves, storage containers, cartons, cardboard, paper, string, etc., a recycling depot is the place to shop!

SHAPES, COLORS, AND NUMBERS

We already have an alphabet frieze, but what about posters, calendars, and dictionaries, and items such as shapes, colors, numbers, texts, cassettes, music, stories, games, and bodies? Old containers, cartons and your trash from grocery and clothes shopping are a wealth of words, letters, colors, shapes and numbers.

Body part charts are fun. Have the children lie on large pieces of paper (newspaper is fine), on the floor, working in groups or pairs get them to draw around one, or all of them (depending on space, paper, time etc). The life-size paper dolls can then be attached to the wall and clothing using regular patterns and colors can be added. Labels can be attached describing body parts, clothing, colors, and shapes.

Color and shape collections are fun and easy class/home tasks for learners. Start a simple collection of "Red Things." It is not important what they are, but that they are red. Keep the red things in a carton, or mount them on card or directly on the wall, spelling out the word "red." Once completed, start a blue

collection etc. As these activities take time, the learning becomes deeply embedded. Add to the fun of the collections by charting tallies recording who has found the most red things, the smallest red things, the biggest red things, etc. Shape collections are based on the same process. Set a task to look for square shapes. Mount them as "Our Square Shapes" or "These Things Are Square".

Throughout these activities, note the classroom language, "draw, color, cut, lie down on the paper, put the ____ on the wall, floor, look, listen, watch." and attach these as speech bubbles to your paper dolls. Refer to these frequently to reinforce classroom instruction: "What does Anne say?" "Look and listen"; "What does Bill say?" "Don't talk"; "What does Mary say?" "Sit down"; etc.

Collect any old textbooks, magazines, and student books. These are excellent for clipart and are a source of letters, words, and pictures. Any print literature is valid and vital, even a Korean newspaper (Elley, 1998).

PERSONAL MEANING

Most of the resources recommended in this paper originate from the environment the students live in, (Gee,1992). This is important because it allows them to discover that English is not foreign; it is part of their everyday life (Taylor, 1994). One trouble with language learning is the gap between home language and school language (Campbell, 2000). Using Model 1, it is evident that the closer you can make home language and school language, the more effective and efficient your teaching and your students' learning will become (Yoshida, 2002).

1. Reward Systems
2. Word Banks
3. Dictionaries

These go together, so have a collection of "things Korean" (storybook word lists, textbook word lists, etc.). These can be used as rewards. The student collects a word of their choice from one of these resources, such as a word on a milk carton, or in their textbook word list, or in their storybook word list. The student writes this word on a card supplied by the teacher and banks it into their word bank. After a time (it could be after a specific study or a specific text is completed or just once a week or once a month), the bank balances are checked. At this stage, the words a student can say and use from their word bank become their savings. Eventually, the cumulative savings from all students go to make dictionaries. These personally constructed dictionaries will be used regularly because the students own them – they have created dictionaries from the words that are personally meaningful to them.

VALIDATION OF CULTURES

Translation of Korean (not direct translation, but meaning-related) is a wonderful source of language development. Ask the students to "tell" you about

their favorite story when they were a child or the songs they sang at kindergarten, and as their stories unfold, “give” them the English words to tell their stories and sing their songs.

In addition, all words in Korean (e.g., *kimchi*) can be spelt in English, so teach your students these spellings. Help students to write in English script their names and the names of the things they own, use, and like. In this way, the students are making English into their English. Do not separate your students from their culture, but assist them in giving English meaning to their culture. This validates your culture and theirs (Wallerstein, 1983).

Before, during, and after most classes, if you are open and available to your students, they will do two things: (a) talk to you in their own language and (b) come to you with variations of the language they are learning. These are “windows of opportunity” to teach and learn with your students. The words that emerge are treasures for students and teacher alike, so in the footsteps of Ashton-Warner, have a pile of cards cut to useful sizes for writing a word or sentence on. Somewhere in your classroom under a heading that comprises the students’ names, and other relevant details as they emerge, pin or paste these words. Also give the student a pocket-sized card to take home (Ashton-Warner, 1986). These walls of words can become the foundations for word games (e.g., Hangman, Last Letter, Scrabble, Crossword, 5,4,3,2,1... STOP!) and class dictionaries, and will eventually become an information resource that the students access for their free-speaking and free-writing activities. This practice validates each student as a person who is worthy of a conversation. Once students understand this, they will talk as frequently as possible with you. These opportunities and the practice of them is known as “personal contextualizing.” It costs nothing and requires no resources except those of teacher, student, and environment.

Personal contextualizing is the practice of “small talk,” the “by-the-way” comments and conversations that are communicated between people with whom a relationship of trust has been developed (Hall, 1983). Some classrooms facilitate this, and the initially bare classroom allows teachers and students to create their own community and culture, reflecting their agendas.

There are a multitude of things that are free and available in Korea. For instance, the local shop gives away “colored straws” (the Chilsung Cider Company gives them to the shop), and the shop owners have cupboards full of them (Pryor, 2001).

Two straws and a pair of scissors will elicit a huge range of words from your students, as will stone words and stick words, or writing in the dirt or sand, or writing with water from an old detergent bottle on a hot pavement.

SUMMARY

There are three constant resources essential to language teaching and learning:

1. Teacher
2. Learner
3. Environment

The way you mix these will depend on your own unique situation, personality, pedagogical philosophies, professional development and your practice. However:

1. Regarding the *student*: Every activity that is personally significant to your students will engage them in a way that says immediately WHERE they are at – their ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development).
2. Regarding the *teacher*: When you understand that the language your students use is the language they find meaningful, then you will discover what to base immediate and future teaching on.
3. Regarding the *environment*: It reflects everything about the learners' background. It is their world. Exotic resources and activities are a curiosity, but depth of purpose and meaning are right here, right now in their world, so tap into this resource.

Once you understand the pedagogy and examine the practice of teachers whose theories are student-centered, experiential, co-constructive, and reflective, you will begin to understand there really is no such thing as an under-resourced language teaching and learning environment. There are three resources essential to the efficient and effective language teaching and learning environment: the student, the teacher, and the environment. They are always available. How you put these resources together will ensure effective and efficient language teaching and learning does occur.

In conclusion, it is necessary to establish a "living language" relevant to and reflecting both local and global communication, enabling learners to "challenge and change belief systems and behavioral patterns to meet new needs and opportunities and overcome disabilities and disadvantages" (Lepani, 1995). The innovative teacher using the three constant resource models is Lepani's ideal.

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APPENDIX A

ESSENTIAL TOOLS OF THE TRADE THAT THE PROFESSIONAL L2 TEACHER MUST SUPPLY

This list has been revised from the list that Christchurch College of Education (2001) suggested as essential tools of trade teachers – the tools required for them to establish their teaching practice in New Zealand. In your portable container to carry tools in (a plastic fishing tackle box is ideal), you require one or more of each of the following items:

Pencils	Color Pencils
Pencil Sharpener	Mirror
Erasers	Dictionary
Ruler	Notebook/Diary
Tape Measure	Plasticine/Plastic Modeling Clay
Stapler and Staples	Stamps/Stickers
Sellotape/Scotch Tape	Clock/Timer
Red Pens	Camera
Black Pens	Sketch Pad
Vivid Markers	A couple of plastic bags
Chalk	Tissues (Totally essential in Korea)
Whiteboard Markers	Cup
Paper	Coffee/Beverage of choice
Scissors	Woman (Personal Items)
Glue	Breath fresheners
Crayons	

NICE TO HAVE, BUT NOT ESSENTIAL

ABC book
Dictaphone or battery-operated recording audiocassette player
Spare batteries
Abridged "Of English Origin" classical and contemporary story compilations
Spelling level books
Essential word lists and vocabulary-building books
Music cassettes
Story cassettes
Battery-operated notebook computer with Internet connection and printer
Digital camera/video
Textbooks

APPENDIX B

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES

1. *Hangman*: The usual game plus giving an item. Select an Item: Using locally acquired items, let students make a list of words they can find on in a category (e.g., a milk carton or cookie pack). Then they must make a Hangman clue with dashes on the board and give the item to the other team. They have 30 seconds (or some other predetermined time) to find the word and collect the points.
2. *Last Letter*: Apple – Egg – Goat – Tomato – Orange – etc. Students must select a word beginning with the last letter of the previously selected word.
3. *Scrabble*: As the board game – but make your own letter tiles from cardboard. Letter tiles have values, and players select seven tiles blindly, then must make words with them. There is no board, the desk or floor will do.
4. *Crossword*: Make reasonably large letter tiles that students place on the floor. There is no grid, but students must form words accurately getting points for all the letters used in any word they make. Students make tiles as they need them; this is best done as a team or in pairs or threes.
5. *5,4,3,2,1... STOP!*: A code game of Hangman. Two teams are needed: One team, using the code writes the word on the board, then chants 5,4,3,2,1... STOP! The second team has to call out the word, and gets the points of the word as well as the point, 5 or 4 or 3 or 2 or 1 or 0, according to the point in the countdown at which they guessed the word.
6. *Spelling Bash*: Rolled up newspaper and two teams are required. Two people, one from each team, stand back-to-back, with shoulders touching and the paper roll between their heels. The teacher calls out a word, and the opponents attempt to spell it on a card with a marker. The first person to correctly spell the word on the card can put the card in a square marked "yes – correct" at which point everyone calls out, "3,2,1, bash," and a grab is made for the newspaper roll which is used to bash the opponent – "once gently."
7. *Date Skittles*: Using old milk cartons draw a number on them representing the date 1-31, another representing the days, Monday – Sunday, another representing the months January – December, and another representing the year. Students must bowl the correct skittles to make the date.
8. *Shape Shy*: A student selects a paper which describes a shape. Then the student must roll the paper into a ball and hit the correct shape which is mounted about 1-2 meters in front of them. It is best to have a container standing on the shape to "collect" the paper "coconuts."
9. *Find a Phrase*: Use any print material and get students to hunt for phrases, not single words. They start to recognize certain clusters of words go together regularly.
10. *Sticks and Stones*: Two teams, some sticks, and some stones are required. Team 1 calls out, "Sticks and stones can break my bones, but words can never hurt me... 1,2,3, spell... 'blue'..." Team 2 must spell "blue" using the

sticks and stones.

11. *Water Words*: Using empty liquid dishwashing detergent containers filled with water, have teams spell words outside on hot sunny days in the dirt.
12. *Spelling Blind*: Draw a letter on your partner's back. The partner must guess what letter it is and what word you are spelling to them.
13. *Shoot Word Hoops*: Have a variety of balls or other objects that you can shoot basketball (hoops) with. On each object, write a word. The student picks a ball, blind from a covered carton, and says the word. If they get the word correct, they can shoot a hoop and they win points to the value of the amount of letters that the word contains.
14. *Let's Go Fishing*: Use the magnetized advertisements that you collect and paste a paper word on the colored side. Using a line wound on a chopstick with a magnet attached, the students fish for words. They must say the word, spell it, or use it correctly to get points and keep the fish. (Particularly useful for teaching phonics.)
15. *Bingo*: A variety of pictures, letters, shapes, words, etc. are pasted onto regular-sized cards. Hand out an equal number of cards at random to each student, who then lays the cards face up in front of them. The teacher or caller has one of each of the cards matching those that the students have. As these are called out at random, the student turns the card face down as they are called. The first one finished calls out, “Bingo”!
16. *Hopscotch*: A usual hopscotch pattern or one of your own making and a selection of handmade dice are required. Students throw a die with words on it instead of numbers (make the die from cardboard). Use chalk to mark the square, then the student must hop to that square, spelling the word as they go. If the word is spelt correctly, they get the value of that square and the letters as points.
17. *Skipping Words*: Two teams are required. Team 1 starts, “1,2,3,4, I can spell this word and more.” Team 2 calls out a word, e.g., “apple.” Team 1's skipper must spell A-P-P-L-E, then run out of the spelling area, whereupon another team member jumps in. Teams change when a skipper trips or cannot spell a word.
18. *Message Relays*: Two teams are required – one team by the teacher, the other team at least 50 meters away. Each team is awarded a point if the message relayed is correct; if it is not correct, neither team gets a point. Good for practice in giving instructions.
19. *John, Tell Josh*: In this repetition game, one player tells another, for example, “Get three stones and give them to the teacher. Then sit down behind me.” (Good for practice in giving instructions.)
20. *Shout a Message*: This is a relay game where students are positioned at various points and must shout the message. The message that gets back the quickest and most nearly correct wins. At least two teams are required.
21. *Chain Gang*: The teacher starts with a word, and the student must add a word starting with the last letter of the previous word. These words must be spelt and formed correctly. (Good for handwriting and spelling practice.)
22. *Javelin*: Using small sticks or pencils, students throw their “pencil javelin” at a target which has a variety of words on it worth different points.

Whichever word the javelin lands on, the team must say to get the points for that word.

23. *Snake Word*: Using the cardboard rolls left over from toilet paper, make sentences, stringing words onto yarn, remembering punctuation. The longest snake wins.
24. *Sucker!*: Using straws, students must run to a point where words on paper have been laid out, suck up a word with their straw, and take it back to their team. This goes on until there are no words left. Then each team must correctly say each word. You can add to the challenge by asking teams to make a sentence using the word, spelling it, or miming it.

Save the World While Teaching English

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ABSTRACT

During the past 30 years, citizen organizations on the community level have succeeded in creating exciting solutions to some of society's most difficult challenges. Known as social innovators or social entrepreneurs, these ordinary individuals and the organizations they create have identified problems within society which no one else has been willing or able to tackle. They have then come up with innovative and often self-sustaining approaches to solve these problems. This astonishing phenomenon has occurred around the globe and is most active within developing nations. Increasing academic research is being done on these innovators, in order to discern patterns of innovation and to discover ways in which to teach these skills to a new generation of social entrepreneurs. Teaching about global challenges and examining social innovation as a solution can utilize English in a content-based medium while also providing training in cross-cultural interaction and providing a wider perspective on the world. It may also help provide the skills necessary for the development of future social entrepreneurs within Asia. This paper will attempt to define this developing field, present some examples of outstanding entrepreneurs, and examine the current state of academic research on the subject. It will also explore ideas on how to utilize this subject within the language classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Things fall apart; the centre cannot hold;
Mere anarchy is loosed upon the world,
The blood-dimmed tide is loosed, and everywhere
The ceremony of innocence is drowned;
The best lack all convictions, while the worst
Are full of passionate intensity.
The Second Coming (W.B. Yeats)

The news is filled with stories of violence, hate, and misery. Many, if not most, of these tragic events are the result of cultural misunderstandings and long-held beliefs. Without intervention, the world may well continue on an ever-expanding spiral of mistrust, anger, and hate, fulfilling Yeats' prediction that "the center cannot hold." In our increasingly networked global community, it is imperative that teachers take upon themselves the responsibility of exposing students to a variety of cultural and social issues. It is no longer safe to claim that since our subject is English, we are limited to teaching only language skills.

Language contains a great deal of cultural value. The teacher can exploit these values and contrast them with the values of other cultures, encouraging students to stretch their minds and develop their critical thinking skills. By so doing, we can help train a generation of thinkers and leaders who will possess greater intercultural communicative skills, and may thereby be better equipped to deal with the challenges facing the world.

No one would deny that the major global challenges facing us today are daunting. (A very good multimedia presentation on global issues is *The Miniature Earth*; Lucca Co., 2002.) Indeed, the array of problems can easily seem overwhelming and the attempts to solve them woefully inadequate. However, one area of social development has shown considerable success in dealing with a multitude of problems and has given rise to a very optimistic outlook. This has been referred to by various names, including “social development,” “social innovation,” and “social entrepreneurship.” Although social innovators have always existed (St. Francis of Assisi, Florence Nightingale), social entrepreneurship has only recently become an established vocation and a part of mainstream society. Some even see the rise of social entrepreneurship as the leading edge of a phenomenal, worldwide development of new citizen organizations (Bornstein, 2004).

Social Entrepreneurs

Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has. (Margaret Mead)

DEFINITION OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

Social entrepreneurs can be found in all professions around the globe. Some focus on using business skills to achieve social goals. More significantly, however, entrepreneurs see a social problem and seek to transform society in order to solve the problem. Although entrepreneurs do give of their time and money, they are much more than charity workers or philanthropists. They are interested in achieving systemic change, altering behavior patterns and perceptions. These individuals are ordinary people with extraordinary dreams. They combine creativity with a determination to change things, which often borders on the obsessive. They often work for years without outside help or recognition, but they display dogged perseverance in their attempts to create their vision of society. Slowly the civic and business worlds are beginning to recognize the efforts of these entrepreneurs and to appreciate the results they are achieving. Klaus Schwab founded the Economic World Forum 30 years ago in an attempt to find joint solutions to problems and crises at the macroeconomic and geopolitical level. However, at the turn of the 21st century, he admits that this high-level cooperation is not enough. Significant social progress cannot be achieved without community-driven social entrepreneurship on a broad scale (Schwab, n.d.). Ashoka, an organization dedicated to the discovery, support, and networking of social entrepreneurs around the world, states that the most powerful force in the world today is a new idea in the hand of a leading social entrepreneur (Ashoka, n.d.).

CRITERIA FOR LOCATING ENTREPRENEURS

Ideas on their own, no matter how good, are not enough. Ideas must be skillfully marketed like any other service or commodity. This requires a special type of person – someone with skill, motivation, energy, and the stubbornness to do whatever is necessary to push through their view of the future. The end result is the shifting of people's perceptions and behaviors (Bornstein, 2004). Bill Drayton, founder of Ashoka, has dedicated his organization to locating potential entrepreneurs throughout the world and offering them both financial assistance and a network through which they can meet other like-minded innovators. Drayton has developed a detailed and carefully tested set of criteria by which to identify and select potential entrepreneurs. He includes traits such as creativity, entrepreneurial quality, the social impact of the entrepreneur's idea, and ethical fiber (Ashoka, n.d.). While these traits do not form a universally accepted definition of social entrepreneurnism, they do offer a fascinating glimpse of the type of persons who are out changing their world.

EXAMPLES OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

Organizations which seek out entrepreneurs for funding and support, such as Ashoka, the Schwab Foundation for Social Entrepreneuriship, Avina Foundation, and the Skoll Foundation, set very high standards for their candidates. After reading through a list of the required qualifications, one might well be tempted to ask if such people actually exist. Surprisingly, they not only exist; they might even be mistaken as ordinary. (See the Fast 50 list of ordinary people making extraordinary achievements in their respective fields; Fast Company, 2004). But hidden beneath an unprepossessing exterior, these individuals often demonstrate considerable organizational skills, informed by a vision of how to change their field, community, or society.

David Bornstein, in his new book *How to Change the World: Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas* (Bornstein, 2004), highlights the activity and contributions of a number of present-day entrepreneurs. He also presents several historical examples of entrepreneurs although in their time this was not the term used to describe them. Perhaps the most outstanding example is Florence Nightingale. Remembered now as the "lady of the lamp," she is generally considered the founder of the modern science of nursing. But most people do not realize the wide range of her interests or the lasting impact of her work. Entering into the nursing profession at the age of 33, against the wishes of her family, Nightingale was almost immediately thrust into the center of a maelstrom. Britain was immersed in the Crimean War and was suffering tremendous causalities. Nightingale was sent to Turkey to oversee the nursing operations, and she immediately proceeded to reorganize the medical facilities. Not only did she introduce sanitary improvements, but she also took over the office of army purveyor, straightened out problems with Turkish customs (in order to receive supplies), built a warehouse for medical supplies, and raised significant funds in England for use in the army hospitals. She set up reading rooms, recreation rooms, lectures, and classes for the soldiers, all of which improved morale. Most significantly, within three months the death rate dropped from 43% to 2%.

Although this would have been the crowning achievement of many careers,

Nightingale considered it only a beginning. Upon returning to England, she embarked on a campaign to reorganize the military hospitals throughout the British Empire. A keen student of mathematics and statistics, Nightingale was a pioneer in the use of graphical tools (such as pie charts), which she utilized to emphasize the need for change. Most of this work was done from her home, as Nightingale had contracted Crimean fever while working in Turkey and never fully recovered. However, she is credited with having written 12,000 letters and 200 books and reports. Above all, her efforts produced results. Wherever her recommendations were adopted, mortality rates dramatically fell. Hospitals began using her books as standard manuals for both training and operations and the modern nursing profession is based largely on her practices.

Although few could deny the contribution of Nightingale in saving many lives, some might question her significance as an entrepreneur or how her story could be used in an ESL classroom. Many universities which are teaching social entrepreneurship are developing case studies for students to use to discover and explore the basic elements of the social innovation. These case studies are written accounts of people who are making significant changes in their societies. They are not, however, simple hagiographies extolling the virtues of modern day saints. The studies are written with a goal in mind: to show how social change begins as an idea, is implemented through carefully thought-out plans, gradually gathers strength, and finally creates successful copies of itself throughout the culture. The history of Nightingale is a good example of a case study with a number of useful points to consider in the light of social entrepreneurship.

- Much of her work was done in direct opposition of established tradition. This earned her the continued resistance of many in positions of power. She ignored this, however, and pushed ahead with her work. This is often the case with entrepreneurs. People in positions of power dislike change as it may threaten their longevity. Entrepreneurs must find ways of convincing people that their ideas are worth changing for.
- Nightingale also showed creativity in her use of statistics. Entrepreneurs must be open to using many different tools, often from a variety of fields.
- Although Nightingale accomplished astonishing and admirable work, she paid a high personal price. With her contraction of Crimean fever, she spent the remainder of her life subject to fainting fits and considerable weakness. Entrepreneurs often give up wealth, comfort, and respect in order to push forward their ideas. This is not something everyone is willing to do, but it is often necessary in order to effect change.
- Finally, Nightingale was possessed by an idea. “The first thought I can remember, and the last,” she wrote, “was nursing work” (Bornstein, 2004, p. 45). Entrepreneurs are people obssessed. They cannot rest until society is changed. Peter Drucker, the management expert, once said, “Whenever anything is being done, I have learned, it is being done by a monomaniac with a mission” (Drucker, 1974, p. 255). This is an excellent description of social entrepreneurs – individuals who feel driven to mold or create a new vision of what should be.

Social entrepreneurs do not exist only in history books. Some of the most exciting work in social change is being done right now, often against tremendous odds. While Bornstein highlights some very impressive individuals in his

book, many other examples exist. Even a casual perusal of the media will produce interesting individuals.

The *Washington Post* reported in 2004 on the KIPP Academy Program, an innovative educational approach in the US, started by two rookie elementary teachers fresh out of college (Mathews, 2004). Their goal is to teach low-income students and to achieve outstanding test results. They use positive and negative reinforcement to motivate the students. This could include pizza parties, outings to local amusement parks for those students showing good attitudes and progress, or the lack of these activities if the students display poor academic or social skills. So far they have introduced the program in 36 schools and have experienced the largest and fastest learning gains in the country. The following points could be made regarding their innovation:

- Change is never easy. Even after obtaining outstanding results the first year and being voted teacher of the year (by fellow teachers) one of the teachers was fired. The principal cited "insubordination" as the reason. The real reason was that the new teaching method disrupted the status quo. Even a bad system prefers to remain undisturbed. Social entrepreneurs often face tremendous resistance to their ideas. The secret to success is learning how to overcome that resistance.
- One way of overcoming resistance is by leveraging coverage of your project. In this case, the teachers focused on obtaining outstanding academic results. In 1999, their schools in Houston and New York City had the best test scores of any school in their respective cities. This led to coverage by a national news program, which resulted in major funding by a foundation. Even good ideas need smart marketing.
- Success may take time. These teachers began in 1992 and did not achieve serious funding until 1999. During that time they taught classes in basements, trailers, or wherever they could beg, borrow, or steal space. The conditions were far from ideal, but they felt convinced that their system was producing good results.
- They didn't give up. Social entrepreneurs display great patience and persistence.

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE ESL CLASSROOM

The number of universities offering individual courses and entire degrees in social entrepreneurship has grown significantly in the past ten years. These centers of social change will do much in the future to help build and spread knowledge about social entrepreneurs' strategies and their impact on society. Language teachers, on the other hand, may feel that this field has limited potential within the classroom, aside from providing a platform to discuss global issues. However, there are numerous pedagogical ways to utilize this developing and exciting field.

Content-based teaching, in the ESL/EFL classroom, has become well established as a viable alternative to more traditional language curricula. It has been shown to be particularly helpful for preparing students to enter mainstream courses, preparing them for note-taking, academic reading and writing, and advanced conversation skills (Kasper, 2000). The study of social entrepreneurs and their methods offers a unique form of content-based teaching.

The majority of schools and foundations teaching social entrepreneurship (Duke, Stanford, Oxford, and The Schwab Foundation) utilize case studies as a major instructional method. Case studies are often utilized in problem-based learning. This is a method which first provides students with a body of information (obtained through a variety of formats, such as lectures, reading, and personal research). Students are then separated into small groups and presented with problems. These problems require the students to utilize the previously learned information and to apply it to the project at hand. In this case, the problems would be comprised of case studies of various social entrepreneurs. The rationale for using this approach is that it teaches a wide variety of skills, many of which are not easily taught in a lecture format. Students must demonstrate skill in reading, in summarizing a situation, and searching for key points in a passage. They can also be asked to compare and contrast ideas, approaches, and attitudes that are presented. If students demonstrate mastery of these skills, more advanced critical thinking skills could be introduced. After reading about several social entrepreneurs, students could be asked to list specific characteristics of each. They could then compare the entrepreneurs in order to identify what characteristics are common to all of them. In a related exercise, students could look at specific behaviors and attempt to extrapolate general principles of benefit to all entrepreneurs. Bornstein (2004, chap. 18) makes a list of these general qualities. This could be distributed before the exercise to be used as a guide, or afterwards as a kind of self-check. All of these skills could easily be adapted for the ESL classroom.

While the case studies used in major academic centers for social entrepreneurship may be too complex and advanced for ESL students (www.schwabfound.org/cases.htm), simplified versions could be made and used for teaching English. The basic format would be the same. A short introduction could broach a topic. This could be about a country, a group of marginal people, or a social system with problems. Then the social entrepreneur could be introduced with a tie-in to show how they are connected to the opening topic. This could also present the source of inspiration which is creating change. After explaining what the entrepreneur is attempting to do, sections could be included to outline basic challenges met along the way and how these challenges were overcome. Additional information could be provided on challenges for the future and lessons learned from the experience. Worksheets could be provided for each section to ensure student comprehension and to help with organizing the material in the students' minds.

Some case studies have already been prepared by academic organizations and could be adapted for use in class (refer to the resource section at the end of this paper). Other examples could be collected from newspapers, magazines, and the Internet. This is the area which will demand the greatest amount of preparation time for the teacher. The teacher must decide which examples to use, what points to bring out, how to direct the students to find the information for themselves (sometimes with a little guidance).

The format in which the case study is presented must also be considered. The most basic would be a packet of papers which the students would be expected to read and discuss. An alternative would be to create a Web quest. These are Internet-based research projects, very similar to case studies. Students are sent off to explore a subject, looking at various sites (pre-arranged by the teacher), all of which contribute to some aspect of the problem. An ex-

cellent example of this type of learning is the "Searching for China Webquest" (Knowledge Network Explorer, 2005a). The case study could be arranged in a very similar manner with students looking at different pages of the site to obtain different material. The above-mentioned Web quest also demonstrates how students can be gradually led from a very general survey of the subject to a much more detailed and complex discussion of the problems. For the technologically challenged, it even offers a template service to create a webquest (Knowledge Network Explorer, 2005b).

The development of case studies is currently an area of academic research. In order to train a new generation of entrepreneurs, it is necessary to study the successes and failures of the best entrepreneurs today. By developing case studies, students can study techniques and methods as well as develop critical thinking skills. Social entrepreneurs are people who see opportunity in change, who create paradigm shifts. This is not an easy talent to develop. Students should be given practice looking at the facts and then trying to find creative ways of rearranging them to solve problems. One possible exercise, after having introduced social entrepreneurs and looked at several case studies, would be for students to search the media for examples of social change. Emphasis could be given to local examples. For Korea, one such example might be the entrepreneur Kim Beom Hoon. Using his company Hoonnet.com, he has begun the first Internet caf? on North Korea (Rantburg 2003). While the long-term results of this action remain to be seen, it is this sort of lateral thinking and sense of enterprise that enables real social change. Examples such as these could then be developed into new case studies, for use with future students.

Since examples of successful entrepreneurs are available in a great variety of fields and countries, finding subjects to focus on should be relatively easy. These include health care, housing, food, poverty, and business innovations for low-income entrepreneurs. The examples could also provide an avenue to highlight various cultures and to explore a wide variety of social problems and challenges worldwide. Such studies could also be incorporated into intercultural communication courses or activities. These could highlight how different cultures value different things and how people might go about solving problems in their specific area. On a broader scale, teachers interested in promoting student awareness of global issues have a great wealth of resources available on the Internet. Specifically for teachers of English in Korea, there is a Global Issues SIG (Special Interest Group), a part of the KOTESOL organization (KOTESOL, 2005a). Although the scope of this site is much greater than just social entrepreneurship, it includes a number of links on this topic. One possible use for the Global Issues site would be to use one of the general sites listed on the links page to introduce a topic. Good starting points might be the Globalization101.org site (Center for Strategic and International Studies, n.d.). or the UN 15 Global Challenges site (American Council for the United Nations University, n.d.). After students have absorbed and discussed the larger issues, a case study of a social entrepreneur dealing with this problem could be introduced. This would not only help students place the work of the entrepreneur in a larger context, but would also highlight positive efforts being made to combat the problem.

Another useful aspect of the Global Issues Web site is the potential it possesses for becoming a clearinghouse for teaching material. The development of useful case studies is time-consuming work. If teachers were to offer developed

materials for use by other interested parties, this could greatly ease the burden of preparation for teaching this subject. It may also spark ideas from others, which would create a virtuous cycle of inspiration, development, and sharing. It is hoped that educators concerned about global issues will use this resource and help create a vibrant, stimulating community online.

One very positive aspect of this subject is that it allows for considerable optimism despite the staggering number of depressing social problems around the world. The example of ordinary people who have taken upon themselves the responsibility of changing the world is very inspiring. At the very least, it should help in convincing students that they can find solutions for whatever problems face them. Building confidence in both students' language ability and their ability to tackle life's challenges is one of the greatest gifts a teacher can give. Ultimately, the study of entrepreneurship may present students the opportunity to consider their own community and perhaps find ways to practice their own version of social innovation.

Areas for Research

While social entrepreneurs have been active for centuries in one form or another, serious research on the subject has only recently begun to take shape. While this makes teaching the subject something of a challenge, it offers academics interested in research a fresh field of inquiry and publication. A brief look through the leading academic sites shows some of the areas currently under study or in need of additional research.

Much of the work being done is centered on how entrepreneurs work: their methods, techniques, and procedures. These could include subjects such as how to create opportunities worthy of serious pursuit, how to mobilize resources and leverage ideas, and strategies for scaling out successful social innovations. Of equal interest is how to measure or evaluate the effectiveness of social projects. As mentioned above, the creation of case studies is also crucial for the study and teaching of social entrepreneurship.

By very definition, social entrepreneurs are people who build networks and rely on help from a variety of sources. The subject of networks – how they form and operate, and what they look like – is another area ripe for immediate inquiry. At the most recent meeting of Ars Electronica, a festival for the bridging of art and science, considerable attention was given to social networking and techniques for mapping this phenomenon (Sterling, 2004). New computer-generated maps can help point out obscure but important activity taking place or locate potential sponsors who would benefit from a particular range of activity. This could be of great value for entrepreneurs looking for funding or other types of support.

Teachers attempting to incorporate social entrepreneurship into the ESL classroom could also research a number of areas (see the KOTESOL Research site for many helpful suggestions for approach and methodology; KOTESOL, 2005b). The study of intercultural communication demonstrates that Western and Eastern attitudes and assumptions often differ radically. Teachers could examine and explore student attitudes on a variety of subjects and relate them to how they might affect the development of social entrepreneurship. This researcher is preparing a study on differing attitudes toward success and how

these attitudes either predispose individuals toward "safe," traditional jobs or encourage the taking of riskier but potentially more rewarding positions. This study was developed from a content-based course designed to teach the principles of success. During the course, it became apparent that principles of success commonly accepted as universal in the West are sometimes very foreign to Korean students. An example might be attitudes toward failure and risk. In the US, risk is seen as a necessary part of any business enterprise. If someone tries and fails, little negative social stigma is attached to them. Should they attempt a new business and succeed, they are often praised as models of persistence and intelligence. Donald Trump, the New York real estate tycoon, is the classic example. However, in Korea the situation can be very different. Risk and failure are taken very seriously, and those who suffer them are often ostracized. This can have a very pronounced impact on how one views success. It could also negatively affect one's ability to develop as a social entrepreneur or to help others who are attempting to become social entrepreneurs. Studies on topics such as these could prove very useful for the community of teachers in Korea. They might also stimulate interest further afield. Korea is paid relatively little interest in academic circles, and quality research could prove a positive catalyst for more attention to this part of the world.

Since the need for case studies is great, teachers could also encourage their students to look for appropriate examples in local settings. As mentioned above, this raw material could be reworked into case studies, highlighting social problems in Korea and presenting positive steps to alleviate them. One need look no further than the educational system to cite multiple challenges and opportunities. The field is ripe for the work of a social entrepreneur intent on reform and innovation. Bornstein (2004) cites the work of Gloria de Souza in India's educational system, which is in some ways comparable to that of Korea. Frustrated with a system that emphasized rote learning, de Souza sought to design lessons that would teach children to think, solve problems, and be creative. She also attempted to introduce these ideas to her colleagues. They expressed interest but told her that while the philosophy was good, it was impractical to attempt in India. Her major challenge was to sell her ideas to administrators, teachers, parents, and students in a rigid, authoritarian system. Over a long period, she was able to do just that and has enjoyed considerable success. Korea could also benefit from such innovation. But it will take a social entrepreneur of similar thick skin, fortitude, and vision to effect such change. Perhaps the teaching of social entrepreneurship and the research which could follow might encourage just such a revolution.

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SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INTERNET RESOURCES ON SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

IDENTIFYING AND SUPPORTING SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS

Ashoka – Innovators for the Public: http://www.ashoka.org
Avina Foundation: http://www.avina.net
Changemakers Journal and Resources: http://www.changemakers.net
Echoing Green Foundation: http://www.echoinggreen.org
New Schools Venture Fund: http://www.newschools.org
Schwab Foundation for Social Entrepreneurs: http://www.schwabfound.org
The Skoll Foundation: http://www.skollfoundation.org
Youth Venture: http://www.youthventure.org

MANAGEMENT AND FUNDING

Peter F. Drucker Foundation for Nonprofit Management, http://www.pfdf.org
Haas School of Business at U.C. Berkeley, National Social Venture Competition: http://www.socialvc.net
Institute for Social Entrepreneurs: http://www.socialent.org
SocialEdge: http://www.socialedge.org

ACADEMIC

Canadian Center for Social Entrepreneurship: http://www.bus.ualberta.ca/ccse
Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship, Fuqua School of Business, Duke University: http://www.fuqua.duke.edu
Harvard Business School, Initiative on Social Enterprise: http://www.hbs.edu/socialenterprise
Johns Hopkins University Institute for Policy Studies, Center for Civil Society Studies: http://www.jhu.edu/~ccss
Skoll Centre for Social Entrepreneurship, Said Business School at Oxford University: http://www.sbs.ox.ac.uk/html/faculty_skoll_main.asp
Stanford Business School, Center for Social Innovation: http://www.gsb.stanford.edu/csi

Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation in the EFL Environment

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ABSTRACT

This paper is based on a presentation which looks at intrinsic and extrinsic motivational theories and how they can be applied in an EFL environment like that of a Korean university classroom. Secondly, some common motivational and discipline problems (and possible solutions) are presented and discussed, with an example of one problem and some proposed solutions. Finally, the presenter's conclusions are outlined and explained.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the rather theoretical-sounding title, the focus of both the presentation and this paper are on actual classroom practices. There are actually four schools of thought regarding motivation according to educational psychology textbooks like Anita Woolfolk's (1990). But, before getting into the more practical applications of these, some basic definitions of terms are in order:

- Motivation: The reason why you do something, the incentive.
- Intrinsic Motivation: Belonging to the nature of a thing, like a game which is fun and inspires interest and curiosity.
- Extrinsic Motivation: External or coming from outside the activity, like punishments and rewards.

FOUR THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Now that it has been established what motivation is, the four schools of thought regarding motivation in educational psychology should also be reviewed.

BEHAVIORAL APPROACHES: These approaches assume that our basic physiological needs motivate us, and when hunger, thirst, and so on are satisfied, we will behave in certain ways because they are associated with these needs (e.g., Skinner and Pavlov).

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES: These approaches emphasize personal choice, freedom, self-determination, and striving for personal growth. Stress is also given to the importance of intrinsic motivation (e.g., Maslow and Carl Rogers).

COGNITIVE APPROACHES: These approaches hold that people respond not to external events or physical conditions like hunger, but rather to their interpretations of those events. Cognitive theorists believe that behavior is determined by our thinking, not simply by whether we have been rewarded or punished for the behaviors in the past. People work hard because they enjoy the work and want to understand. Once again, motivation is intrinsic.

SOCIAL LEARNING APPROACHES: These are a combination of behavioral and cognitive approaches, and thereby both the effects of outcomes and the impact of individual beliefs are taken into account. Motivation is seen as a product of the individual's expectation of reaching a goal and the value of that goal to him or her (e.g., Bandura).

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND CLASS RULES

While favoring a humanistic, student-centered approach overall, this teacher is not shy about using the stick or the carrot when the situation dictates.

The point of any lesson is to teach something to the students – but that is certainly not what interests most students. That is where it falls to the teacher to make things both interesting and educational.

Here are two examples of things that work well. First, make sure that the students know what the teacher expects of them. The first class hour is spent explaining the class outline in detail, and class rules are explained in both English and Korean so that the number of "misunderstandings" is kept to a minimum. The current rules are as follows:

- Be on time. (Western time, not Korean.).
- Ask questions. (In this case, silence is not golden.)
- Speak only English. (This is not a Japanese, German, French, or Korean class.)
- Attendance and participation are important and will be reflected in your mark.
- Cell phones and beepers must be turned off. (Need I explain?!)
- This is our class, so let's make it interesting and fun. (The same could be true of a good presentation.)
- Bring all necessary materials to class. (Books, pens, notebook, and so on. A recent problem, and one that still surprises me at the university level.)

Students who are concerned about the teacher's expectations – especially when they are taking a class taught by a native speaker for only the first or second time – need to feel that they know what is expected of them. They need to know how this class will be similar to or different from those they have taken in the past, and the class rules help to set the tone and overcome at least some of their fears about a class taught in English by a non-Korean. Ultimately, this breaks down some of the barriers between the students and the teacher right from the start and allows students who are truly interested and motivated to concentrate on learning what the class has to offer, rather than on what the foreign teacher may expect from them in terms of behavior or coursework. Ultimately, students who are comfortable in the classroom environment will, in turn, be better learners.

Second, a teaching balance between challenging and easy-to-relate-to is

maintained. The grammar and textbook may not be the most interesting things for them to study, but they are necessary for the learning process to progress. The average student, especially in an Asian class environment, uses the textbook as a "security blanket." It then falls to the teacher to make them forget for at least a few minutes that they are learning English, and then they can have some fun using what has been done in class in a game or other activity. Of course, giving out prizes or even letting the good students get out of homework doesn't hurt either.

A perfect teacher in a perfect classroom conducting perfect classes in a perfect world would never have any problems, and all of it would be boring for teacher and students alike. As a western teacher in an eastern educational setting, it can be more challenging than in a more normal or average situation. Most western teachers expect students to take some interest in English language and culture, and students assume that westerners will do the teaching without asking for too much input or giving too much homework. While teachers may be willing to be flexible up to a point and try to encourage them to find their own reasons to want to study English, there are times when we all get frustrated for a variety of reasons (e.g., persistently coming late to class and speaking only Korean). The presenter compiled a list of classroom problems experienced by many teachers and presented these. Although willing to show what he has done in these cases, to maintain interest the presenter asked the attendees to share some of their problems as teachers and brainstormed for ideas on how to solve these problems.

As an example, one of the problems listed was "a student's cell phone is constantly going off while you are trying to teach, and sometimes she actually answers the phone or makes calls during class." Some of the great suggestions that were made for solving this were: (a) make the student buy the teacher a coffee, (b) answer the phone yourself and talk to the caller in English or tell them that the student they are calling is in class and to call back later, (c) remove the battery and return the phone, and (d) create a "cell phone jail" and put the phone in it until the end of class. All of which were much more creative than the presenter's usual solution of telling the student to turn it off and taking a point off their grade.

Classroom Management Tips

The presenter's conclusions on how to motivate students more effectively and accomplish this follow.

MAKE YOUR EXPECTATIONS CLEAR FROM THE START.

Make class rules clear from the start in both Korean and English. The teacher makes a public example by marking the grading sheet when students volunteer, as an example of a positive bonus point, and when they break one of the rules thereby earning a negative bonus point. These are then used at the end of the term to calculate their grades for participation and attendance.

MAINTAIN DISCIPLINE.

The presenter is not a strict teacher by nature, so he uses rules and verbal encouragement to keep the students behaving. Most of us try to be somewhat flexible in how we interpret student behaviors, and that means that we can give the good students or students with good reasons a break, but being consistent and applying the rules fairly has helped avoid many of the usual discipline problems.

PUT THE ONUS ON THE STUDENTS.

The students dealt with are usually freshmen straight out of high school. They want to play and avoid homework as much as possible, but they also respond well to being told what is expected of them. “Strict but fair” is what many students have said of the presenter to his boss and colleagues – and that suits him just fine.

MAKE CLASS INTERESTING AND FUN.

While preparing students for a standardized exam, teachers also want their classes to be comfortable and fun. Lots of group and pair work, games, problem solving, role plays, poster activities, and any other available techniques are used to activate what they already know as “false beginners.” It is also worthwhile to help them get used to university life and develop their English knowledge and understanding of western culture.

IF YOU MUST MOTIVATE YOUR STUDENTS, USE BOTH THE CARROT AND THE STICK APPROACH.

The presenter rarely gives out prizes, but does try to make “game days” a regular part of class. About once a month, a game day is used to review what we have previously covered, with small prizes or bonus points awarded to the winning team or teams. Games are usually more of a communicative activity like “Sentence Auction,” which uses common Konglish errors, or “Hanyang University InfoHunt” to help students become more familiar with their campus.

IF YOU CARE, THEY WILL RESPOND. IF YOU DON’T, THEY WILL ACT ACCORDINGLY.

Students are not numbers, they are people. Although this teacher’s memory for names is degrading by the semester, making an effort to be caring and flexible with classes and individual students as much as possible is important. Letting classes go early on the first day as a sign of good faith or cutting lessons short by a few minutes to let an exhausted class get an assignment done is no crime and is often repaid many times over in the enthusiasm and respect students give in return even when the lessons aren’t going so well. In the end, people need to know that others care about them. Such a lesson far outweighs the advantage of getting that last two minutes of material covered or even how much information the students will remember after the final exam.

There are no perfect solutions, of course, and there are no solutions that will work for everyone. But hopefully by sharing experiences, participants can improve their teaching and classroom management skills while the ability of students to learn English in a more comfortable and interesting way will make sense for everyone.

The Author

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Positively Reinforcing School-wide English-Only Policy

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ABSTRACT

Faced with the persistent and somewhat controversial problem of students ignoring English-only rules, a coupon reward system based on inter-class competition was developed to promote the use of English throughout school premises. Now in place for one year, this program has had positive results. Originally presented as a workshop, this report details the decision-making process used to design the program and addresses common questions related to this issue.

INTRODUCTION

This workshop was intended to take participants through three key stages in the development of Gangnam-University of California Riverside International Center's (hereafter, GNUCR) school-wide coupon system designed to promote use of only English throughout the premises of our school.

GNUCR is a collaborative project between the city of Gangnam and the University of California at Riverside. The school runs a full-time (6-hour-per-day) intensive-English curriculum for skill levels ranging from beginner to upper-advanced. Typically, there are 200 students studying at the school. School sessions run for eight weeks.

GNUCR intends to emulate experiences of students studying ESL on campus at UC Riverside in the US. To simulate such circumstances, the school has an English-only policy in effect throughout its confines excepting the locker-room area (where students can answer their mobile phones). Issues of speaking L1 in the classroom have effectively been controlled: Students are declared absent if they use a language other than English during classroom activities. Twenty absences results in a dismissal from the program. Still, students have continued to speak their L1 (Korean) in the hallways. Over its two years of existence, the school has received repeated complaints on course evaluations about non-enforcement of the school-wide English-only policy. At the same time, when attempts are made to enforce this policy, other students voice opposition, citing their own historical/cultural concerns about being forced to speak another language. At this point, reinforcement consists of teachers confronting L1-using students in the hallways and asking them to speak only English.

TASK ONE

Questions: What are your own feelings about English-only on a school-wide

basis? How should one go about enforcing an English-only policy? What rules would you make?

Reflection: Staff members had highly diverse opinions ranging from there being no practical reinforcement measures to suggesting a zero-tolerance policy whereby any student caught speaking English would be dismissed. As such, a committee of teachers was assembled to tackle the issue. After meeting, the committee elected to try positive reinforcement before resorting to negative reinforcement. The consensus was that positive reinforcement should be proven ineffective before taking up other measures.

This committee decided to create a “coupon system” administered by teachers to promote English speaking in the hallways. In other words, students would be awarded coupons for speaking English in the hallways. The class with the most coupons at the end of a session would then be rewarded. By making the system class-based and not individually focused, teamwork among students would be essential. Victory would be for the class as a whole, not one individual.

TASK TWO

Questions: Starting with this basic premise, the coupon system is in need of “fleshing out.” Participants were asked: What exactly would the rules be? What considerations are there? How would you develop such a system?

Reflection: There were many issues:

1) Time. Teachers are already busy. How will this impact them? Decision: It will be left up to individual teachers as to how much they participate in this program. To date, some teachers have participated more than others.

2) Money. A reward means some form of giving. What kind of (feasible) reward should there be? Decision: Students in the winning class will each be an awarded a W10,000 *Moonhwa Sangpoomgwan* gift certificate (see workshop Q&A for more details).

3) Enforcement. Immediately, one can picture students speaking English solely for the purpose of getting a coupon, and then reverting back to L1 when teachers weren't around. This was the ultimate conundrum: How could one differentiate between earnest attempts to speak English only and simple pandering for coupons? Decision: There was no scientific answer to this question. It would be up to teachers to discern between the two. There was also the issue of teachers’ bias towards their own students. To date, our staff trusts each other to be fair on these points. To date, we have no complaints from either staff or students about bias in the program.

Results: The coupon program is highly popular among students. Focus has shifted from global issues of whether students should speak only English to a competitive atmosphere of who can speak English the most. Teachers give out coupons of their own free will. No one is forced to do anything, but most teachers and students actively participate in the program.

TASK THREE

Question: The coupon system has taken hold, but there is also a “burnout factor” for both teachers and students. The system is fun to begin with, but needs refreshment. What new innovations can be introduced to keep this sys-

tem interesting?

Reflection: Giving up was a serious consideration. Often, one class would pull ahead of others early in the session. Particularly, returning students already familiar with the competition had an advantage over new students. Safeguards were needed to keep the contest interesting and motivating.

1) Competitions were introduced. The school hosts regular spelling bees, quiz competitions, and essay contests. Winning groups receive coupon bonuses. To make this more concrete, winning classes typically earn about 100 coupons over one 8-week session. Hence, competitions, with 10-coupon rewards, not only allow classes to "equalize" their status but also compel classes in the lead to participate in order to remain competitive.

2) Participation. At times, the school has special visitors or other special events. Students participating in these events are rewarded with coupons.

3) Double-Coupon Day. Like western supermarkets, every Tuesday special gold coupons worth double value are awarded. These same gold coupons are awarded exclusively throughout the week when the director finds students speaking English.

4) Wall of Fame. The winning class is photographed and, along with their names and total coupon count, memorialized on a special wall designated for this purpose. Consistently over the past year, new classes have beaten previous records. When the program was introduced in January of 2004, the winning class had earned 52 coupons. As of December 2004, the winning class had 117 coupons.

Final Assessment: Ultimately, the competitive spirit among students has fuelled the coupon program and taken care of the school's concerns more so than any immediate need for negative reinforcement. Complaints about non-enforcement of the school-wide English-only policy have dropped substantially. Teachers are satisfied with the time commitment and the results.

WORKSHOP QUESTION AND ANSWER

Question: W10,000 per winning student seems expensive. How do you justify this expenditure?

Answer: Generally speaking, classes end with roughly 14 students. Given that number, we spend W140,000 per session. Our school has six sessions per year, making the total estimated cost W840,000 per year. This is only slightly higher than a pizza party and movie (the most commonly suggested alternative). However, our students often have their own privately planned parties or other social events, which would make the prize less unique. Another possibility was offering discounts on future study, but the attraction thereof is reduced by the number of students at GNUCR who are planning to go abroad. The W10,000 gift certificate has a range of uses from buying books to attending movies or cultural events. Thus, the group effort of the winning class results in an individual award that can be used in a variety of ways regardless of whether a student is moving away or staying in country.

Question: What about individuals? While the class may win, it depends upon the students who actually put out the effort to earn the coupons. Could there also be individual awards?

Answer: Indeed there are individual students who participate more, and

others who participate little, if at all. Over the course of the past year though, it has overwhelmingly been classes who have worked together as a team who have won. While certain students in a given class might try harder than others, the committee consensus was that a group effort would promote the overall goal more than rewarding students individually. A more pragmatic point is that the scoreboard and other aspects of the program are more easily administered through group, as opposed to individual, tallies. On the other hand, during our most recent "quiz bowl," we opened up the competition to multi-class teams and then divided the coupon awards equally among team members, allowing friends in different classes or levels to work together.

Question: I have a school where I teach five classes of children over the course of one day. How could this system be used under these circumstances?

Answer: At the time of the conference, there was no practical answer to this question. After further reflection, GNUCR staff offered up the possibility of dividing a single class into teams to compete with one another. The program was designed to suit our own school's needs, but particularly in the case of children, there is no reason to suspect that a customized version would not have the same results, if not better.

Question: Your school awards students for speaking English. What about taking coupons away for speaking Korean?

Answer: This issue has been brought up at GNUCR. During one session, students were found to be speaking a conspicuous amount of Korean and ignoring the coupon program. Review of the situation suggested it was because the coupon program was slow to be implemented (starting a week late in this particular session). By handing out coupons immediately during the first few days of the next session, this problem was corrected. This system certainly does not eradicate all L1 usage in the school, but it does promote using English. By crossing the line between positive and negative reinforcement, fairness becomes far more significant. Negative reinforcement such as this would mean the teaching staff would need to strictly police the hallways in order for the system to be fair, meaning an increase in teacher duties and more negativity associated with English. Also, as this is a group effort, singling students out for infractions could further alienate those already uninterested in the program, especially in the early weeks of the session.

Question: Are there measures other than confiscating coupons that could be used as a deterrent?

Answer: One idea was a bulletin board where quotes of students found speaking L1 could be posted along with English translations. This is promising, but no action has been taken yet.

Question: Could you be more specific about the program itself? How many coupons are awarded in any given session?

Answer: Initially, teachers were limited to awarding 2 coupons per day. Then the count was relaxed to 20. As of now, there is no limit as to how many coupons can be awarded. Typically, about 100 hundred coupons are awarded per week. In a single week, we've had classes gather anywhere from 0-35 coupons. When the program was introduced in January of 2004, the winning class had earned a total of 52 coupons. As of December 2004, the winning class had 117 coupons. With the coupon record posted on the Wall of Fame, students continue to try and beat that record.

Question: When you say "coupon," what exactly do you mean? What are

you using for coupons?

Answer: The coupons themselves are laminated pieces of white and gold paper bearing the school logo. They're about the size of business cards.

CONCLUSION

When the program was started, the intention was purely to combat what was being taken as a frivolous aspect of school rules. In the end (and unexpectedly), the competitive aspect has given the program a life of its own.

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Conference Overview

Presentations of the

12th Korea TESOL International Conference

Expanding Horizons: Techniques and Technology in ELT

October 9-10, 2004, Seoul, Korea

The 2004 Korea TESOL Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following people for presenting research papers, conducting workshops, and leading discussions at the 12th Korea TESOL International Conference. Listings are in alphabetical order by surname (academic preceding commercial presentations), followed by the title of the session; co-presenters are listed separately.

Academic Presentations

Presenter	Session title
Mohammad Al-Zahrani	Saudi Secondary School Students' Attitudes Toward English
William Michael Balsamo	Computer-Based Activities for ESL Students
William Michael Balsamo	Storyboards for All Occasions
Shahabaddin Behtary	Prerequisite English Course: Efficient or Not?
Jared Bernstein	Performances on Children's Speaking Assessments
Michael Breen	Being a Foreigner in Korea
Jennifer Brown	Positively Enforcing School-wide English-Only Policies
Kip Cates	English and Environment: The Earth Day Special
Sunmee Chang	New Aspects of Display Questions
Lani Chau Yonezawa	First Steps Toward Learner Autonomy
Cheryl C. Y. Choe	Perceived Self-Efficacy in SLA
Jill Christopher	English Through Drama: Stepping into Language
Jill Christopher	Cross-age Reading in a Multi-age Bilingual Classroom
Peter Connell	Provide Listening Tasks for Homework!
Anthony Paul Crooks	The Appropriation of ELT for Political Purposes
Anthony Paul Crooks	University ELT Classes Using WebGroups
Robert Curr	Positively Enforcing School-wide English-Only Policies
Paul Daniels	Implementing Technology into Project-Based Curricula
David Deeds	CALL in Context: Incorporating CALL into Specific Curriculums in Korea
Shirley DeMerchant	Being an Effective Christian Teacher
Christopher Douloff	CALL in Context: Incorporating CALL into Specific Curriculums in Korea
David W. Dugas	In Pursuit of Excellence: EFL Course Design
David W. Dugas	Potential of MP3 Technology for Teaching Conversation
Christian Duncumb	Grammaticization
Christian Duncumb	Active Monitoring
Carl Dusthimer	Gyeonggi Goes Immersion
Michel Englebert	Using a Cross-cultural Content-Based Curriculum in the Language Classroom
Michel Englebert	Designing a Self-Access Center: Challenges and Opportunities
Andrew Edward Finch	Grammar Online: Supplementing Textbooks Through Student-Specific Activities

Andrew Edward Finch	Project-Based Learning: It's Up to You
Heather Fisher	Deep Vocabulary Development for Young Learners
Heather Fisher	Balanced Strategic Assessment for EFL Teacher Training
Richard Gallerno	Practice What You Preach
Kathleen Graves	Can Classrooms Be Learning Communities?
Kathleen Graves	Creating Collaborative Teacher Communities
John Grummitt	Harnessing IT for Young Learners
Patrick Michael Guilfoyle	Being an Effective Christian Teacher
Hamid Reza Haghverdi	Construct Validity of Current Listening Comprehension Tests
Steven Hales	Online Discussion Boards: Why and How?
Ryuji Harada	Promoting Non-culturism in English Teaching in Asia
Jeffrey Hawkins	Enhance Language Learning Through Inquiry Techniques: An Action Research Process
Diane Hawley Nagatomo	Confessions of a Muddled Moodler
Tomoko Hayashi	Lifelong English and Language Education in Japan and Korea Through the Internet
Ranjan C. K. Hettiarchchige	A Diachronic and Synchronic Quantitative Analysis of the English Textbooks of China, Korea, and Japan
Ranjan C. K. Hettiarchchige	The Acquisition of Countability Structures by L2 Learners of English
Daniel O. Jackson	Connecting EFL Courses to the Web
Craig Lewis Jensen	E-Learning: Less "E," More "Learning"
Myung-Jai Kang	Methodological Options in English Grammar Teaching in an EFL Context
David D. I. Kim	Students Assess English Writing Similar to Teachers in a University Composition Course
David D. I. Kim	Teaching English Writing in Korea: Curriculum Development and Methodology
Jake Kimball	Content-Based Instruction in Korea: Friend or Foe?
Ronald Klein	Tacit Misunderstandings: Ellipsis in Reading and Listening
Heejeon Ko-Bras	Deep Vocabulary Development for Young Learners
Almut Koester	Learning from Real Conversations for Business English
Ana Lado	Using TEFL-Friendly Literature with Beginner Children?
Ma. Milagros Laurel	Alternative Approaches and Methodologies for Under-re sourced Classrooms
Ma. Milagros Laurel	Literature and the Other Arts in the EFL Classroom
Boyoung Lee	Featured Presentation
Hee-Kyung Lee	Comparison of Students' Satisfaction Between EBP and General ESL Class
James H. Life	Sentence Patterns for Information Exchange in English
Joseph Lo Bianco	English and Identity: Dilemmas and Trends
Yoshiharu Masuda	Effects of Hand Movements in English Teaching
Takeshi Matsuzaki	Developing L2 Oral Fluency with DVDs
John McNulty	Assessing Academic Writing
Michael Stetson Merrill	The Golden Ears: Designing and Integrating Effective Listening Activities
Hyunsik Min	Grammar Teaching and the Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Paul Nation	Evaluating a Vocabulary Program
Paul Nation	Guessing from Context
Frank Otto	Teaching and Learning English with Interactive Multimedia Technology
Toshiaki Ozasa	A Diachronic and Synchronic Quantitative Analysis of the English Textbooks of China, Korea, and Japan
Toshiaki Ozasa	The Acquisition of Countability Structures by L2 Learners of English
Robert C. Palmer	The Possible Need for "Reconstruction" Tasks
Brian Paltridge	New Perspectives on Teaching Writing
Eric J. Phillips	Implementation and Evaluation of Electronic Journals
Susan Pryor	The Essential Resources?for Learning Language
Rube Redfield	Comparing Classroom-Based Instruction with Computer-Aided Instruction
Rube Redfield	Comparing Chinese and Japanese Learners' Attitudes
Joy M. Reid	Retrospective: Reflections on Learning Styles and Students
Douglas Lee Rhein	Public Speaking: Design and Implementation
Jon Rowberry	First Steps Toward Learner Autonomy
Tony Schiera	Making Your Textbook a Tool for Conversations
Zohreh Seifoori	Constructivism: Facts and Fictions in Iranian ELT
David E. Shaffer	Image Schema to Teach By
Dongil Shin	Aligning a Curriculum with a Graduation Requirement Test
Hee-Jae Shin	Teacher Perceptions on Internet-Assisted English Language Teaching
Gyonggu Shin	Web Textbooks and Cooperative Learning
Joyce Silva	New Literacies: Innovating Strategies for L2 Pedagogy
Robert Snell	Save the World While Teaching English
Jeong-Bae Son	Teacher Perceptions on Internet-Assisted English Language Teaching
Jeong-Bae Son	CALL in Context: Incorporating CALL into Specific Curriculums in Korea
Terry Stocker	Practice What You Preach
Min-hsun Maggie Su	The Impact of a Short-Term English Program on EFL Learners
Min-hsun Maggie Su	The Importance of EFL Learners' Satisfaction and Learning Strategies
Melinda Tan	CLT: Beliefs and Practices
Tory Thorkelson	Motivation and Discipline in University EFL Environments
James Trotta	CALL in Context: Incorporating CALL into Specific Curriculums in Korea
James Trotta	Teaching World Standard English: Sociocultural Considerations
Adam Turner	The Composition Class Is Dead
Adam Turner	What Does a Well-Designed Quiz Look Like?
Alena Turskina	Helping Students Learn About Formality in Written Communication
Melanie van den Hoven	Online Discussion Boards: Why and How?
Chaochang Wang	Taiwanese English Teachers' Conceptions About CLT
Tammy Warren	Targeting Teaching Techniques for Early Learners
Dave Watton	Classroom Assessment: The Heart of the Matter

Lawrence White	Preparation and Use of Video for the Multi-level Classroom
Ernest J. Wolf	Bridging the Gap with Technology: Computer-Assisted Language Learning
Wenhsien Yang	Mind the Gap: INSET Needs and Provisions
Wenhsien Yang	CALL: Assistance or Anxiety in English Teaching?
Kensaku Yoshida	The Fish Bowl, Open Seas, and International English

Commercial Presentations

Lauren Alderfer	EFL as a Tool for Social Responsibility
Fiona Antonucci	TESOL in Australia
Nalin Bahuguna	Dictionaries for EFL Students: Making an Informed Choice
Nalin Bahuguna	*Select Readings*: Reading Skills and Language Development
Max Jacob Becker-Pos	Getting the Most Out of *Identity*
Eden Brough	Five Steps to Academic Reading Success
Eden Brough	*Go For It!* Energizing High School Classes!
Kee-Hyung Choe	The First Automatic Tests of Spoken English
Gilly Dempster	Climb on Board and Enjoy the Fun!
Gilly Dempster	Welcome to *Smile* New Edition!
Gilly Dempster	Let's *Bounce!*
Heather Fisher	Teach for Success with *American Headway*
Heather Fisher	Student Success with *English KnowHow*
Heather Fisher	Engage Young Learners with *English Time*!
Clyde Fowle	Creative Reading
Clyde Fowle	Integrating Skills
Clyde Fowle	*Speaking Personally*
Steven Gershon	*Upgrade* Your Students' English
Steven Gershon	*Gear Up* for Conversation
Jason Good	Daybooks: Intergrating Reading, Writing, and Critical Thinking
Jason Good	Houghton Mifflin Reading in the ELL Environment
Kathleen Graves	*ICON*: Getting Students and Teachers on the Same Page
Jana Holt	Grammar Form and Function
Patrick Hwang	Teaching Phonics to Children in Asia
Andrea Janzen	Teaching Phonics to Children in Asia
Michelle Kim	Introducing Literacy Through *Kindergarten Place*
Peter Kim	English Grammar Learning Problems for Korean Students
Donna L. Knoell	Reading Comprehension Series in Varied Subject Matter
Almut Koester	The University of Birmingham Open Distance Learning
Aleda Krause	*SuperKids* Has a New Edition!
Helen Lee	Alphabet Recognition and Phonemic Awareness Through *AlphaTales*
Moon Jeong "Curie" Lim	M.A.P. Your Way to Success in the Classroom with *Worldview*
Moon Jeong "Curie" Lim	Extensive Reading with Penguin Readers
Caroline Linse	*Fingerprints*: Making the Most of Activity Book Pages
Joseph Lo Bianco	Language Policy and Planning in a Global Era
Alison Macaulay	Using Corpus Data in the Language Classroom
Casey Malarcher	Readings for the Real World

Ian Martin	*Weaving it Together*: Connecting Reading to Writing
Ian Martin	Techniques for Developing Fluency: *World Link*
Scott Miles	Helping Students Develop Language Study Skills
US Embassy Consular	Student Visa Seminar
US Embassy Consular	American Citizen Services Offered by the U.S. Embassy
Frank Otto	Interactive Multimedia in ELT: Today, Tomorrow, and the Future
Brian Paltridge	TESOL Teacher Education at the University of Sydney
Linda Shin	Picture Book vs Textbook: Which Is Best?
Linda Shin	What Is Guided Reading?
Jeong-Bae Son	Studying TESOL at USQ
Joe Spear	Putting "Great" in the English Writing Classroom
Della Summers	Helping Intermediate Learners Using *Longman's Dictionary of American English*
Della Summers	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*: The Resource for High Level Learners
Richard Walker	Classroom Applications of "Corpora": What Is It and How Can It Help Your Students?
Richard Walker	Strategies for Building Motivation and Confidence
Joshua Yun	Little Time, Lots of Opportunity: *American Cutting Edge*