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Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners

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FOREWORD

The 14th Annual Korea TESOL International Conference, was held at Sookmyung Women's University on October 28-29, 2006. Over 1000 international attendees traveled to Seoul, South Korea for a weekend of professional development focusing on the theme of *Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners*. On offer were three plenary sessions, featuring Dr. Jack Richards, Dr. Nina Spada, and Dr. Andy Curtis. Featured speakers totaled nine: Dr. Gillian Wigglesworth, Prof. Chris Candlin, Dr. Susan Barduhn, Marc Helgesen, Chris Kennedy, Ritsuko Nikata, Susan Stempleski, Dr. Liying Cheng, and Melanie Graham.

The papers included in this volume include two of our Featured Speakers. Susan Barduhn writes about the impetus for teacher development despite its inherent challenges, and Andy Curtis presents data relating to a study on a cost-benefit analysis of professional development. The remaining papers from 29 authors fall into six general categories: Technology; Methodologies and Techniques; Learner Strategies and Styles; SLA and Applied Linguistics; Curriculum and Materials Development; and Professional Development. In Technology, we have four papers related to an ELT niche still relevant in the current digital age. In Methodologies and Techniques, we have entries on games, activities for use with large classes, and grammar tasks. The five papers on Learner Strategies and Styles range from study abroad to multiple intelligences to students taking on the role of teachers. SLA and Applied Linguistics comprises four papers, including diverse topics such as inter-language errors, managing one's anger, and student expectations. Curriculum and Materials Development contains nine papers. Finally, Professional Development, a high-interest topic since 2006, consists of four papers, which ask readers to reflect on their own state of professional awareness.

From reading these contributions to *KOTESOL Proceedings 2006*, it is truly evident how much time and energy EFL practitioners devote to developing personally and professionally. A common thread seen throughout is the ultimate goal of empowered teachers empowering their students.

It is our pleasure to present to you this long-awaited volume of *KOTESOL Proceedings 2006* papers. We are especially thankful for the patience of our contributors, each of whom anticipated an earlier publication. It is also our sincere hope that readers benefit from the results and implications of these studies.

Jake Kimball
David E. Shaffer
Supervising Editors
KOTESOL Proceedings 2006

KOTESOL Proceedings 2006

Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners

Proceedings of the 14th Annual KOTESOL International Conference

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Featured Speakers

What Keeps Teachers Going? What Keeps Teachers Developing?

Susan Barduhn

School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, U.S.A.

ABSTRACT

What helps great teachers persevere - in spite of everything? This paper describes how some teachers are solving the everyday challenges of our profession. My interest in the question goes beyond mere perseverance, however; I also look at teachers who continue to be energized, fascinated and happily, committed to teaching. These are the ones who keep going to conferences, keep reading new books on teaching, keep learning from other teachers and from their students. What keeps these teachers developing - in spite of everything? And what are the implications for teacher education?

INTRODUCTION

Through my long association with IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), I have had the privilege of considerable exposure to teachers' organizations like KOTESOL, and I have noticed that those who volunteer to serve in teachers' organizations tend to be those teachers who remain passionate and jazzed about teaching. I have long had an interest in what it is that makes people do things differently from the norm, and so this time I wanted to study people like us.

This paper will cover the following topics:

Why teachers go into teaching

Why teachers drop out

Why teachers stay in the profession

Why teachers not only stay in the profession, but actively keep developing

Implications for teacher education

WHY TEACHERS GO INTO TEACHING

It is possible to consider three categories for why teachers go into teaching: practical or external reasons, personality type, and passion.

PRACTICAL OR EXTERNAL REASONS

Some of you became teachers because you were good in the subject of English, and so you found yourselves encouraged or even channeled into becoming teachers of English. In other cases, when parents were also teachers, there can be an inclination towards the teaching profession or an expectation of following the family career path. For others, it is the only job possible under given circumstances.

PERSONALITY TYPE

What types of personalities are attracted to teaching? Maslach, in her book *Burnout, the Cost of Caring* (2003), states that people who choose the helping professions (including nursing, social work, and police work, as well as teaching) tend to have high needs for approval, and heightened expectations of ourselves. Nieto, in *What Keeps Teachers Going*, her 2003 study of teachers who remain in the profession in spite of challenging contexts, found that the attraction is the opportunity to teach well and know it matters. A related belief was that teachers could change lives. One of the teachers in the inquiry group she formed to gather research for her book stated that teaching was "a life's work that is very, very dignified and very high level because you grow every day, you learn every day, and you change people's lives. And I don't know what else there is" (p. 61).

Some describe it as a vocation, a calling. A 2000 study of nearly 900 teachers in public and private schools in the U.S. found that an impressive 865 believed that only those with "a true calling" should be teachers, while 72% said that what was most important in teaching was contributing to society and helping others (Farkas, Johnson, and Folen, 2000).

Ayers (1993), in his book *To Teach: The Journey of a Teacher*, sums it up:

People are called to teaching because they love children and youth, or because they love being with them, watching them open up and grow and become more able, more competent, more powerful in the world. They may love what happens to themselves when they are with children, the ways in which they become their best selves. Or they become teachers because they love the world or some piece of the world enough that they want to show that love to others. In either case, people teach as an act of construction and reconstruction and as a gift of oneself to others. I teach in the hope of making the world a better place. (p. 8)

PASSION

Related to a sense of calling is one of passion. We can differentiate between what passionate teachers are and what passionate teachers do. Fried (1995) states that:

To be a passionate teacher is to be someone in love with a field of knowledge, deeply stirred by issues and ideas that challenge our

world, drawn to the dilemmas and potentials of the young people who come into class each day - or captivated by all of these. A passionate teacher is a teacher who breaks out of the isolation of a classroom, who refuses to submit to apathy or cynicism. ... I believe that we all have it within ourselves to be passionate teachers, and that nothing else will quite do the trick. (p. 1)

As for describing what they do, Fried goes on to say that passionate teachers organize and focus their passionate interests by getting to the heart of their subject and sharing with their students some of what lies there - the beauty and power that drew them to this field in the first place and that has deepened over time as they have learned and experienced more. These teachers are able to convey their passion to their students by working as partners in learning with them. "As partners, they invite less experienced learners to search for knowledge and insightful experiences, and they build confidence and competence among students who might otherwise choose to sit back and watch their teacher do and say interesting things" (p. 23).

Intrator and Scribner (2003), in *Teaching with Fire: Poetry That Sustains the Courage to Teach*, describes passion in teaching as he shares the recollection of one of the teachers in his study:

One of the first things I learned when I started college was which teachers to take and which to avoid. There are two lists that students circulate to each other: teachers with heart and teachers without. Teachers with heart are passionate, caring, alive, present, inspiring, and real. I am drawn to these teachers because they possess a love for what they are teaching and for their students. (p. xxx)

For some teachers, however, this passion is not enough to keep them in the profession. The drop out rate amongst teachers is high, with some of the reasons being burnout; isolation; and lack of status, respect, and rewards.

WHY TEACHERS DROP OUT

Even under the best of circumstances, teaching is a demanding job, and most teachers do not work under the best of circumstances. The enthusiasm and idealism that bring teachers to the profession quickly dissipate for many. This is not a new problem: As early as 1963, a study reported that the annual net loss of teachers through what was called "teacher dropout" was 8%. A look at recent statistics confirms the continuing high rate of teacher turnover: About 20% of new teachers leave during the first three years of teaching, and the rate has generally increased in the recent past. Even more alarming, the schools most affected by teacher dropout are those that could most benefit from stability in the teaching force: Researchers have found that nearly half of all new teachers in urban public schools quit within five years (Nieto, 2003; Stinnett, 1970).

Burnout is certainly one significant cause. Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a reduced sense of personal

accomplishment. It culminates in a build-up of negative feelings about our students, colleagues, and administration. As motivation decreases and frustration increases, we lose the desire and energy to be creative, developing teachers. Physical and emotional stress play on self-esteem as we lose the sense of being in charge of our lives. The three sources of burnout are:

Involvement with people
The particular job and its environment
The personal characteristics of those of us who choose the helping professions

The burnout syndrome appears to be a response to chronic, everyday stress, rather than to occasional crises. Teachers, especially those in less than ideal learning environments, often find themselves involved in a continuous and limited focus on what their students are NOT able to do. As our view of people is affected by their responsiveness to us, if in spite of all efforts to make an appreciable difference in someone else's development as a learner, nothing has changed or improved, feelings of personal failure and ineffectiveness may set in, and it becomes all too easy to blame our students for their problems by seeing them as inherently defective, unmotivated, bad or weak (Barduhn, 1989; Maslach, 2003).

Isolation is another cause. As will be discussed below, peer support amongst colleagues is one of the strongest forces for teachers not only staying in the profession, but remaining enthusiastic. The opposite of this is found in staff rooms where teachers do not talk to each other, perhaps because of being on different schedules or the stress of the job. This may occur even when the school has teacher development sessions, for one obstacle to true dialogue is that many teachers are reluctant to expose to others what they perceive to be their shortcomings. If teachers are to develop as intellectuals, having to engage in what may be disquieting dialogue is part of the price to be paid (Nieto, 2003).

Other reasons for teacher dropout are lack of status, respect, and rewards. What Jacques Barzun (1945) said about teaching 70 years ago remains true today, at every level of education: "Teaching is not a lost art, but the regard for it is a lost tradition" (p. 12). Parker Palmer, the author of *The Courage to Teach* (1998), was the son of two teachers. When he informed his father that he had decided to go into teaching, his father was dismayed. When Palmer asked him why, he said:

Throughout history, sons followed in their fathers' occupational footsteps. Sons of carpenters became carpenters. Sons of tailors became tailors. Sons of artists became artists. There was honor in passing the family trade across generations. The father was honored to have the son follow in his stride because society cherished the work of the father. But our society and the system I worked in offers only lip-service honor - false honor. There's not a lot of honor in the way schools work and the way society treats and compensates teachers . . . What's sad is that you come to the job eager to do wonderful things, but it's hard to sustain your heart. If a teacher doesn't have energy

and if a teacher's heart is not in his work, everybody loses and nothing will get better. (Intrator & Scribner, 2003, p. xxvi)

Palmer's father went on to say:

We'd better figure out how to get good people into our classrooms and then figure out how to keep them fresh and alive. We don't recognize how hard teaching is on the spirit. We think it's about little techniques and tricks, but techniques only take you so far. We need teachers who care about kids, who care about what they teach, and who can connect with their students. On top of that, they need to have faith in the importance of their work. Keeping that faith over time hasn't been easy for me. (p. xxvi)

One of the contributors to Intrator and Scribner's (2003) publication expresses a similar sentiment:

I am at a decision-making point. I truly enjoy teaching, but I feel buffeted by the public assault on teachers; the strain of dealing with especially needy students; the day-in, day-out structure of teaching; and my own personal development issues. At times I feel drained, uninspired, and just plain tired. I've considered leaving teaching and in fact have taken classes in preparation for a change in career. I want to love this job, and there are times that I do. But I'm getting jaded, and I'm losing my vim and vigor fast. I came to teaching to be there for students, but every memo and missive that comes through my mailbox tells me to prep for the test or remind students about how important their scores are. Important for whom? Important for the institution, maybe. I came to teach students, but that's feeling harder and harder to do. (p. xxxviii)

So what is it that undermines the energy and vitality of teachers? Teachers say they feel underappreciated, undermined, overwhelmed, isolated, and vulnerable. In the next section, we will look at what factors are significant in keeping teachers in the appreciation.

WHY TEACHERS STAY IN THE PROFESSION

In spite of the difficulties, many teachers persevere. The reasons that will be presented below are peer support, early rewards, student success, knowing that the subject matters, enjoying the intellectual challenge, enjoying the life of a teacher, the combination of hope/optimism/faith, empowering experiences working within an educational system, and variety and opportunities for risk taking.

PEER SUPPORT

Studies show that turnover among teachers, even under the most difficult

conditions, is remarkably lowered when successful peer support exists. The people who are best qualified to provide job-related help and support are the people on the job - your co-workers. Peers can provide help, comfort, insight, comparison, rewards, humor, and escape. Burnout rates are also lower when good working relationships with supervisors flourish, and this happens when supervisors are able to relate as peers, share personal experiences, and sensitize staff to the risk of burnout (Maslach, 2003).

EARLY REWARDS

Some teachers early in their careers receive validation from their institutions and this proves motivating. Others had been successful as students themselves, and thus teaching provides a rewarding environment on its own. Some teachers are given early responsibility, such as mentoring a teacher even newer to the profession. Being mobile and able to change jobs means that some teachers are able to seek out a rewarding context early in their careers.

STUDENT SUCCESS

Positive, observable student success is a great motivator for novice teachers. Caring teachers are often at the center of student success. We may think we are teaching grammar or literature or exam preparation, but studies have shown that the amount of success which students experience is less dependent upon the knowledge and experience of the teacher than it is on three factors or attitudes: congruence, unconditional positive regard, and empathy (Rogers, 1989).

In 1976, Aspy and Roebuck conducted a major research project to learn more about how these qualities actually affected learning. They recorded and assessed nearly 3,700 hours of classroom instruction from 550 elementary and secondary teachers. They found that students whose teachers were high in congruence, positive regard, and empathy missed fewer days at school, had increased scores on measures of self-concept, made greater gains on academic achievement measures, presented fewer disciplinary problems, were more spontaneous, and used higher levels of thinking than students with teachers low in these qualities. This is a clear correlation between student success and teacher attitude.

KNOWING THAT THE SUBJECT MATTERS

Students know when a subject is of use to them, and many learners (and parents) these days recognize the importance to their futures of being an accomplished speaker of English. This is certainly not true in all contexts, but teachers of students who have a keen desire to learn the subject matter enjoy a mutually positive influence.

INTELLECTUAL CHALLENGE

The first official “graduate tedium index” was published on July 27, 2006,

on the U.K. government news network.

Pollsters interviewed more than 2,000 graduates aged from 21 to 45, and found half said they "often feel bored at work." But there were big differences in the answers from different professions. The least bored were teachers, who made up for modest salaries with great work satisfaction. Four out of five said they found the job interesting and no two days were the same. (Carvel, 2006)

The poll found 86% of teachers said they enjoyed being involved with people, and 64% appreciated the opportunity to use their creativity.

ENJOYING THE LIFE OF A TEACHER

A non-teacher, seeing this title, would perhaps immediately think of the long summer vacations that teachers in public sector schools often have, but they come at a cost: long days and weekends of planning and responding to student work. A member of Nieto's (2003) inquiry group, when asked what advice she would give to a new student teacher, made this reply:

I think I'd say, "Thank you for coming in." Every day, "Thank you! Thank you! Thank you for coming into the Boston public schools! You really could be doing other things and make so much more money and have much better [working] conditions.: But one thing I said when Chris, [her student teacher] was talking about how all the student teachers, once they come in here, they're like, "I don't have a life anymore! I don't have a life!" And I said, "You know something? This IS a life!" You come in, you grow, you learn, it's never the same, it's always different. You heal, you help, you love. What's wrong with that? Is that a life or is that a life? (pp. 61-62)

HOPE/OPTIMISM/FAITH

In *The Dialectic of Freedom*, Maxine Greene (1998) writes, "My focal interest is in human freedom, in the capacity to surpass the given and look at things as if they could be otherwise" (p. 53). The capacity, in fact, the NEED to look at things "as if they could be otherwise" is a good definition of hope. Hope explains why many teachers - in spite of the hardships and low status and working conditions - continue to teach. They have an abiding faith in the promise of education. For teachers who have remained in teaching for more than 20 years, it can well be said that it is because of hope, even though this hope is constantly tested. It is also optimism and faith and confidence in trusted colleagues that holds these teachers in the profession.

EMPOWERING EXPERIENCES WORKING WITHIN AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Burnout rates are also lower when good working relationships with supervisors flourish, and this happens when supervisors are able to relate as peers,

share personal experiences, and sensitize staff to the risk of burnout. Institutions which do not operate exclusively top-down in their management can give opportunities for the staff to share positions of responsibility, which gives the teachers opportunities to learn about the operation of the school as well as to influence its development. I worked for over ten years at such an institution (International House London) and the commitment of the teachers to the institution and to its development was indeed powerful.

VARIETY AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR RISK TAKING

I have mentioned variety above in being able to try out multiple roles in management and administration. Variety in teaching ages and levels and materials is also essential for avoiding burnout, as is having opportunities for risk taking. "Passionate teachers are always taking risks, and they make at least as many mistakes as anybody else (probably more than most). What's different is how they react to their mistakes: They choose to acknowledge and learn from them, rather than to ignore or deny them. Thus, they help make the classroom a safer place for students to make their own mistakes and learn from them" (Fried, 1995, p. 27).

All these factors above in why teachers stay in the profession are illuminating. My interest goes further, though, to those teachers who not only stay in the profession, but who are devoted to their own professional development.

WHY TEACHERS NOT ONLY STAY IN THE PROFESSION, BUT ACTIVELY KEEP DEVELOPING

Perhaps another way of saying this is simply persistence. I realized this when I was attending a talk about persistence in literacy students who keep at it until they are successful. The talk wasn't about which techniques were most effective for achieving success, but looking at the students, and what was in their personal make up and experience that made them the ones who persisted.

Nothing in the world can take the place of persistence. Talent will not; nothing is more common than unsuccessful men with talent. Genius will not; unrewarded genius is almost a proverb. Education will not; the world is full of educated derelicts. Persistence and determination alone are omnipotent. The slogan, "press on" has solved, and always will solve, the problems of the human race.

(Calvin Coolidge, U.S. President)

All of the reasons for why teachers remain in teaching apply, of course, but I think we can consider further these topics: growing with colleagues; a commitment and joy in lifelong learning; making opportunities for reflection; intellectual satisfaction (revisited); respect and belief in our students; and congruence, or what might be called presence, during teaching.

GROWING WITH COLLEAGUES

Some teachers are blessed by working in institutions in which there is rapport and support amongst the staff, but those who thrive on learning and sharing with colleagues will find or make these opportunities if they don't exist at hand. Certainly one reason often cited for teachers accepting volunteer leadership in IATEFL is the enjoyment of being part of the IATEFL "family." Sonia Nieto (2003) wrote:

Although most teachers don't have many school-sanctioned opportunities to meet with colleagues to prepare classes or talk about the latest research or just to try out ideas they've been playing with, some teachers nevertheless make the time to do these things in other ways. In spite of the limited time they have on their hands, some teachers join inquiry groups and professional organizations; they attend and participate actively in conferences; they present workshops together; and, in a myriad of other ways, they demonstrate that collegiality is essential for good teaching. For them, having colleagues in whom they can trust is one of the ingredients that keeps them in teaching. (p. 58)

In a writing group, mentioned in the same book, the question was posed: What do we do for us, to keep our batteries charged, so that we can do our best for our students? This question is key, for if we are truly to remain growing, developing teachers, the focus must first be on us.

A COMMITMENT AND JOY IN LIFELONG LEARNING

It is at conferences that you will most often find those teachers who are not only keen to remain at the cutting edge of their profession, but are often the ones doing the cutting through. They may not be the most famous in our profession, nor the ones remunerated the best, for it is the joy in learning and discovery and development that provides the reward.

MAKING OPPORTUNITIES FOR REFLECTION

"Experience alone, as John Dewey reminds us, is hollow without reflection. My own evolution as a teacher might not have resulted in any particular insights were it not for the ongoing opportunities I've had to think about my experiences as part of the larger context in which education takes place" (Nieto, 2003, p. 9).

Opportunities for reflection enable teachers to apply these constructive approaches to coping with burnout:

- Working smarter instead of working harder
- Setting specific, realistic goals rather than noble, abstract ones
- Doing the same thing differently, while changing what can be changed
- Breaking away, including honoring breaks as time to refresh oneself
- Taking things less personally
- Accentuating the positive

"Knowing thyself" (perhaps keeping a daily Stress & Tension Log)
Rest and relaxation techniques
Making a real transition between work and home each day
A life of one's own
And, when necessary, changing jobs

(Maslach, 2003)

INTELLECTUAL SATISFACTION

A famous quotation attributed to Henry Moore is: "The secret of Life is to have a task, something you devote your entire life to, something you bring everything to ... and the most important thing is - it must be something you cannot possibly do!" This harkens back to the statement that teachers find no two days the same; there are always new challenges, new learnings.

Good teachers think deeply and often about the craft of teaching and the process of learning. They are not simply technicians who know how to write good lesson plans and use collaborative groups effectively, although this, too, is part of what they do. Above all, excellent teachers are engaged every day in intellectual work, the kind of serious undertaking that demands considerable attention and thought . . . As intellectuals, they will combine reflection and action." (Nieto, 2003, p. 76)

RESPECT AND BELIEF IN OUR STUDENTS

In his book *Lives on the Boundary* (1989), Mike Rose describes teaching as "a kind of romance." If respect and belief can be said to be equated with love for our students, love is one major force for keeping our passion for teaching alive. Our effectiveness as teachers pivots around the ways in which we demonstrate our love and how our students respond to these demonstrations.

Teachers at every level walk into their classrooms and literally close the door on their work, isolating themselves in ways that make collegial connections unlikely. Of course, self-isolation takes a great personal toll. But when teachers reach out, they find themselves less lonely, less afraid, less exhausted, less bored, and more alive. And the fruits of reaching out are professional as well as personal; a teacher who connects more deeply with students and colleagues is likely to find his or her work life transformed. Connecting with the need of our students leads us to challenge all the ways in which 'business as usual' fails to serve them well. Connecting with our colleagues gives us the collective courage necessary to make our teaching less responsive to arbitrary rules and more responsive to the truth of our students' lives." (Palmer, 2002, p. xxii)

CONGRUENCE, PRESENCE, JAZZ!!

The definition for *congruence* is in the section above on student success:

Whatever the teacher is on the inside is also what he or she is on the outside. Parker Palmer (1998) in his seminal work *The Courage to Teach* wrote: "In every class I teach, my ability to connect with my students and to connect them with the subject depends less on the method I use than on the degree to which I know and trust my own selfhood - and am willing to make it available and vulnerable in the service of learning" (p. 11). Palmer is also well known for stating that "Good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher" (p. 10). We teach who we are.

A colleague of mine who, like me, has been teaching for over 30 years, believes that for those of us who stay in the profession and continue loving it, the increasing fascination is with presence, being truly aware and mindful during teaching, connecting with the energy and dynamics of the actual learning that is taking place at each moment.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Awareness of burnout should be available at the workplace and as part of training. If trainees had more accurate expectations about the work they are getting into and what the future offers in that profession, there would be fewer reality shocks. Training should also include developing the special "people skills" that will be required to deal with delicate problems such as telling students that they have failed, for example. The value of learning to use both objective detachment and sensitive concern could be explored before the emotions are pushed.

Numerous researchers over the years have found that there are characteristics in common of successful teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse students. These teachers:

- Are among the most experienced teachers
- Place a high value on student' identities (culture, race, language, gender, and experiences, among others)
- Connect learning to students' lives
- Have high expectations for all students, even for those whom others may have given up on
- Stay committed to students in spite of obstacles that get in the way
- View parents and other community members as partners in education
- Create a safe haven for learning
- Dare to challenge the bureaucracy of the school and district
- Are resilient in the face of difficult situations
- Use active learning strategies
- Are willing and eager to experiment
- View themselves as lifelong learners
- Care about, respect, and love their students

(Nieto, 2003, pp. 38-39)

What leaps out from this list is that so few of the professional development activities in which teachers engage (university courses in teacher prepa-

ration, in-service workshops, and so forth) focus on these skills or qualities. How, for instance, are prospective teachers taught to hold high, rigorous expectations for all students? Where do they learn to challenge the bureaucracy in schools? (Nieto, 2003, p. 39).

Teacher education programs need to emphasize that, in the long run, what energizes and re-inspires teachers are lifelong opportunities to grow with colleagues, a commitment to and belief in the value and joy of lifelong learning, opportunities for reflection and intellectual satisfaction, belief in our students, and the power and fascination of being truly present during teaching.

CLOSING

To Be of Use

The people I love the best
jump into work head first
without dallying in the shallows
and swim off with sure strokes almost out of sight.
They seem to become natives of that element,
the black sleek heads of seals
bouncing like half-submerged balls.

I love people who harness themselves, an ox to a heavy cart,
who pull like water buffalo, with massive patience,
Who strain in the mud and the muck to move things forward.
who do what has to be done, again and again.

I want to be with people who submerge
in the task, who go into the fields to harvest
and work in a row and pass the bags along,
who are not parlor generals and field deserters
but move in the common rhythm
when the food must come in or the fire be put out.

The work of the world is common as mud.
Botched, it smears the hands, crumbles to dust.
But the thing worth doing well done
has a shape that satisfies, clean and evident.
Greek amphoras for wine or oil
Hope vases that held corn, are put in museums
but you know they were made to be used.
The pitcher cries for water to carry
and a person for work that is real.

(Marge Piercy, in Intrator & Scribner, 2003, p. 4.)

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Empowering Teachers and Students Through Professional Development - But at What Cost?

The Need for a Cost-Benefit Analysis of Teacher Professional Development

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ABSTRACT

Professional development may be a key component in empowering teachers and students and enabling them to achieve more. However, although the costs and benefits of education have been explored extensively over the last 40 years, no systematic analysis of the costs and benefits of teacher professional development has yet been carried out. This plenary paper starts, therefore, by exploring the origins of cost-benefit analysis followed by a consideration of such analysis in education. As some of the early work in this area was carried out in South America, cost-benefit analyses of education in Peru, Chile, and Venezuela are considered. In the next part of the paper, some recent developments and recurring themes in cost-benefit analyses of education are identified and summarized. In the last part of the paper, cost-benefit analyses of education are applied to teacher professional development and it is argued that such analyses need to be carried out in English language teacher professional development.

THE ORIGINS OF COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS

According to Professor Thayer Watkins of San Jose State University, Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) “estimates and totals up the equivalent money value of the benefits and costs to the community of projects to establish whether they are worthwhile. These projects may be dams and highways or can be *training programs* and health care systems” (emphasis added; n.d.). It is Watkins’ reference to “training programs” that connects the notion of CBA to Teacher Professional Development (TPD).

Watkins traces the origins of CBA to Jules Dupuit, a French engineer “whose 1848 article is still worth reading,” according to Watkins (n.d.). The American government’s Federal Navigation Act of 1936 “required that the U.S. Corps of Engineers carry out projects for the improvement of the waterway system when the total benefits of a project to whomsoever they accrue exceed the costs of that project” (Watkins, n.d.). This may be one of the first recorded instances of a government mandating that the benefits of a publicly funded project outweigh the costs. Unfortunately, this requirement appears to have been waived in the modern politics of many nations.

A more recent definition of CBA is given by the American National Institutes of Health (NIH), which inverts the term, making it a Benefit-Cost Analysis (BCA), and which it defines as: "A systematic quantitative method of assessing the desirability of Government projects or policies when it is important to take a long view of future effects and a broad view of possible side-effects" (National Institute of Health, 1999). This definition is different from Watkins' in a number of important ways. For example, in BCA, the benefits come first, the cost second. Also, the NIH definition focuses on the systematic and measurable assessment of benefits, as well as giving the governmental perspective on such an analysis, which is relevant to education as this is generally government-funded; therefore, the government's beliefs about what constitutes a "benefit" is important. Another aspect of the NIH definition is the highlighting of the need for a long-term perspective. Such a view is especially relevant to language teaching and learning, as language education takes time.

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES OF EDUCATION

In April 1969, Joseph Froomkin published a short paper on the "Cost Effectiveness and Cost/Benefit Analyses of Educational Programs." The following year, two other American researchers, Paul Feldman and Neil Singer (1970) published a paper (in the same journal as Froomkin, *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences*) entitled "Benefit-Cost Analysis of Public Programs for Education and Training." This shows a history of trying to measure the relative costs and benefits of education stretching back nearly 40 years. However, this long educational history does not appear in the history of language education.

By the mid-70s the importance of benefit-cost analysis had been established. James Bruno (1975), working at that time in the Department of Education at the University of California, Los Angeles, concluded that benefit-cost analysis was "now becoming an integral part of comprehensive instructional evaluation" (p. 293). It is possible that this attempt to measure the benefits of education in relation to its costs was just a socio-economic planning phase or fad of the 1970s. However, not only did interest in this relationship between the costs and benefits of education persist, it spread.

By the 1980s, this interest had grown beyond America and had become an area of international research. In 1982, Kenneth Cann, a Professor of Economics at Western Kentucky University, published an economic evaluation of elementary education in Indonesia. The study focused on what Cann referred to as "dropouts" and the article presented "the results of a benefit-cost analysis for an experimental and prototype elementary education program," (p. 67) which was designed "to solve a serious dropout problem" (p. 67) in Indonesia. The program used "nonformal and self-paced methods to return 10,000 children to elementary school in order to complete grades four through six" (p. 67). It is not clear whether the program was a success, but this study may constitute one of the first large-scale international cost-benefit analyses of education.

The focus of cost-benefit analyses in the 1980s appears to have been on

“disadvantaged groups,” such as Indonesian “drop outs” and the Harijans of India. According to the *Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia* (Harijan, n.d.), the Harijans are “individuals who are at the bottom of the Hindu caste system. They were traditionally sweepers, washers of clothes, leatherworkers, and those whose occupation it was to kill animals.” In 1986, Raman Marar and Stewart Fraser, two Australian researchers, published the findings of their study of a cost-benefit analysis of a Harijan education program in the southwestern Indian state of Kerala. Although Marar and Fraser’s findings showed that the program was “not directly an economically viable program” (p. 29), they also found that the program had “bestowed and generated a considerable number of other non-quantifiable and non-measurable benefits” (p. 29). This finding raises the important issue of what is and what is not quantifiable and measurable in education. Marar and Fraser concluded that the program had “considerable social and political advantages and therefore should be continued” (p. 29). They also stated: “Unfortunately, apart from this preliminary and tentative study conducted by the authors, no attempt has been made to date by either the Indian or Kerala governments to appraise the cost and benefit of such an important program” (p. 29). This may be at least in part because of the difficulties of quantifying and measuring aspects of a process as complex as education.

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES OF EDUCATION IN SOUTH AMERICA

By the 1990s, the attention of education cost-benefit analysts turned to South America, based on work being carried out by World Bank education economists studying Peru, Chile, and Venezuela. In 1990, two World Bank researchers, Rosemary Bellew and Peter Moock, reported their findings of a cost-benefit analysis of vocational and technical education (VTE) in Peru, and concluded that “VTE in developing countries fails to offer a return commensurate with its cost” (p. 365). According to Bellew and Moock, the reason for the cost of such programs outweighing their benefits leading to programs that were not cost effective was that “VTE institutions in Peru are funded at the same level as academic institutions” and as a result “they cannot afford the inputs that make VTE genuinely technical. Therefore . . . students get little hands-on technical experience in school” (p. 365).

In the same year as Bellew and Moock’s study appeared (1990), another World Bank researcher, Luis Riveros, published an analysis of 25 years of education in Chile, covering the period 1960 to 1985. Riveros focused on what economists call the internal rate of return, known as the IRR or IROR, which is the economic return that an organization or a country would earn if it invested in itself, rather than investing elsewhere. Over the 25-year period, Riveros “found a declining time-trend in rates of return” and gave three reasons for this: “the expansion of the educational system, the shift of labor demand from middle education to primary skills and the increasing real costs of education” (p. 111). Riveros also identified as another cause of this declining IRR “the explicit policy used by Chilean governments of targeting fiscal expenditures to socially more profitable education” (p. 111). This raises the important but highly complex question of what constitutes more profitable edu-

cation and who profits - the government, the schools, the individual and/or their families?

In 1993, Ariel Fiszbein and George Psacharopoulos, two other World Bank education economics researchers, published the findings of their cost-benefit analysis of educational investment in Venezuela, using the Venezuelan Household Survey. Fiszbein and Psacharopoulos found that primary education was “on the top of the benefit-cost hierarchy” by which they meant it yielded “the highest returns per unit of its low social cost” (p. 293). They also found that higher education showed “the lowest returns among the three levels of education mainly due to the high cost of university provision” and that secondary education was “in between on the cost-benefit calculus” (p. 293).

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES OF EDUCATION

Twenty-five years after Joseph Froomkin’s paper on the “Cost Effectiveness and Cost/Benefit Analyses of Educational Programs,” two other American professors, Elchanan Cohn and Woodrow Huches (1994) presented, as part of the 1991 Dan Saks memorial lectures, their cost-benefit analysis of investment in college education in the United States between 1969 and 1985. Cohn and Huches found that the internal rate of return declined between 1969 and 1974, but that by 1978 the IRR was “nearly equal to what it was in 1969” (p. 109). They also found that between 1978 and 1982, the IRR “increased according to one estimation method and slightly decreased according to another” (p. 109), indicating that the methods by which the costs and benefits of education are calculated have a considerable bearing on how the relationship between the two are represented.

Only relatively recently have education economics researchers turned their attention to international education in terms of students from one country studying in another. One of the few studies attempting to assess the cost and benefits of international students was reported in 1998 and carried out by two researchers in the Department of Economics at Macquarie University in Australia, Christopher Heaton and David Throsby. Their paper focused on postgraduate education, specifically postgraduate students from Fiji studying at Australian universities.

Most recently, attention has turned to Asia, as shown by Hiroshi Ono’s paper (in press), due to be published in 2007. Ono, a Japanese economist at the European Institute of Japanese Studies in the Stockholm School of Economics in Sweden, carried out a cost-benefit analysis of “an extreme manifestation of *examination hell*” known as *ronin*. According to Ono, typically 30% of Japanese college students “choose the *ronin* option under which they spend years in addition to high school preparing for the next year’s college entrance examinations.” Using the mean scores of the entrance examinations as a measure of college quality, Ono found that “college quality significantly improves the internal rate of return (*IRR*) to college education among the sample of male graduates in Japan.” Ono also reported that “*Ronin* increases earnings indirectly by improving the quality of the college attended.”

RECURRING THEMES IN COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES OF EDUCATION

This brief review of the history of cost-benefit analysis of education from 1969 to the present day identifies a number of important themes:

- The benefits of publicly funded projects such as education should outweigh the costs.
- Any attempt to assess costs and benefits of education should be systematic and should take a long-term view, as education takes time.
- As education is a complex process, there may be important benefits that are difficult to quantify and to measure.
- Regarding the benefits part of cost-benefit analyses of education, it is important to identify *who* benefits.
- How costs and benefits are calculated is a key factor in determining how these two aspects of education are related and equated.

APPLYING COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES OF EDUCATION TO TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

If we accept that professional development is a key component in education, which includes English language teaching, including EFL in Korea, then the five themes identified above could be applied to a cost-benefit analysis of professional development for TESOL professionals:

- The benefits of TESOL teacher professional development should outweigh the costs.
- Any attempt to assess costs and benefits of TESOL teacher professional development should be systematic and should take a long-term view, as this kind of development takes time.
- As teacher professional development is a complex process, there may be important benefits that are difficult to quantify and to measure.
- Regarding the benefits part of cost-benefit analyses of teacher professional development, it is important to identify *who* benefits.
- How costs and benefits are calculated is a key factor in determining how these two aspects of teacher professional development are related and equated.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on a review of research in this area, and to the best of my knowledge, apart from a few very recent articles (Curtis, 2006, in press), a systematic cost-benefit analysis of teacher professional development may have never been undertaken. However, such an analysis may be essential if English language teaching organizations in Korea and elsewhere are to continue to invest in the professional development of their teachers. This raises many complex issues and difficult questions, such as how costs and benefits of professional

development are calculated, but without a cost-benefit analysis, the commitment of schools, colleges, and universities to this kind of growth may be reduced or even eventually cut all together. Therefore, cost-benefit analyses of teacher professional development need to be undertaken as soon as possible.

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Technology

Using Corpora in ELT: A Few Ideas

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ABSTRACT

Corpus Linguistics, the study of language patterns using large collections of authentic language samples, is a relatively new discipline. Its influence on English language teaching (ELT) has gained very significant momentum in recent years: corpus, and corpus-based have become veritable buzz-words among many in the ELT community. This short paper sets the scene with a brief look at what corpora are and then looks at potential benefits of using corpora. Finally, three practical ideas of how corpora could be used in ELT will be presented. This will hopefully spark readers' interest and creativity with regards to incorporating corpus-based approaches into their own teaching practice. Examples are drawn from the author's use of corpora to tackle lexico-grammatical problems, explore collocations, and grade reading materials. A short bibliography of selected corpus tools and materials will also be provided to enable readers to follow up on the topic.

BACKGROUND

We can define corpora as collections of naturally occurring language samples. The three central concepts in this definition merit a closer look. Collection: a single source would simply be a text rather than a corpus. How samples are collected depends on the desired nature of the corpus. Language samples: Samples can be both spoken and written texts, although for the sake of analysis, spoken texts are usually transcribed to make them machine readable and searchable. Quite often, samples are also tagged with additional information such as grammatical codes or information about the sources. Naturally occurring: Corpora are made up of naturally occurring (i.e., authentic) samples. Authenticity is usually understood in ELT to exclude text which was produced specifically for ELT purposes, but corpus linguists see the authenticity criterion as simply excluding the production of samples for the very purpose of corpus analysis. There are in fact specialized corpora that consist entirely of language produced by learners of English in response to language learning tasks (for example, the Cambridge Learner Corpus).

Notably, size is not a defining criterion of a corpus, although with the arrival of the ever-increasing capacity of modern data storage and processing technologies, there are now corpora with a billion words or more. Representative corpora, wishing to represent the language per se, not only need to be very large but also carefully weighed across spoken and written

language genres. The British National Corpus (BNC) (100 million words), the Cobuild Project's Bank of English (over 500 million words), and the Cambridge International Corpus (1 billion words) are examples of representative corpora. The Internet could be seen as another example of a representative corpus, being not only huge but clearly going right across genres and including language very similar to spoken language (chat rooms). Specialised corpora, on the other hand, focus on sub-genres: the Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language (COLT) or Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE). Many specialised corpora are relatively small, with ad-hoc corpora, such as the author's corpus of a semester's worth of handouts, amounting to only a few thousand words in size.

Corpus data are used in a variety of fields, including sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, historical linguistics, or natural language processing (NLP). The phonetician J. Harrington, for example, bases his conclusion that Queen Elizabeth II's speech has become less posh over the years on data gained from corpora (Harrington, 2006). The relationship between corpus linguistics and ELT started in earnest with the Collins Cobuild Learner's Dictionary (1st ed., 1987) and the field has since seen a steady increase in corpus-based materials with all major ELT materials publishers building up their own corpora. Apart from learner's dictionaries, which are all now based on corpora, corpus-based publications across the whole spectrum of ELT resources are now available, including grammars, textbooks, and vocabulary learning resources.

WHY USE CORPORA IN ELT?

As will be apparent from the practical activities described in the next section, there are a number of important advantages to using corpora in ELT. Three aspects I would like to highlight are authenticity, learner independence, and a shift in attitude.

Instead of having to rely on intuition, tradition, and hearsay when describing language use, corpora provide the investigator with a window on real and objectively verifiable language use. This makes for a significant improvement of what is taught and firmly and sometimes refreshingly grounds us in the descriptive rather than prescriptive approach to language study. Encouragingly, much of traditional textbook grammar has been proved by corpus analysis to not be far off the mark; however, there are always surprises: Ascher (2006), for example, found that whereas traditionally textbooks introduce *can* primarily for ability, corpora show that it is far more often used to express permission and prohibition: One can't ignore that.

Corpora are also a powerful tool for promoting learner independence. As will be shown below, empowering language learners to derive information themselves using a corpus creates a climate in which the teacher is a guide rather than an indispensable source of knowledge. Furthermore, the skills employed in corpus-related activities (discovering information, working out solutions, and checking hypotheses) require a deep level of processing and involvement on the part of the learner. This has been found to lead to higher retention rates (Craik & Lockhart, 1972).

Finally, the kind of information corpora yield suggests to teachers and

learners the necessity of an attitude shift away from perceiving language as essentially a system of rules towards language as a social construct, consisting of patterns with varying degrees of frequency. The place of right and wrong in a rule system is measured on a scale from the less common to the more common, from the odd to the natural, the marked to the unmarked. Students working with corpora will find odd language use in corpora alongside the more numerous, more usual patterns. Constructions may be found that are intelligible, yet not terribly natural. A rule-based view of language would have to classify it as either right (no need to improve) or wrong (completely useless), while corpora reveal degrees of regularity quite naturally through frequency levels. An attitude shift of this sort requires teachers and students to develop a tolerance for ambiguity, an attribute, incidentally, of successful language learners.

USING CORPORA IN ELT: THREE PRACTICAL IDEAS

Naturally, one way to take advantage of the resources that corpora offer is by using published materials based on corpora. The ideas described below, however, seek to encourage teachers to take corpus work a step further by suggesting three adjustable activity templates based on the author's own classroom experience.

HELPING STUDENTS TACKLE LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL PROBLEMS

The first activity was developed in response to student language such as the following:

I convinced the Mozart Effect.

The Mozart Effect is sceptical.

These written examples were collected from a quiz, but they might also come to the teacher's attention through writing assignments or during classroom activities. By way of feedback on this quiz, the handout shown in Figure 1 was produced. Let us first look at how such a handout could be devised and then how it could be used. First, the BNC sample search facility (<http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>) was queried with the string *sceptical* and *convinced*. Of the results, suitable (i.e., relevant and clear) instances were selected, others were discarded (such as lines one and four in Figure 2, which show a verbal use of convinced rather than an adjectival one, or line 3, which may be confusing). Furthermore, unlike a Key Word in Context (KWIC) output that would have a fixed number of words on either side of the queried word, an attempt was made to represent full phrases. This was in response to student reactions to earlier handouts that suggested a degree of confusion caused by the presentation of arbitrary cut-off points within phrases or irrelevantly long lines that are difficult to understand.

Figure 1. Handout (shortened) Using Data from the BNC

Name: _____

1) Look carefully at how the words 'convinced' and 'sceptical' are used below.
2) Write a sentence with 'convinced' and one with 'sceptical' and hand it in next time.
convinced: _____
sceptical: _____

- `I'm not **convinced** that consumer confidence or business confidence is going..
- .. but it was less **convinced** that they needed to be raised to cool down...
- He became **convinced** that the horses were sensing his moods and feelings...
- The new university resident tutors were **convinced** of their ability to ...
- There may well be teachers in the school who will not be **convinced** that...
- For some obscure reason, Tawell was **convinced** that installing himself in...
- But we were **convinced** we could make the series without the need to...
- But not everyone is **convinced**.
- Instead I am **convinced** they are done by those literary graffiti artists...
- But she sounded less than **convinced**.
- Edmonds is **convinced** about the efficacy of school reform in developing...
- Maura still wasn't **convinced**.

- ... antitrust fines levied by Brussels, but rivals and critics were **sceptical**.
- Voters tend to believe the news on television but remain **sceptical** about...
- Motor manufacturers have been **sceptical** about the efficiency of catalysts.

(From <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>)

Figure 2. Lines of an Unedited BNC Output for “convinced”

CH3 4691 But he returned to the side in last week's UEFA Cup match with Torpedo Moscow and his performance against Brighton finally convinced Fergie that the little winger still has a part to play.

CHT 173 He or she will want to be convinced that you are serious in intent, and will also want to be reassured of your staying power.

CKM 263 And it's now made Jamie even more convinced that he can be one of the best.

CKS 1277 To take the initiative yourself, however is often too difficult: your mind may have convinced you that your confusion is so much greater than other people's, your backlog of work so much longer, your reputation so much lower, that to open yourself to the social confirmation of these frightful facts would be

Students who are used to corpus work of the sort presented in the hand-out could simply be asked to follow the instructions on the handout, either as a classroom exercise or for homework. Learners who are new to this type of task, however, will profit from being guided through the steps a few times before they acquire the skill set necessary to successfully deal with this new task type, which will likely be unfamiliar and confusing at first. For example, using *convinced*, the teacher could work towards eliciting a grammar pattern for the word: directing the learner's attention first of all to the subject of the

sentences on the handout, which will be found to be a person in most instances. Attention should then be drawn to the verb between the subject and *convinced*, which will yield the conclusion that the most common pattern is a form of the verb *to be*. The teacher may then proceed to elicit what follows the target word, which will be either nothing at all, *that* + a sentence (though *that* is optional) or the preposition *of* or *about* followed by a noun. Thus the following patterns can be elicited:

- (a) subject + be-verb + convinced + that + clause (*that* is optional)
- (b) subject + be-verb + convinced + \emptyset
- (c) subject + be-verb + convinced + of / about + noun phrase

Based on this, learners can then be encouraged to correct the mistaken example of student language above or try out their own sentences, applying the pattern they derived.

This procedure avoids an abstract grammar exposition and instead involves the learner in discovery. A pattern so derived by the learner, albeit with help of others, will not only be understood, but likely far better remembered. No special equipment apart from handouts is needed in the classroom and there is the possibility to personalize (class size allowing) for individual student needs by providing different concordance lines for different learners struggling with different areas of lexis and grammar.

HELP WITH COLLOCATIONS

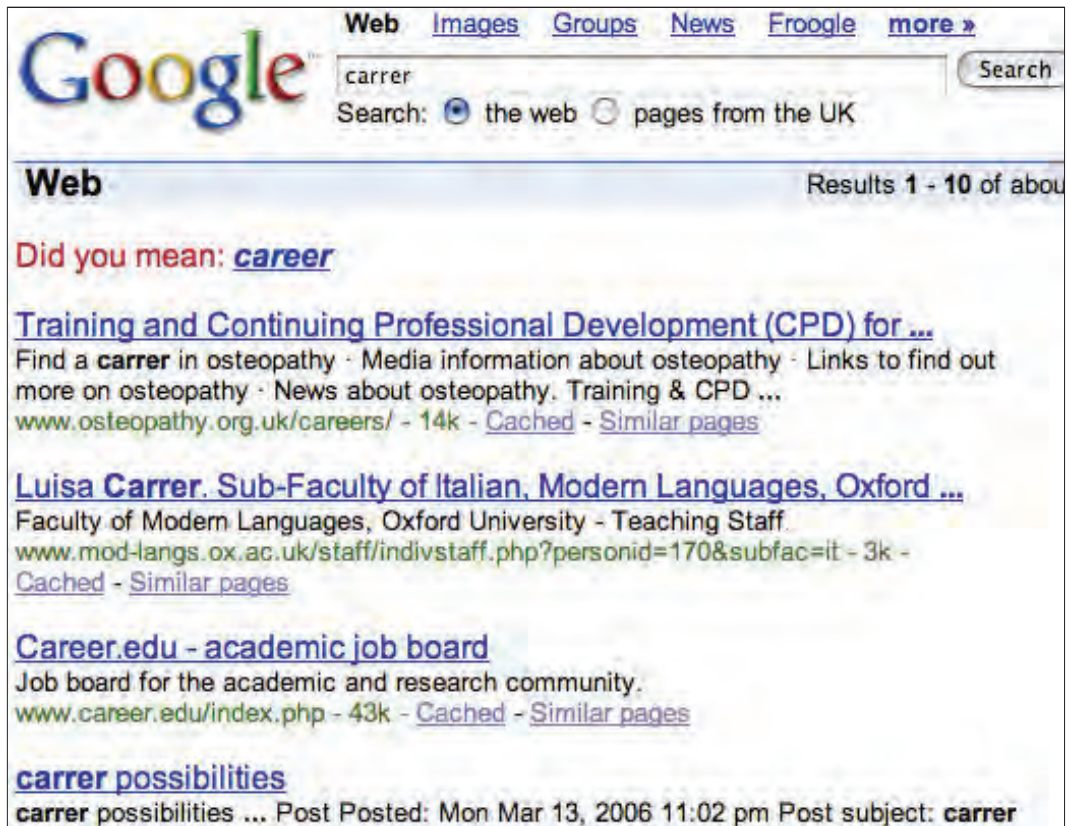
In this second activity we will explore a setup where learners take an even more active role with corpora and corpus tools put directly at their disposal. This requires access to a computer laboratory with Internet access, but it could be adapted for implementation using printed corpus output on handouts. The starting point for this particular activity is student language exemplified by the following expressions:

She has a good career in her job.

His career is good.

The first one exemplifies an observed overuse of the collocation *have a career*. This collocation appeared to be the only one available to the particular group of learners observed, indicating limited lexical flexibility. Additionally, *in her job* is a somewhat odd way of putting things, although one would hesitate to call it a mistake. The second sentence, in the context of other language produced by the group of learners, was interpreted as an avoidance of verb collocation, due to either uncertainty or ignorance of appropriate collocations that could be used.

Figure 3. Google Search for “career”



The nature of corpus data as reflecting degrees of usuality, as mentioned above, needs to be introduced to learners before more detailed work can take place. As a starting point, students are asked to search a corpus (in this case the Internet) with an obviously inaccurate spelling of the word *career*, “carrer” (which had shown up in student writing in that class). The results as shown in figure 3 reveal that there are indeed examples of this inaccurate spelling (though some instances shown are not of course instances of the word *career*). This indicates to the learner that 1) one needs to look carefully to be sure one is looking at an instance of the expression in question, and 2) the mere fact that a form is found in a corpus does not indicate that the form is usual (or correct in the traditional terminology). It should then be pointed out that frequency of occurrence is key in deciding what is usual and what is unusual. Incidentally, students tend to be amused at finding proficient speakers of English (one would think) making the same or even more grave mistakes than themselves.

Though adequate for this first search, Google is a somewhat cumbersome tool for accessing the Internet as a corpus. WebCorp (webcorp.org.uk) uses the Google engine to search the Web, but provides a number of display and sort options as well as additional search criteria to make data analysis easier. Figure 5 below shows a WebCorp output.

In the next step, students are asked to search for verbs collocating with

career. Since the word *career* very often appears in titles on the Internet, a simple Google or WebCorp search will yield a vast amount of useless data for this task. A tagged corpus that allows more accurate search parameters to be used is necessary. The Bank of English is such a corpus and a search facility capped at 40 lines of concordance is available free on the Web (<http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx>). Entering the search string VERB+DT+career (DT = determiner) yields a host of relevant results (Figure 4). Students are asked to enter the search string and investigate the results. Finally, the teacher elicits results using a diagram as the one below:

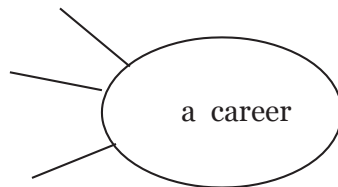


Figure 4. Extract from Search Results for String: VERB+DT+career

wishing to follow a **career** in the Leisure
 intention to pursue a **career** in the socio-
 aspiring to pursue a **career** in dance [p] bull; a
 potential to follow a **career** in one of the
 that I base a **career** on it. I used to die
 own. She will carve a **career**; pay her mortgage
 about how to pursue a **career** in this field
 us to. He's built a **career** on beckoning his
 up law to pursue a **career** in dressmaking,
 years, then took a **career** break for two years
 bigots. He's made a **career** out of playing
 anything. He scored a **career**-best of 236 not out
 life, following a **career**; or pursuing
 have been offered a **career** in radio. But he was
 spinner returned a **career**-best five for 115
 Cilla. She has made a **career** out of her own
 Minnesota to start a **career** in television and it
 Wednesday launched a **career** as a rap artist last
 is now planning a **career** in education. [p]
 to kick-start a **career** [p] What can we
 City, saved the **career** of the fledgeling
 year-old Young took a **career**-best 5-36 as
 is set to launch a **career** in management by
 guy who has made a **career** of going out for
 one slip could end a **career**. [p] And it is

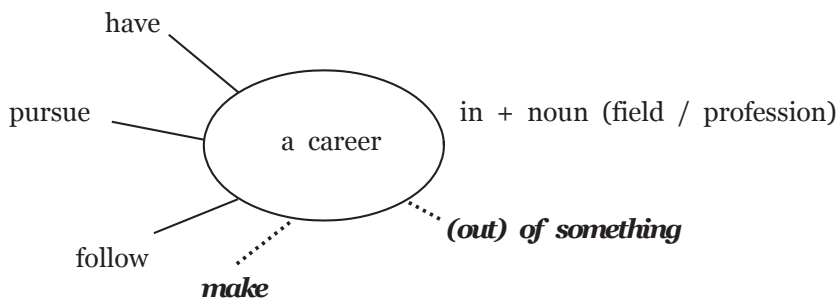
(From www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx)

Looking at Figure 4, frequent verb collocations appear to be *pursue*, *follow* and perhaps *make*. Incidentally, none of the examples show instances of *have*, suggesting that it is not terribly frequent. To make students aware of its frequency, students do a search of “have@+DT+career” (which will catch

all forms of the verb *have*, a determiner, and *career*). This will confirm that there are sufficient instances of this to warrant a listing on the diagram. One will then wish to start filling the right side of the diagram. Again looking at Figure 4, it is apparent that the most frequent word to follow *career* is *in*. The more attentive students will also notice that there is a pattern within a pattern in that *make* on the left will always collocate with *of* or *out of* on the right. If no-one notices, this will need pointing out and it will become clear at this point that the semantics of the *make* collocation are different from that of the others on the diagram.

Carrying on further to the right, one can push on to clarify what follows *in*. This could be done with Figure 4, or a more specific search, this time using WebCorp, for instances of *career in*, will yield the data shown in Figure 5. Students soon catch on to the pattern of a noun representing a field or profession following *in*. Herein lies the oddity of the student example cited above: *her job* is not a field or a profession.

At the end of this first activity, the diagram elicited from learners will look similar to the one presented below.



As an individual or group activity following on from this, learners could be asked to produce similar diagrams on their own for other problematic words and then present their results. Alternatively, students could be asked to correct collocation mistakes marked by the teacher in their own writing. Again, there is the potential for targeted personalization according to student needs and after going through the process a few times, students will have acquired a very potent tool to help them help themselves when in collocation trouble.

Figure 5. Search Results 1-20 for 'career in' Using WebCorp

1. ways to prepare for a **career in** international affairs. He will share
2. experiences can lead to a **career in** international education. Sean Camberra
3. you are interested in a **career in** Materials Science & Engineering or just
4. is very useful for a **career in** archaeology. But there are also
5. the probability of finding a **career in** this field or what is
6. Frequently Asked Questions about a **career in** archaeology in the U.S
7. asked questions about starting a **career in** archaeology in Britain, by Curren
8. search Andre Agassi's **career in** pictures submitted by iFelix46
9. have decided on a teaching **career in** one of disciplines. Students work

10. students interested in exploring a **career in** library and information sciences
11. undergraduate students interested in a **career in** the biological, geological,
12. 1) i wana make **career in** acting,how to start? pls
13. old, Natalie Portman began a **career in** modeling, which she later bypassed
14. Fordham University to pursue a **career in** journalism before getting involved
15. in Wonderland" that launched her **career in** acting. Before Benicio del Toro
16. vacancies for students considering a **career in** the professions. This job ser
17. advice for students considering a **career in** one of the UK professions
18. their marketing department, starting his **career in** recruitment at EMDS Con
19. international environment. She began her **career in** the recruitment adveris
20. Shanghai, China. She began her **career in** recruitment at Grammy Asia in

Naturally, corpus data such as the ones shown can also help teachers check their intuition, keep language attrition in check, or find out about uses of world Englishes unfamiliar to the teacher.

GRADING READING MATERIALS

Corpus tools can be used to assess the likely level of lexical difficulty in a reading text and make appropriate adjustments. According to research by Hu and Nation (2000), at least 95% of the vocabulary of a text should be known in order for the reader to be able to guess the remaining 5%. Further, it has been shown that the 2,000 most frequent words account for around 80% of running words of an average text as shown in Table 1. The remaining 20% of running words tend to be genre-specific. Adding Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL) of 570 word families to the 2,000 most frequent word families as listed in the General Service List (West, 1953) results in a coverage of approximately 90% for academic texts.

Table 1. Number of Words and Percentage of Running Text

Different Words	% of Running Words in Average Text
44,831	99.0
12,448	95
5,000	89.4
3,000	85.2
2,000	81.2
1,000	71.1
10	23.7

(From Carroll et al., 1971)

In adapting authentic reading for classroom use, teachers wishing to provide a coverage of around 95% for their students can use the online Vocabulary Profiler at http://www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r21270/textools/web_vp.html

(originally developed by Paul Nation, adapted and made available online by Tom Cobb) to screen the text according to frequency bands. It provides a breakdown for the 1,000 and 2,000 word frequency levels as well as the AWL. An example is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Example Extracts from the Results Page of the Vocabulary Profiler

	Families	Types	Tokens	Percent
K1 Words (1 to 1000):	152	179	411	76.11%
Function:	(225)	(41.67%)
Content:	(186)	(34.44%)
> Anglo-Sax=				
Not Greco-Lat/Fr Cog:	(90)	(16.67%)
K2 Words (1001 to 2000):	23	25	29	5.37%
> Anglo-Sax:	(13)	(2.41%)
1k+2k	(81.48%)
AWL Words (academic):	17	21	25	4.63%
Off-List Words:	?	54	75	13.89%
	192+?	279	540	100%

OFF types: [?;54:75] abuse_[2] addiction_[1] adenekan_[1] alcohol_[12] american_[1] assaults_[1] banned_[1] banning_[1] beer_[1] binge_[5] birch_[1] bombarded_[1] britain_[1] british_[1] campus_[1] campuses_[3] celebrated_[1] cider_[1] cocktails_[1] combat_[1] coping_[1] dorothy_[1] drunken_[2] flyers_[1] gillian_[1] kebabs_[1] lager_[1] laura_[1] lifestyle_[2] london_[1] mary_[1] mugged_[1]

The level of the target learner's vocabulary knowledge relative to the frequency bands and the AWL can be tested using Nation's Vocabulary Level Test (1990). Even if giving students this test is not feasible or appropriate, grading a text is made far easier by the Vocabulary Profiler's breakdown of common and uncommon words, in particular, the off-list shown in the bottom half of Figure 6. Teachers can glance at it and decide whether to replace some of them with more common words or provide glosses for others.

Corpus tools like the Vocabulary Profiler can also be used to assemble wordlists for specific text genres or collections. After collecting a specialised corpus of, for example, 20 texts on woodworking and running them through the Vocabulary Profiler or a similar tool, one will be able to use the most common words of the off-list to produce a wordlist of common words in woodworking. The coverage of this list can then be tested by designating it an exclusion list (a further feature of the Vocabulary Profiler), running the texts through the profiler again, and comparing the resulting figures with the initial ones. A similar procedure was used to derive unit word lists containing difficult words from a semester's worth of reading texts and other textbook materials.

CONCLUSION

With the increasing availability of corpora, corpus tools, and corpus informed publications, coupled with the distinct advantages corpora are able to

bring to the field of language teaching, the question is increasingly not whether, but how corpora should be used in ELT. With the necessarily brief overview of the three practical ideas presented above, readers can get a glimpse of some of the possibilities of using corpus-based approaches as well as tested templates for actual activities. The reader is referred to the list below for tools and resources mentioned in the article and some additional ones.

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- Vickers, C., & Morgan, S. (2005). Incorporating corpora. *English Teaching Professional*, 41, 29-31.

SELECTED TOOLS AND RESOURCES

CORPORA

Bank of English (The Collins Wordbanks Online English Corpus):
<http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx>

BNC (The British National Corpus): <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>

Limited free search capacity online, full CD versions may be purchased.

MICASE: <http://micase.umdl.umich.edu/m/micase/>

A smaller corpus of academic spoken English from the University of Michigan.

Bookmarks for Corpus-Based Linguists from David Lee: <http://devoted.to/corpora>

CONCORDANCERS

WebCorp: <http://www.webcorp.org.uk/>

A linguistic search engine to treat the Web as a corpus.

Vocabulary Profiler: http://www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r21270/texttools/web_vp.html

Corcorder Pro (Mac OS X): <http://www.versiontracker.com/dyn/moreinfo/macosx/17768>

Xaira (Windows and Unix; for use with BNC and other XMT-tagged corpora):

<http://www.oucs.ox.ac.uk/rts/xaira/>

WordSmith Tools: <http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/isbn/6890?cc=global>

WORDLISTS

The General Service List (West, 1953): <http://jbauman.com/aboutgsl.html>

The Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000): <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/research/awl/>

Nation's Vocabulary Level Tests: <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation/nation.aspx>

The WebLinks Project: Schema Building for EFL Conversation Courses

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ABSTRACT

Despite the best intentions of English language instructors and programs, implementing technology into a curriculum introduces a number of obstacles. The WebLinks project attempts to overcome some of these while simultaneously raising student awareness of the benefits of using the Internet as a way to improve language skills. WebLinks give students easy access to authentic, high-interest content on the World Wide Web related to their English conversation course textbooks. A procedure in which students are encouraged to visit the pre-selected Web sites before participating in their speaking-skills classes allows them to be more prepared for their lessons by activating schemata and arming them with points for discussion about previously unfamiliar topics. Furthermore, the WebLinks raise student awareness of the use of technology as a language-learning tool. Two components of this project will be discussed below: the methodology behind the creation of the *WebLinks* and the results of a survey that measured its effectiveness.

INTRODUCTION

As Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) continues to find a place in classrooms around the world, teachers and curriculum designers explore innovative ways to use computers as a tool to help students learn. Whether it is the use of forums, chat rooms, self-study sites, isolated skills practice, or even the creation of whole multimedia-based courses, it appears that CALL in one form or another is making inroads into many language programs. However, due to curricula restraints, hardware and software limitations, and in some cases a wariness about abandoning traditional practices (Holliday, 2005; Widdowson, 2003), some teachers and schools have yet to implement this valuable language-learning tool into their curricula. Furthermore, many instructors and institutions remain dubious about the efficacy of having computers come between language learners during communicative tasks (O'Donnell, 2006; Timucin, 2006).

Aware of these hurdles, the authors of this study have attempted to find a simple, yet innovative way to use CALL in university-level speaking-skills

courses. Students can be provided with opportunities to encounter new language and explore new ideas by introducing them to authentic materials on pre-selected web sites that are germane to the topics and themes introduced in their course textbooks.

WebLinks is a multifaceted project that attempts to make conversation courses more productive while concurrently raising student awareness of the language resources available to them on the Internet. *WebLinks* only requires that students have access to the Internet either at home or school, and it can be considered one component of a homework program or for class preparation purposes. No time in the classroom need be used viewing it and it does not require any institutional funding.

Despite the increase in students' computer literacy and the technological savvy of this generation of learners, many Japanese university students are not aware of or are hesitant to tap into the vast storehouse of language-learning materials that are available on the Internet. Lacking proper search techniques and hindered by limited English proficiency, students often deprive themselves of language growth opportunities by eschewing the English side of the Web, which accounts for approximately 65-75% of the total (VeriSign, 2005). To measure this problem quantitatively, as well as to investigate the applicability and appropriateness of the *WebLinks*, a survey comprised of questions seeking to examine how students use technology to support their learning was conducted. The methodology behind the *WebLinks* project will be provided below in conjunction with a discussion of the survey results.

STUDENT MOTIVATION AND TECHNOLOGY

Much has been reported in professional literature about the role of motivation in language learning (Dörnyei, 1994, 2001a, 2001b; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Tremblay, 1995; O'Donnell, 2003). Enter technology, and a whole new field of exploration has emerged. Examining the various ways in which technology can enhance motivation and language learning lies beyond the purview of this paper. However, a short review of recent studies shows its scope and breadth in the foreign language classroom. Computer-mediated communication has allowed students to practice target language, self-correct, and interact more comfortably with others because of the anonymity provided by nicknames used on forums and in chat rooms (Chen, Belkada, & Okamoto, 2004; de la Fuente, 2003; Roed, 2003). The role of movies and DVDs in the CALL classroom has proven to be important in teaching specific skills (Meskill, 1996) as well as culture (King, 2002; Shawback & Terhune, 2002). Reading instructors have also benefited from the use of technology (AlKahtani, 1999). The use of computers for improving the communicative competency of students is also being actively investigated (Lamy, 2004; Rosell-Aguilar, 2005). While this work reflects significant strides made in implementing motivating activities in the language classroom, a serious commitment in the area of materials design, facilities, and technical skills is required for such projects. Partaking in such endeavors is often beyond the reach of many language teachers. As a result, instructors often turn to the Internet for ready-made classroom materials and ideas, once again meeting a potential obstacle. As the Internet continues its

exponential growth, it becomes increasingly difficult, especially for the inexperienced, to separate the wheat from the chaff.

TECHNOLOGY AND STUDENT NEEDS

The *WebLinks* project is a two-pronged attempt to use technology to motivate learners to speak more in their conversation courses while making the sea of information and Web sites on the Internet more accessible. Rather than just being simple guides to the Internet, *WebLinks* serves as an introduction and provides links to certain Web sites that contain content related to the topics found in students' conversation course textbooks.

This project revolved around first-year Japanese university students studying English as part of a required general education curriculum. These students had by this time studied English for a minimum of six years, primarily through a traditional grammar-translation methodology geared towards entrance examinations. They were now enrolled in what was probably their first speaking-skills course, which met once a week over a fifteen-week semester. Each class meeting was for ninety minutes and the class size was approximately thirty students. The department required the students to use the same theme-based commercial textbook series for all speaking-skills classes and both full-time and part-time instructors taught the courses. All of the teachers were native speakers and were familiar with the textbooks and student needs.

Familiarity with the textbooks and students' needs in this program was essential for the first stage of the *WebLinks* project. A group of instructors concurred that one of the obstacles to student productivity in conversation courses the previous year was a lack of confidence that may have been caused by unfamiliarity with some of the topics in their texts. By building on schemata (Anderson & Pearson, 1988; Carrell, 1984; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983), students may have some of their anxiety removed (MacIntyre, 1999; Young, 1991), and can have more productive classes through extending speaking opportunities (Swain, 1985, 2005; Towell, Hawkins, & Bazergui, 1996). Acting on this premise, the instructors combed the Internet and sorted through Web sites that were related to the themes in the course books. Web sites were selected according to ten agreed-upon criteria, shown in Table 1.

Table 1. WebLinks Selection Criteria

Criteria
Accuracy of information
Authentic language
Frequency of maintenance and updates
High-interest content
Introductions to aspects of foreign culture, customs, and traditions
Objectivity and lack of bias in content
Student-appropriate content
Student-appropriate level of language difficulty
Textbook-related topic support
User-friendly interface

Once a Web site that met all of the selection criteria was located, an introduction was first written for a student version. Figure 1 shows a sample student WebLink. When the title is clicked, students are brought to the site to which it connects, shown in Figure 2. In this example, students are introduced to a popular magazine feature on American college rankings (US News & World Report, 2006). The content on this site helps them with a unit in their textbook that introduces North American colleges, majors, and other issues related to tertiary education.

Figure 1. Student's Version of WebLink

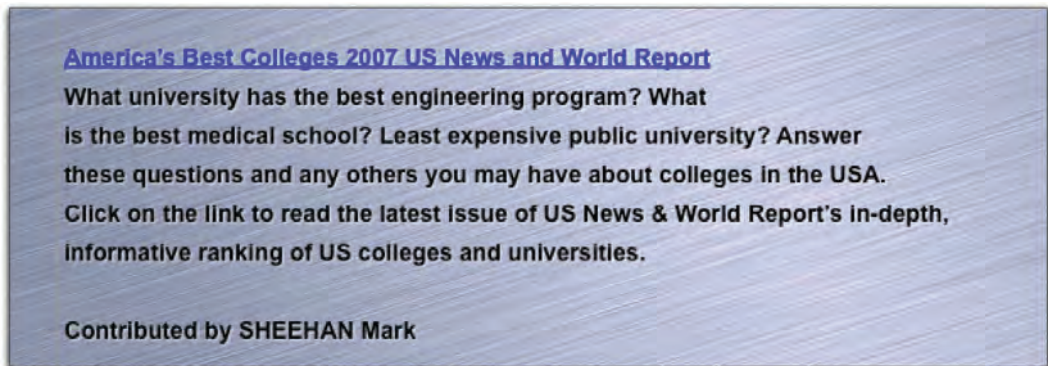
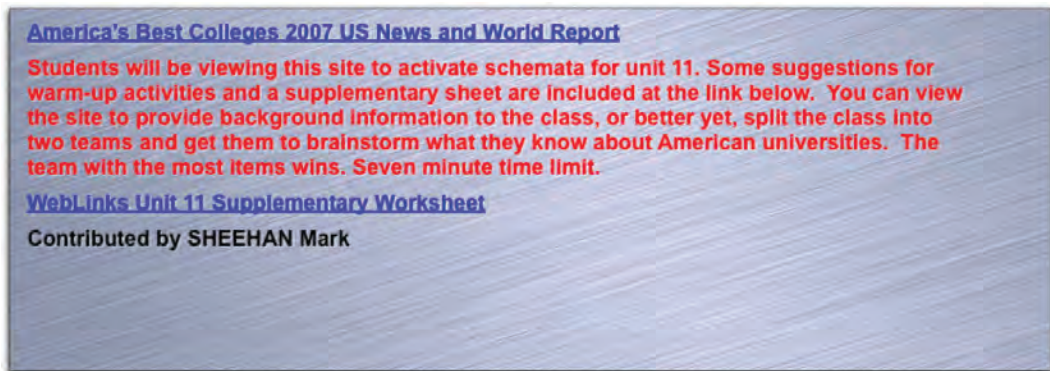


Figure 2. Screenshot of Linked Site



Figure 3 shows the more detailed teacher's version, which was written to include useful notes and ideas for optional classroom activities. Both versions of the *WebLinks* were uploaded onto a department server at the beginning of the semester. While students and teachers were periodically informed of *WebLinks* and the benefits of accessing them, they were at no time compelled to do so. Accessing *WebLinks* did not directly affect student grades, and their usage was not considered as a factor in end-of-semester teacher quality evaluations for future course assignments and contract renewals.

Figure 3. Teacher's Version of *WebLinks*

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF TECHNOLOGY AND ENGLISH

To receive feedback on the effectiveness and appropriateness of the *WebLinks* project, a survey was conducted immediately before the introduction of *WebLinks* into the program to measure students' confidence in speaking English, the role English plays in their lives, their familiarity with the topics in their textbooks, and their attitudes toward using technology to study English. Students were instructed to respond along a six-point Likert scale with 1 representing "strongly agree" and 6 representing "strongly disagree." The seven survey items are shown in Table 2. The results would show the relevance of *WebLinks* as well as provide insights for future introductions of technology into the language classroom.

Table 2. List of Survey Items

Item	Statement
1	I am familiar with the topics in my textbook.
2	I use computers to help me with subjects other than English.
3	I use computers to study English.
4	I use English when using the Internet.
5	I use the Internet to study subjects other than English.
6	I have access to a lot of English materials.
7	English is important to me and my future.

An acknowledgement that English was important to students and their future was a good starting point for justifying the *WebLinks* project. The survey results, shown in Table 3, indicate that 76% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with Item 7, that English is important to them. Nonetheless, the perception that students do not have access to English materials was troubling. This view was reflected in the response to Item 6 with almost 80% of the students responding negatively. This perceived limitation of access correlates with responses to Item 4 and Item 5. Less than a third of the students indicated that they use the Internet in English, while more than half use the Internet to study other subjects. Closing this gap between the use of the Internet to study English and other subjects and raising awareness of the benefits of using the English side of the Internet was always one of the

goals of *WebLinks*. Another goal was to complement themes appearing in student course books by providing more background information on a number of topics. With over half of the students responding to Item 1, that they were not familiar to a certain degree with the topics in their textbooks, providing a means for students to be more confident in their conversation lessons was imperative. *WebLinks* therefore served their original purpose.

Table 3. Survey Results

Item	Results (%)					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	1	15	38	27	14	5
2	18	27	31	16	7	1
3	7	19	29	16	16	13
4	5	11	17	29	28	20
5	12	21	29	19	11	8
6	1	2	16	31	38	12
7	46	30	15	6	1	2

N = 141

CONCLUSION

The *WebLinks* project has attempted to overcome any hardware, software, technical, or institutional limitations to the use of technology by introducing students to Web sites that tie into the materials being presented in their conversation courses. This approach to the integration of technology into a traditional speaking-skills course serves two purposes: teachers are provided with students who have schemata activated, and students are provided with high-interest content that will promote more meaningful exchanges during classroom speaking practice. Furthermore, students who have not explored the English side of the Internet are given an introduction to its potential for language study.

Survey results of student use of technology to study English have brought to light some of the beliefs of the participants in this project. While these students use the Internet to study other subjects, their use of the medium for the study of English has been limited. Hoping to remedy this problem while also providing students with background knowledge of unfamiliar topics and the ability to speak more in conversation courses, a selection of Web sites have been vetted and introduced to students. While this approach to building schemata is new, observations of students who regularly accessed *WebLinks* shows that it works.

While the use of technology in the language classroom has made great strides and CALL has become a well-received aid to a variety of language activities, some instructors and programs will continue to be unable to take full advantage of it. It should be noted here that *WebLinks* do not necessarily require online housing and accessibility—teachers can provide the same information to colleagues and students on paper.

While this project has raised a number of other research questions revolv-

ing around the increased use of the Internet in English, how to create more confidence in English conversation courses, and how to heighten awareness of the benefits of using technology to study English, the preliminary results of this study have been promising and consistent with current research.

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Video Journaling

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ABSTRACT

One of the main challenges in teaching presentation skills in a foreign language context is finding ways to get our students to present in English, with a meaningful purpose, outside the classroom. There are several factors working against our learners speaking English, such as a lack of perceived need to communicate in English, fear of making mistakes in front of peers, and/or a lack of contact with speakers of English (Howarth, 2006). This paper aims to establish a clear definition of video journaling: a technique that has been used to get learners to present in English both in and outside the classroom, while at the same time addressing the problems mentioned above.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is concerned with providing a definition of *video journaling* and takes a rather unorthodox approach in doing so. Before the definition, there shall first be a brief overview of how videotaping has been used in language learning and teaching, and what is meant by the term *journal*, as used in this paper. To establish a clear definition of video journaling, two possible uses of how video journaling will be examined.

VIDEO USAGE

There are various ways that teachers and researchers have used videotaping. For example, Murphey and Woo (1998) and Murphey (2001) report on a technique in which students transcribe their own output after recording conversations with other students in class. This process of conversing and then transcribing led to, among other things, learners noticing some of their own errors. A second possible use of videotaping is relinquishing control of the camera to the students, allowing them to make up their own presentations and later show to the rest of the class (Assinder, 1991). Assinder further states that this can lead to an increase in learner autonomy, class participation, and motivation and accuracy in speaking output.

A third possible use of videotaping is as a feedback tool for presentations. For example, Cotton (2001) notes when evaluating student presentations, teachers videotaping are able to notice more than teachers who only took

notes. Another example of videotaping as a feedback tool is stated in Thornbury (1996), who reports the benefits of videotaping teaching practices during PRESET (pre-service teacher education and training) programs—the main benefit being that videotaping allows beginner teachers to see for themselves just how much they talked and what they were actually doing in contrast to what they had planned.

Lastly, and most importantly for this paper, is the use of videotaping as a personal journal. Unfortunately, there is very little research in this area. Bowman (1983) used videotaping as a tool for charting personal growth in his students. He had his students, who were not language learners, keep a journal on film over the course of a year. Student kept journals as a means to charting how they changed while studying various topics. This use of visually being able to see change in students was one of the reasons why I began to explore video journaling in my own teaching context.

With the exception of this last use of videotaping, all of the uses of videotaping tend to focus on in-class activities and/or consist of videotaping only once. The aspect of taping several times over time does not seem to be something that has really been researched in the field of English as a Foreign Language.

JOURNALS

In this part, the focus is concerned with defining what is meant by the use of the term *journal*, as used in this paper. A review of the literature will not be conducted regarding the various possible uses of journals in language teaching. For readers who are interested in this area, please see Allwright and Bailey (1991), Brown (2006), Dymont and O'Connor (2003), Kerka (1996), Leung (2002), Li and Tse (2002), Montgomery and Collette (2001), Parkingson et al. (2003), Simard (2004), and Suzuki (2004). The research on journaling is extensive, and the possible uses are truly imaginative. For example, Brown (2006) writes of the use of written journals as an evaluative tool, whereas Suzuki (2004) charts a comparison between traditional written journals and blogs.

DEFINITION

The use of the term journal can be defined as “a log (or ‘account’) of one’s thoughts, feelings, reactions, assessments, ideas, or progress toward goals, usually written with little attention to structure, form, or correctness” (Brown, 2006, p. 260). There are several aspects of this definition that are relevant to video journaling, such as journals not always being in written format, that there are several entries within one journal, and that the entries are done at different times.

One reason journals are often thought of as being written is because of the nature of the written word—it is something that is permanent; a record of some sort. The spoken word is not often thought of as being permanent. With the advancement of technology, it is now possible to have a permanent

record of not only what is said, but also how it is said. This is significant because as Brown (2006, p. 260) notes, a journal allows the learner to see the importance of self-reflection in the process of their own language learning.

Of importance here is the power of journals to assist in self-reflection in the language learning process and how teachers can use journals to assist learners through their own language learning. The role of self-reflection in learning is a controversial issue but for those who are interested in learning more, please see Moon (2004).

VIDEO JOURNALING DEFINED

Video Journaling can be defined simply as the use of videotaping, or other visual recording medium, to make several permanent personal speaking entries over time. Embedded in this definition is the notion that the video journalist has the ability to review recorded material. This simple definition can have a dynamic effect on the learning environment, as will be illustrated in the next section.

USAGES OF VIDEO JOURNALING

The following two examples of how video journaling can be used in an existing syllabus are taken from my own teaching situation in Japan. In both cases, the classroom study focus is about presentations, which as Richards (2006) states, is a form of *performance*. A performance is one of three major types of spoken interaction or speech type, with conversations and encounters making up the other two (Brown & Yule, 1983). According to Richards (2006, p. 4-6), features of a performance include, one person speaking (a monologue); a beginning, a middle and an end; formal language; output strongly resembles written language; grammar is considered important. Lastly, a performance is seen as the speaker having created a product of some form, such as in a speech.

EXAMPLE A: RAISING AWARENESS OF PROGRESS

The first example of using video journaling in the classroom and is based in a research institute in Japan. Students are at the graduate level or higher and have a learning focus in the field of genetics. The relevant course objective regards preparing students to present their own research at international conferences. A technique used to address this objective is to have students converse in class with other students about their professional background, their current research, and the progress that they had made in their own research the previous week. After each conversation, students would change partners. This would be repeated three times per class, with the third time being videotaped. At the end of five classes, each student, with their teacher, watched each of their recorded conversations, and students were invited to make comments on any changes they noticed. Of interest was that each student took note of something that they had not previously been aware.

For example, one student noticed that in the first entry her eyes tended to be “searching” when she talked, but over time, she got progressively better at focusing on her partner. That was attributed, according to the student, to an increase in comfort with speaking about her topic. For this student, noticing a change in a non-verbal cue meant improvement. Although she could have chosen other areas to focus on, such as word choice, grammar, or pronunciation, what she took away from this experience was that as part of her pre-presentation preparation, she needs to practice in front of others until she is comfortable with the topic. She will know she is ready when she is able to present while focusing on the different people. This is important to her, as she is interested in doing poster presentations, where the ratio between speaker and listener is often one to one.

Almost all the learners commented on non-verbal cues, such as eye contact, gesturing with the hand to emphasize a point or to show quantity (i.e., expanding hands to show something that is larger), or head movement. The teacher’s role was mainly to facilitate and counsel. Interestingly, there was very little discussion on grammar or word choice, but a few students did comment on their intonation. The use of video journaling here was useful because students, overall, were able to reflect on the physical message that they were giving out whenever they talked about their background or research and how their physical message changed over time. This would be an interesting activity to replicate at other institutions where there are scientists studying presentation skills.

EXAMPLE B: GUIDED REFLECTION

The second example is set within an undergraduate program at a university in Japan. For the past three years, 2nd-year students have kept video journals outside of the classroom. One reason why students are asked to keep a video journal throughout the year is that most 2nd-year students turn 20 years of age and officially become an adult. It is hoped that students will be able to see differences in themselves from the start of the year to the end.

Students have complete freedom of what topics to talk about, but the use of Japanese is not allowed, unless it involves explaining a Japanese concept. In this case, students are encouraged to say the concept in Japanese and then explain it in English. Students are encouraged to write out what will be said, but reading word-for-word is strongly discouraged. Referring back to Richards’ (2006) description of the speech act performance, reading a script is one reason why most video journals resembled written discourse more than spoken discourse. As students have been taught the importance of introducing their topic, the video journals tend to have a pattern similar to that of a performance (a beginning, a middle and an end). Lastly, somewhat contrary to a performance (which is usually thought of as a speech act that is done in front of an audience), the focus of a video journal is on students communicating their thoughts and so correction is limited to only when the message is not understood. This is consistent with Chaudron’s (1988) guideline for making error corrections.

One way that video journals have been used as a reflection tool is in the following outline. Step 1: Students watched a previous entry that they liked.

Step 2: Students then transcribe the entry. In class, students received examples of transcriptions. Also covered in class was the purpose for transcribing, to write what is heard and seen, and to not correct or change in any way the output of their entry. Students wrote down any non-verbal cues, such as nodding of the head or use of the hands. Step 3: Students answered four questions: *What did you like about what you saw? What did you notice about your own speaking? Did you notice any mistakes?* and *What would you like to change about your English speaking/communication style?* In the final step, students reported what they had discovered.

A follow up one-to-one discussion with students was truly interesting. Some of the feedback from students could have come from a teacher's resource book. For example, one student reported that she did not like keeping a video journal because there was no interaction. According to most literature on spoken discourse (for example, Hatch, 1992; Brown & Yule, 1983; Mercer, 2000), one of the hallmarks of spoken discourse is the social interaction between the listener and the speaker. For this student, there was no interaction when speaking to the video camera. Perhaps not surprising, in order for the student to perceive interaction, the student would have to be able to perceive an imagined audience, which is an advanced skill, according to Brown and Yule (1983). This student stated, I still think video journaling is useful as it made this one student more aware of what she *liked* about speaking English, the interaction. Other comments included such things as being able to say what they wanted without fear of what others said, lack of emotion in speech, grammar mistakes, mismatches between speech and body language, the use of a loud, clear voice, and the ability to communicate their own thoughts.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have given a clear understanding of video journaling and provided examples of what video journals can do. Video journals have the potential to be a powerful tool when teaching and learning presentation skills. It is hoped that teachers will use video journals, or any other technology (Sanders, 2006), only when it is appropriate, as was the case in the two examples provided. In the first context, Example A, students needed a mechanism that allowed them to become aware of how others perceive them when they talk about their own research. In Example B, video journals provided a means for learning about what students liked about their own English speaking and provided a direction from which to make changes they wanted to make to their own communication style. It also served as a means to see changes over the course of a year at a significant time in students' lives.

The examples used here have focused the use of a video camera as the recording medium. Other possible mediums could include a webcam (though one drawback to this medium is that it restricts the speaker to wherever the webcam is fixed) and cell phones. In conclusion, for teachers who need to teach presentation skills, video journaling can be another tool at their disposal.

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More ICT/Less Work: A Collaborative Pilot Project

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ABSTRACT

More and more teachers throughout the world are facing greater demands on both the quality and quantity of their teaching in an increasingly discontinuous workplace. This work intensification, coupled with the trend in education toward the application of business models and temporary staffing practices, has led to a questioning of both profession and purpose. This is in stark contrast to many contemporary theories of leadership, which embrace concepts of empowerment, trust, and shared responsibility. This paper takes the position that teacher empowerment is best gained through self-leadership and collaboration, which enable enhanced educative outcomes. As an illustration, a collaborative pilot project on the supplemental use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) for the EFL classroom will be presented.

INTRODUCTION

Vision without action is a form of hallucination.

- Manfred F.R. Kets De Vries (1995, p. 199)

Teachers today often find themselves struggling to keep up with all the demands of their profession. Teachers usually have to complete a number of tasks related to preparing materials and teaching, as well as a growing plethora of administrative duties under the light of an increasing scrutiny of performance. This intensification has created very tenuous positions with very perceptible outcomes for education (Smyth, 1989; Bates, 1995; Grace, 1995; Creanor & Littlejohn, 2000; Barth, 2001; Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, & Hann, 2002; Limerick, Cunnington, & Crowther, 2002). Teachers and students are made aware of this shift in emphasis on assessment scores and concentrated evaluations, and have been forced to shift their focus. Numerous researchers have recognized this troubling trend such as Barth (2001, p. 446), who wrote, "Every moment of every teacher's day is being scrutinized by others to discover what changes might raise students' scores." Perhaps Kenway et al. summed it up best:

Education is seen less and less as a means towards self-expression and fulfillment or towards the development of cultural and social understanding and responsibility, and aesthetic, critical and creative sensibilities. Its purposes become frankly utilitarian and its quality is defined accordingly. (as cited in Bates, 1995, pp. 12-13)

Not surprisingly, teachers often submit to increased workloads and implementation measures they may feel are pedagogically unsound in order to display their loyalty and thus avoid the risk of replacement. Bates (1995, p. 12) sees this as a purposeful tactic of many corporate administrations including education:

It is surely not coincidental that the demand for such commitment and loyalty to corporate culture coincides with the replacement of long term employment by short term contracts for principals and teachers, no less than among other workers. Vulnerable employees may, of necessity, be more eager to display their loyalty and commitment to management visions.

This all paints a dismal picture of education and teaching in particular. Yet, many teachers are able to find success despite these impediments through determination and careful attention to the dynamics of their situations.

SUCCESS IN DISCONTINUITY

Teachers who strive for progress must first recognize any disparities between what they have and what they want. This necessarily includes an objective assessment of the work setting and pupils, as well as their personal qualities and needs. Once the teacher has this objective picture in mind, then they can begin to determine when and where they may be able to affect measures for improvement. Nevertheless, this form of self-leadership is not without risk or uncertainties. If teachers begin to make changes that concern other teachers or their superiors without first soliciting their involvement, they can overlook the dynamic and interrelated nature of the education system. It would appear that a new skill set is required to bridge the demands of the local workplace with those of the teacher's theoretical goals. Limerick et al. (2002, p. 45) offer a new understanding of organization as the 'fourth blueprint,' referring to a new paradigm based on both "loosely coupled structures and higher levels of synergy in organization." In other words, the fourth blueprint implies networking relationships that allow the individuals (both internally and externally) to maximize the strengths of their differences without applying traditional restrictions or other burdens based on hierarchal structures and position. One of the benefits of this view is a more fluid concept of leadership that can be realized throughout an organization and thus is independent of position. Ideally, this vision of leadership would not exist within a hierarchal structure at all, but would be vested in individuals working in collaboration toward shared ends. Limerick et al. (2002, p. 241) see

this shift in thinking toward the individual as the key to the new paradigm.

This different perspective, approaching issues in behavior in an organized effort from the viewpoint of the participant, is perhaps the most fundamental shift required for the study of organized post-corporate action (Limerick et al., 2002, p. 241).

Hence, training in the principles of *self-leadership*, *collaboration*, and the *use of new technology* will best enable teachers today. Each of these concepts will be briefly addressed below, followed by the presentation of a collaborative pilot project by the authors.

SELF-LEADERSHIP

Who better to know the real effects of educational policies on students and teachers than those who spend most of their time in classrooms living and implementing them? To put it more succinctly, the teaching/learning relationship is the *raison d'être* for the lumbering juggernaut that we call education, so why do teachers continue to play such a small role in deciding its direction? The answer may be that teachers are simply too busy teaching. Alternatively, as Barth (2001, p. 446) points out, there may be any number of reasons:

In the world of teacher leadership, danger abounds. It can be equally unsafe to lead or to follow the lead of another, especially when the leader has not been officially “designated” . . . Inertia, risk aversion, lack of confidence, and primitive adult relationships all thwart teacher initiatives toward school leadership.

Nonetheless, there is a clear need for teachers to take initiative through self-leadership if education is to realize its inherent purpose reflected in its primary agents.

Self-leadership is defined as “the process of influencing oneself to establish the self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform” (study by Neck et al.; as cited in Williams, 1997, p. 140). Within the scope of this paper, other similar theories such as *self-influence* (Bandura, 1986), *self-regulation* (Kanfer, 1970) and *self-management* (Manz & Sims, 1980) can be seen as prerequisites or components of self-leadership, and so distinctions will not be made here (in Lee & Koh, 2001). Self-leadership emphasizes that the agent (the teacher in this case) does things for their intrinsic value. This is similar in principle to transformational leadership in that teachers do not do things only to accomplish specific tasks, but work toward a general improvement of self (Avolio & Bass, 1988). The obvious difference being that self-leadership involves transforming *oneself*, while transformational leadership derives from the hierarchal leader’s endowment (much like *empowerment*). Teachers need to view their position not only as a teacher within a given work context but also as an educator within a milieu of education and exploration of personal potential. Self-leadership, through its emphasis on long-term growth through intrinsic development can be very empowering to the individual, especially in

favorable settings.

COLLABORATION

Teachers, like other employees and businesses in the world, can no longer work in isolation if they are to flourish professionally. Spurred on in large part through advances in communication technology and the Internet, the need to establish networks (both locally and globally) is becoming the basis on which all forms of production are dependent. As Lunsford and Bruce (2001, p. 53) put it, “the image of the isolated Dr. Frankenstein in his laboratory, always something of a myth, has now become thoroughly displaced.”

Collaboration by nature involves two or more parties with similar goals; the basis for their relationship is a mutual desire to help each other to achieve those goals (study by Van Manen; as cited in Dallmer, 2004). In the case of most teacher-to-teacher collaboration, the impetus for solving these goals is based on the recognition of a disparity between theory and practice garnered from firsthand classroom observations. This is an important aspect in terms of trust and the willingness of participants to share information. Trust within collaborative relationships is reaffirmed on a daily basis; if an imbalance in expectations persists, then the lesser party will take measures to end the collaboration with resultant effects upon the other’s standing.

Another key to the success of collaboration is the retention of individual differences (Limerick et al., 2001; Dallmer, 2004). Dallmer (2004, p. 43) believes working collaboratively means “parleying all the diverse positions and roles that people bring to the relationship” without “trying as I did, to minimize those differences and make us all generically equal”; for her, “it means that we must trust in those differences to accomplish our mutually agreed upon purposes.” Therefore, collaborations are based on common goals and maintained by mutual trust reaffirmed through daily interaction while preserving individual differences, which enables shared leadership.

NEW TECHNOLOGY AND COLLABORATIONS

Teachers working in various locations around the world are no longer bound by or limited to the circumstances and resources available locally, and so can regularly and easily ‘meet’ online to work on a project. Rapid increases in technology such as the availability of wideband or high-speed Internet connections and advances in encoding and file compression have contributed to the ease and flexibility of these modern collaborations. However, as the use of technology by individual teachers is dependent upon individual skills and experience, many teachers may need training or support in order to become comfortable with using technology. Therefore, collaborations can moreover play important roles for motivation and self-leadership, and help alleviate fears by teachers who “may feel threatened by the rapidly advancing technologies” (Creanor & Littlejohn, 2000, p. 272). Also apparent in the consideration of collaboration is the lack of reference to any hierarchal structure. Collaboration is not necessarily an institutionally-approved relation-

ship and/or empowered by supervisors; it has flat structures and functions only when a balance of power is maintained by all through mutual trust. This makes collaboration particularly attractive and useful to motivated teachers in discontinuous settings wishing to affect change within their classrooms.

A project being conducted by the authors will now be presented as an illustration of the concept of collaboration with new technology.

THE SKWRL PILOT PROJECT

Through a presentation on a collaborative effort in Japan given at the 13th International KOTESOL conference (“Interactive Reading: Teaching Reading Skills and Authentic Materials with CALL” by Mark Sheehan and Andrew Johnson), the authors were able to become familiar with one another—despite not meeting due to circumstances that prevented Andrew Johnson’s attendance. As the impetus for this collaboration was the desire to extend lessons and support for university English classes through a supplemental Web site, it was agreed that the SKWRL site would be a perfect match. Specifically, the authors were able to make contact by email and soon developed a plan for adapting Andrew Johnson’s SKWRL Web site for use with classes to be offered during the following spring term at Ewha Womans University. This project was later re-framed to serve as a pilot for potential application within the entire English Program Office (EPO) at Ewha. The following section will provide an overview of the site. More information can be gained by contacting Andrew Johnson: andy@english-trailers.com.

SKWRL WEB SITE DESCRIPTION

SKWRL stands for SpeaKing, Writing, Reading, and Listening and is what is referred to as a Learning Management System (LMS). Numerous LMSs exist including commercial sites such as *BlackBoard* and Open-Source *Moodle*, which allow teachers to create online educational environments for learning and offer activities such as quizzes, forums, and chats. The appeal of an LMS is that it offers the teacher an additional component to the classroom that is flexible enough to be utilized as much or as little as the teacher deems necessary. When Andrew Johnson and Mark Sheehan began the preliminary work on this project, no LMSs specifically crafted for language learning existed. As a result, the SKWRL LMS was created, offering pedagogically sound language learning activity templates. With these templates, teachers could tailor-make activities that matched the particular needs of their students. In the interest of brevity, only the essential collaborative elements of the SKWRL LMS will be provided here.

SKWRL consists of two main pages - a teacher course creation page and a student page (Figure 1) - each with their own menus and subsections. Teachers first use the course creation page to create a new course (Figure 2), add activities (Figure 3), and finally insert content into the activities (Figure 4). While students are denied access to the teacher components, both teachers and students can access the student components. When a teacher logs in-

to the student area, additional features are available for classroom management purposes such as class scoring and activity activation. Students on the other hand, only have access to the activities and their own scores.

Figure 1. The Student Page (<http://skwrl.org>) - An Example Activity

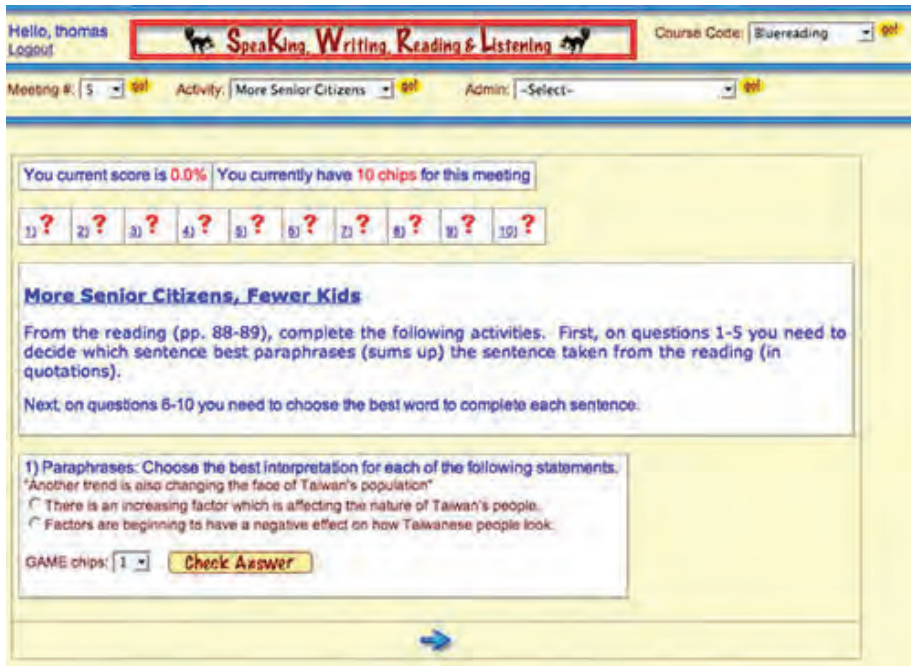


Figure 2. The Teacher Course Creation Page (http://skwrl.org/teacher_index.php) - Create New Course Section

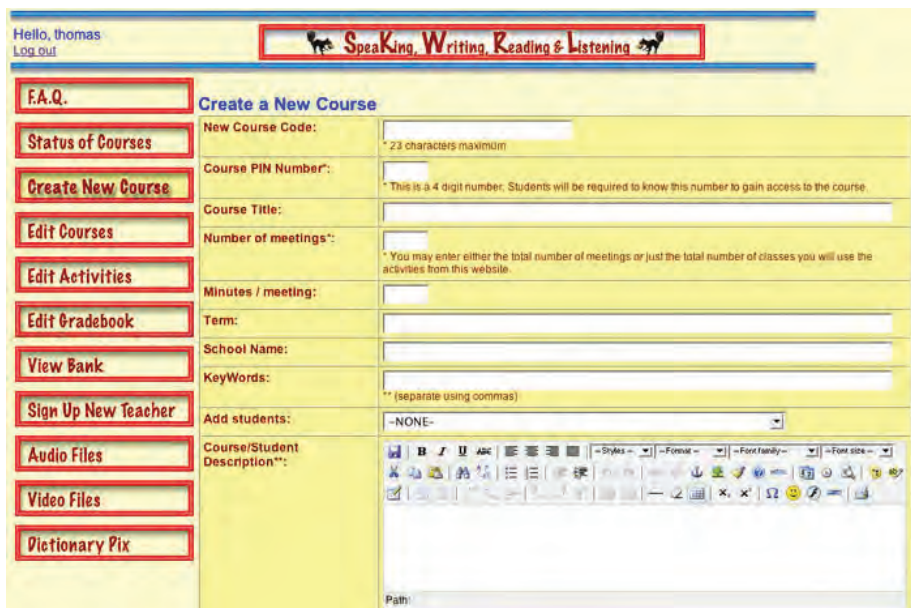


Figure 3. The Teacher Course Creation Page (http://skwrl.org/teacher_index.php) - *Edit Courses* Section. Teachers can build meetings from twelve different activity types.

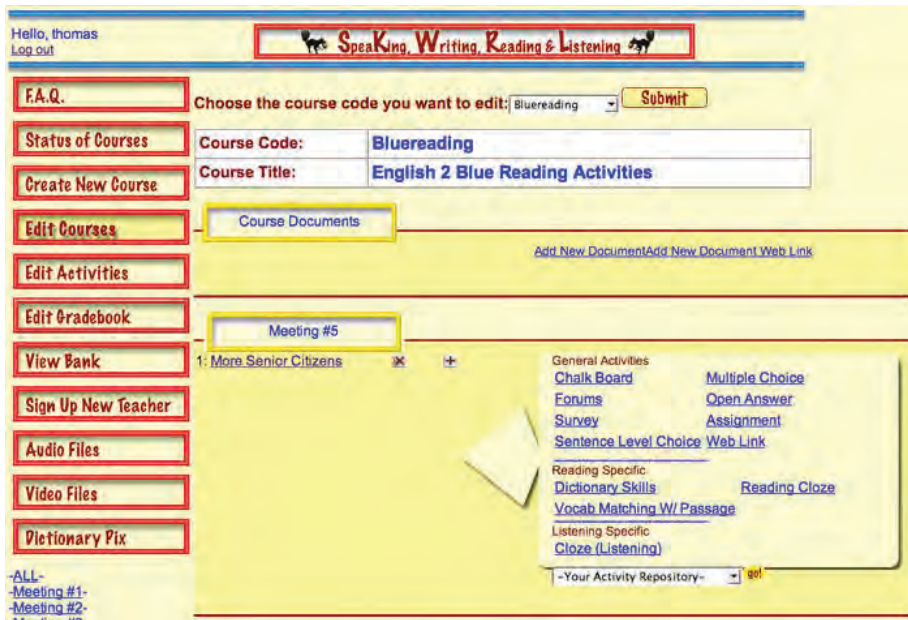
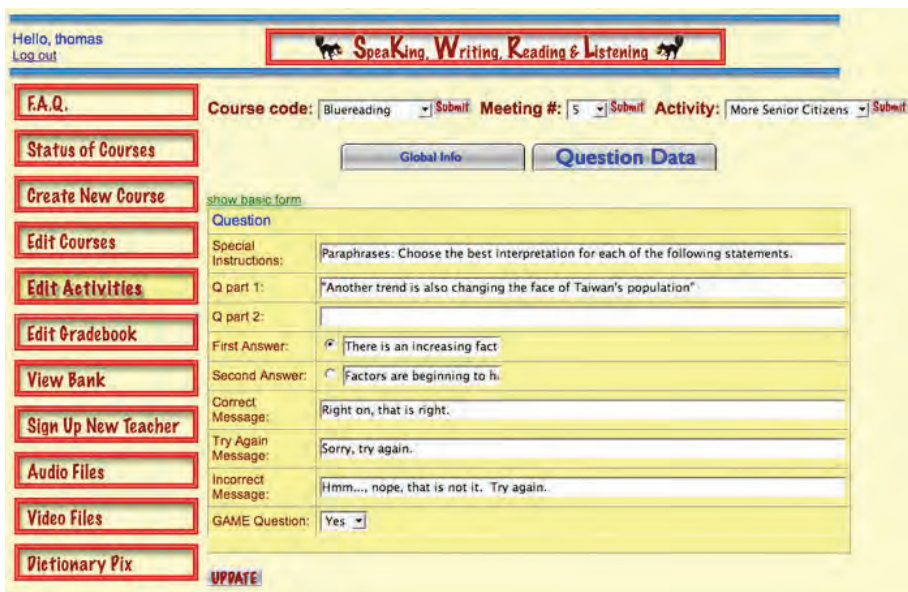


Figure 4. The Teacher Course Creation Page (http://skwrl.org/teacher_index.php) - *Edit Activities* Section. Teachers use forms to add the content of their activities.



SKWRL allows collaboration on two fronts. First, teachers can share their activities. This means that if one teacher would like to use another teacher's materials in their own course, they can contact the webmaster and have it added. It should also be noted that a SKWRL repository is currently being developed to allow teachers to be able to bypass contacting the webmaster and add other teachers' materials directly. Through such sharing, the time teachers spend on material development can be dramatically decreased. This is ideal for team teaching or teachers who teach the same content as it allows them to work together and easily share their materials.

Secondly, as teachers gain experience in this online environment, ideas for new ways of using current activities, improving classroom management features, adding new activity types and improving the overall site are discussed and implemented. In this sense, SKWRL is an organic site, building upon the various strengths of the teachers involved. For example, two new activity types were added during the second semester of use. One of these was designed to emulate grammar type questions of the TOEFL test where a sentence is presented with four underlined words or phrases. The user must select which underlined part is incorrect. One of the authors was able to take that activity and utilize it in a very creative way to check the truth-value of a sentence. This is a prime example of how collaboration need not require more work, but instead can simply be new ways of utilizing existing materials. Additionally, to assist communication, a teacher forum is available so that teachers can share their ideas, informing others of what works and what does not, and allowing teachers to grow from each others' experiences.

METHOD AT EWHA

Two sections of Ewha Womans University freshman English I students (in non-CALL classrooms) were chosen to take part in the first phase of the study. The SKWRL Web site was employed in the 15-week semester as an out-of-class supplement for both reading homework activities and assessment (10), and listening requirements (6) as well. As part of this process, meetings were held with the Pearson/Longman Korean representative and the English Program Office director to obtain permissions for use of materials online. A pre-questionnaire was conducted at the beginning of the course by students to determine background variables and predisposition to English learning and technology use. A similar post-questionnaire was also employed to determine attitudes on the project, problems and overall satisfaction with the course (survey results are still being analyzed at the time of writing).

The course Web site began with a foundation of elemental designs based on the SKWRL templates that were gradually developed over the semester into a complex and pedagogically sound course supplement. It incorporated a variety of activities and media regularly customized through detailed observations and student feedback. While no trial can run free of errors, no concerns proved serious, or in any way impeded the progress of the course.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROJECT

It is believed that this project will help provide an important first step toward the future of language learning in Korea involving the intelligent application of ICT in classrooms without computers to achieve significant increases in study time and interaction. The educational implications for this study are numerous due to the practical nature and impetus for the work. The motivation for conducting this research was a genuine desire to improve learning without further taxing the schedules of already overworked second language teachers. Therefore, the development of administrative functions on the Web site for teachers, together with more interactive assignments and coursework for students, will effectively free-up teachers and allow students to take charge of their own progress. Students will be limited only by their own input, motivation, and creativity in learning without an equal increase in teachers' workloads.

CONCLUSION

In 1994, Peter Drucker (p.66) predicted, "Education will become the center of the knowledge society, and the school its key institution." If this is true, then teachers and students, as the axis of the school, will become the center of society. It is hard to imagine a society based on disempowered individuals, much less passive consumers of commercial products and dictums. Yet, if teachers remain locked in organizations with rigid hierarchies that discourage self-leadership, this is exactly what they will become. It is not enough for teacher-leaders to envision the future of education; they must form strategies of action to make it so. Teachers need to act persistently in order to learn what is possible and what is not. As Mintzberg (1994) related:

But strategy making as a learning process can proceed in the other direction too. We think in order to act, to be sure, but we also act in order to think. We try things, and those experiments that work converge gradually into viable patterns that become strategies. (p. 111)

Students, who are shaping their potential self-leadership vicariously through their teachers, also learn these lessons. Indeed, students learn as much from observing what teachers *do* as from listening to what they *say*. If teachers become passive agents of learned helplessness, what message does this send to the students? Instead, teachers should realize their own strengths, nurture them, and determine how well they fit with their school's needs (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Thus, "empowered" teachers teach real life lessons to students that empower *them* to act as well.

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Methodologies and Techniques

The Games People Play

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ABSTRACT

Research clearly indicates there is a strong link between what a person feels and what they learn and recall. Play might be considered “fun,” “frivolous” and “unnecessary” by some. However, when genuinely engaged in “play,” young children learn on a deep intrinsic level and can recall with accuracy what was learned. Many phrases associated with everyday conversation can be learned through play. Play can be competitive or co-operative, and play does not have to stop with age! Games provide a hands-on experience of learning while students play. This report goes some way to proving that play and learning go hand, in addition to providing a tool kit of games you can use in class immediately.

PLAY AND GAMES ARE METAPHORS ON LIFE

From the earliest days of life, a child explores their world, and in so doing, there is one thing that can be evidenced in every child whatever their culture or creed, the basis of their learning is pseudo-mimicry. The child wants to be part of the community it was born into, and as like attracts like, the child will observe and attempt to enact the roles it sees occurring around it, thus our roles and social norms are defined from our earliest life.

The child’s motivation is a strong intrinsic emotion to belong, and therefore to conform is a powerful emotional stimulus to learning. As a result, the child learns, amongst other things, customs, culture, traditions, tastes for particular foods, and gender-roles. As well, the child learns language.

All this learning takes place informally and is frequently seen by adults as play, amusing activities that occupy a child for endless hours. However quaint it may appear, play is serious work! Then, at various points we term as “milestones,” the child can say one word . . . then two, three, ten, twenty, and soon follows sentences, songs, and reading and writing. How did the child learn this? Through this pseudo-mimicry, role play, in other words, simulation. Why did they learn this: because they were highly emotionally motivated.

If you look at how people learn, the level of retention increases to its highest as they simulate tasks. "People learn best when challenged" (Norman, 2006). Through their astonishing powers of observation, a child absorbs all

the information they need to become part of their community, then rather than simply repeating as would a parrot; the child reconstructs their observation through play (Chomsky, as cited in Mason, 2006). Sometimes play is a solitary activity that the child does because it feels good, later play becomes more or less constructed as games, which become powerful learning tools because they encourage active problem solving and strategic thinking, emphasizing exploration and self-discovery rather than learning by rote (Bruner, as cited in Mason, 2006).

However, games are still dismissed by many adults as inappropriate in the educational setting, and are frequently seen as a waste of time. Parents do complain that their child is having fun, when they should be learning! But where is it written that learning and fun are an antithesis, mutually exclusive and opposed to enhancing each other for the benefit of the learner? In fact games can enable players to experience places and events that are not readily accessible, or are too dangerous to experience in the real world . . . Players can experience these things knowing that they can learn by making mistakes. Through play, children learn to be flexible. In language there are many ways to say the same thing. Language is not a rigid construct where there is only one right way; children learn positive ways of coping with discouragement. If games are at an appropriate challenge level, children become more highly motivated and skilled at multi-tasking, decision-making and evaluating risks (Stapleton study; as cited in Hill, 2005).

From an educators perspective, the role of games and play in the ESL classroom is considered to be highly beneficial (NZ Ministry of Education, 2000). The pedagogy behind the proposition that game play can effectively promote confidence, or competence, or scaffold higher order learning skills, especially reflection, relates to a longstanding understanding of the role of games and play in learning. This is where the skilled ESL teacher can use games to facilitate personally meaningful and significant learning, that can be immediately useful to the language learner. Games can encourage positive approaches to learning because games often immerse players emotionally and provide opportunities that encourage the learner to keep trying, rewarding persistence and encouraging experimentation. Games also teach young learners more words and language constructs than simply focusing on the teaching of the target language alone would provide, thus developing the ESL learners fluency in English as a "living language" by increasing the learners useful vocabulary through subtly scaffolding the language - target and supporting language - as the game progresses.

Educationally focused play and games have the same ability as any normal play activity or game to emotionally immerse learners using fun and excitement or strategy. But the difference is the subtly disguised intention that players will learn as they play, with progress checkpoints acting as a platform for knowledge and content assessment to be plausible. There are several considerations that a teacher must make when they incorporate games into their teaching practice, these are:

1. Does the proposed game relate to the lessons target language?
2. Does the game build the social skills of communication using the target language?
3. Does the game encourage co-operation through communication in the target language?

4. Does the game model 'fair-play' concepts in the target language?
5. Does the game provide a form of 'healthy competition' using the target language?
6. Does the game inspire students to plan in the target language?
7. Does the game inspire students to think in the target language?
8. Does the game inspire students to strategize in the target language?
9. Does the game inspire students to execute their plans, thoughts and strategies in the target language?
10. Does the game promote concentration?
11. Does the game promote observation?
12. Is the game student centered? Can the language be immediately useful outside of the classroom?
13. Can the game be adapted or modified by the teacher or students to meet the language needs of the learners?
14. Can the game be co-constructed by students with the teacher using everyday materials, recycled materials?
15. Can the game be used for assessment? See Appendix A for a Games Evaluation and Reflection Sheet.

To provide the opportunity to intrinsically deeply touch the player, games must also have several qualities that provide motivation to participate for the learner these include such things as:

1. Be carefully crafted
2. Be authentic or realistic
3. Be abstract enough to allow creative construction of ideas and expression
4. Provide for risk free reflection
5. Be satisfying enough that participation is its own reward
6. Allow for voluntary expression
7. Provide a momentary separateness from real life
7. Provide sufficient challenge and risk so effective learning occurs.
9. Give opportunity for players to use choice and constraint (Bowers, as cited in Shears & Bowers, 1974; Caillois, 1961)

Games are personally meaningful, significant and emotionally engaging activities that enhance the learners' ability to learn and retain information. Children adapt and change games to suit their needs and resources as they play, so can it be for teachers. It is important that teachers realize every game or activity need not be expensive, commercial, or new, - but rather take something that works well and adapt it. Change the vocabulary, the actions, the tools; in effect, introduce a new awareness to an old game or activity. Let's look at some simple games and activities that can be used as they are described or adapted to fit your circumstances.

SO LET'S PLAY

1. FRUITSALAD

This is a transitional game; it signals the end of one activity and the start

of another and is fun, requires constant observation, develops listening skills and enables the teacher to maintain control, an aspect that has validity as often children can get excited, loud and exuberant when playing games.

HOW TO PLAY “FRUITSALAD”

If your target language was Fruit, you give each student a card with a picture (if your students are low language level) of a fruit or the name of a fruit written on it (higher language level students), or a sentence using a fruit word (for yet higher language level students). If your target language is classroom items, you would use words such as *desk, chair, pencil, blackboard, teacher, student, textbook, notebook*, etc. If there are ten students in the class, give out two cards with *apple*, two cards with *banana*, two cards with *orange*, two cards with *watermelon* and two cards with *strawberry*, so there is more than one student in each “fruit” category. At some place in your classroom, draw a shape on the floor, this shape must be large enough to hold all the “fruit,” in which case, it is called the “Salad Bowl,” but it could be a “pencil case” or a “house” or a “dinner table,” depending on the target language.

When the teacher wants to stop an activity, the teacher calls out a fruit, such as “watermelon.” At this point, the students must stop what they are doing and jump into the salad bowl. Smart students will start to realize that the teacher is calling out fruit names, and even if their fruit has not been called, will jump into the bowl. The last fruit is a “rotten apple” or “broken pencil,” or whatever is appropriate to the target language.

Transitional games grab students’ attention and facilitate the ending of one activity and the start of another. For young language learners, this is an important distinction to be able to make and recognize. Used in a well organized and structured way, transitional games or activities become part of the class culture that students recognize. These games ensure students are concentrating throughout the entire lesson, and if not, an activity such as this helps them get back on task. Although this game is called “Fruitsalad,” you can change the name by changing the topic. If your students are keen on something, they can choose a topic, in this way, you co-construct your teaching and learning. To further co-construct the game, students can draw or label or write sentences on a card, which is then used to play the game. In a typical language lesson, use the target language for that lesson or unit.

2. THAT’S ME!

Give your students 2 or 3 blank cards. Get them to write their name on the card, (low-level language), or some information about themselves (for higher level language learners) The cards can have the same information or different information, i.e., one card might have the students name, the other card their birthday, the other card their favorite food. Again, the information on the cards can be altered to fit the target language.

HOW TO PLAY “THAT’S ME!”

The teacher collects the cards, shuffles them, and deals them face down.

The students must not look at the cards until they play their hand. Students sit in a circle and, as they play the cards in their hand one card at a time, everyone calls out "Who's this?" As the card is turned face up, the student who recognizes their card calls out "That's me. I'm . . . (their name)," or their birthday - "That's me, my birthday is . . . ," or their favorite food (That's me. My favorite food is . . .). This activity is student-centered, encourages co-operation, communication, and healthy competition. If a student misses seeing their card, the game continues until they recognize their card.

3. CONCENTRATION

The above game can be played like Concentration if the student has two or more cards with the same information or with information about themselves or a specific topic they are studying as the target language.

HOW TO PLAY "CONCENTRATION"

All cards are laid face down on the table and students attempt, to collect all their cards by picking up one card at a time and keeping it if it is their card, or putting it back face down if not their card. It is important students read what is written on the card. A dialogue that can be practiced with this is everyone says "Is that yours?" as one student picks up the card, to which the student must read what is written on the card and say "Yes, that's mine," or "No, that's not mine." The winner is the first person to collect all their cards, but as everyone must continue saying "Is that yours?" Every student is involved until the last student collects their cards. To make it more fun, have a wildcard, such as an ugly monster, or a card which says the student must perform a task such as saying the alphabet backwards. Every time it comes up, a student must enact the task, and as it has no partner card, it ends up to be the student's whose turn it is after the last student picks up their cards. This can keep the game alive until the last card is played, as there is the possibility of reward and punishment right up to the last moment.

TEAMS

HOW TO PLAY "TEAMS"

The cards from "That's Me" can be used to form teams while playing a game. Take one card from each student, divide the cards at random into two or more piles, depending on how many teams you require. Put one lot of cards face down at one wall in the class, another lot of cards at the opposite wall; have all the students stand in the center of the room or at some convenient place and count down 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, GO! The students must rush to any lot of cards, and once they find their card, stay with the others in that team. The fastest team to gather all its members wins (smiley faces make good awards)! This game is good for forming teams and groups, and separating students from those they always work with. It encourages team building, communication, and healthy competition. Sad faces can be awarded if students don't use English as they form the teams.

JIGSAWS

Jigsaws are both a tool for teaching that is suitable for sharing large chunks of information in a short time, and a puzzle-style game that can literally be used as a jigsaw.

A jigsaw, as a puzzle, can be completed individually or in pairs or as a team effort. In these interactions, the students are exercising their social, co-operative, communication, and strategizing skills, amongst others, and there is a certain amount of higher-level thinking involved. Students are able to work together, even if their language levels vary, which is the case in many ESL classrooms.

HOW TO MAKE A JIGSAW PUZZLE

- a) At the start of the term, take photos of your class. Snap as many as you can get. The kids love it and there is lots of language involved. As well, it is a great way to get to know your students. These photos can be used for administrative purposes, but they make great class learning tools.
- b) Select any suitable photos and have them enlarged to A4 size. You can do this yourself with a photocopier if the photo is clear enough, but it will be black and white!
- c) Paste speech bubbles over each person: "Hi I'm ..." or "My name is ..." This can be done in class as a dialogue activity for meeting and introducing.
- d) Paste the picture onto a card to give it stability and laminate it for durability.
- e) Carefully choose a way to insert the picture into a puzzle that is not too easy or too difficult for students to put together.

The puzzle described is basic, but puzzles can be made from just about anything. Packaging makes great puzzles; wash a milk carton, flatten it, paste it onto a backing card, cut. Do the same with cookie cartons, butter boxes, any wrapping from the supermarket. Make big bold bubbles, drawing attention to the English words on the wrapping/packaging, and paste these onto the puzzle. Cut the puzzle and you have got a theme of puzzles from the supermarket. Another idea is to use the student's textbook/storybook to review or preview; photocopy the page being studied - enough so there is one for each student. Cut, be careful each student gets all the pieces to make the page - if you photocopy on different colored card/paper, then you know all the pink pieces go together, and all the blue pieces go together. Puzzles can be specific colors as described above; students are learning colors as well as content. It is these peripheral words that are part of games and play that are a real bonus to student's language development. So puzzles can be cut into a specific number of shapes/pieces and student's can count how many pieces in this puzzle? 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 . . . etc. Then we have shapes, squares, triangles, rectangles, even circles and ovals; but how? By cutting these shapes as holes in the puzzle that must be filled with the correct piece to finish the puzzle. Homework is another good puzzle - make a master sheet of answers from the

homework you have set and photocopy enough for each student, then collect the student's homework answers and photocopy.

HOW TO PLAY "JIGSAWS"

Give out the pieces and let students put it together in pairs or teams or as individuals. If using to check homework, give each student any classmates answer sheet and a master sheet, cut into shapes to make a puzzle. The students put the homework and the master sheet together and correct as they do so. To create a competition or game or quiz using the jigsaw, add a challenge: the first finished, e.g., the team that can say all the word *bubbles* or the person who can make a sentence from the word *bubbles*. Or it can be a partner or team challenge, with one puzzle but several players - as each person puts a piece of the puzzle correctly together and is able to say or use the words they can see (this gets more complex as the puzzle gets nearer completion), they get points. If the student can not say or use the words correctly, they do not get points, and the next person can try their luck.

Jigsaw is also a teaching method used to teach large chunks of information. Give each student or pair of students or group, if you have a large class, in fact this works very well with large classes, something you want the whole class to learn, e.g., food on a menu.

- 1 pair/group will have drinks
- 1 pair/group will have soups
- 1 pair/group will have salads
- 1 pair/group will have mains
- 1 pair/group will have desserts
- 1 pair/group will have prices

Depending on the language level of your students, you may use words or pictures to mindmap the theme: On a piece of colored card have student's gather all the information they can about their topic, words, pictures, dialogues, etc. When they have completed their mindmap, cut it up to make a puzzle. Use a different color for each topic of the theme, then cut all puzzles the same way. Make it a race for each pair/group to put the puzzle they have (not their own puzzle) together. They must assess what it is about, come up with key vocabulary, etc. Each group can put all the different topic puzzles together, quickly gaining a good overview of the target language. After the task is completed, the last pair/group to put that puzzle together present their completed puzzle to the class. It is a good idea to paste the puzzle to a backing paper - newspaper or butcher's paper is fine - then students can peer teach what they can see, what words are relevant, what vocabulary ties in with their text and lesson. Maybe they can role play the dialogue, and later these can be put on the wall to reinforce the lesson. In this way, you can cover a wide range of material quickly. This can be done as a pre-teaching activity, as a review activity or as the bulk of the lesson.

“SNAKES” SOLVES PROBLEMS

Snakes or trains or worms or chains or interlocking strips of card are great for teaching any language task that requires order, such as dialogue or the alphabet. For beginners, the task can be as simple as ABC or 123. It can progress to days of the week (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday), months of the year (January, February, March), and on to years. Or it can be about personal information gained about students, such as the shortest to the tallest, the youngest to the oldest or the person who lives furthest away to the person who lives closest. Snakes are also good for teaching higher-order thinking such as questions and answers, or problems and solutions, or order involved in doing a task such as brushing ones teeth. Order is very important in language. Without order many letter combinations, sentences, paragraphs and dialogues would be nonsense, and language is about sense because it helps people make sense of the world around them.

HOW TO MAKE SNAKES

Use card strips which will dovetail one into the other or toilet roll tubes or kitchen wrap tubes, or make strips of paper that can be stapled or taped together in chains, or alternatively draw and photocopy shapes such as a train with carriages or a worm or caterpillar in segments, even a road curving into the mountains traversing rivers and going through towns. Cut the copies into single segments and write something on each segment according to the target language you are teaching. If using card strips, you will need glue or tape to attach the snake to the wall. If using rolls, will need string to thread them on. If using paper strips, to make a chain, you need tape or stapler to make the links. Photocopied shapes need to be glued to paper or the wall. Make a snakes head and tail, or an obvious start and finish according to the theme or shape you have chosen, i.e., a train engine and a caboose.

HOW TO PLAY

Questions and Answers: According to your target language theme, write a question on one paper strip/shape or roll; write the answer on another:

Q: Is an apple a fruit?

A: Apples, oranges and grapes are all fruit.

Q: Do fish swim?

A: Fish swim in the sea and in rivers and lakes.

Q: How do you spell "April"?

A: A - P - R - I - L

Give questions to some students and answers to others. Students must match their question to the correct answer. The first students come up with their paper strips/rolls/shape, etc., and get the points for being first. After everyone has finished, you will have a snake (or whatever). Now your students must read the questions and answers.

Snakes can be made with matching themes or opposites or order such as

ABC (for beginners) or complex dialogue (for advanced learners). Write on the roll/strip of paper/shape, or various segments of the order, e.g., "A," on one piece, "B" on another, "C" on another, through to "Z." You can make it more complex by writing "A" on one piece, "a" on another, etc. As a more complex task, a dialogue can be used: Person 1 says ". . ."; Person 2 replies ". . .," etc. Have the students in two teams standing at one end of the classroom. The teacher drops the strips/rolls/ect. in random order in two piles at the other end of the classroom, and then counts down: 3 2 1 GO! This is a relay; one student from each team must collect the dialogue in order; the next student collects the next piece of dialogue. Students can have a copy of the dialogue or ABCs, etc., so they know what is next or more practiced students can have a verbal model before the game starts. Each team must have exactly the same amount of rolls/strips/shapes. The first team finished are the winners.

The snakes can decorate the classroom floor, lay coiled on shelves to be read at random or referred to by students for exercises. Trains can chug their way around the walls, and paper chains can swing from the ceiling any time of year, but colorful ones make good Christmas decorations and teach order. Write one line of a Christmas song on one piece of paper and play the relay race. Practice singing the songs before playing and have the songs playing on a repeating tape as you play.

FLOOR SCRABBLE

HOW TO MAKE FLOOR SCRABBLE

You need floor space: inside or outside the classroom, the hall or a wall. Or put your desks together to form one large surface and lay newspaper over the desk. Tape the paper together to make one very large sheet. Cut square pieces of paper. You can do this for your students or with them by making a square template for students to trace around.

Students can cut three or four layers of paper at a time. In doing this, you save your preparation time, but this is good for teaching, shapes, drawing around, tracing, cutting, how many, etc. Make squares from new paper, or better still (economically), recycled paper.

To give letter points value, use the commercial Scrabble game letter values. Print a card A3 size with the letter values so all students can see them. See Appendix B.

HOW TO PLAY "FLOOR SCRABBLE"

Students can play as individuals but teams are good, especially if your class has mixed levels/abilities. To play, initially, for students to get the idea of the game, let them choose any words they want, but for future games, as a teaching tool, give them specific vocabulary. A student must think of a word and paste it vertically or horizontally on paper/floor. They must say the word. Points are awarded according to the value of the letters the student has chosen. Write this on a score sheet and on the squares with the letters as well write the students name on the squares, too. This saves disputes from

happening later! The next student thinks of a word that will fit with the first word, and pastes that down or across to fit with the first word, and so the game goes on. This is why the paper must be square pieces of paper - rectangles do not form a crossword style grid, so lines of letters do not meet well.

To make it harder, the words must have four or more letters, or they can only be verbs or nouns, or a student can paste the word, if they can say it, in a sentence. To simplify the game for beginners, make a master sheet with the target vocabulary as a drawing with the word next to it. The student then knows they need, for example, 5 squares for the word *apple*. They can write the letters and paste onto the grid. Preview this game with the target vocabulary beforehand, using a math notebook, writing in at random the target vocabulary. In this way, you know it is possible to use these words for Floor Scrabble. This game is a good introduction to the more complex commercial Scrabble.

PICK UP STICKS

HOW TO MAKE PICK-UP STICKS

At the local store, there will be wooden skewers for kebabs. Soak these in water for 24 hours. Drain the water off; then place a number of sticks into a bowl of colored dye made from paint wash or dyes if you can get them. Leave the sticks to soak a day or two. Take them out; let them dry. Rub excess color off. Keep together with a rubber band. You will need about 100 sticks for a worthwhile game.

HOW TO PLAY "PICK UP STICKS"

This is a well-known game where each player takes turns at picking up a colored stick from a pile that has been formed by the bundle of sticks having been released from a clasped hand. The skill is to remove the selected stick without moving any other stick. If the player is successful, they claim the point value for that stick. Each color has a point value: black 10, red 8, orange 6, yellow 4, blue 2, green 1. Instead of points being awarded, students can pick letters from a letter bank. When they have enough letters to form a word, they get points for that word. Like Scrabble, each letter in the letter bank has a value. A list of words - target vocabulary - is made to show students which words they are attempting to make. This game could be played using a die.

AWARDING POINTS AND REWARDS

The ultimate aim is for students to value doing the activity for the pleasure they derive from the activity, rather than for an extrinsic award or reward they may receive. However, even the awarding of a smiley face can add more interest and language to a game. A good method of awarding is to get

each student to write their name on the white board at the start of class. This gives them practice at writing their name in English. Then as a game is played, smiley faces get toted up beside the winner's names. Likewise sad faces can be drawn up beside students who "break the rules." At the end of the lesson, the sad faces are deducted from the smiley faces, and a first-, second-, and third-place getter will be announced. These students get 3, 2, or 1 point on a classroom chart.

Another method is to give each student ten stars at the start of the class. These can be handed to each student as they come in, or drawn on the board beside their name. As they win games, a star is given to them; if they break rules a star is taken away. At the end of class, the student with the most stars is awarded 3 points; second, 2 points; third, 1 point. These points go onto the class point chart. Using these two methods, at the end of the month, the student with the highest tally is the "English Student Pro Gamer of the Month" A certificate is given, and their photo taken and placed on the wall next to their "prestigious title."

Another method is to have losers select from a pile of cards a task, such as cleaning the white board, emptying the rubbish bin, sharpening pencils, collecting books, putting games away, etc. If the students enjoy the game, the points will become of less value to them than playing the game for its own sake. However, there is a lot of language in the concept of winning, losing, rewards and punishments.

SUMMARY

Finally, games are not time fillers. They can be the method by which a lesson is delivered. However, before any game is used, it must be previewed. Test games with colleagues or other students prior to using them as teaching tools.

Appropriate games, played in a well-managed classroom, put into practice the ideologies expressed by many contemporary theorists and reflect cutting-edge pedagogical practices. Games also put into practice many of the theories from the most renowned pedagogical theorists, including such ideologies as learner styles and learner preferences, multiple intelligences, experiential learning, the learners' developmental stages, and reflective practice. As well, games follow the methodology of our most successful and well-known contemporary ESL practitioners.

As pedagogical teaching and learning tools, games address these theories and practices as they use target language, include the use of the textbook, use spatial, kinesthetic, visual, oral, and number intelligences; and use essential skills of strategizing, competition, and co-operation. Games authentically scaffold the student from their ZPD, can be useful for anecdotally/formatively assessing each student's level, can be used to reinforce learning, and can become personally significant and meaningful. As well, they can be used for checking homework, and reviewing before a test. Games can demonstrate to parents and others how carefully constructed fun and play can be a teaching tool which is cheap, uses everyday easily accessible materials, and gives students language that is immediately useful.

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APPENDIX A

EVALUATION AND REFLECTION

Evaluate your classroom games for suitability.

<u>1.Does the game:</u>	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity	Activity
Relate to the lessons target language?										
Build social skills?										
Develop co-operation?										
Provide for fair play?										
Provide for healthy competition?										
<u>2.Inspire students to:</u>										
Plan?										
Think?										
Strategize?										
Execute?										
<u>3. Does the game promote:</u>										
Concentration?										
Observation?										
<u>4. Is the game student-centered?</u>										
<u>5. Can the game be:</u>										
Adapted?										
Modified?										
Used as it is?										
<u>6. Can the game be constructed using:</u>										
Everyday materials?										
Recycled materials?										

<u>7. Can the game be used for:</u>										
Formative Assessment?										
Anecdotal Assessment?										
Summative Assessment?										
<u>When and how can I use this game as it is or adapted or modified?</u>										

APPENDIX B

Crossword Game (Variant of Scrabble) by Max Ploys International Co Ltd. Thailand.

A = 1
B = 3
C = 3
D = 2
E = 1
F = 4
G = 2

H = 4
I = 1
J = 8
K = 5
L = 1
M = 3
N = 1

O = 1
P = 3
Q = 10
R = 1
S = 1
T = 1
U = 1

W = 4
V = 6
X = 7
Y = 4
Z = 10

Group Work for Large Classes in Korea: A Curious Dialogue

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ABSTRACT

Group work has always been highly valued in the Communicative Approach to teaching English. However, it would appear that few teachers use it with confidence, if at all. Part of the problem has been that in the literature on the topic there has been very little instruction on how to organize large classes into groups, and on how to use, adapt, or create materials. This teacher-based research paper will describe a possible solution, the Curious Dialogue System based on the work of Ms. Price-Jones. It will provide a theoretical rationale for the system drawing upon the work of Vygotsky. It will also provide a method for arranging large classes swiftly and effectively into groups as well as information on how to adapt materials.

INTRODUCTION

How do we get our students to speak in English? The development of speaking skills among Korean learners of English was once again raised as a topic of discussion on October 18, 2006, in *The Korea Herald*. In an article entitled, "Why Korean students don't speak English, Kim Sung-Jin (2006), a high school English teacher in Busan, noted that this is now a seemingly insurmountable problem for the current educational system. The article suggested, among other things, that cultural attitudes worked against Korean students' attempts to speak English. For example, the 'good' Korean students would rather stay silent out of shame and group solidarity rather than speak out. This cultural attitude is perceived as presenting a huge problem that is undermining the national project of creating an increase in the English speaking population. The article by Kim Sung-Jin presents a representative picture of the situation in Korea. In this situation, "teachers are being urged to speak more English than ever to provide students with maximum comprehensible input." At the same time, this process is to be carried out in large classes with students of mixed language abilities. However, the result is that students are not speaking in class. The problems are methodological, organizational, and cultural. This paper will address the issues raised and suggest some ways of overcoming these problems in the classroom.

GROUP WORK IS THE KEY

As teachers of English in Korea, we have found over time that current TESOL methods do not fully succeed. We discovered that groupwork in our classes has been far more successful. For us it is the key to getting students to speak in the classroom. Typically, groupwork has not been used much in the teaching of English in Korea or for that matter in other countries as well. One reason has been the predominance of overly large classes and the lack of workable systems available in current TESOL literature. In this paper, we will introduce a system we have for carrying out groupwork especially effective system for use in large classes. We call it the Curious Dialogue System. My colleague, Ms. Price-Jones, initially developed the system over ten years. I came to use her groupwork method after other conventional ways of teaching simply did not work with my large classes, and after having spoken with many other colleagues who told me that it simply could not be done. To-date, my classes have been run very successfully using the system.

The paper is the result of teacher-based research and presents the overall system and our impressions. The paper will also attest to the fact that Korean students want to talk; that they have much to say, and that they are often far more motivated than has been previously, and currently, purported.

RATIONALE

Of current accepted approaches in TESOL, Vygotsky's works provide the best basis for a rationale for the Curious Dialogue System. Vygotsky saw language as being developed in social settings. Language is viewed as developing and maturing, as opposed to being labeled input. As such, teachers need to provide appropriate material in their classrooms, and a means of social participation in order to enable the development of language. The call these days for a significant increase in comprehensible input means that teachers are probably going to be talking a great deal, and that the students will be passively listening. However, over time, the students are going to become bored and frustrated with this approach; furthermore, the teacher may burn out, and the students' language levels will not reach their maximum potential for development.

Vygotsky introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 187). He was referring to the optimum learning potential a student could achieve. He believed optimum achievement would occur in a social setting mediated by peers or adults. More recently, this idea has been further developed to include the venue of learning. As Vygotsky saw language development as the result of an overlap of learners' innate genetic features and participation in a situation, it has been found useful to recognize that the environment, and the participants in it, is also part of the ZPD (Ohta, 2000; Soltero, 2004)

We have tried to bring this core concept into the classroom as a way of creating social participation and thus provide students with many opportunities for speaking. At the same time, we have striven to make the whole process easy and quick for teachers to administer. The Curious Dialogue

System makes groupwork the central focus of classroom activity in a conversation class. According to Vygotsky, it is only through social participation in which meanings are constructed and developed that language learning will take place. To do this in the classroom, a method is needed to create sites for conversations.

METHOD

In order to teach successfully according to these principles the teacher needs to create student groups quickly and to arrange them as well. Part of the success of this system for us has been the way we can achieve great variety in student social encounters. Given our nature and identity as a species to love talking, students are rarely, if ever, bored. Consequently, the Curious Dialogue System involves creating many Zones of Proximal Development within the classroom.

The Curious Dialogue System works best with groups of three or four students. Before the class, you will have already set and assigned the questions as homework that will be used in class. This is very important to remember, as it gives all of the students time to think about what it is that they really want to say; they can also check their dictionaries for new vocabulary before class. For about 10 minutes, at the beginning of the class, refer to any problematic areas in the pre-assigned set of questions. This is a great time to raise grammar points, write down examples of sentence structures, or brainstorm additional responses on the board. Students will easily be able to refer to the board when needed.

The key organizational structure of this system is the group. The problem for teachers has been that it is difficult, time consuming, and sometimes chaotic to organize students into groups. You need to ensure that the teacher organizes the seating arrangements, not the students. In our classes, there are no outsiders, and no individual student dominates the groups. Students benefit best in this system in groups of three or four students.

To begin with, let us assume that the class seating is arranged in the traditional way with rows of students facing the teacher. We are first going to cluster the students into groups. Imagine the class has four rows of students. The rows are numbered one to four going from the front to the back. First, have the second row of students bring their chairs around in front of the first row. Students in the new row will need to turn their chairs around in order to face the students in the first row. Second, the third row now turns their chairs around to face the fourth row. This way the second row is left vacant for overflows. At this point, students will form groups of three. Two will be side-by-side and one will be sitting across from them. This is where you will have to move the excess students into row two, which is now vacant. Finally, each student is given a number (1, 2 or 3). When I first began, I handed out color-coded paper that denoted the positions. This helped the students and me in the first few weeks of classes.

Once you have set up the groups you are going to get the students to work together on the questions. Students should address each other by name,

so some introductions need to take place first. They have to ask each other the questions, by name, in turn. For example, Student 1 asks Student 2 questions, and then he/she asks Student 3, who in turn will ask Student 1. This way every student gets the opportunity to talk. While one student answers the questions, the other two will write down the answers. Thus, listening skills are used as well as some writing. In the groups, the students cannot use traditional Korean forms of address. They must remember each other's names: no honorifics such as "oni" [older sister] or "opa" [older brother] are allowed. Each student gets a chance to speak; each student has to practice listening and some writing. No one is excluded. When building upon the issues of inclusion, personal comfort, and safety in the classroom, we are all working together and helping each other. It also does something else that is very important. When speaking Korean, the relationship between a speaker and his or her subject is paramount. However, without the need to discern where the person stands socially in relation to them, they achieve a quasi level of equality. Self-introductions are always first. These are usually followed with a question, or questions, that may or may not be related to the subject being discussed that day. I have found this is a great way to initiate some review of the material we have looked at previously. For example, during the first actual class, I have them ask about their hometowns and hobbies. Once these areas are covered then they move on to the discussion questions. Moreover, listening and paying attention promotes the overall sense of peer validation.

Throughout the groupwork phase of the class, the teacher circulates, visiting each group to listen, encourage, question, provide corrections, and work on achieving accuracy, answer questions, and assess. Both Ms. Price-Jones and I have discovered that we are asked far more questions than in a previous class discussions. This may be because the new conversation system diminishes the cultural inhibitions related to the Korean concept that a 'good student' is a quiet student. This student could also have been the product of a lot of traditional grammar-translation teaching.

FOLLOW THE "S"

To rearrange the groups, you have all Student 1s stand up; you then get them to move to the next group in a clockwise direction. Next, you get all Student 3s to stand up, move one place in a counter-clockwise direction, and join the next group. In one to two minutes, every student in the class has collaborated with two new students. For visual learners, it may be a good idea to diagram this on the board before group discussions begin. One point to mention here is that the groups are not fixed. In the case where friends might inadvertently be too close together, or for variety, you can easily have them move two groups clockwise or two counter-clockwise. The choice is up to you. There is always flexibility. In the case where one group is taking longer than the rest of the class, you can just skip their group in the overall move and they can work together longer. We call each of these changeovers a *turn*. In each lesson, you may get three or four turns, which can take about an hour or more for students to complete, depending on your material.

The students in the new groups then ask the questions one more time,

bringing about recycling and the opportunity to create more elaborated answers. While the questions are the same, the answers that each student receives will be different. The students are not bored because they are driven by their curiosity to find out information about their partners, to talk about themselves, and to have others listen to them.

MATERIALS

For university freshmen in Korean conversation classes, the main tool in the groups are questions that derive from the topic being studied. They are personalized and relate to the students' known world and experiences. Materials, however, could easily be converted to any age of learner; you just need to address the students' needs at different ages. For freshmen, the levels are anywhere from low beginner to intermediate, with the occasional advanced student added to the mix. With high-level students, you may also want to do cooperative tasks like jigsaws or problem solving, as the method of group arrangement is equally useful. The questions for each class could be from a shared textbook or you could make them yourself. You can also find pictures to provide visual prompts. Generally, the kind of questions you use will be meant to provide a stimulus, or prompt, so that students can make more elaborated or creative responses. One effect we noticed in these classes was a marked increase in fluency. Accuracy, it should be noted, can appear to develop less quickly. While confidence in speaking can lead to linguistic fluency, we found the best way to promote accuracy was to make grammar worksheets. For this, David Nunan's *Grammar* provides an excellent range of activities for all levels. With the freshman students, worksheets were made based on his list of activities in Nunan (2005, p. 46). The advantage of making your own materials is that you can specifically target the needs of your students in a particular class and for that particular lesson.

DISCUSSION

Using the Curious Dialogue System brought about quite a few changes in the classroom. The atmosphere of the class changed significantly. Students were far more relaxed and would talk to me routinely about everyday matters. This rarely happened in the past. The students definitely seemed happier and laughed much more. During exam time, when I tested one-to-one orally, students were far more confident than when I had used conventional methods. Their fluency was greater, and I understood a lot more.

Some other advantages experienced were:

- 1) Multi leveled classes could be handled well; the teacher has built into the methodology the means by which to mix students; also, the teacher could smoothly and easily provide graded (scaled to order of difficulty) material to the mixed groups.
- 2) Because of the more open spaces created in the class when the students are in groups, the teacher had the mobility to make individual contact with students. Mobility is usually restricted in large, conven-

tionally arranged classes.

- 3) Students were very interested in speaking because of the communal nature of the groups; also, every student was guaranteed time to speak.
- 4) Different kinds of materials could be used; for example, cooperative activities or grammar could be fully utilized in a group.
- 5) The system made use of the natural desire of humans to talk.
- 6) The tight structure meant that at all times students knew what they needed to be doing and the teacher could easily monitor their progress.
- 7) Students had many opportunities to speak; in a 90-minute class from 45 to 75 minutes of class time is used solely for conversation.
- 8) Classes could be taught in a teaching cycle that gradually shifted linguistic autonomy in the lesson to the student through scaffolding and through many opportunities to recycle language.
- 9) The teacher could readily make materials. As questions form the basis of the groupwork, if all you have is a large class, a blackboard, and chalk, you can set up the materials for students to copy down, and then move them into groups. It can be a very low-cost system.
- 10) The Curious Dialogue system was very helpful for us as teachers attempting to teach speaking skills in very large classes. There have been no problems with class sizes of up to almost fifty students.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the Curious Dialogue system is theoretically sound and has been shown to work. It provides a viable alternative to the situation today in many Korean English speaking classes where it has been publicly stated that students are not speaking because of a combination of methodological, organizational, and cultural factors. The system uses an organized structure, which in turn creates many opportunities for students to develop to their full potential. Likewise, it affords opportunities for educators to create material that is relevant, and well received by those students whom they want to speak. Our classes are energetic. There are no sleepers. Attendance rates are high. Future possibilities seem endless.

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The Fusion of Theory and Practice in Grammar Tasks

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ABSTRACT

In the context of learning English as a foreign language at the university level in Algeria, combining task-based language teaching with grammar consciousness-raising appears as a suitable solution to allow learners to achieve accuracy and fluency. Grammar consciousness-raising tasks aim at drawing learners' attention to specific structures, enhancing their comprehension and raising their consciousness to facilitate their noticing of the targeted structure in subsequent communicative input. Learners often search for the rules to allow them to codify the linguistic data. Grammar consciousness-raising tasks help them discover the rules for themselves, build up their explicit knowledge, engage in interaction, enhance their motivation, autonomy, and responsibility for learning; and promote self-confidence. To prove this, we have conducted an experiment with first year students of English where the effects of traditional teacher-fronted grammar lessons and grammar consciousness-raising tasks in the English tenses were compared. Which tense to use in which contexts is indeed a problematic area for Algerian learners. They are confused by the number of tenses and the various forms of the different tenses used for expressing time in English. The experiment has shown that grammar consciousness-raising tasks helped in improving grammatical accuracy, grammatical explicit knowledge, and negotiated interaction, as well as autonomy and motivation.

INTRODUCTION

In the consciousness-raising (CR) approach, the learner's attention is drawn to specific structures, enhancing the learner's comprehension and raising consciousness to facilitate the noticing of the targeted structure in subsequent communicative input. In task-based language teaching (TBLT), attention is focused on meaning and on saying and doing something with language. In the context of learning English as a foreign language at the university level in Algeria, combining the two in grammar consciousness-raising (GCR) appears as a suitable solution to allow learners to achieve accuracy and fluency.

In this paper, we will refer to the place of grammar in language teaching, the rationale for CR, and the fundamental principles of TBLT, and will explain how integrating the two in grammar consciousness-raising tasks (GCRTs) can prove to be worthwhile in certain contexts, more particularly in the context of our situation: first-year university students of English.

THE PLACE OF GRAMMAR IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The issue of grammar has always fascinated both the theorists and the practitioners in the field of education. A historical view of the studies related to grammar shows that, for a long time, grammar has become a deeply established discipline for the teaching of languages throughout the world. In the twentieth century, the role of grammar in developing grammatical proficiency was questioned. However, teachers and learners remain convinced that grammar is a useful subject; what needs to be agreed on is how it should be approached.

Overall, the different approaches to language teaching and learning recognize the role that grammar plays in learning languages. They agree that the grammatical component should not be neglected. They emphasize language analysis, and the need for learning the code and practicing it in a systematic manner in order to achieve linguistic proficiency. This view is not shared by the proponents of the Communicative Approach, which is based on the belief that language use will lead to a command of the target language.

Second language theories have broadened the understanding of the nature of the learning processes and the factors positively or negatively affecting learners' interlanguage development. Different second language learning models have revealed that the persistence of grammatical errors can be regarded as a natural phenomenon indicating restructuring, replacing, readjusting, and developing communicative strategies. Foreign language learning has been found to be determined by a range of variables derived from the natural route of development, exposure, comprehensible input, attitude, motivation, personality, memory, interaction, and cognitive processes. Consequently, grammar pedagogy has to take into account the sound findings of linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, and cognitive psychology.

CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING: A COGNITIVE APPROACH

One of the developments in these related disciplines is consciousness-raising, a cognitive approach to grammatical instruction developed by Sharwood-Smith (1981). In this approach, aspects of grammar are focused on, without necessarily using explicit rules or technical jargon. It seeks to help learners discover the rules by themselves. It is compatible with research findings related to how learners acquire second/foreign language grammar - the learnability hypothesis involving the mechanism of progression from one state of knowledge to the next. CR has proved to be useful at an initial stage of acquisition, the stage of controlled processing, to trigger declarative knowledge, paving the way to gradual proceduralization and automatization when learners focus attention on higher-order skills, attending to message content rather than form (Ellis, 2003).

It has been repeatedly argued that comprehensible input alone is insufficient for the acquisition of grammatical accuracy because it does not always provide appropriate evidence (White, 1988). Comprehensible input does not solve, for example, overuse of a particular grammatical feature, like the present continuous (Yip, 1994), which is a common mistake with Algerian

learners of English. What is needed is negative evidence: the information that a structure is ungrammatical or inappropriate in the target language (Yip, 1994). In this context, CR activities represent a wide range of activities where the focus is on noticing, a cognitive ability that leads to awareness about the use of a language structure. They can be useful if the learner is concerned about form accuracy and the nature of the structure in question. They have been found to be effective for second/foreign students, especially at an advanced level (Yip, 1994).

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Nunan (1988) reports that Doyle (1979, 1983) was one of the first to suggest that the curriculum could be viewed as a collection of the academic tasks, which specify the products students are to formulate, the operations that are required to generate the product, and the resources available to the students to generate the product. Starting from this view, other researchers (e.g., Richards, Platt & Weber, 1985; Willis, 1996) have specified the various aspects of a task and have stressed the primacy of meaning and the fact that a task offers the opportunity to solve a communicative problem, comparable with real world activities, with an outcome (Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Long, 1989). A task has a goal (the general purpose of the task; for example, to practice the ability to describe objects in such a way as to provide an opportunity for the use of relative clauses), an input (verbal or non-verbal information supplied by the task; for example, pictures, maps, a written text), conditions (the way in which information is presented; for example, split versus shared information), procedure (the method followed in performing the task; for example, group versus pair work), and predicted outcomes (the product; for example, a completed table, and the linguistic communicative processes the task is hypothesized to generate; Ellis, 2003). A task with the above characteristics can be an information-gap activity, involving a transfer of given information from one learner to another, one form to another, or one place to another; a reasoning-gap activity involving the discovery of new information through inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns; or an opinion-gap activity in response to a given structure (Prahbu, 1987). In this sense, tasks are cognitive processes involving selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing information, or transforming information in order to carry out a task (Ellis, 2003). They should engender accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Skehan, 1998). To achieve this, learners should participate in a variety of tasks which encourage them to negotiate meaning when communication problems arise to ensure that they get sufficient comprehensible input for the acquisition of linguistic competence (Long, 1983) and to provide the conditions needed to develop the kind of strategic competence which is necessary for the development of fluency (Brumfit, 1984).

The assumption of TBLT is that meaning-primacy interaction creates the optimum conditions for communicative development which will lead to inter-language development (Robinson, 1995). This point of view raises a reaction as to the validity of this aspect, with the argument that processing language

to extract meaning does not necessarily guarantee automatic sensitivity to form and the resulting interlanguage development. Long (1991) and Schmidt (1990) support this reservation. They argue that interlanguage development requires the noticing of form; otherwise, aspects of second language syntax, phonology, and vocabulary that are not salient may go unnoticed. The question of the focus of tasks has been the object of several debates. What is the place of form, i.e., structure, in a task? On the whole, specialists in the field agree that an important feature of TBLT is that learners are free to choose whatever language forms they wish to use to convey what they mean in order to fulfill the tasks (Willis, 1996). The structure-task relationship is characterized by three aspects: naturalness (the use of a structure during a task would not stand out; alternative structures would do equally well); utility (the use of a structure would raise the efficiency of completion of the task, but it could be avoided through the use of alternative structures or communication strategies); and essentialness (a particular structure has to be used in order to complete a task) (Loschly & Bley-Vroman, 1993). The selection of structures has to be guided by task difficulty and the objectives to be achieved. They should make the students aware of why they are asked to perform tasks, adopt an active role, negotiate meaning, take risks, and experiment with language. The primary focus is on meaning when performing a task, but opportunities for focusing on form are required (Ellis, 2003).

To create a balance between form and meaning TBLT is recommended. In such an approach, the tasks are natural, but through the task choice and methodology, attention is focused on form to increase the chances of interlanguage development (Long, 1988). Focus on form can be a proactive focus (the choice of the form is made in advance; in the design of the task, we ensure that opportunities to use problematic forms while communicating a message will arise) or a reactive focus (the learners notice and are prepared to handle various learning difficulties as they arise; Doughty & Williams, 1998). Willis (1996) has developed a framework for the implementation of the TB approach where focus on language is more or less prominent at different times. The framework is organized in three phases: pre-task, task cycle, and language focus. The pre-task activities serve to activate schematic knowledge. They are to make the task interesting and authentic, to provide opportunity for a focus on form, and for noticing. The task stage involves doing the task, engaging in planning post-task, and reporting. It provides an opportunity for language use and the development of accuracy, fluency, and complexity, contributing to the interlanguage development and the automatization of language. The teacher's role at this level is to ensure that the learners' attention is drawn to form-meaning relationships. In the language focus stage, the activities are of a CR nature, requiring an element of analysis. Learners are required to process input in a way which makes features more salient. The aim is to get learners to identify and think about particular features of language form and language use in their own time and at their own level. This will help them to recognize these features when they meet them again and will lead to a deeper understanding of their meaning and use. So, the language focus comes after a task has been done with the intention that any language that is focused upon is relevant to the learners and required for a communicative purpose. A similar model was developed by Skehan (1998). In this

model, an information-processing approach, the tasks should cover a wide range of structures. They should (a) be selected on the basis of the utility criterion, (b) be selected and sequenced in such a way as to achieve a balanced development of accuracy, fluency, and complexity, and (c) offer maximum chances for focus on form through manipulation, reflection, and awareness. The aspect of negotiation of meaning is stressed in this model as well, for, as has been mentioned, it provides the appropriate conditions for interlanguage development to occur.

TBLT was tried in several parts of the world. I would like to refer to the case of China reported in Hu (2001). Li, Zhou, and Li (2001) found that a group of PhD students were highly motivated to carry out their tasks. The students showed interest and enthusiasm in using English; they took part in the activities negotiating the meaning required to communicate their message. Ma (2001) observed that TB pair work is a favorable environment for self- and peer correction with grammatical errors being corrected most and discourse errors being the least corrected. This shows that the learners' noticing of the grammatical features that are felt to be important in the acquisition of a second/foreign language have to be focused on.

GRAMMAR CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING TASKS

It is possible to integrate the teaching of grammar with the provision of opportunities for communication involving an exchange of information. Learners are given grammar tasks which they solve interactively in order to formulate both implicit knowledge (i.e., knowledge that is intuitive and procedural) and explicit knowledge (i.e., knowledge we learn). Krashen (1981) maintains that the two are completely distinct; however, Sharwood-Smith (1981) holds that one type changes into the other. Fotos and Ellis' (1991) position is in-between. They refer to the studies undertaken by Ellis (1990) and Long (1988) investigating the effects of formal instruction on the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. These studies suggest (a) that formal instruction helps to provide more rapid second language acquisition, (b) that it may succeed if the learners have reached a stage of developmental sequence that enables them to process the target structure, (c) that it is effective in developing explicit knowledge of grammatical features, and (d) that it may work best in promoting acquisition when it is linked with opportunities for natural communication. Therefore, formal instruction, it is argued, helps in developing explicit knowledge of grammatical features, which contributes to second language acquisition in that knowing about a grammatical feature makes the learner more likely to notice that feature in input and therefore to acquire it as implicit knowledge. The role of tasks in this context - skill development begins with declarative knowledge (facts about language) and ends with procedural knowledge (target-like communication behavior) - is to provide opportunities to practice forms that have been first presented declaratively and to receive feedback on the mistakes under real-operating conditions (Ellis, 2003). They are, in this case, of a focused kind, as they serve to practice pre-determined linguistic features, for example, tasks on prepositions of time where the learners use the data supplied to complete a table by classifying

the time phrases into those that use “in,” “on,” or “at,” and where they try to work out a rule to describe how these prepositions are used (Ellis, 1991). This case illustrates a GCRT that is designed to cater primarily to explicit learning to develop awareness at the level of understanding rather than at the level of noticing and where the content is language itself.

These tasks, designed to promote communication about grammar (grammar tasks), and thereby raising the learners’ consciousness about the grammatical properties of the language, require the exchange of information in order to reach an agreed solution to a problem. They are an information-gap activity. Fotos and Ellis (1991) have developed task cards with sentences illustrating the grammatical feature to be studied and task sheets with some basic grammatical information concerning the grammatical feature supplied with some useful metalinguistic terminology. The task sheet contains a table to be filled in. It instructs the learners to formulate the rules about the different kinds of uses. In pairs or groups of four, the learners are (a) to exchange the information on their task cards, (b) to talk about the information in order to agree on the results, and (c) to report to the class the rules they have formulated. This study demonstrated that grammar tasks used to develop the learners’ ability to judge the grammaticality of sentences involving the use of dative verbs helped the students (Japanese students of English as a foreign language at college level) to increase their knowledge of this difficult rule. There were significant gains in the understanding of the targeted structure. The learners had the opportunity to learn about grammar while taking part in communication-centered exchanges of information by negotiating meaning. Fotos and Ellis concluded that grammar tasks emphasizing consciousness-raising rather than practice appear to be an effective means of achieving focus on form while at the same time affording opportunities to communicate. Fotos (1994), who worked on GCRTs dealing with word order, also indicates that these tasks successfully promote both proficiency gains and second language interaction. She recommends the use of GCRTs as one way of combining the development of knowledge about a problematic second language grammatical feature with the provision of meaning-focused use of the target language.

THE STUDY

In the context of English as a foreign language at the university level, we undertook to find out whether GCRTs were effective for developing grammatical accuracy and promoting grammatical explicit knowledge of English tenses. Mistakes made in this part of English grammar require, we believe, both formal instruction and CR activities that will help the learners use tenses accurately in an appropriate context. In order to find out whether GCRTs in the context of the subject of “Grammar” (Grammar is a separate module in the curriculum) were more appropriate than the currently used traditional teacher-fronted grammar lessons, we compared the results of two groups of first-year students. (Grammar is taught in the first and second year of the four-year period of instruction.) One group continued having TTFGLS, and one group was taught and evaluated through GCRTs. The English tenses have

been selected because they are a problematic area for these learners who are usually confused by the present, the past, the future, and the conditional in their simple and continuous forms, and in their perfective aspects (which gives 16 tenses), in addition to the complexity of the uses of each tense. The other motivation for our choice is that the students often ask for rules to make them aware of the use of the tenses and consequently use them correctly. The TTFGLS consisted of traditional grammar teaching and written practice. In the presentation stage, thorough explanations of the forms and uses of the English tense under study were provided. Then, the students were presented with a context and required to find the rules governing the tense use. Once the rule was given, a diagram showing the relation between the past, the present, and the future was drawn. At the practice stage, students were presented with an exercise (a short text) where they had to put the verbs in brackets in the correct form and to provide oral answers. The texts made use of a particular tense.

The GCRTs consisted of (a) information-gap activities where the students had to complete a given input, (b) reasoning-gap activities where the students had to use their cognitive abilities in order to induce the rules underlying the given sentences, and (c) decision-making activities where the students had to reach a negotiated decision. They were designed in conformity with the task components proposed by Candlin (1987), Breen (1989), Nunan (1989), and Ellis (1998): goals, input, procedures, learner roles, teacher roles, and outcomes. In terms of goals, the tasks were expected (a) to raise the students' consciousness about the English tenses, (b) to help them gain grammatical explicit knowledge of this aspect, (c) to promote grammatical accuracy, (d) to provide them with opportunities to interact, communicate, and negotiate meaning in order to improve their fluency and consequently achieve implicit knowledge, (e) and to enhance their autonomy, self-confidence, and motivation. In terms of input, task cards and task sheets were handed out to the students who were required to work in subgroups of four. Each student of a subgroup was provided with a task card containing one form and one use of the tense under study. The students were instructed to discuss the content and form of the input of the task cards until an agreement about all the forms and the use of the tense was arrived at. Then, they were to write them on the task sheet. The task sheet consisted of (a) a heading with one form of the selected tense (affirmative, negative, interrogative, and inter-negative), (b) short yes/no answers and the pronouns (I, you, . . .) followed by dots to be filled in with the appropriate verb forms (c) four sentences showing one use of the tense, and (d) four rules reflecting the various uses of the tense. The students were required to select the appropriate use governing the different uses in their respective task cards. The procedures involved the students in the analysis of their task card input in order to find the required tense form and the appropriate rule governing their set of sentences. The members of the subgroup had to interact and negotiate the answer provided by each one. Once the right answer was agreed on, it was submitted to the whole class for general agreement. These activities required the students to take an active role in both the process of learning and the development of the lessons through the exchange of information. In this context, the teacher acted as a guide, controlling and monitoring the students' work. In terms of

outcomes, the students had to exhibit an understanding of the forms and the uses of every tense and the ability to choose the correct rule underlying the tenses. They also had to develop interaction, autonomy, and motivation.

At the beginning of the experiment, both groups (the control group and the experimental group), were administered a proficiency pre-test made up of a multiple-choice test where the students had to choose one tense out of four alternatives and a justification test where they had to provide a grammatical justification of the selected tense. After the administration of the traditional grammar lessons (to one group) and the grammar tasks (to the other group), the two groups took a post-test identical to the pre-test. The post-test results indicate that GCRTs are more effective for developing grammatical accuracy and grammatical explicit knowledge than TTFGLs. The students in the experimental group had higher scores both in the multiple choice test and the justification test than the students in the control group. Classroom observation revealed that GCRTs were also more effective for fostering interaction and comprehensible output and for enhancing students' autonomy, self-confidence, and motivation. The amount of the students' negotiated interaction in the experimental group was significantly more important than in the control group. These elements allow us to claim that GCRTs enable the students to get an in-depth knowledge of English tenses. They help them to be more independent, more dynamic, and more collaborative. This gives us grounds to advocate the integration of CR and TBLT through GCRTs, which we recommend as a motivating methodology to the teaching of grammar.

CONCLUSION

As the general goal of language learning is fluent accuracy and pragmatically effective use of the target language, all practice to make the students more skilled at fluent production of the language should avoid being exclusively form-focused or exclusively meaning-focused. The primary concern of a teacher should be how to integrate attention to form and meaning, either simultaneously or in some interconnected sequence of tasks. GCRTs, requiring learners to discover learning through problem-solving, are in accordance with the general principle that what learners can find by and for themselves is better remembered than what they are simply told.

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Learning Strategies and Styles

Word Associations and Vocabulary Development

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ABSTRACT

How do we learn new words? What connections do we make between words? How can we use our knowledge of the mental lexicon to further our learners' lexical development and classroom teaching? Word-associations tests have been used in a range of disciplines from cognitive psychology to linguistics. However, there has been only limited research in second language acquisition. Classroom research into word associations, the mental lexicon, and learning vocabulary can help to bridge the gap between theory and practice, linking research, teaching and learning. A reflective learning approach to vocabulary development may help to deepen as well as broaden word knowledge, whilst fostering learner autonomy. This paper proposes that the classroom introduction of word-association tasks, questioning frameworks based on word associations and the five senses, and a concept-checking matrix can provide learners and teachers with practical tools for encouraging and enhancing lexical development.

INTRODUCTION

The question of how we learn new words is a small part of the greater questions of how we learn languages and how we learn in general. Word-association tests offer us insight into how words are connected, inputted, and stored in the brain, and retrieved (Aitchison, 2003; Carter, 1987; McCarthy, 1990). This knowledge and understanding might therefore be used to illuminate foreign and second language learning and teaching.

This paper considers some aspects of word association and vocabulary development. It is divided into three parts. In Part I, three types of word-association test are illustrated, with a brief introduction to the mental lexicon, a metaphor to model how words are inputted, stored in the mind and retrieved. Six main types of word association are also described. Part II examines learning and teaching implications in three areas: consciousness-raising vocabulary-learning questions; teaching to the senses; and concept checking. Finally, classroom research and further reflections on learning and teaching vocabulary are discussed in Part III.

PART I. WORD ASSOCIATIONS: A WINDOW TO THE MENTAL LEXICON

Word-association tests have been used in a number of disciplines, including cognitive psychology, verbal learning, semantics, and linguistics, to investigate a variety of areas from human behavior to language learning (Richards et al., 1992; Aitchison, 2003). However, only limited research into word associations and second language acquisition has been conducted, for example, by Carter (1987), Grabois (1999), Meara (1983, 1987, 1996), Read (1997, 2004), and Schmitt & McCarthy (1997).

There are a number of different types of word-association test and they may be administered in a variety of ways, namely using spoken or written stimuli and spoken or written responses with or without a time limit (Brown, 2003a).

THREE TYPES OF WORD-ASSOCIATION TEST

Basically, word-association tests may be divided into three categories: first word, brainstorm, and lexical network. These are illustrated in more detail below. Whilst there are other more elaborate word-association tests (see Grabois, 1999, for instance), they are beyond the scope of this paper.

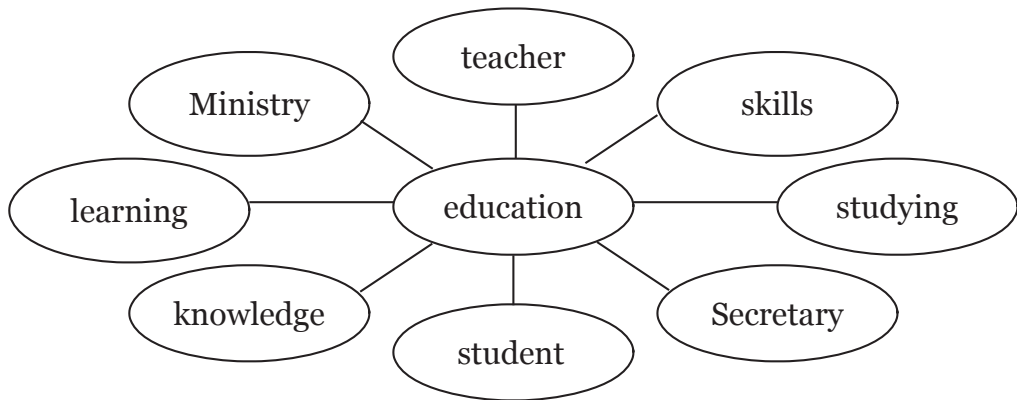
FIRST WORD

This is the classic and simplest type of word-association test. Respondents are presented with a stimulus word (i.e., prompt) then respond with the first word thought of, termed an associate, as illustrated below (see Table 1).

Table 1. “First Word” Word-Association Test

Stimulus Word	First Word Associate
Korea	career
love	peace
a	the
in	on
really	certainly
red	blue

Brainstorm As one would expect, respondents produce as many associates as possible in response to a stimulus, such as ‘education,’ illustrated below (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Brainstorm: A Word-Web Based on the Stimulus “Education”**LEXICAL NETWORK/CHAIN**

As per the simple “first word” word-association test above, in response to a stimulus word, respondents initially produce and record the first associate. However, this word then becomes the stimulus for the next associate, which in turn becomes a stimulus for a third associate, and so on, thus creating a network or chain, as shown below (see Figure 2).

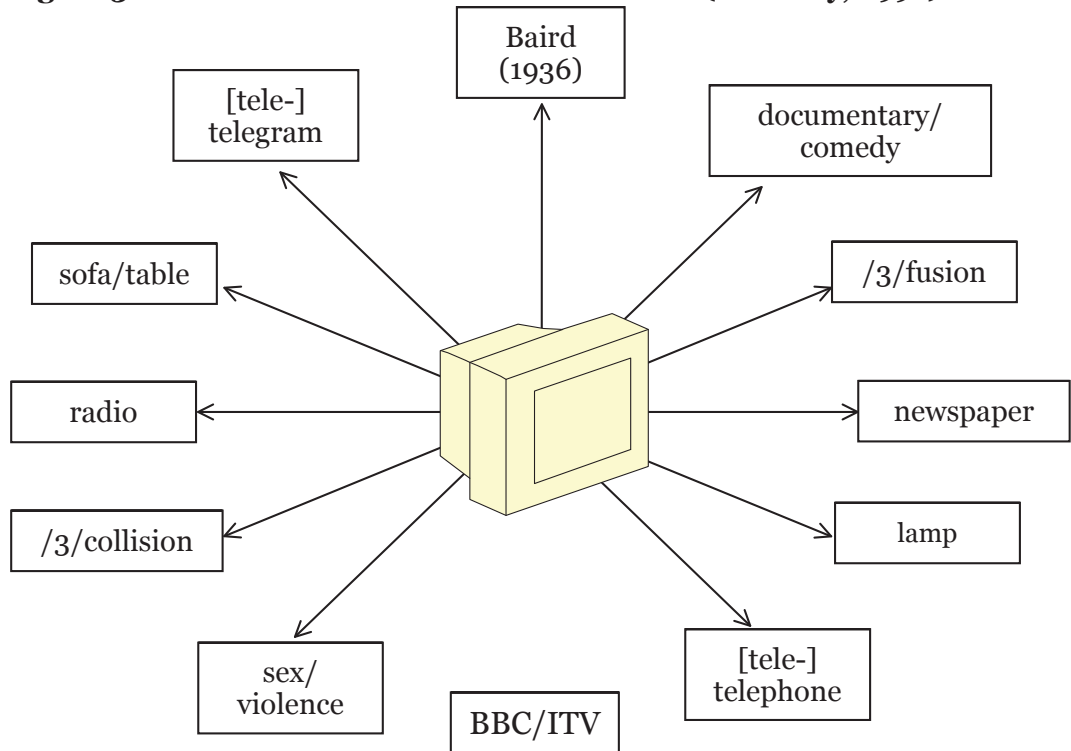
Figure 2. Lexical Network/Chain

laugh → smile → frown → clown → circus → animal → lion → tiger → dragon → fire

THE MENTAL LEXICON: A BRIEF INTRODUCTION

The mental lexicon is fundamentally a metaphor for how words might be stored in the mind, a phenomenon that would otherwise be impossible to depict. Despite the limitations, common analogies include a web, a thesaurus, a computer or a library. McCarthy (1990), for example, illustrates a number of different associations that might be made with *television* to represent a small portion of the mental lexicon, shown below (Figure 3), whilst more recently, Brown (2006a) and Kuehne (2006) have proposed an Internet metaphor which is less constrained by time or space (Brown, 2006a).

Figure 3. A Small Portion of the Mental Lexicon (McCarthy, 1990)



Aitchison (2003) provides a comprehensive overview of how words might be recognized, stored in the mind, and retrieved. The mental lexicon is perceived as ever changing, affected by a wide range of variables, differing from one individual to the next, and having multiple dimensions, as indicated by word-association tests (Aitchison, 2003; Carter, 1987; McCarthy, 1990).

Classroom research (Brown 2003a, 2003b) and workshops (Bolstad, 2006; Brown, 2006c) provide evidence that we each make different types of connections between different words, and at any particular moment, a particular association may be stronger than any others. This in turn supports the notion that meaning is not fixed nor exact, but negotiated, and varies from culture to culture as well as individual to individual indicated by schema theory and prototype theory (McCarthy, 1990).

SIX MAIN TYPES OF WORD ASSOCIATION

Although interconnections between words are highly complex and thus impossible to model satisfactorily, McCarthy (1990) proposed six main types of word association, exemplified below (Table 2).

Table 2. Six Types of Word Association

Plain English Definition (and examples)	Technical Term
Words at the same level of meaning (e.g., television, radio), including opposites	Coordination (including antonyms)

Hierarchically related words (e.g., furniture - television, sofa, lamp)	Hyponyms
Words which co-occur frequently (e.g., watch + TV, on + TV, TV + channel)	Collocation and colligation
Words with the same or similar meaning (e.g., TV, television, telly)	Synonyms
Words with the same or similar sounds or spelling (e.g., TV, TB)	Phonological/ Orthographical links
Historical information, etymology, etc. (e.g., television, Baird, vision, tele-)	Encyclopedic/ word knowledge

Table 2 provides plain English definitions of technical terms and will be contrasted with student-generated vocabulary-learning questions (Table 3) in Part II below.

PART II. LEARNING AND TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

Brown (2003a) summarizes a number of pedagogical implications that arise from word-association and language research. In this paper, however, we shall focus on three key areas: consciousness-raising vocabulary-learning questions, teaching to the senses, and concept checking.

CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING: VOCABULARY-LEARNING QUESTIONS

The word-association tests described in Part I can all be used as classroom activities. Brown (2003a) developed the “first word” word-association test into a series of tasks which encouraged learners to think about and discuss why they answered as they did, explore and categories the different relationships between words by comparing answers and their reasons, then develop vocabulary learning questions to consider when encountering new words. Seven questions for learning and remembering new words were elicited from the students, as depicted below (Table 3).

Table 3. Seven Vocabulary Learning Questions Students Can Ask Themselves

Questions elicited from the students	Notes
(1) What does the word look and sound like?	Spelling, pronunciation, stress, etc
(2) What words have the same or similar meanings?	i.e., synonyms
(3) What are the opposite words?	i.e., antonyms
(4) What group of words does it belong to?	i.e., hyponyms
(5) What words does it go together with?	i.e., collocation, colligation
(6) What grammatical features does it have?	i.e., word class, prefixes, suffixes
(7) What experiences can you relate to it?	cf, word knowledge

It is notable that questions (2)-(5) are essentially identical to the first four items in Table 2 (above). Questions (1) and (6) may be compared to recognizing phonological and orthographical links, whilst questions (6) and (7) somewhat relate to etymology and word knowledge.

Farooq (1998) also observed the importance of *experiential knowledge*, which might be assumed under *word knowledge* except for the fact that it is not knowledge of or about the word itself, but the learners' experiences relating to the word that define the relationship between the stimulus and response. In some respects, this is generally true of all word associations and thus poses problems for categorizing. However, it also suggests that personalization and relating new words to one's own life is not insignificant with respect to vocabulary retention and recall.

TEACHING TO THE SENSES

Bolstad (2004, 2006) and Kuehne (2006) demonstrated how we create strong associations with our five senses (sight, sound, smell, taste, touch), and emotions. By asking questions, we might help to develop these associations and, hopefully, aid retention: The more associations we make and the more often we make them, the more likely we seem to remember (Aitchison, 2003). Listed below are five questions we may ask learners in class then encourage them to ask themselves and each other when learning new words (Table 4).

Table 4. Five Sensory Questions for Aiding Vocabulary Retention and Recall

(1) What does the word look like and/or what image do you associate with it?
(2) What does the word sound like and/or what sound do you associate with it?
(3) What does the word smell like and/or what smell do you associate with it?
(4) What does the word taste like and/or what taste do you associate with it?
(5) What does the word feel like and/or what feeling do you associate with it?

CONCEPT CHECKING

Our knowledge of word associations can help us in establishing concept-check questions (Darn & White, 2006). They may also be used to develop a concept-checking matrix, which learners can complete with the aid of a learner dictionary, thesaurus, and/or teacher, as illustrated below (see Table 5).

Table 5. A Concept-Checking Matrix: Discovering the Differences Between "Soldier," "Warrior," "Fighter," and "Killer"

Associations	Soldier	Warrior	Fighter	Killer
Uniform			Maybe or a costume (e.g., in sport)	No, not usually
Weapons	Yes			Maybe

Belongs to . . .		Army, band of warriors, tribe, clan		Maybe a secret organization (e.g., the mafia, the CIA) or individual
Paid/contracted	Yes			Maybe
Animals	Only "soldier ants," otherwise, "no"	No	Yes	dangerous dogs, tigers, etc.; and killer whales, killer bees
Nuance	Neutral		Positive (e.g., determined) or negative (e.g., rebel)	

In response to a student question about the difference between *warrior* and *fighter*, a class of upper-intermediate and high-level students were asked about words associated with the most familiar word, *soldier*. First, in open class, the students were asked relevant questions, such as "Does a soldier wear a uniform?" and "Does a soldier use weapons?" and their answers were inputted into the matrix. The students then attempted to finish the first column in pairs. Answers were checked in plenary. Next, students used dictionaries and worked together to complete the matrix before discussing their findings as a class (Brown, 2006b)

PART III. CLASSROOM RESEARCH, DISCUSSION, AND REFLECTION

WORD-ASSOCIATION TESTS AND CLASSROOM RESEARCH

The three types of word-association test examined in Part I can and have been used in classrooms for introducing, learning, and reviewing vocabulary in the form of tests, tasks, activities, and games (Brown, 2003a). As illustrated in Part II, a series of tasks may be devised to raise learner-consciousness concerning word associations and how we learn and remember words. Rather than tell learners the types of word association, which might take less *teaching time*, this approach essentially encourages learners to discover how they themselves and their classmates learn through a process of reflective learning. Student feedback reflected observations that they had found the lesson interesting and motivating, and that it helped them to learn and remember new words (Brown, 2003b).

Having students analyze, compare, and discuss the reasons for their answers to the *first word* word-association test was also revealing, as I discovered that my analyses were not necessarily correct or complete. For example, some respondents gave the same response to a stimulus, but for different reasons (Brown, 2003a). Without interviewing or following up with respondents, certain highly idiosyncratic associates would also have been impossible for me to analyze and categorize with any degree of certainty.

In addition, it was fascinating to discover that the seven student-generated vocabulary-learning questions very closely resemble much of the eight types of word knowledge described by Nation (1990) and summarized by

Table 6. Eight Types of Word Knowledge

Form Spoken form	What does the word sound like?
Written form	How is the word pronounced? What does the word look like? How is the word written and spelled?
Position Grammatical patterns	In what patterns does the word occur?
Collocations	In what patterns must we use the word? What words or types of words can be expected before/after the word? What words or types of words must we use with this word?
Function Frequency	How common is the word?
Appropriateness	How often should we use the word? Where would we expect to meet this word? Where can we use this word?
Meaning Concept	What does the word mean?
Associations	What word should be used to express this meaning? What other words does this word make us think of? What other words could we use instead of this one?

Batty (2006) below (Table 6).

Nation's eight types of word knowledge explore form, meaning, and use of vocabulary more deeply and might be used to further enhance learners' understanding of word-knowledge depth (i.e., how well learners know a word and its usages) as well as vocabulary breadth (i.e., how many words).

LEARNING WITH THE SENSES

Vocabulary learning is commonly cited as an eternal goal in language learning and learners frequently ask for advice on how to learn (and remember) new words. Learners have responded positively to the five sensory questions being introduced in class as a means to help achieve this (Brown, 2006d; Kuehne, 2006). It appeals to a range of learner types with a different balance of preference for visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning styles (Bolstad, 2004, 2006; Helgesen, 2003, 2006; Kuehne, 2006).

THE CONCEPT-CHECKING MATRIX: A TOOL FOR LEARNERS AND TEACHERS

Devising effective concept-check questions can be especially challenging for new teachers. Darn and White (2006) offer a simple, readily applicable approach. The concept-checking matrix, based on their work, attempts to create a learner-centered, discovery approach to foster greater learner independence and vocabulary learning strategies, particularly for intermediate students and above. Whilst this consumes more immediate class time, it is

hoped that the reward is a greater depth of learning and learner involvement, the development of long-term vocabulary learning strategies, and better retention through greater use and exposure. In a private language school conversation room context, where learners do not have a fixed curriculum or exam agenda and time is a relative luxury, this approach appears not only acceptable but beneficial, too.

CONCLUSION

Word-association tests have had a positive role in a wide range of disciplines, including foreign and second language learning and teaching. Despite the limited research in our field, some practical implications and applications have been proposed and discussed, principally in three key areas: consciousness-raising about word associations and vocabulary learning; teaching to and learning with the senses; and concept checking from both a teacher and learner perspective.

Whilst further research is always wise, perhaps including longitudinal studies to evaluate the learning outcomes, tentative results of classroom research suggest that there are immediate benefits of developing a greater understanding and awareness of word-association tests and their potential role in language learning and teaching.

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Surviving Study Abroad: Overcoming Foreign Language Anxiety Through Affective Strategies

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports a small-scale study of foreign language anxiety among Japanese students studying at British universities. Data were collected through an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews from eighteen Japanese students studying at universities in England and Scotland. The data give detailed descriptions of their experiences of living and studying through a foreign language, the difficulties they have faced, the negative effects of foreign language anxiety they have gone through and the strategies they have used to cope with them. It is concluded that foreign language anxiety is manageable, and that it can facilitate the success of one's study abroad experience greatly if learners use appropriate affective strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Affective factors in learning a foreign language have been drawing attention of researchers and practitioners in the field of EFL in recent years. Foreign language anxiety is one of the research areas which has been rigorously investigated in this topic area.

I became interested in investigating foreign language anxiety when I met a Japanese student who studied in an MA program in the UK several years ago. Her TOEFL score did not meet the minimum score the university required but she was given a conditional acceptance: She was accepted on the condition that she would have to complete a three-month pre-session course. She spent three months at a language center, and finally got an official acceptance on the MA program. However, studying on the Master's course in English was too challenging for her to manage, and she suffered extreme anxiety about her English proficiency. She was unable to complete the course and decided to go home. Even now, she is still feeling the effects of this stressful time. Her story affected me greatly and made me determined to work in this area of study in order to improve situations such as hers.

Cases like this raise a number of questions. What could have been done by her or those around her before she suffered that much? What could have been done to help her to develop strategies to survive the MA course? Should she not have been accepted to the program in the first place? What English proficiency level do non-native speakers realistically need to have then, in order to enjoy their experiences in studying in English-speaking countries and

to be successful on their academic course? How can they overcome anxiety and mental instability?

In order to answer these questions, one fundamental question needs be considered: What was the cause of the foreign language anxiety that this Japanese student experienced? One key factor was the fact that she was a non-native speaker of English who managed to reach the minimum English proficiency requirement to enter an English-medium postgraduate course in a foreign country. Would she have been more successful had she had a higher level of English proficiency? If this is true, does it mean that the lower the English proficiency level is, the more anxious a learner becomes?

This paper begins with a brief literature review, followed by a report on the present study and the introduction of a theoretical model generated from the findings of this study. Finally, implications of the findings of this study for the institutions which send exchange students to overseas are given.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Anxiety is a feeling that many people experience, but it is not easily defined. This section will discuss definitions of some key terminology.

DEFINITIONS OF ANXIETY

According to Scovel (1978), anxiety refers to feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry. Anxiety is a subjective experience of feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983), often linked to a fear of failure (Ehrman, 1996). Psychologists distinguish two types of anxiety: state anxiety and trait anxiety. State anxiety is experienced in particular situations, whereas trait anxiety is a more permanent predisposition of being anxious (Brown, 2000).

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Foreign language anxiety is generally considered to be situational; i.e., it is a type of state anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Oxford, 1999). On the other hand, trait anxiety can be considered as a product of state anxiety repeatedly experienced. It is, therefore, possible that foreign language anxiety can become trait anxiety. However, Ehrman (1996) insists that language teachers and learners should consider foreign language anxiety as state anxiety and, therefore, something that is manageable.

Horwitz et al., (1986) identify three components of foreign language anxiety: (1) communication apprehension, (2) fear of negative social evaluation, arising from a learner's need to make a positive social impression on others, and (3) apprehension over academic evaluation. These components provide a conceptual framework for a description of foreign language anxiety. Horwitz and her colleagues propose that foreign language anxiety is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to the foreign language learning process rather than simple combinations of these fears (1986). The

task of learning a new language itself is “a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition” (Guiora, 1983, p. 8) which cannot be described in simplistic ways; for example, by providing explanations in terms of affect variables only.

DEBILITATIVE ANXIETY AND FACILITATIVE ANXIETY

Foreign language anxiety has long been believed to be a cause of negative effects on the learning process. Anxious learners may experience reduced fluency or difficulty in recalling what they know. They may suffer from adverse physical symptoms such as headaches, sweating or palpitations.

Scovel (1978) distinguishes between debilitating anxiety and facilitative anxiety, which Oxford (1999) calls harmful and helpful anxiety respectively. The feeling of nervousness before giving a public speech, for example, can be debilitating if the speaker cannot perform as planned, and it could be facilitative for experienced speakers who do well because of the increased state of alertness.

AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

Amongst various factors, affect is an important factor influencing success or failure in language learning. In fact, Oxford (1990) claims that affective factors probably have the biggest influence on success in language learning. Affective factors include emotions, attitudes, motivations, values, self-esteem, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk-taking, and tolerance of ambiguity. Oxford also claims that coping with negativity and ambiguity and having a positive attitude are key strategies for dealing with affective factors and making the learning process effective and enjoyable (1990).

There has been growing awareness of the importance of learning strategies in foreign language learning (Bialystok, 1981; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) suggests three types of strategies related to affective factors. The first is “lowering anxiety.” Relaxation and using laughter are examples of this type of strategy. The second is “encouraging yourself.” Learners reward themselves and take wise risks. The final one is “taking your emotional temperature.” Keeping a diary and talking to someone about one's own feeling are included in this category.

THE PRESENT STUDY

This study was conducted in the United Kingdom during the academic terms between October 2001 and June 2002 with the cooperation of eighteen Japanese students who were studying at British universities.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of Japanese students' experiences of foreign language anxiety that they experience during their studies at British universities. This study focuses on the effects of anxiety experienced by a group of Japanese students as non-native speakers of English in classroom and in social situations and on the strategies they used

to cope with the negative effects of anxiety.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions for this study are defined as follows: (1) In what situations have the Japanese students studying at British universities experienced foreign language anxiety? (2) What are the effects of foreign language anxiety? (3) What kinds of affective strategies have they used to cope with the negative effects of anxiety?

PARTICIPANTS

Eighteen Japanese students enrolled at British universities participated in this study during their academic terms, not during the vacation. All of the participants took a pre-session English course prior to their academic courses in the UK although the length of the language courses varied, ranging from four weeks to eleven weeks. Five of them were exchange students, who were registered in undergraduate courses, but not for a degree. Three of the participants were English language students, who were all enrolled in English for academic purposes programs. The rest of the participants were registered as degree-course students: one in an undergraduate program, and the other nine in master's programs in various subject areas.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS METHODS

Data were collected in two ways: through open-ended questionnaires by e-mail and through follow-up interviews. The set of questions asked in the e-mail was: (1) How well have you adjusted to living and studying in Britain? (2) Please describe yourself as a non-native speaker of English in your class and in social situations. (3) What are your feelings about being a non-native speaker studying in this country? (4) Could you give an example of the experiences you have mentioned above? The questionnaire helped to identify the issues to be focused on later during the interviews. In the interviews, participants were asked to talk more specifically about what they had mentioned in their questionnaire.

The data collection was conducted all in English according to the preference of the participants. The participants are still in the process of developing their English language proficiency, and therefore, their answers to the questionnaire as well as their interview scripts contained grammatical mistakes. In order to demonstrate the real voice of the participants, a minimum number of corrections were made only when the mistakes interfered with comprehension of the meaning they had intended to convey; all participants confirmed corrections that were made. Most of the direct quotations in this paper, therefore, contain grammatical mistakes.

The following six categories were used for pre-coding of the data: (1) feelings (negative or positive), (2) self-perception (negative or positive), (3) any key words which indicate possible causes of anxiety, (4) effects of anxiety (negative or positive), (5) anxiety reduction (learners' own effort or solutions given by others), and (6) consequences (negative or positive).

After the pre-coding, a number of categories emerged from the data. In order to answer the research questions for this study, all the key words, which indicated (1) causes of anxiety, (2) effects of anxiety, (3) anxiety reduction strategies, and (4) consequences were categorized.

RESULTS

The data from the students' questionnaires and interview contain rich information about their life in the UK. This section reports what caused them foreign language anxiety, in what situations they experienced anxiety, how it affected the students, and how they coped with the effects of anxiety.

CAUSES OF ANXIETY

The causes of anxiety indicated in the participants' response to the questionnaire and the interviews are negative perceptions of their own English language proficiency, difficulty in communication, poor results in their academic work, negative beliefs about foreign language learning, and perceived pressure from other people.

When the participants described themselves as non-native speakers of English living and studying in Britain, they expressed negative feelings using the following words: inferiority complex, frustration, isolation, stress, nervousness, fear and worry. These are all considered as different indicators of anxiety. Many of the participants felt that their negative perception of their own language proficiency, including social and communicative competence, was the main cause of their anxiety. They perceived themselves negatively mainly because they had difficulties not only in understanding lectures but also in communicating with other people in situations such as during breaks between classes or at their accommodation.

Difficulty in listening and speaking are the most common problems they had. Student D10, for example, explained her problems in listening in class: *"I wasn't very positive, mostly because due to my poor listening ability, I couldn't follow what lecturer/tutor/other students were talking about, which kept me from speaking up."* (Answer to Q2 by D10.) Similarly, student E2 stated: *"I have just a little opportunities to speak English because, especially in the class, I have difficulty with understanding English! They are so quick! I sometimes feel scared and feel lonely."* (Answer to Q2 by E2.) Student E1 gave similar views: *"When I didn't understand what was going on in class, it was not exactly that they were looking down on me, but I felt inferiority complex."* (Interview with E1.) The students studying in Scotland expressed particular difficulties in understanding Scottish accents. As for difficulty in speaking, student D1 explained that she felt worried that people might misinterpret her mistakes and see her as rude. She wrote: *"Always worried somehow. It is mainly about speaking in which I might let them misunderstand what I speak to them, and it might be impolite to them. As my English is better than before, not everyone would take it as my mistakes because of the lack of ability in English, but as what I was planning to say."* (Answer to Question 3 by D1.)

Another cause of anxiety many participants commonly shared is the evaluative aspects of students' academic courses, e.g., exams and assignments. Even merely waiting for the results of assignments caused some students sleepless nights. A lack of academic skills including time management and even basic filing skills increased anxiety, which led one of the participants into a huge panic. Student D4 shared his experience of failing in one module, resulting from his mishandling the floppy disc on which he saved his assignments. He erased his assignments by mistake, and it caused him so much anxiety resulting in adverse physical symptoms such as temporary paralysis of his arms. All of these responses are from students with a relatively high level of English proficiency who were enrolled in postgraduate programs.

EFFECTS OF ANXIETY

The participants reported a number of different negative effects from the anxiety they experienced, but no one reported positive effects directly resulting from their anxiety. As negative effects of anxiety, they experienced physical symptoms (e.g., headache, stomachache, palpitation, abnormal perspiration), emotional behaviors (e.g., reacting to what other people say with strong emotions, crying suddenly), a sense of isolation, unwillingness to communicate or even avoidance of communication, unsatisfactory performance in class or temporary language deficiency.

One of the participants had a headache, backache, and felt nauseated every time she had a class. The night before she went to class, she became very emotional and cried, especially on the weekends. This post-graduate student who was the only non-native speaker of English in her class described her situation as follows: *"Because I had a class three days a week in my course and then we can have a free week, then again three days a week and then, I had such symptoms only three days a week when I had a class. So it's obvious why I got such symptoms. After I finish the class, I feel better. So the reason why I got such symptoms is very clear."* (Interview D2.)

Many of the students reported that when they were anxious, their English level, especially in speaking and listening, went down temporarily. Student E1 shared her experience of attending a tutorial: *"Sometimes we had to give a comment about novels, and when my turn comes, . . . actually, I already prepared for what I should talk, what I was going to talk about in my mind but I couldn't say exactly what I wanted to say because I felt much stressful. . . . sometimes I don't understand what they are talking about, so I just felt that they are not understanding [about me not understanding them], which makes me feel worse, and it affects me badly and I can't speak English as usual. I don't know . . . I just feel bad. So something stopped me from speaking English as I prepared before."* (Interview E1.)

Students E3 always compared herself with her friends, who were also non-native speakers of English, and began to avoid communicating with them. She said that her English did not improve at all, compared to her friends, and that she felt inferior. She felt worried about her English in all skills, and stopped using English in front of her Japanese friends. *"Everything, but especially in speaking. I realize I gradually came not to speak English. When I don't have class, I stay in my flat on my own, and*

I sometimes watch TV. But I use Japanese when I talk with other Japanese flatmates. I have to switch to Japanese. So my brain is more used to Japanese. I came not to speak English comparing to before.” (Interview E3.)

D2 avoided communicating with her classmates, all native speakers of English, during the lunch break. *“I had lunch on my own during the first term, because I didn't want to any stress even out of classes and the having a chat with classmates was the most painful time for me at that time rather than having a lecture.”* (Answer to Q2 by D2.)

OVERCOMING ANXIETY WITH AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

The participants reported that they not only used general relaxation strategies, such as aroma therapy, getting a massage, going for a walk, taking a bath, or talking with someone (e.g., a friend or a counselor), but they also used various affective strategies to reduce their anxiety, such as positive thinking, self-talk, self-encouragement, acknowledgement of their own achievements, redirection of attention, and reminding themselves of their priorities.

Some students with relatively high English proficiency demonstrated a high level of self-confidence, and they used similar approaches or strategies to deal with anxiety. They tried to reduce their anxiety by not trying to be perfect in their use of English. Even though their English still contained mistakes, they were not worried about it because they believed they had already achieved a high standard of English proficiency as non-native speakers. Even though they were not fully satisfied with their current English proficiency, their self-perception of being “highly advanced” non-native speakers of English helped them not to be anxious. Instead of worrying, they redirected their attention to higher goals. Student D7 wrote: *“Worry about my English? Not really. I didn't have much trouble in communicating with my colleagues and tutors. However, I should have built up more vocabulary to sophisticate my writing.”*

Some students with low English proficiency also said they were not worried about their English, as they believed that even though their English was not good enough, they could compensate by taking time to negotiate meaning in interactions and making efforts to understand what other people say. Student D3 explained: *“Not very much worried, because I almost give up! Relationships are more important. If we are patient, we can make time well to understand each other. If not, impossible!”* (Answer to Q3 by D3.) Student E4 also expressed a sense of giving up from a different perspective: *“I try to persuade myself like that they don't expect so much from international students, take it easy, and that is the way we learn English, so sometimes I need to show I'm stupid (= don't afraid of making mistakes).”* (Answer to Questionnaire, E4.)

Student D1, a mature student who attended an undergraduate program in Britain after she completed an undergraduate program in Japan, felt frustrated when her young British classmates showed no sensitivity to her difficulty in communicating in a foreign language and never slowed down when they talked to her. However, she attributed this lack of sensitivity to their age and decided that it could not be helped. D1 stated: *“I just found out it's OK, it's OK because they are quite young. In my case, my classmates are just in teenage”* (Interview with student D1.) Student D2 used a similar strategy. She

was living in a university flat, where all other flatmates were close friends with each other except her, and she felt they were unfriendly to her. One of the flatmates did not even say hello to her, which caused her a severe sense of isolation. She tried to overcome her negative feelings by redirecting her attention to more important things, i.e., her studies and by lowering her expectation of others. She stated: *"They were always together because they knew each other already from the previous academic year. And . . . I didn't expect them to be friendly to me because I didn't want to use my energy to make a good flat. I wanted to concentrate on my work. And I thought their culture, young undergraduate student culture was very different from me. So rather than spending my energy to communicate with them, or change behavior of either mine or theirs, I thought I should concentrate on my study."* (Interview with D2.)

There were students who tried to overcome negative feelings about themselves by redirecting them to other people. Student E1 discussed her mixed feelings, trying to be positive by thinking about something even more negative about herself and other people. She wrote: *"I had a difficulty in building up a good relationship with my two team members (both are boys), who either don't like me or don't like working with other people. But I thought that I shouldn't have any prejudices about English People (cold, not helpful, hating foreigners etc). I mean, if I were them I would NOT like someone like me, because I don't speak English properly."* (Answer to Questionnaire, E4.) This statement indicated that learners attempt to use strategies such as positive talk, which can be found in the literature (Oxford, 1990); however, this student exhibited a rare characteristic, i.e., controlling her emotions by holding negative assumptions about other people. She was trying to justify the perceived cruel attitudes of her classmates' towards her by assuming that they did not want to do groupwork with her because she did not speak English properly and also that she would feel the same way in their shoes.

Thus, the results show that although it is a common view that positive thinking helps enormously to reduce anxiety, students also use negative attitudes towards other people to control their negative feelings about themselves. This indicates that affective strategies vary depending on individuals and are far more complicated than one can explain. The in-depth interviews help to deepen our understanding of this complex psychological activity.

OVERCOMING ANXIETY BY IMPROVING ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

In addition to their affective strategies, the participants commonly used strategies to turn their anxiety into a driving force to work harder, which brought them positive experiences. In order to reduce anxiety, they tried harder in class; they tried to manage their time better, spending more time on assignments or preparation for lectures; and they tried to be courageous to ask questions in class. They felt they needed courage to say that they didn't understand. The most common among these strategies is to make more efforts to do better in class so that they would become more confident. As a result, they performed better and received high grades.

Student D4 was worried about his presentation skills but overcame that feeling by trying harder. He explained: *"I was nervous because everyone*

looked bored during my presentation. One of them was drawing a picture, cartoon or something in his notebook, right in front of me while I was talking. It turned me on, and I decided to try harder so that I can do a better presentation. I wanted my classmate to feel he has to take notes from my presentation! Later in the term, my classmates began to take notes, and showed interest in talking to me. That was a surprising discovery. Even though my presentation is not good enough, if I express my opinion with enthusiasm, then they will understand.” (Interview with D4.)

OVERCOMING ANXIETY WITH SUPPORT FROM OTHER PEOPLE

Empathy shared with other people, solutions suggested by other people, and encouragement or positive feedback from other people played an important role for some participants in reducing anxiety. Admitting that they were anxious and finding the courage to ask for help were the first step to successfully dealing with their anxiety in most cases.

Student D4 asked for an extension to complete his course assignments after he lost all of his data for those assignments. He managed to complete the course because he was able to ask for help before it became a full-blown disaster. D4 explained: *“One thing I’ve come to know about myself is that I am not very strong. I mean mentally. I am not so strong as I thought. And I realised that I should ask for help when I get stuck. In this country, I learned that I would have to admit that I had a problem. In Japan we have a bad habit to hide a problem and expect that it will be solved soon without telling anyone else.”* (Interview with D4.) His statement indicates that factors such as personal reflection and personal and cultural values influence one’s decision whether or not to take action to ask for help. He did not mind compromising his identity and values as a Japanese in order to survive in an academic context in a foreign country.

Sometimes the solution came unintentionally from other people. In some cases, the moment of release of anxiety came naturally when they received a high mark for their assignments or examinations. The following is an example of the case where the student’s effort caused positive reactions from other people, which led to a reduction of anxiety. Student E1 stated: *“When I gave comment on a novel, someone, one girl just showed her expression to which she has agreement, with my opinion. At that time, I thought she understood my English, she understood what I was talking about, and she agreed with me. And after that I felt better. And I felt I’m joining the tutorial. Before that, I didn’t feel like that because I didn’t talk a lot. And I couldn’t sometimes understand what they were talking about. But at that time she understands me. She agreed with me, my opinion. So after that I felt better.”* (Interview with E1.)

Participants who achieved success in communication or academic performance also shared similar positive feelings such as a sense of equality, achievement, superiority, confidence, belonging, or sharing. They felt any positive experiences helped them to reduce anxiety. The ability to manage the course requirements was the most common cause of positive perceptions. Most of the participants felt positive about themselves when they received high marks and positive comments from professors on their assignments after

spending some anxious waiting time.

THEORETICAL MODEL

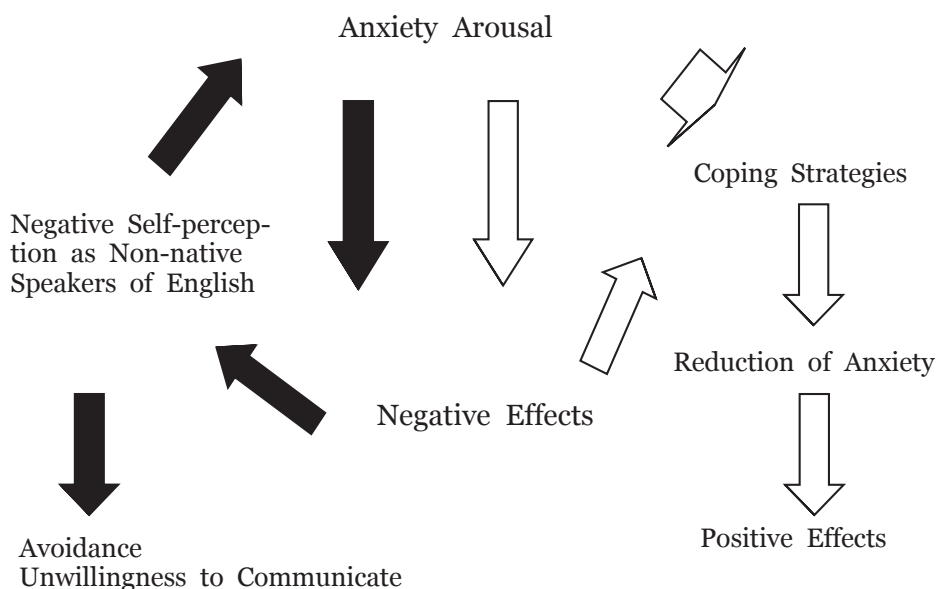
The data from the students' questionnaires and interview contain rich information about foreign language anxiety and coping strategies. Figure 1 is a model derived from the findings of this study and attempts to show how learners undergo a cycle of foreign language anxiety.

The white arrows indicate two possible successful patterns of overcoming foreign language anxiety. When anxiety arises, it may cause some negative effects, but if learners are able to cope with them by using strategies, they will be able to reduce their anxiety and produce a positive outcome as a result. Some learners may use anxiety reduction strategies right away, and they will be able to reduce or release their anxious feelings even without going through any negative effects.

The black arrows indicate unsuccessful pattern of coping with anxiety. When anxiety arises, it will cause negative effects resulting in learners' negative self-perception or negative self-evaluation, which causes more anxiety. When learners cannot go out of this negative cycle, they will start avoiding communication.

This does not necessarily mean that learners will go through only one or the other cycle, nor does it mean they will experience each stage only one time. They may repeatedly go through the negative cycle (anxiety arousal and negative effects) before they are able to go into the positive cycle (anxiety arousal but coping with it). This model shows that the process is dynamic and complicated rather than simple.

Figure 1. Cycle of Coping with Foreign Language Anxiety



SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

The findings of this study are summarized as follows: (1) foreign language anxiety comes largely from students' negative perception of their own English proficiency; (2) foreign language anxiety can be debilitating, but not always; (3) if a student has strategies to cope with anxiety, it can lead to a positive outcome, but anxiety itself is not facilitative; (4) anxiety can be manageable with appropriate strategies and a supportive environment; and (5) the degree of anxiety depends on individual differences, not one's language proficiency.

IMPLICATIONS

For a student who is seeking an opportunity for study abroad, being accepted to a course of study is not the ultimate goal but merely a start. There are so many things to learn after they attain the minimum English proficiency score required by the university. Students' insights are a rich source of information about their experiences overseas, which can be used for teachers to improve their practice. It is impossible to guarantee students' success in their overseas experience because we cannot control or change someone else's life for them. However, we can offer them a good environment, helpful information, and ample opportunities to prepare themselves for their upcoming experience prior to their departure. In order to help students in a more effective and realistic way, a well-designed pre-departure program is needed for universities, which send their students overseas as exchange students. The pre-departure program should include not only academic skills but also affective strategy training.

CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed some causes and negative effects of foreign language anxiety and strategies learners have used to cope with them in a study-abroad context. The findings show that not only low-proficiency students but also high-proficiency students experience high degrees of anxiety; however, they can convert these into positive experiences if they use appropriate strategies. By providing opportunities for developing those strategies, teachers can help students make their study-abroad experiences more successful and enjoyable.

THE AUTHOR

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Using Multiple Intelligences to Empower Asian EFL Students

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ABSTRACT

Two decades have passed since Howard Gardner introduced the Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI), challenging the notion of intelligence as a single, unitary concept and the evaluation of this concept as a single, quantifiable I.Q. score. Gardner's MI Theory takes into consideration the cognitive profile of a student, providing a more inclusive indicator of capabilities and potential, which are not measured by traditional I.Q. tests. In general, Gardner's theory has been well-received worldwide by the field of general education, as it offers an opportunity to include and empower all students in the learning community, not just those with verbal-linguistic and/or mathematical-logical skills. However, little research exists as to the applicability of MI Theory in the EFL classroom, and how it can be used to motivate and advance the language learning process. This paper examines the place of MI theory in the Asian EFL classroom. Specifically, the paper raises the questions: How aware are Asian university students of their own cognitive profiles? How effectively can they utilize this knowledge to enhance their language learning potential? Is there any noticeable connection between cognitive profile and performance on the TOEIC test? Findings of a small-scale study, based in Japan, are discussed and analyzed in terms of their implications for further study. The hope is that student awareness of their own cognitive profiles will empower them in their quest for second language learning competence.

INTRODUCTION

Any learning situation, in order to be fully effective, must be considered in terms of the entire learning context. EFL teaching and learning is no exception. However, because of the single-subject nature of English language teaching, there is always the danger of pedagogy becoming subject-centered rather than student-centered. As Brown (1994) put it, "Total commitment, total involvement, a total physical, intellectual, and emotional response is necessary to successfully send and receive messages in a second language" (p. 1). For this reason, it is necessary to incorporate pedagogical principles of mainstream education into EFL teaching and learning. One such principle, widely accepted by general education at all levels, is Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences. Yet, little research exists into the applicability of Multiple Intelligence (MI) Theory in the EFL classroom. This paper contends that MI Theory has the potential to enrich and enhance English language

learning, and empower Asian learners in the process.

OVERVIEW OF MI THEORY

In the quest to understand Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences, it is necessary to examine the notion of intelligence itself. Traditionally, intelligence has been defined in terms of I.Q. tests. Therefore, the ability to complete verbal and/or visual analogies; to envision paper after it has been cut and folded; or to deduce mathematical sequences was interpreted as an indicator of intelligence. The apparent over-emphasis on verbal and mathematical abilities in this measurement of intelligence has increasingly been called into question in educational circles. Some have attempted to broaden the definition of intelligence to include behaviours such as creating artistic or musical masterpieces, the ability to be highly organized and systematic, the proclivity for entrepreneurship, to name but a few. Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences attempts to address these concerns.

Gardner (2004) posits that each individual possesses multiple intelligences so broad in nature and scope that traditional I.Q. tests can only measure a small range of these intelligences. He further states that each intelligence type is comprised of numerous sub-intelligences and develops independently, at its own rate. Therefore, Gardner claims, it is more beneficial to focus on cognitive profile, rather than I.Q. score, since the former potentially offers a greater snapshot of human capabilities. His definition of each intelligence is threefold. First, it involves the ability to solve problems, invent processes, and create things. Second, an intelligence requires the ability to find or create new problems to solve, "thereby laying the groundwork for the acquisition of new knowledge" (p. 61). Finally, Gardner includes a cultural component in the definition of intelligence by defining it as the ability to make a valued contribution to society within a cultural context. To date, Gardner has identified eight intelligences, with the possibility of more to be added in the future. The eight intelligences are: verbal-linguistic, visual-spatial, musical-rhythmic, mathematical-logical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, bodily-kinesthetic, and naturalist.

MI THEORY AND EFL

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

MI Theory has much to offer the field of EFL especially when viewed from the perspective of holistic learning. Because society requires a diversity of skills, it makes sense to cultivate as many of the intelligences as possible, not just in mainstream settings, but also in specialist settings such as the EFL classroom. Incorporating MI Theory into instruction offers the possibility of accommodating learners at all stages of life by addressing their "differing psychological, social, and physical needs" (Schmidt-Fajlik, 2004, p. 19). Therefore, MI Theory has the potential to benefit EFL learners of all ages. Currie (2003) points out that focusing on students' strengths helps to make

the learning process more accessible, and since MI Theory incorporates more than the traditionally valued mathematical and verbal aptitudes, more student strengths can be utilized in the learning process. Furthermore, MI Theory can have a positive impact on EFL teachers' perceptions of students (Coustan & Rocka, 1999; Christisan, 1999). Coustan and Rocka referred to teachers using "MI glasses" to view students, to better understand their learning choices and preferences (p. 2), while Christisan highlights the value of viewing "each student from the perspective of strengths and potential" (p. 2). She goes on to point out that incorporating MI Theory into the EFL classroom allows a greater number of students to experience success than in traditional classrooms, since a greater variety of strengths and skills are being called upon to maximize learning.

There are a number of growing trends in the field of EFL that can be addressed through the use of MI Theory. One example is the increasing awareness of the value of metacognitive strategies in language learning. Because MI Theory can be utilized "as a tool to help students develop a better understanding and appreciation of their own strengths and learning preferences" (Christisan, 1999, p. 2) it has the potential to facilitate and enhance metacognitive processes. Coustan and Rocka (1999) also cite the value of this awareness especially in terms of its potential to facilitate learner autonomy (another concept gaining momentum in the field of EFL). MI based instruction seemed to encourage students to seek out "their own ways to learn and (develop) confidence in their choices" (Coustan & Rocka, 1999, p. 5). This idea is central to the small-scale study described in this paper, and will be discussed further later. Another concern, in the field of EFL, is the challenge of accommodating different language levels within the same class. MI theory allows for differentiated instruction which can address this challenge, as Christison (1999) acknowledged, "When multiple activities are available, more students can find ways to participate and take advantage of language acquisition opportunities" (p. 3).

CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

When viewing learning in its entire context, it is necessary, particularly in the field of EFL, to include cultural considerations in planning instruction process. Christisan (1999) alludes to the potential of MI Theory to accommodate learners from cultural backgrounds where intelligences other than verbal and/or mathematical are valued. Armstrong (1999) elucidates this point further by pointing out that, "MI Theory celebrates the diversity of ways in which different cultures show intelligent behaviors . . . the tracking abilities of Himalayan Sherpas; the classification methods of Kalahari Bushmen; the musical genius of the Anang culture of Nigeria; the mapping systems of Polynesian Navigators" (p. 16). MI based instruction also encourages students to become more open to non-traditional learning activities, thereby increasing their learning options (Constanzo & Paxton, 1999). On a cautionary note, it is important to be aware of the danger of mismatches between teaching approaches and learning preferences in specific cultural contexts. Zhenhui (2001) examines the issue of teaching/learning styles in East Asian contexts,

and recommends that, "teachers employ instruments to identify students' learning styles...and plan lessons to match students' learning styles, while at the same time encouraging students to diversify their learning style preferences" (p. 8).

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

It is important to note that incorporating MI Theory into EFL instruction does not, and should not imply replacing previous teaching approaches. Like any piece of the learning puzzle, MI Theory has the potential to enhance pedagogical practices already in place. Offering activities to accommodate each intelligence type, however, necessitates an understanding of the intelligences themselves. What follows, therefore, is a brief overview of the eight intelligences and sample activities to accommodate them. It is also worth noting that each intelligence is multi-faceted, and can therefore be accommodated in a variety of ways.

The verbal-linguistic intelligence, which incorporates a proclivity for language is generally well-catered to in EFL classrooms. Activities including storytelling, word building, and pangrams can be useful for the verbal-linguistic intelligence (Berman, 2002). According to Campbell et al. (2004), it is necessary to consider the three facets of visual-spatial intelligence: external imagery; internal imagery, and imagery created. Therefore, activities involving graphics or visuals, guided visualization, and drawing are important to include all aspects of this intelligence type. Musical-rhythmic intelligence is becoming increasingly relevant as more researchers are acknowledging the link between music and language (Lieb, 2006). Music can be used in tandem with textbooks in EFL classrooms as a basis for listening, speaking, reading, and writing development. The mathematical-logical intelligence, characterized by strong deductive and inductive reasoning skills, may be harnessed through the use of logical and analytical activities such as crosswords, sequencing, and error correction.

Interpersonal intelligence, or the ability to relate to others effectively, can be accommodated best through a variety of collaborative activities ranging from pairwork to teamwork to large group activities. Since intrapersonal intelligence is characterized by a strong sense of self awareness, it is also important to foster its development through reflective activities such as journaling, creative writing, and self-directed learning. Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence offers unique potential for second language learning since a large percentage of communication is non-verbal. Campbell et al. (2004) points out that this intelligence type involves tactile learning (touch and manipulation) as well as kinesthetic learning (whole body learning) and can be addressed through the use of manipulatives, as well as whole body activation activities like mingling or charades. Finally, learners with highly developed naturalist intelligence constantly look for patterns in the natural and in the man-made world. Therefore, activities that offer classification or categorization opportunities are ideally suited to this intelligence type (Campbell et al., 2004).

THE SMALL SCALE STUDY

With the above in mind, a small-scale study was undertaken, the purpose of which was to raise questions, to test ideas, and to serve as a springboard for further study into the incorporation of MI Theory into EFL instruction. The study was centered in the belief of the value of metacognitive awareness in language learning. According to Morris (2002), "An understanding of one's multiple intelligences promotes proactivity and self-direction, and enhances self-esteem, self-confidence, and feelings of self-worth." Therefore, the following three research questions were devised.

- 1) How aware are Asian university students of their own cognitive profiles?
- 2) How effectively can they utilize this knowledge to enhance their language learning potential?
- 3) Is there any noticeable connection between cognitive profile and performance on the TOEIC test?

STUDENTS

This study was conducted with a sophomore Communicative English class (whose TOEIC scores ranged from 320-610). The class consisted of 29 students. However, the final number included in this study was 18, since only students who completed both of the testing instruments were included. Of this 18, 10 were female and 8 were male. It is important to note that these students show evidence of high motivation to learn English, as they had achieved Level 3 status within a streaming system of six levels.

METHODOLOGY

Students were introduced to the basics of Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences and were given a handout with a simple explanation of each intelligence type. They were then asked to reflect on which intelligence type they felt they were strongest in and were asked to complete the statement: "I think that I am . . ." Next, they were asked to rank two lists of learning activities (based on the 8 intelligences) on a scale of 1 to 8. A ranking of 1 indicated that the activity was the most helpful for them, while 8 was an indicator of the least helpful learning activities (see Appendix A). The purpose of this first questionnaire was to establish students' awareness of their own intelligence strengths, and to see if this awareness matched their choice of learning activity (research questions 1 and 2).

The next step was for students to complete a multiple intelligences inventory (Ivanco, 1998). This inventory required them to select behaviors that matched their personalities, within the categories of the eight intelligences. The purpose of this inventory was to provide a clearer picture of each student's actual cognitive profile.

Students' self-perceived cognitive profile were then compared to their choices of learning activities on the first questionnaire, and their suggested cognitive profiles as indicated by the MI inventory. Students were then allo-

cated a Cognitive Profile Awareness Score (CPAS). CPAS scores were determined as follows. If their self-perceived cognitive profile correlated strongly with their answers on both testing instruments, they were allocated a CPAS of 4. Strong correlation was determined by the same intelligence type showing up as #1 on both testing instruments. If their self-perceived cognitive profile demonstrated significant correlation with their answers on both testing instruments, they were allocated a CPAS of 3. Significant correlation was determined by the same intelligence type showing up as #1 on one testing instrument and #2 on the other. If their self-perceived cognitive profile demonstrated some correlation with their answers on the testing instruments, they were allocated a CPAS of 2. Some correlation was determined by the same intelligence type showing up as #2 on both testing instruments. If their self-perceived cognitive profile demonstrated limited correlation with their answers on the testing instruments, they were allocated a CPAS of 1. Limited correlation was determined by the same intelligence type showing up as #1 or #2 on one of the testing instruments. If their self-perceived cognitive profile demonstrated no correlation with their answers on the testing instruments, they were allocated a CPAS of 0. No correlation was determined by no match between their self-perceived intelligence type and their answers on the testing instruments. A strong correlation (or a CPAS of 4) was interpreted as strong awareness of cognitive profile, whereas no correlation (or a CPAS of 0) was interpreted as lack of awareness of cognitive profile.

Finally, to address the third research question, students' suggested cognitive profile (as indicated by their responses on both testing instruments) were compared with their TOEIC scores to determine if any patterns would emerge. This question was extended by comparing students' suggested cognitive profiles with their overall grade for the class. Students were assured that participation in this case study was entirely voluntary and would in no way impact their course grade for the semester.

RESULTS

To address the first research question, "How aware are Asian university students of their own cognitive profiles?" results are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Student Awareness of Cognitive Profile

Lack of Awareness (Score of 0)	Limited Awareness (Score of 1)	Some Awareness (Score of 2)	Significant Awareness (Score of 3)	Strong Awareness (Score of 4)
2 students	7 students	1 student	5 students	3 students

On a scale of 0 to 4, (0 indicating lack of awareness and 4 indicating strong awareness) the overall average CPAS was 2, indicating some awareness. The average for female students was slightly higher than for male students, at 2.2 and 1.75 respectively. Half of the students (9) seemed to exhibit some awareness of their cognitive profile. Their self-perceived cognitive profile are included in Table 2 which also shows the CPAS for each individual student. Six students perceived themselves as interpersonal; four perceived themselves as naturalist; four as musical-rhythmic; two as bodily-kinesthetic; one as ver-

bal-linguistic, and one as visual-spatial.

Table 2 addresses the second research question, “How effectively can students utilize this knowledge to enhance their language learning potential?” Table 2 compares students' self-perceived cognitive profile with their selected learning activities. The third column lists the intelligence strengths indicated by their selection of learning activities. The fourth column lists their top two intelligence strengths suggested by their answers on the MI inventory (Ivanco, 1998). The fifth column lists the actual intelligence strengths suggested by the evidence collected. In cases where no clear intelligence strength was apparent, the box contains N/A. Finally, the last column indicates their CPAS on a scale of 0 - 4. Students who perceived themselves as intrapersonal and musical seemed to have the closest match between their self-perceived intelligence strength and their selection of learning activities. They also appeared to have the highest CPAS of 3 - 4. However, students who perceived themselves as naturalist and bodily-kinesthetic tended to have the least match with their answers on the testing instruments, and the lowest CPAS of 1. Notable exceptions, however, are students 12, 14, and 17 with self-perceived intrapersonal intelligence, but a CPAS of 1, 1, and 0 respectively.

Table 2. Selection of Learning Activities Based on Cognitive Profile

Student	I think that I am...	Selection of learning activities	Inventory answers	Suggested intelligence strength	CPAS
1	Intrapersonal	- Intrapersonal - Verbal	- Intrapersonal - Verbal	Intrapersonal/ Verbal	4
2	Intrapersonal	- intrapersonal - Bodily Kinesthetic	- Intrapersonal - Naturalist	Intrapersonal	4
3	Musical	- Musical	- Musical - Interpersonal	Musical	4
4	Intrapersonal	- Verbal - Musical	- Intrapersonal - Visual	Intrapersonal	3
5	Verbal	- Verbal - Naturalist	- Intrapersonal - Verbal	Verbal	3
6	Musical	- Musical - Verbal	- Intrapersonal - Naturalist - Musical - verbal	Musical	3
7	Musical	- Intrapersonal/ Visual - Musical/Visual	- Musical	Musical	3
8	Musical	- Musical - Intrapersonal	- Intrapersonal - Musical	Musical	3
9	Bodily	- Musical/ Mathematical - bodily/ interpersonal	- Intrapersonal - Bodily	Bodily	2
10	Naturalist	- Mathematical - Musical	- Naturalist	Naturalist	1

11	Naturalist	- Verbal - Mathematical	- Interpersonal - Naturalist		1
12	Intrapersonal	- Verbal - Musical	- Intrapersonal	Intrapersonal	1
13	Bodily	- Verbal - Intrapersonal	- Mathematical - Bodily/ Intrapersonal		1
14	Intrapersonal	- Musical/ Mathematical - Intrapersonal/ Verbal	- Naturalist - Intrapersonal	Intrapersonal	1
15	Naturalist	- Musical/Bodily - Intrapersonal/ Verbal	- Intrapersonal - Naturalist	Intrapersonal/Nat uralist	1
16	Naturalist	- Bodily - Intrapersonal	- Bodily - Naturalist	Bodily/naturalist	1
17	Intrapersonal	- Visual - Verbal	- Naturalist - Mathematical		0
18	Visual	- Verbal - Verbal	- Logical - Bodily - Intrapersonal		0

The third research question, "Is there any noticeable connection between cognitive profile and performance on the TOEIC test?" is addressed by Table 3 which lists students in order of their TOEIC scores and includes their suggested intelligence strengths and CPAS. Although no clear pattern is evident at this point, it is interesting to note that the student with the highest TOEIC score appears to have strong bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. It is also noteworthy that three of the top ten scores were achieved by students with musical-rhythmic intelligence, while the lowest score was achieved by a student with intrapersonal intelligence. Predictably, the student with verbal-linguistic intelligence had the second highest TOEIC score.

Table 3. Student TOEIC Scores, Suggested Intelligence Strengths, and CPAS

Student	Suggested Intelligence Strength	CPAS	TOEIC Scores
9	Bodily	2	610
5	Verbal	3	570
8	Musical	3	545
13	N/A	1	510
1	Intrapersonal/Verbal	4	500
3	Musical	4	495
6	Musical	3	490
11	N/A	1	485
14	Intrapersonal	1	475
15	Intrapersonal/Naturalist	1	470

17	N/A	0	465
4	Intrapersonal	3	460
16	Bodily/Naturalist	1	460
18	N/A	0	455
12	Intrapersonal	1	415
10	Naturalist	1	400
7	Musical	3	390
2	Intrapersonal	4	320

The third research question was extended by comparing students' end-of-semester CE grades with their intelligence strengths. The reason for this extension is that it could be argued that an end-of semester grade is considerably more comprehensive, and therefore a more reliable indicator of students' language performance. Another reason for the extension was to search for parallels with performance on the TOEIC test. The results are summarized in Table 4 which lists students in order of the grade they received for the CE class in the Spring of 2006. Their suggested intelligence strengths and CPAS are also listed. While strong patterns did not emerge, there are some interesting parallels with TOEIC performance that are worth exploring further. First, the student with bodily-kinesthetic intelligence ranked second in the class grade list, and first on the TOEIC list. Second (and perhaps not surprisingly), the student with verbal-linguistic intelligence ranked high on both lists - second on the TOEIC list, and fifth on the class grade list. Third, students with musical-rhythmic intelligence ranked highly on both lists with one student (3) ranking 6th on the TOEIC list, and 4th on the class grade list. However, there are exceptions to this with students 6 and 7 ranking low on the class grade list and the TOEIC list respectively. Perhaps most notable is that the student with the highest grade in class was one with an indeterminate single intelligence strength based on the testing instruments used in the study.

Table 4. Student TOEIC Scores, Suggested Intelligence Strengths, and CPAS

Student	Suggested Intelligence Strength	CPAS	CE grade
17	N/A	0	97%
9	Bodily	2	97%
7	Musical	3	95%
3	Musical	4	93%
5	Verbal	3	93%
13	N/A	1	92%
16	Bodily/Naturalist	1	91%
2	Intrapersonal	4	91%
11	N/A	1	90%
8	Musical	3	90%

12	Intrapersonal	1	90%
15	Intrapersonal/Naturalist	1	86%
1	Intrapersonal/Verbal	4	86%
4	Intrapersonal	3	82%
10	Naturalist	1	80%
14	Intrapersonal	1	75%
6	Musical	3	71%
18	N/A	0	61%

DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

It is encouraging to discover that most students (all but 2) showed some awareness of their cognitive profile, with half (9 students) exhibiting some awareness or higher. Increasingly, research is highlighting the importance of metacognitive awareness in the learning process and the role played by learner autonomy in students' success. The fact that the students exhibiting the greatest awareness appear to be those with highly developed intrapersonal intelligence is particularly noteworthy. It is possible that awareness of one's own cognitive profile could facilitate greater control over the learning process, and more effective learning. Awareness of cognitive profile has the potential to empower language learners to select learning strategies that best match their ability to learn. It is possible that the intrapersonal intelligence plays a key role in metacognition, since this intelligence involves the ability to seek out and understand inner experiences. Since everyone possesses this intelligence to some degree, it is worth considering the cultivation of this intelligence in the quest for greater metacognitive awareness. Although such a discussion is beyond the scope of this paper, an examination of the impact of intrapersonal intelligence on the other intelligences and on language learning in general, would be highly illuminating.

Conspicuously absent from the list of intelligence strengths that emerged in the study were the mathematical-logical, and interpersonal intelligences. It could be argued that both of these intelligences are also key for successful language learning. The ability to discern patterns, to think inductively and deductively, to utilize logical thinking are key to mastering the underlying patterns and structure of a foreign language. It makes sense, therefore, to devote attention to mathematical-logical intelligence. Much of Communicative Language Teaching relies heavily on the interpersonal intelligence, and could be more successful with greater attention to the cultivation of this intelligence type. The fact that neither of these intelligence types was evident in the results of this study could suggest a need for greater attention to both.

The fact that students with musical and intrapersonal intelligences appeared to have the closest match between their cognitive profiles and selected learning activities could suggest the value of these intelligences in language learning in general. Studies are increasingly suggesting a link between music and language learning, which is worth exploring further (Lieb, 2005). The fact that students with bodily-kinesthetic and naturalist intelligence had low CPAS, however, does not necessarily mean that these intelligences do not play

a role in language learning since the student with bodily-kinesthetic intelligence performed well on TOEIC and CE class grades. It may simply suggest that while they are not consciously aware of their cognitive profile, they could still possess a subconscious awareness that guides their choices when selecting learning activities.

The lack of a distinct pattern between cognitive profile and performance on the TOEIC test and class grade list is significant. MI theory could suggest that students with a predominantly strong verbal-linguistic intelligence are the ones who perform best on the TOEIC test. As expected, in this study, the student who appeared to exhibit verbal-linguistic intelligence performed well on TOEIC and on the class grade list. However, the fact that students with other intelligence strengths (notably, bodily-kinesthetic, and musical-rhythmic) performed well, would suggest that other intelligences also play an important role in the EFL classroom, and as such, need to be accommodated. The fact that the student with the highest score on the class grade list has an indeterminate intelligence strength could suggest that this student has a variety of well-developed intelligences. This raises more questions about the breadth of cognitive profile, and the value of developing all intelligences in all learners. While MI Theory can help assist the learning process by catering to student strengths, it can be just as valuable to cater to their less developed intelligences. In this way, learners may become equipped with a greater arsenal of learning strategies that can increase the likelihood of successful learning. It is possible that with greater attention to a variety of intelligences, students who are moderately successful could become highly successful. This creates an even stronger argument for EFL professionals to incorporate MI theory into their instructional design, and attempt as much as possible to accommodate a variety of intelligence types.

CONCLUSIONS

Awareness of cognitive profile has the potential to play an important role in metacognitive strategies for language learning. The fact that 16 out of the 18 students in this small scale study showed some awareness of their cognitive profile raises questions as to how best to raise this awareness, and if such awareness can positively affect language learning. The fact that students with strong intrapersonal awareness appeared to have the best awareness of their cognitive profile, and the strongest ability to utilize this knowledge in their learning choices, suggests that the intrapersonal intelligence could be a key component in metacognition and learner autonomy. However, the lack of clear patterns between cognitive profile and TOEIC or class scores suggests that further study is needed. Finally, the apparent lack of verbal-linguistic dominance may point to the importance of incorporating all intelligences in the language learning process.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The relative small size of this study implies that many issues need to be

addressed on a larger scale. First, there is the question of measuring cognitive profile. Perhaps cognitive profile is best measured by observation of selected learning activities in addition to the completion of testing instruments and inventories like the ones in this study. However, this raises further issues, particularly with regard to whether cognitive profile awareness or freedom to select learning activities has the greater impact on language learning. It would also be worth investigating which of the eight intelligences (if any) has the greatest impact on language achievement, and whether this is a function of teaching methodology. Furthermore, more research needs to be conducted on the cultural appropriateness of MI Theory, and how best to incorporate non-traditional approaches to learning into cultures which value more traditional approaches. Finally, it would be worth measuring the potential of MI based instruction to increase motivation among low-proficiency students whose intelligence strengths were perhaps not addressed in EFL classrooms thus far.

To conclude, this paper contends that successful learning depends on consideration of the entire learning context. Viewed from a holistic perspective, in all its complexity, language learning can benefit from such an approach. As Brown (1994) stated, "Many of the pieces of the language learning puzzle are not yet discovered, and the careful defining of questions will lead to finding those pieces" (p. 3). Perhaps MI Theory, and the questions it raises, can supply one of the key pieces of the language learning puzzle.

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APPENDIX A. MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES QUESTIONNAIRE

Research shows that there are many different types of intelligence. Depending on background and age, some intelligences are more developed than others. This activity asks you to think about what your intelligences are. Knowing this, you can work to strengthen the other intelligences that you do not use as often.

Please answer all these questions honestly and as best you can. Your answers will be kept strictly anonymous, and will have no effect on your final course grade. Please answer the questions by yourself. Your true opinions are very important. If you choose to participate, please indicate your consent by writing your name and student number and today's date below. Thank you!

Name: _____
Student Number: _____
Date: _____

Read the descriptions of the eight types of intelligence, then choose which one you think you are strong in.

Verbal Linguistic

If you are good at language in general (Japanese, English, or any other language), you probably have strong verbal linguistic intelligence. You might also be good at telling stories or debating and learning meanings of words. You are probably good at listening, reading, speaking, or writing in your own language (and maybe other languages too).

Visual Spatial

If you like to learn by seeing pictures, charts or diagrams, or by drawing, you might be visual spatial. You might also have a good imagination. You might also be good at understanding gestures and body language.

Musical Rhythmic

If you are musical rhythmic, you are good at some type of music. Maybe you are a good singer, or you can play a musical instrument. Or you might be good at dancing or karaoke. Or maybe you just really enjoy music and you spend a lot of time listening to it.

Mathematical Logical

If you are mathematical logical, you might be good at mathematics. Or you might be good at solving puzzles and problems in general.

Interpersonal

If you are interpersonal, you probably enjoy working in groups. You like pairwork, teamwork, and group discussions. You learn well from other people.

Intrapersonal

If you are intrapersonal, you prefer to study by yourself. You like thinking deeply about things and know yourself pretty well. You probably enjoy keeping a journal, and learn well by yourself.

Bodily Kinesthetic

If you are bodily kinesthetic, you learn by doing activities. You like to have something to touch, like game pieces, or cards. Or you might enjoy moving around the room to ask other students questions. You might enjoy movement like dancing, drama, or sports.

Naturalist

If you are a naturalist, you probably enjoy being in a place with a lot of nature. You might like to look closely at nature. You are good at finding patterns and putting things into groups.

What do you think?

I think that I am _____ because

Which of the following activities helps you learn best? Put them in order from 1 (most helpful) to 8 (least helpful).

- _____ Reading an English book
- _____ Looking at a chart.
- _____ Listening to an English song.
- _____ Finding mistakes.
- _____ Pairwork.
- _____ Studying by myself.
- _____ Having something to touch (like game pieces)
- _____ Matching sentence parts.

Now do the same with the following activities. Which ones help you learn best? Put them in order from 1 (most helpful) to 8 (least helpful).

- _____ Writing in English.
- _____ Looking at pictures.
- _____ Singing new vocabulary or grammar.
- _____ Figuring out grammar rules by looking at examples.
- _____ Working in a group.
- _____ Keeping a journal or notebook.
- _____ Gestures.
- _____ Putting words in groups.

International Group Work in the Classroom: Beating the L1 Stranglehold

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ABSTRACT

It is a well-known problem in EFL that students often will speak their mother tongue in classroom settings, rather than using the target language. This report will demonstrate one way to get the students to use the target language in a genuine setting, while physically located in a classroom. The author was able to set up various forms of synchronous chat with other EFL learners in other countries. These forms of chat require the students to use English as the means of common communication.

INTRODUCTION

Many Japanese students have gone through six years of formal schooling without having a genuine communication experience with a foreigner. There are many ways to substitute for this experience in language classrooms. In Japan, however, this is most commonly replaced by grammar studies and tests. English language learning is done for the sake of getting in to the next level of education. One way to counter this trend is to set up computer-mediated dialogs between Japanese students and students in other countries. This report is about one teacher's efforts to make this happen.

STARTING MY CAREER AS A CALL TEACHER

Many years ago (1998), I was confronted with 114 students in a room containing one hundred twenty Windows 98 PC's. I had never taught CALL before, but neither had any other teacher in this newly opening university. At the time, computers were still not commonly used. According to a survey I did on the first day, out of the 114 students, only three had ever touched a computer before. Although they quickly caught on, my first lessons included "This is a mouse." Times have changed greatly since then.

With the volume of students I was teaching, it was clear that attempts to speak with them frequently would be impossible. Naturally, they resorted to speaking in Japanese, their mother tongue, amongst themselves. I found some software that used speech recognition, hoping to get them to speak English more. The speech recognition engine was of course limited, but it was helpful. We attempted email partners with foreign students, but that fell

apart. Not only did my students frequently neglect to write, they often got no responses from their partners. I found it difficult to make a meaningful dialog part of the lesson.

MY DISCOVERY OF SYNCHRONOUS TEXT COMMUNICATION

As I learned more about how to make these wonderful machines do new tricks, I discovered text chat. There were a few synchronous chat networks for learners of English on the web that we could use in the classroom. As I worked with them, I found that the students did not react to them as I had hoped. The chat environments (MOOs, MUD's etc.) that were consistently populated with friendly learners from other countries were very text-heavy. As a student opens the Web site and logs in, she is faced with a full screen of text, explaining rules, directions, and the virtual environment. It was difficult to get them past this stage.

At this point, I decided that if other people can make a computer do that, maybe I could too. I learned how to set up a simple text chat environment using a Perl script. With more verbal instruction and less text introduction, my students finally took to it. They started writing in the target language for fun, something they had never experienced before. After working in this environment for over four years and doing extensive text analysis of the chat logs, I found myself wishing that my students would enjoy verbal speaking as much as they enjoyed text chat. They certainly enjoyed being on the telephone.

By this time, I had changed universities. My new (current) university is very tech-friendly. I wondered if the time had come where students could actually speak in real time with students overseas. I researched different messaging services, hoping to find something we could use. I found several formats that could very nearly do what I wanted to do in class.

At first, I experimented with NetMeeting. This program is pre-installed in all Windows computers, and only needs to be activated. A simple script in a Webpage can easily activate this program, and it has audio-video capability. Although that program demonstrates the possibilities that are open now, it did not work for me in the classroom. I had classes in two rooms full of Windows computers, and in one room full of Macintosh computers. Macintosh computers have no support for NetMeeting.

I also experimented with Microsoft Net Messenger. Using this I could use the headsets and the Webcams for synchronous chats. Using the group feature, we could create groups by invitation. The technology fit the requirements I was looking for, as far as PC's. On the other hand, groups were not dynamic. There was no prospect of getting a stable connection for the Macintosh computers. There was also a fatal problem. The computers in our CALL labs did not allow ports to be opened by other than the system administrator, and MSN Messenger was not, and could not be installed on the computers due to permissions issues.

The Macintosh computers had their own software installed in order to run the cameras. This program seemed stable, had both audio and video, and did not require further installation. At the same time, this software was only good

on the Macintosh computers. To connect with another computer required the same program to be installed. This left out the PC's. These Macintosh computers could only really connect with other computers in the same room, and required users to find and insert their partner's IP address manually.

GETTING STARTED IN TELECOLLABORATION

Using Yahoo to find other possibilities, I found an advertisement in Macromedia that claimed anyone using their Flash Communications Server (Now Flash Media Server 2, bought by Adobe) could set up a Web chat forum in ten minutes. This forum could include audio, video, and text chat. I had previously used Flash before to create dynamic Web pages and I thought this might be worth checking into. I downloaded a trial version and set up the server. I must admit that it took a lot more than ten minutes the first time. I did get it working though. I reported about it to my department and asked for a budget to get the necessary licenses to set up a real server to host these applications. It was approved, and I was given unrestricted access to a high-speed server to install it.

Armed with a book, I started building the simple applications offered as a free download by Macromedia. It did not take long before I was able to put together a simple application in ten minutes as promised. After that, it was just a matter of adjusting the style and tweaking the code to make it do what I want. I think that the most difficult part was the style, as I have very little sense for that.

There were many advantages to doing it myself. As I previously mentioned, there were port blocking problems in my CALL classrooms. I was able to use port 80, the common http port. Doing this, I had no problems getting the server to communicate with the applications on the client machines. It would get through any firewall and anti-virus software, even though it was using rtmp protocol. I no longer had trouble with communication software that you must install, or that is specific to one brand of camera. The viewer is the Flash Player. For most computers this is pre-installed. If it is not pre-installed, most computers have already downloaded it to view common animations through the Internet. In short, the vast majority of computers already have this available. It also has plug-ins for every major Web browser.

Flash also has a native method of limiting the bandwidth used. This is important as most (if not all) CALL rooms have a large number of computers running through one or a series of only a few routers. Using a lot of bandwidth, multiplied by a large number of computers, most software that uses audio and or video cannot be squeezed through one or two routers fast enough. Audio and video get progressively jittery, and soon fail altogether. Limits can be placed on the maximum amount of bandwidth the audio and video can use. Even with a class of twenty five to thirty students, connecting one-on-one with a similar sized class, the audio quality is still intelligible, and the video is good enough to see who each student is talking with. After using this technology for a few years, there were some upgrades, which reduced the echo effect, and improved the audio quality.

OTHER OPTIONS

While I was working on these applications, other technologies that also serve well were being developed. When I finally had these applications working well enough to test them, I tried introducing them to people interested in teleconferencing at Japan Association of Language Teachers conferences. Each time I introduced what could be done with them, someone always asked me how they compare to Skype. This forced me to check into what had changed since I became involved with this project. I realized that as I was working hard to learn this new technology, I had neglected to keep up with other technologies.

The most well-known program for audio and video conferencing these days is Skype. Skype is currently free software used for making telephone calls. There are different plans under Skype. Skype In is software that is completely free to people who register. Using this plan, users can call any computer that is also hooked up to and running Skype, just as you would a telephone call. You can also use your Webcam in conjunction with the call, making it a videoconference. Skype Out allows users to make a real phone call to any landline in a large list of countries. This plan does require a small fee when connecting to a real telephone, but does not charge for computer-to-computer calls.

There are obstacles to using Skype in classrooms. Skype is a downloadable program that must be installed. If your systems administrator allows this, you may be able to use this, but many will not allow it for security purposes. Users must register. This gives them an identity to use on the Skype platform, but may be a hindrance to large classes. In a large class, the teacher must keep track of the students including their usernames and possibly their passwords. Groups formed in Skype are not dynamic. Students can invite other students to join them, forming a group call, but changing the users in a group is not so easy to manage. Bandwidth also becomes an issue, because the bandwidth is not as compressed. This makes the audio quality better, but in a busy router, may make the whole system screech to a halt. This is a great platform for individual students to use and practice speaking to others, but does not work so well for entire classes to pair up and do group work. Other issues such as closed ports, firewalls, and antivirus programs also may hinder or stop a class from using it.

Mixer deserves a mention here. Mixer is a very popular program developed for language learners to use. One can find another learner of nearly any language in use today with whom to practice. The main obstacle to using this in a large classroom is that the entire program is based on Skype. To use Mixer, you must first download and register a version of Skype. Then you can go to the Mixer site and register your username and target languages. If you can use Skype, Mixer is a great way to practice another language, but obviously if you can not use Skype, this is not an option.

There are a number of instant messaging services that also allow audio and video conferencing. Windows Messenger, Yahoo Messenger, and a host of clones exist. Some of these are even compatible with other messenger services. Again, these are easy to use, and can be set up for groups. They include text, audio and video, plus file sharing and other services. They also

suffer from the same problems as Skype. The groups created on these services are not dynamic. Ports and program installation may be blocked by system administrators for security. Friends using these services may accidentally intrude on a class session by simply logging in.

All these services, and many similar services on the Internet, are suffering from another problem. They are popular. As they become increasingly popular bandwidth decreases. More servers must be installed to keep up with the demand placed on them. This puts more financial demands on those that run such servers. Advertisements are more prominent, making it difficult to know where to click sometimes. As demand gets higher, usually the servers get slower and increasingly fail. In the end, the company that kept the service free often gets bought by another company that sees the popularity and wants it. Then the free service changes to a pay service.

Other possibilities include asynchronous forms of computer-mediated communication. Online bulletin boards are a common form of asynchronous text-based communication. However, the lines have recently become blurred. Using a free service called Odeo, a user can register, and then use a headset to record an audio message. After recording, the user is given some computer code to copy. This code can then be pasted directly into most bulletin boards, including those on Moodle. Another user that has access to the bulletin board sees an audio control that will play the audio. This allows for asynchronous audio messages.

Another service by the same group is called Hellodeo. This service allows a user to record an audio-video message using a headset and Web cam. Again, the user is given some code to copy and paste into any bulletin board. This makes it possible to set up a bulletin board and yet use any form of asynchronous communication. They are not limited to text format any longer. Unfortunately, the Odeo group also suffers from the problems of popularity. Recently for several weeks, it was impossible to record anything to upload to Odeo's servers. Downloading the audio was all the servers could handle. There have been improvements lately however. Due to its recent success, it would be reasonable to suspect that it will also be bought by a larger company, or become a commercial site. Odeo is run on the Flash platform, so it has very few of the restrictions common with major synchronous programs. It is a very useful tool for teachers that want students to record pre-planned speech.

RATIONALE FOR USING STUDENT GENERATED AUDIO IN THE CLASS

There are many very basic reasons to use and record the verbal communication of students. The most basic purpose of a class is to assist learners to gain a new skill set. These new skills are supposed to be used by the students. Currently, in most Japanese schools, primary through tertiary, the emphasis on learning grammar and vocabulary is so great in an effort to have them pass the next test that practical application of their language skills is nearly completely ignored. Students usually start their college education with a wide, but passive knowledge of rules of English. Instructions are rarely given in the target language, and in almost every case, if instructions are in the target language, there is also a translation available. While they are required

to understand the language, they are not required to use it in any practical situation. The excuse commonly heard is that if the students do not understand what to do, it is unfair. While this may be a stereotype, it is a rather consistent one.

Using verbal skills in a classroom does not require special equipment. Students can engage in conversations with the teacher, other students, or in some cases with guests. While these may be practical and useful for building skill sets, there are some fundamental issues. In Japan, classes are overwhelmingly monolingual. Even in mixed classes, students from other classes can most often speak in Japanese with reasonable proficiency. Japanese teachers of English are often expected to conduct their classes in Japanese, the common language.

MY APPROACH

What I want to do is take away this mother tongue crutch, and give them a genuine chance to speak with other students from another culture. These things are possible in any classroom. However, in a computer-enhanced classroom, more possibilities arise.

The applications I created include text-based chat, audio, video, and shared whiteboards in various combinations. Students use a password to gain access, given to them by their teacher. Students then log in with a username. On this main page, they have a text chat box and several choices of virtual lobbies to enter. Teachers decide which lobbies students enter. In the lobby, there is another text chat box. These text chat boxes allow teachers to coordinate their efforts and troubleshoot. In the lobby, it is possible to make a large number of rooms for the students to enter. The rooms can be made by a teacher in advance, or by the students themselves. Students can enter the rooms for pair work or small group work. Each lobby has a different combination of text, audio, video, or whiteboard. Each lobby/room combination has a different background color assisting the teachers in traffic management.

I have used these applications to connect my students with classes in South Korea and other classes in Japan. This was a tremendously popular activity in my classes. The students found that they could communicate with foreigners, a group that apparently does not include me. Many of them had the chance for the first time to communicate with someone that does not understand their mother tongue and found the experience liberating. For the six or more years of formal English education prior to entering their university, they were drilled in grammar to the point that they felt that any mistake they made would cause a terminal breakdown in communication. With this genuine communication opportunity, they realized that there were many levels of mistakes. Most mistakes did not cause a complete communication breakdown. In addition, for the first time they were introduced to repairs. They learned that even a serious grammar mistake could be repaired, a concept most of them had never considered, or had reason to consider before. They learned that cultural awareness was related to language learning. This was something that teachers in Japan often tell them, but with which the students have no experience.

To sum up, my students had a genuine chance to speak with people in English. The crutch of using their mother tongue behind the teacher's back was eliminated, if only for a limited time. They learned about culture, communicative cooperation, and logical sequencing. They learned about repairs, delay tactics, and many other communication strategies. They gained a certain amount of confidence in their communication skills.

PRACTICAL PROJECTS

There are a number of things teachers can have students do in these virtual environments. As a practical exercise for my engineering students, I designed an exercise in engineering. I divided my students into small groups. Then I gave each group fifteen sheets of A4-sized paper, four meters of twine, and five centimeters of cellophane tape. Their instructions were to build a paper bridge between two chairs. After they finished their bridge, they were to drive a toy car across it. The bridge must allow the car to cross safely. If the bridge broke, or the car could not cross it, points were subtracted. This included the car not crossing because of poor driving technique. They were given only one chance to drive the car across. Extra points were added for the longest successful bridges. No extra points were given for artistic bridges. The students were given the rules a week in advance and were required to hand in a written report of their bridge building plan before they could get the materials.

I had been doing this challenge in class each year. On one occasion, I had the opportunity to link one of my classes with a class in South Korea. Before the day of the bridge building challenge, we were able to do small group conferencing and they used the whiteboard to draw their bridge plans and discuss them using text chat. The South Korean students were also given the same challenge and this allowed our students to make international collaboration groups. These international collaboration groups discussed strategies for lengthening their bridges and strengthening them. Admittedly, my students did not take this exercise very seriously at first. Their text dialogs with their foreign counterparts tended to be mainly about music, sports or food, rather than real collaboration in the preparation weeks. They were more interested in social chat and culture. Although this was not the intended object of these chat sessions, this is not a bad thing.

When we actually built these bridges in class, they were again in small groups, using the Web cams. This enabled them to see what their counterparts were doing. At the same time, I set up a large room Webcam. This allowed them to see what the class was doing as a whole. When they saw the South Korean students building good bridges, they got quite motivated. The change in motivation and attitudes was dramatic.

Another very successful project we tried was called the culture capsule. This was an idea presented by Christopher Chase and Paul Alexander at both the KOTESOL 2006 conference and the JALT 2006 conference. My students were instructed to bring something to class the next week to give to the South Korean students they were linked with. The item they bring did not have to be expensive, but it should demonstrate a bit of Japanese culture.

These were placed in a box and sent to the South Korean class. The South Korean class did the same, sending us a capsule. After the exchange was complete, the students got into pairs or small groups with their foreign counterparts. They used the Webcams to show each item they took out of the box, and discussed it and its cultural significance. The students were allowed to keep anything they wanted after the class. This gave them a genuine chance to discuss culture, see whom they were talking with, and it gave them something physical to remember their experience. Somehow, physical contact with items like these makes the exchange more real and meaningful.

For those who are interested in doing a project such as these, there are a number of forums available to collaborate with other teachers. The KOTESOL organization's CALL SIG has a great Web site that has a very dynamic discussion about this subject. A large number of links to other organizations interested in linking classes can be found there. Webheads is another organization that has been doing similar projects for a long time. Dave's ESL Café is a site that should not be overlooked. Then there is TESOL, Inc. and IATEFL. There has been some discussion of this subject on IATEFL's Learning Technologies SIG forum. It is also turning into an interesting place to find links to other Web sites involved with similar technologies.

There are many organizations out there, but generally they are widely scattered and finding a compatible collaborating teacher is still not easy. Fortunately, due to the resurgence in interest in this subject, and the fact that this technology is finally maturing enough to be practical, more teachers are searching. These people are including more links to other organizations doing similar things.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I believe that computer-mediated communication is the way of the future in teaching languages. Advances in technology make this a near certainty. I cannot say that this will be "superior" to unwired classes - that will still be up to the skills of the teacher. However, for teachers interested in trying out this form of communication, it is getting much easier. Some of the benefits are obvious. While it will not replace teachers any time soon, nor will it make a bad teacher a good one, it can be a very useful tool.

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ACTIVE ONLINE FORUMS:

<http://callsig.org/moodle/>

This is the URL of the KOTESOL CALL SIG. It has the most dynamic discussion of CMC I can find at this time. You can also find a lot of links to information and other organizations here.

<http://dekita.org/>

This forum has a good worldwide base of teachers interested in synchronous and asynchronous communication.

<http://iatefl.org/>

The official site for IATEFL. From here you can find links to the Learning Technologies SIG and forums.

<http://www.eslcafe.com/forums/>

This is the famous Dave's ESL Cafe. Forums have a good amount of information.

<http://www.eslwebcamforkids.com/>

This is a forum for teachers of all ages.

<http://icp.is.env.kitakyu-u.ac.jp/~sorensen/web/short.htm>

This is my Web site. The applications I described in this report are linked from here. You must get in contact with me directly to get the password.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION ON AUDIO-VIDEO PROGRAMS MENTIONED BY THE AUTHOR

Flash Media Server 2: <http://adobe.com/products/flashmediaserver/>

Skype: <http://www.skype.com/>

Mixer: <http://www.language-exchanges.org/>

Microsoft Windows Messenger: <http://get.live.com/messenger/>

Yahoo Messenger: <http://messenger.yahoo.com/>

Windows NetMeeting: <http://www.microsoft.com/windows/netmeeting/>

Odeo / Hellodeo: <http://odeo.com/>

Students-as-Teachers Situation in Language Courses

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ABSTRACT

Class activity is sometimes a problem, especially in bigger groups. There are always students who want to be invisible, but that is not the point in language courses. So one question is, how can you improve class activity when you as a teacher become (part time) invisible. The answer could be in Students-as-Teachers situation as an interesting and successful idea of teaching language AND culture, and this not only at the university, where my examples will be from. The Students-as-Teachers-program can be a good opportunity for students, regardless of the language level, to improve their language and social skills. This paper will give a conclusion of the ideas and discussions shared during the workshop “A Topsy-turvy World: Students as Teachers” at the 14th Korea TESOL International Conference in Seoul.

INTRODUCTION

Students in Korea try very hard to study a language, especially English, but most of them still have problems feeling confident enough to speak in a foreign language. When I taught a seminar for the first time for students of the education faculty at the Chonbuk National University in 2005, the students expected to translate just chapters from a theory book. Nevertheless, that was not my idea of teaching them the subject “Teaching Methods.” Therefore, I made the point: If you want to become a (German-English) teacher, learn how to teach! I developed a seminar plan for a whole semester (four months) to give the students the opportunity of being a teacher for the first time. That means also the students had to give a presentation about a subject in a foreign language.

WORKSHOP REPORT

1. PREPARATION / MANAGEMENT

PRAXIS AT UNIVERSITY

To make a bigger group work more efficiently, splitting is effective. The students choose their own group members. One group should have five to

eight members, which of course depends on how many students are in the class. The next step is in creating a group name to have a group identity for the whole semester. The students can feel stronger in a group than as lonely fighters. Moreover, the teacher can better organize the class and remember the names.

In the next level each group can choose (or get from the teacher) a main topic. That can be MUSIC, POLITICS, FOOD, HOBBIES, etc. The main topics should be interesting and depend on the age and the language level of the students. After each group gets their topic, each group member has to find two subjects for the topic. For example if the main topic is MUSIC, subjects could be classical music, hip hop, world music, music in the USA, music in Korea, special singers, music groups, etc. The group can discuss if the subject is interesting and relevant or not. From that subject, pool each group member chooses one subject for his presentation. After the students make their decisions, they write a list with the name and email-address of the group members and the presentation subjects. Now can the teacher create a seminar plan in a rotation principle, which means in every meeting another group gives a presentation? Of course, if there are too many students, there can be several short presentations during one class.

PRAXIS AT THE WORKSHOP

There were around 30 workshop attendees, so it was a good opportunity to practice the concept of class management. After splitting them in four groups, the group members had to create a group identity, which was like a little get-to-know-each-other. There were very interesting and funny group names found and you could see, that it isn't so easy to find a good name.

I gave the main topics: food, holidays, professions, and movies. In addition, the difficult part, thinking about topic related subjects, began. This was solved after several minutes. The workshop attendees realized that the topics can be very flexible and that everyone can bring their own ideas and experiences into the group and so participate in the process. We agreed that a 10-year-old student will have other subjects for movies than a university student, but that exactly is the point of that idea. Therefore, the teacher can be flexible too. To give just grammar topics isn't necessary, because the students will make grammar and/or pronunciation mistakes during the presentation, which the teacher will improve afterwards.

2. PRESENTATION

PRAXIS AT THE UNIVERSITY

For university students the presentation should be 30 to 50 minutes, which depends on the number of students and how many hours you teach. The presentation language is a foreign language that means in my case German or English. However, the students can use Korean for short explanations or vocabulary. The student teachers need to prepare materials for their students (classmates). Materials can be exercises from teaching books, games, handouts with information, definitions, etc. Also it's important to en-

courage the student teachers to use multi media (CD, DVD, Internet, power point presentation) and of course, also the old style black or white board. The (real) teacher per se is not part of the presentation. He or she should be in the back of the class and make notes for the discussion afterwards. The notes include grammar and pronunciation and subject mistakes, but of course also positive marks. These notes are also important for you, if you have to give grades.

DISCUSSION AT THE WORKSHOP

There was no time to prepare presentations in the groups during the workshop. However, there was a discussion about how effective that activity could be. It was made clear that the idea of Teachers-as-Students-situation can work in every school type. Of course, the topics and the time should be modified. For example, when you are teaching elementary school students 30 or 50 minutes presentation time would be too long. However, 10 minutes seems to be effective. In addition, you have to be aware of the speaking level of the students. So for example, politics could be a topic for an advanced level. However, food or hobbies can be a topic for each level.

3. AFTER THE PRESENTATION

PRAXIS AT THE UNIVERSITY

When the student teacher finishes the presentation it is time for the (real) teacher to answer questions about the subject, improve mistakes and give more information and exercises. The students have also the opportunity to talk about the presentation and criticise. Through this, they can learn how to express their opinions.

Optional homework for the presenter is writing a conclusion about the presentation in the foreign language. The paper should include the subject, resources, (self) critic and problems. It should be a reflection about the presentation. In my seminars, some students dislike the beginning, but in the end see it as most effective part of the whole process, which brings a lot of positive feedback to me.

DISCUSSION AT THE WORKSHOP

Some workshop attendees were suspicious about the success of the whole concept at their schools, especially about the conclusion paper. This seminar idea is just a suggestion. There is no guarantee that it works all the time.

4. EXTRA ACTIVITY

The question for me was also, what the rest of the class should do during the semester. Just waiting for their presentations did not seem the best way for me. Therefore, I decided to let the group members help each other in finding materials. So each group member has to prepare one handout for every subject of his own group additional to the own presentation. That means,

if there is a group of five members. Member 1 will have a presentation (with all the conditions explained earlier in this paper) and four extra handouts till the end of the semester (one handout for the subject of Member 2, one handout for the subject of Member 3, and so on). The extra material is only for the teacher and shows that the student learns how to use resources like library and Internet. Of course, the members can share their ideas and materials. For that reason brain storming time in every meeting is necessary.

CONCLUSION

Of course that teaching method is not new. The workshop made clear that there are so many different teaching types in schools, and that not everybody can or would want to use the Students-as-Teachers situation. However, for me it was more an opportunity to show my way of teaching classes with different language levels. The idea is successful for me because each student has to do something and has to participate. The students have to use a foreign language and learn to be more active and how to articulate their opinions. For some of them it is the first, but not the last time, when they will speak and react in front of people. In the classroom with their friends, they can try themselves and get more self-esteem.

Finally, sometimes there are problems when the teacher and the students come from a different cultural background. The Students-as-Teachers situation gives the opportunity for the student teachers to explain a topic of a different culture from the same point of view as the students. Therefore, there are no cultural misunderstandings or misinterpretations between the presenter and the students. Students-as-Teachers situation encourages learners to become active and can give a new perspective and a cultural exchange not just for the students especially for the teacher.

THE AUTHOR

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SLA and Applied Linguistics

A Catalogue of Errors Made by Korean Learners of English

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ABSTRACT

When teaching Korean learners of English, the educator must remember that in addition to the typical problems that students from many backgrounds have with English (e.g., the third person singular construction), there are also problems that often are uniquely Korean. An awareness on the part of the language educator of these typical problems can go a long way to improving student L2 production and to minimizing time spent deciphering classroom student utterances and written production. While the errors collected in this study are representative of what might be termed “intermediate learners,” many of the production mistakes are equally discernable in advanced learners of English who would be able to identify such mistakes on a paper-based test. Errors collected in this study include pronunciation, grammatical, and syntactic errors resulting from L1 interference, as well as other errors of written and spoken production. This presentation aims to benefit English instructors, both native English speakers and Korean non-native speakers of either children or university students. It should also be of interest to program administrators of public schools and private institutes, because the more serious kinds of pervasive errors described also prompt questions as to how Korean students are being, in some respects, failed by both the public and the private education systems in the country.

INTRODUCTION

This short catalogue of errors commonly made by Korean learners of English is based on my observation of language in the classroom and outside of it. Since September of 2004, I have observed nearly every age group and level of English speaking ability in this country, from elementary children to adults in their early sixties. Most of the adults I have taught have been either students or elementary schoolteachers.

I did not set out to create a catalogue of errors intentionally when I came here. Rather, I noticed recurring patterns of mistakes made by both my children and my adult students when I taught at the Language Teaching Research Institute in the Gwanghwamun area of Seoul. In the main, I have continued to see these errors prevalent amongst the student body at my present employer, Sookmyung Women's University. These errors remain present in the speech of those learners of English who have not lived abroad.

In collecting these errors, my intention is not to dwell on the negative or to minimize the linguistic abilities of Korean learners of English, almost all of whom have a far greater mastery of English than I have of Korean. Rather, this paper aims to serve as a resource for educators in this country who seek to avoid mass-producing the kinds of errors described below. The prevalence of the errors across so wide a segment of the population seems to indicate that there is substantial room for pedagogical improvement. The treatment of these problems becomes critical when the Korean learner of English intends to go abroad, where those using English as either a primary or secondary language are not used to the unique types of errors present amongst English learners in South Korea. Anecdotal evidence of this is when I was growing up in multi-lingual Vancouver, Canada, I had more difficulties understanding Korean speakers than any other linguistic group. It is often the case that Koreans have more difficulty than other groups in making themselves understood there.

The actual catalogue of errors that so urgently needs to be addressed is, for various reasons, much smaller than it might be; perhaps someone will build on the material presented here at a future date. I have divided the catalogue that follows below into three areas: pronunciation, grammar and word choice, and writing.

PRONUNCIATION

Unlike in the other categories of this paper, I have deliberately chosen examples of pronunciation problems from humorous and extreme examples to illustrate my points. There are two main areas of pronunciation errors: segmentals and suprasegmentals. I have further divided the section on segmentals into two parts, comprising major and minor errors. Some educators might find the distinction useful, even if they might not agree with the specific category to which a given error might belong. Many of the segmental errors can be thought of in terms of the binary opposition of similar sounds.

SEGMENTALS (“INDIVIDUAL SOUND ERRORS”)

Some of these more serious errors (i.e., errors making comprehension more difficult) result from the influence of English loanwords in Korean on the target language (L2) learning process.

MAJOR ERRORS

1. /b/ vs. /p/

This is a very important distinction in English. While native speakers are used to hearing many accents, the interchange of these letters by Korean speakers is very confusing. For example, if a Korean student says, "I'm allergic to peas," her Canadian friend might take her on a mountain trail near some beehives, not realizing that she had really meant "I'm allergic to bees." Perhaps she will get stung and die, all because she didn't rattle her voice box!

2. /f/ vs. /p/

This is another crucial distinction in English. There are many English words where the only difference is the initial sound; for example, "for" and "pour," "feel" and "peel," etc.

3. /b/ vs. /v/

As above. I could have put this into the category of lesser mistakes, but it still does inhibit understanding.

4. “j” or “ch” vs. /z/ and z-Sounds

This problem occurs when Korean speakers pronounce the letter "z" like a "j" or "ch." The same problem applies to /tz/ and /tz/-sounds. A word like "pizza" ends up pronounced as "peach-eu," for example. Another example: "result" often gets pronounced as "rezhert" [where /zh/ indicates a voiced sh-sound] by Koreans learning English. In this case, the word sounds more like "dessert" than anything else. The u vowel's metamorphosis into a short e can often be a problem for English learners; here I suspect it has to do with the following letter l, which is often confused by Koreans with the rhotic r-sound.

5. /s/

Many Koreans have a tendency to simply drop /s/ when it is used as a plural marker or a present tense verb inflection. This is unfortunate, as /s/ carries a lot of meaning in English. While one can probably get away with saying "He eat broccoli, not ham," the speaker will confuse people if she is talking about nouns. For example, "peas" are vegetables, while "pee" is urine!

Another example is the /s/ that separates "he" from "she." An acquaintance of mine, who is a nurse in Vancouver, says that many Asian immigrant nurses (those whose L1 is Korean are not the only ones) regularly confuse the gender of the third person singular pronoun. One can imagine how this could lead to some very dramatic problems.

The problem of mispronouncing /s/ as the sh-sound is also widespread. Usually this happens with an i-class vowel following the /s/. An innocent Korean learner of English will often make mistakes like this: "He shit on the bed." The act of "sitting," unfortunately, has suddenly morphed into that of defecating, and to make things worse, a word associated with profanity was used to describe the act.

6. Extra eu- and ee-Sounds

Now that I have lived in this country for over a year, I have become used to hearing this extra syllable added to English words. However, while in Canada, I found I had more trouble understanding Koreans than any other linguistic group, largely because of very strange errors like this one. Particularly with the ee-sound, an English speaker might think the Korean learner of English is trying to make an adjective and consequently will still be listening for some other information that is not coming. For example, the native speaker hears "church," mispronounced as "church-ee," and thinks the

noun is an adjective.

7. /l/ vs. /r/

"I want lice, please." Our hypothetical student has just asked for a notorious blood-sucking little animal that lives in the skin at the top of one's head, when all he wanted was a simple dish of rice. The letter "r" in English can be quite difficult to pronounce, but students should be encouraged to try. Also, students should be encouraged to remember to pronounce "l" always as the "l" in "la-la." The position of "l" in a word, initial or medial, doesn't usually affect its pronunciation.

8. Long "o" vs. Short "o"

I have noticed that Korean learners of English often have difficulty with vowel length and quality, and the two sounds associated with the single letter "o" are no exception. For example, my former adult students, who were mostly elementary school teachers, often talked about "novels," but they pronounce the short "o" as a long one, and then they turn the /v/ into a /b/. The result was a completely different English word: "nobles." This and other problems in this section are still in evidence among many of my university students.

9. Short "a" vs. Short "e"

An excellent example is the English word "fax," which commonly gets pronounced by Korean learners as "pekseu." In this case, only one sound in the original English word is left, the /ks/ or x-sound. Not only has /f/ been turned into /p/, but the short "a" vowel has been turned into a short "e" vowel. One would expect that English speakers would fail to understand this short word when only one sound remains correct.

MINOR ERRORS

1. Unvoiced "th" vs. /s/

English speakers are used to hearing this mistake and can usually understand what is being said. However, when combined with all the other pronunciation errors common to the Korean community, this error can contribute to making understanding difficult. To make this sound, one must position the tongue between the upper and lower teeth, and breathe out quickly. When one is unwell, she wants to say "I'm sick," not "I'm thick" (which could mean either "fat" or "stupid"!).

2. Voiced "th" vs. /s/ or /z/

As above. There is a voiced "th" in the word "this."

3. Short "i" vs. Long "e"

This error on its own is usually not a serious one. The problem occurs when this error is combined with others, as it frequently is by Korean learners of English. A word like "city" can be quite problematic for Korean learners of English. First, they turn the soft /s/ sound of the letter "c" into /sh/. Then, they sometimes turn the short "i" vowel into the long "e" vowel. The

result is a “word” sounding like “sheedy.” English speakers are left wondering whether that means “CD,” “shitty” (a rude adjective pertaining to fecal material), or “shady.” None of these are right, but educators can hopefully see the problem that English speakers have when listening to people who have most of the class of errors described here.

SUPRASEGMENTALS (RHYTHM AND STRESS)

Rhythm and stress are more important in English than in many languages. Unlike in Korean, English tends not to give vowels equal length or stress. Also, voice inflection in English, like body language, carries a great deal of meaning. Look at the following examples:

I am eating rice.
I *am* eating rice.
I am *eating* rice.
I am eating *rice*.

These all answer different questions or exclamations:

Who is eating rice?
You're not eating rice!
Are you cooking rice?
What are you eating?

Many Korean learners of English (and, for that matter, many learners from Cantonese and Mandarin linguistic backgrounds) speak in an almost inaudible monotone. I think that, in particular, many boys think they will sound effeminate if they make the right intonation. Unfortunately, they are actually hurting their ability to communicate. Educators of boys should encourage them to avoid this pitfall.

Intonation, rhythm, and stress are best taught and learned orally. Listening carefully to one's English teacher, language partner, friend, or recording is crucial to learning to imitate these suprasegmental features of speech.

GRAMMAR AND WORD CHOICE

The errors in this section have been drawn from actual speech utterances or writing productions made by Korean learners of English. The actual errors are italicized, while I often use quotation marks to enclose one correct way of expressing the original thought.

“THE IMPOSSIBLE TENSES”

She's eat broccoli.
I'm expect a good time.

She did hike of a mountain.

I skate. and *Skating.* (In response to the question, “What did you do yesterday?”)

The third example would be grammatically correct if the preposition had been correct, but the tense error occurred, as those of this type tend to, in a situation where the student intended to produce the simple past tense unmarked for emphasis. The four errors above, and many others like them, are quite common with very low-level students, even at the university level. The use of the gerund apparently relates to a superficial study of textbooks that use gerunds to gloss pictures. It may also relate to pedagogical failure.

MISUSE OF TENSES

This is mostly a matter of lack of mastery of verb tenses. Typical mistakes might involve, for example, writing the present perfect where the simple past was required. Many students also use imperative forms when a past, present, or future tense is required. This may be due to language books that begin with “classroom language” where only imperative verbs are presented.

THE DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE ARTICLES

Errors involving the definite and indefinite articles are prevalent, but often not particularly important. One pattern of error that should be easy to eliminate is the definite article coupled with the name of a location: *I went to the Seoul last Saturday.*

Another common error involves speaking in general terms: *You should read the English book.* (a student’s advice on learning English), rather than the more customary “You should read English books.” There are also three irregular situations (“I go to school/church on Fridays.” “I go home after church.”) that give rise to errors like these:

I go to the school on Fridays.

I go to the church on Sundays.

I go to the house after church.

Each of these errors was taken from university student assignments. I have noticed the same errors in both speech and writing.

LACK OF PREPOSITIONS AND PRONOUNS

She lives husband. “She lives with her husband.”

IMPOSSIBLE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

She lives with she’s father.

EXTRANEOUS PREPOSITIONS

When I was in high school student . . .

This error would seem to be a conflation of two structures: “When I was in high school . . .” and “When I was a high school student . . .” the interesting thing is just how many times I hear and read this on a regular basis - it is not an isolated mistake by one student. This may also be a function of an imperfectly memorized formula, as quite a few of my students have actually said or written *When I was a high school . . . !*

PROBLEMS WITH SINGULARS AND PLURALS

1. Extra “s” on irregular plurals: *childrens, mens, womens, peoples*

2. Use of the singular to speak about a general situation: *Gun and knife are dangerous* and *I like comedy movie*. Also: *The television program that shows on the weekends is usually about the entertainments for the viewers to enjoy and relax* for “Television programs on weekends are usually enjoyable and relaxing.”

USE OF “VERY” WITH STRONG ADJECTIVES

I felt very fantastic. rather than “I felt fantastic.”

USE OF AWKWARD CIRCUMLOCUTIONS TO DESCRIBE PEOPLE AND THEIR CONDITIONS

Type 1. *His height is tall.* and *My condition is not good.* for, respectively, “He’s tall.” and “I’m not feeling well.” The errors in these constructions are due to L1 interference.

Type 2. *He is the runner who can run fast.* for “He’s a fast runner.” The juxtaposition of the article and the “one who does X” construction creates the error.

USE OF ERRONEOUS “TO ME” CONSTRUCTIONS

This pizza’s taste is good to me. for “This pizza is good.” This error is quite ubiquitous. Other examples: *When I broke my arm, it was painful to me.* for “It hurt.” and *The movie was so exciting to her.* Sometimes, it is appropriate to use the verb “to find” in such situations: “She found it interesting.”

INCORRECT IDIOM: “SHE LOST HER WEIGHT.”

Possibly this is a conflation of “She lost weight.” and “She lost her eraser.”

INCORRECT USE OF “PLAY” WITHOUT AN OBJECT BY AN ADULT SPEAKER

[An adult speaking]: *I played with my friends.* for “I hung out with my friends.” I suspect this relates to the fact that Koreans are often given English education as children, where “play” without an object is an appropriate part of the vocabulary, and are not taught that, in English, only children “play.” (Of course, adults “play sports,” “play instruments,” or “play games.” This is an important mistake not only because potential listeners would be led to (incorrectly) question the maturity of the speaker, but also because of the potential sexual connotations sometimes inherent in “play” (without an object) when used by adults.

INCORRECT USE OF ADVERBS

I slept lately today. for “I slept in.” or “I slept late.”

INCORRECT USE OF PREPOSITIONS

She did hike of a mountain. This sentence was also used previously as an example, and illustrates the fact that multiple errors are often found in the same sentence.

INCORRECT USE OF “MY”

I met my friend for lunch. where “my” incorrectly limits the number of friends a speaker has to one - rather than “I met a friend for lunch.”

INCORRECT INTRODUCTION OF THE MEMBERS OF A GROUP

My family is three: my father, mother, and me. and *The group members are four.*

SPECIFIC VOCABULARY PROBLEMS

1. “Funny” vs. “Fun” or “Interesting.”

I saw a comedy movie last night with my friend. It was very funny time. for “A friend and I saw a movie; it was a fun time.” Similarly, the speaker often means to say “The movie was interesting.”

2. “Power” vs. “Energy”

This food gives me power. when “This food gives me energy.” would be preferable.

3. “Bright”

She makes me bright. for “She gives me energy.”

4. “Grade” vs. “Year”

I’m in third grade. when the speaker is a university student who means

“third year.”

5. General Confusion Between Verbs of Speaking: “Tell,” “Say,” “Talk,” and “Speak”

6. General Confusion Between Verbs of Desire and Anticipation: “Want,” “Hope,” and “Expect”

I want that they are great movie actor forever. for “I hope that they will be great movie actors for a long time.”

I'm expect good time with my mom. for “I’m looking forward to a good time with my mom.” “Expect” could be used in this construction, but I often find that “expect” is used by students when they really mean “anticipate” or “look forward to.”

7. General Confusion Between Verbs of Seeing: “Look,” “See,” and “Watch”

8. Incorrect Use of “Comfortable”

First, you must reservation your ticket to Busan. You can reservate on internet. I think that it is comfortable for you. This sentence, taken from a response to a proficiency exam, illustrates a number of errors, including the substitution of “comfortable” for “convenient.”

9. Incorrect Use of “Sorry to”

I was very sorry to her. for “I felt terrible, and apologized to her.”

10. Confusion of “Loan” and “Borrow”

He loaned it from her. when the context requires “borrowed.”

11. Incorrect Use of the Expression “Do you know X”

When most Korean learners of English use the expression *Do you know X?* “Have you heard of X” or “Do you know what X is?” is really what is required. “Do you know X?” is usually reserved for a personal acquaintance with someone.

CONFUSION OF WORDS WITH -ING AND -ED ENDINGS

I think that she was boring with the movie. for “. . . bored with the movie.”

OVERUSE OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Quite often, these come out as industry-specific acronyms that are used without clarification in general conversation or writing.

INCORRECT USE OF BORROWED ENGLISH EXPRESSIONS.

In the example in this section on the incorrect used of “comfortable”

above, the following sentence was *Then you can ride a train at Seoul Station on d-day*. “D-Day” is incorrectly used here, as this expression in English is not identical to its Korean counterpart, where the expression occurs as a loanword.

USE OF EXPRESSIONS WITHOUT REGARD FOR THE SOCIO-PRAGMATIC REQUIREMENTS OF A SITUATION

One common error here is *I got your email and have understood it well*. In certain situations, this can sound arrogant, overly familiar, or just strange. Another situation concerns the communication of a Korea-centric view of the world when this is inappropriate, as when the word “foreigners” is used in conversation with a non-Korean to describe other people in their native countries. I think this is due to L1 interference.

WRITING

General problems include starting sentences with prepositions, use of sentence fragments (often involving words like “because,” unbalanced by an apodosis clause), lack of proper capitalization, spelling, paragraph structure, improper use of contracted forms from speech (e.g., *wanna*), etc. One interesting error is the overly chatty tone that is often wrongfully employed in academic essays. Other typical problems exist also. In giving little space to this area, it is not my intention to minimize its importance. For many Korean learners of English, written interaction with others in English occurs more frequently in writing than in spoken communication.

CONCLUSION

This catalogue presents most of the most frequently occurring errors made by Korean learners of English that I have observed over the past two years. The pervasiveness of these errors is cause for genuine concern; their presentation and description here, I hope, will stimulate educators to new insights and ways of teaching the English language in order to overcome these problems.

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Grammar in English Writing of Korean ESL Students and English-Speaking Students

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify and examine in what different ways native speakers of Korean (ESL) and native speakers of English write English argumentative compositions regarding error types (grammar). This study involved 46 American students and 46 Korean students who were enrolled in a university in America. The findings from this study suggest that, in general terms, the Korean ESL students showed more errors. The Korean students made article errors most often, and the American students' errors were, to a lesser degree, with prepositions and articles. With the results of this study, some pedagogical suggestions for both ESL/EFL students and the teaching of effective writing to ESL/EFL students have been made.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the growing number of Korean students studying in colleges and universities in the United States and a great deal of research in second language acquisition, ESL writing research on Korean students is still in its beginning stages when compared to other areas such as reading and speaking. An examination of the differences in English essays written by Korean ESL students and those written by American students is necessary to help Korean ESL and EFL students and teachers ascertain ways to achieve their academic goals in the United States. In addition, it can provide helpful guidance to Korean ESL students who are struggling with their academic writing in the United States and in Korea.

The purpose of this study is to identify and examine in what ways native speakers of Korean (ESL) and native speakers of English write English argumentative compositions, and to analyze, via an in-depth text analysis and survey, if and how Korean ESL students have difficulty writing English. By providing information about differences in writing between Korean learners and native speakers, analyses of student texts provide insights to help students achieve their academic goals. In addition, they can provide teachers with more effective teaching strategies, helping them to target students' most frequent and intractable errors (Matsuda et al., 2003).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Even though grammar instruction has recently been assigned a less prominent role in ESL writing classrooms, grammar was often the main curricular focus in ESL writing instruction until the introduction in the 1980s of communicative language teaching. Though the focus on grammar has changed, it seems to be clear that, for writing to be successful in its overall purpose, it must conform to the conventions of English syntax and usage, generally referred to as "grammar." In other words, some degree of focus on form is not only beneficial for ESL learners, but also necessary (Frodesen & Holten, 2003). Grammar is an essential element of second language writing instruction, and the errors found in ESL students' written texts give crucial clues to ESL composition instructors.

Since Corder's error study (1967), it has become more and more evident that errors have a positive value and are more important than correct forms in the teacher's point of view. The learner is viewed not as a producer of deviant, imperfect language full of errors, but as an active participant in the creation of his language through a process of hypothesis formation and testing (Cook, 1978; Corder, 1967). Much emphasis should be laid on ways to help students overcome the errors they make, not on prevention of errors.

Error analysis has derived its impetus and importance from Corder's seminal paper (1967). Error analysis is considered by ESL researchers to be a more developed research paradigm because it deals with real language produced by second language learners. It sees language learners' errors as a developmental process and provides L2 teachers with information for devising the most efficient way to teach the target language. A review of various linguistic factors governing ESL students' written language may provide insights to help teachers and researchers better understand and evaluate student performance (Kim, 1983; Lee, 1995).

METHODOLOGY

A survey questionnaire was distributed to 46 Korean ESL students and 46 American students. The survey contained a variety of questions regarding personal background, educational background, and questions of personal preference or expectation about composition instruction. Basic descriptive statistics such as percentage and frequencies were used for the survey analysis.

The writing samples were collected over a period of three months. For American students, all samples were obtained by the classroom instructors of several subjects. The researcher met with these instructors to explain the administration procedure. Written directions were also provided to insure uniform administration of the data collection (see Appendix A). Students were requested to write on an assigned topic during their regularly scheduled classes (40-50 minutes). Two instructors who have taught ENGL 101 and 102 classes were chosen to evaluate students' texts. Since they have taught writing composition courses for several semesters and are proficient in determining grammatical errors, the only additional training the raters received was on which variables to focus on and how to mark them.

For the written text analyses, in order to compare differences between the Korean students' writings and those of the American students, basic descriptive statistics and regression analysis were run using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a statistical computer program.

CONCLUSION

SURVEY RESULT

When writing in English, the Korean students felt most confident in using agreement and least confident in article usage. On the other hand, the American students felt most confident about -ing/-ed endings and least confident about conjunctions and spelling/capitalization. Korean students considered articles and text organization the most difficult, and conjunctions and text organization the easiest to accomplish in English writing. On the other hand, there was no consensus by the American students with regard to spelling and text organization; spelling and text organization were both the most and the least difficult to accomplish in their English writing (Table 1). The American students revealed that they were more focused on the overall writing process such as getting to the point, getting started, developing ideas and flow, while the Korean students were interested in smaller and more specific factors in English writing: articles, grammar, preposition, and idioms.

Table 1. Students' Confidence Level for Using Grammatical Items

Grammatical Items	Koreans		Americans	
	Most	Least	Most	Least
Articles	4	19	18	16
Prepositions	9	11	15	17
Conjunctions	10	6	14	19
Word choice	4	13	12	15
Agreement	20	1	15	12
Verb tense	14	4	18	13
Single/plural nouns	13	2	16	14
-ing/-ed endings	11	6	20	16
Comma/period	17	5	13	15
Spell/capitalization	18	6	11	19

RESULT OF TEXT ANALYSIS

The result of the passage length analysis showed that, with one exception, both groups showed consistency in the average number of errors in essays. The students who wrote longer essays made more errors and the Korean students who had studied 7 and 8 years in the United States made the most number of errors. This shows that ESL students did not significantly improve their writing ability, in terms of length and grammar, though they had been educated overseas for a longer period.

Overall, the Korean students made more errors than the Americans did.

However, the American students did not seem to have effective command of orthographical usage compared to the Korean students. This is understandable when taking a closer look at the error types in this category, such as commas, periods, misspelling, and capitalization. These errors can be seen as miscellaneous in writing tasks for the American students. Consequently, they usually do not pay attention to these grammatical items, making more errors. A number of specific types of error were distinctive of the Korean students in terms of frequency compared to the American students. They had much difficulty with several areas: articles in syntactic errors, verbs in lexical errors, plural usage in morphological errors, and misspelling in orthographic errors. Among the overall errors, the morphological errors (plural use and tense marking) and syntactic errors (articles and prepositions) appeared more frequently in the Korean students' writings. It is natural in that these grammatical items cannot be mastered by rote memorization or a short period of education, compared to lexical and orthographic errors. Below is the overall result of error analysis (Table 2).

Table 2. Frequency of Errors

Error types	Koreans	Americans
Syntactic errors		
Articles	232	36
Prepositions	107	41
Conjunctions	17	22
Total	356	99
Lexical errors		
Nouns	50	27
Adjectives	29	11
Adverbs	20	12
Verbs	76	28
Total	175	78
Morphological errors		
Subject-verb agreement	40	25
Tense marker	88	34
Plural use	224	43
-ing and -ed form	26	3
Total	378	105
Orthographic errors		
Comma/period	59	134
Misspelling	104	160
Capitalization	40	14
Total	203	308

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among four sub-categories of error types, such as the syntactic, lexical, morphological, and orthographical errors, are reported in Table 3.

Table 3. M, SD, and Intercorrelations for Each Sub-error Type

	Syntactic	Lexical	Morphological	Orthographic
Syntactic	—	.439**	.661**	.082
Lexical		—	.571**	.027
Morphological			—	.078
Orthographic				—
Mean	4.9	2.7	5.2	5.6
SD	4.0	2.5	5.2	4.2

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Unit: number of words.

Syntactic errors were positively related to morphological errors and lexical errors, and lexical errors and morphological errors correlated. Especially, syntactic errors and morphological errors correlated highly with each other (.661), compared to other correlations. The other errors did not show significant correlation to each other. This means that if students made many syntactic errors, they had a tendency to make many lexical and morphological errors, too.

IMPLICATIONS

The identification of errors is significant in three different ways. First, it is indispensable to the learner as a device to further learning. Second, the teacher can address how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and what remains to be learned. Thirdly, this provides the researcher with evidence of how language is learned and what strategies the learner is employing in the discovery of language (Corder, 1967).

The results of the error analysis suggest that students need to devote time to specific areas of English syntax, morphology, and the lexicon in order to help both Korean ESL/EFL students and American students increase their writing competency. Students should be trained to produce correct and basic sentence patterns through extensive and systematic grammatical practice. Students can best learn grammar not by memorizing rules or definitions but by thinking through problems as they arise (Shaughnessy, 1977). Teachers should be aware that the mastery of grammar lies in the direction of generalization rather than memorization. Articles, for instance, can be learned by continuous exposure to sentences with correct article usage. In addition to the grammar practice, Korean ESL students need massive vocabulary training in order to convey their ideas and thoughts effectively in written communication.

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APPENDIX A

Essay Question

Directions:

To the students: Read the paragraph below carefully, and, in writing your composition, imagine trying to persuade your friends to take your opinion.

Write on the paper provided.

You may use scratch paper for preliminary notes.

You have 40 minutes to plan and write.

Write more than 250 words (approximately one double spaced page).

Do not use any dictionary or writing sources. Write by yourself.

To the faculty: There should be no prior discussion of the topic.
If the students do not want to participate, please let them leave the class.

Topic: Read the following statement and write your response.

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?

"Technology has made the world a better place to live."

Use reasons and specific examples to support your opinion.

Enabling Young Learners to Manage Anger: Extending the dangerous animal Metaphor

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ABSTRACT

Strong emotions in cross-cultural English language learning experiences can be perplexing and difficult for young learners to express. Conceptual metaphors for emotion, many of which cross linguistic boundaries, can provide access to this emotional complexity and also provide children with a rational way to examine, express, and control powerful emotions. When this happens, communicative and affective barriers in the language-learning environment are broken down. Empowering young learners to solve their own problems in the classroom and at home rather than depending on adults to take care of them or expressing them through violence is a powerful technique for the English language teacher. Instructors can discard the misconception that strong emotions are beyond the control and influence of young children and are an unavoidable part of teaching young students, and teach even very young children that they are able to have control over their emotions. Research shows young Korean learners of English can acquire emotion metaphor through exposure to authentic children's literature. Building on this idea, teachers can use shared reading to enable young English language learners to acquire anger metaphor in English, and then guide these young learners towards adopting their own personal "dangerous animal" and developing an emotional control model they can put into practice using physical and ultimately internalized control.

INTRODUCTION

The ability to express emotions is important for all learners, but especially those in cross-cultural environments where students are immersed in a new language, such as those found in an English as a Second Language setting in an English-speaking country or an English as a Foreign Language classroom with an instructor who is a native speaker of English.

The complex experience of strong emotions can be perplexing and difficult for children to express. As young as two or three, children begin to understand their own emotions and the situations that trigger different emotional states (Lagattuta, 2005). Emotional development and adjustment, along with academic competencies, are elements of school readiness in young children and an important predictor of early school success (Raver, 2003). The early school years are a time in which children are developing academic as well as social skills, and early peer relationships and social behavior can contribute

or detract from later school adjustment. (Park, 2006; McClelland, Morrison, & Holmes, 2000).

Metaphor can provide conceptual access to emotional complexity and can give learners a rational way to express and examine powerful emotions. Emotion metaphor can be used as a technique to help children reduce the complexity of their emotions and handle them in a more manageable form (Marrero, 2002). A variety of techniques can be used to help learners acquire, use, and manipulate metaphors to understand, express, and control their emotions.

ENABLING LEARNERS TO ACQUIRE ANGER METAPHOR

Parents, teachers, and other adult caregivers should be encouraged to give young learners opportunities to explore, recognize, and verbalize emotions (Sorin, 2003). Raver (2003) suggests methods that teachers can use to instruct young learners in the skills of identifying and labelling feelings and communicating these feelings with others utilizing short amounts of instructional time within the classroom context. Moser's research (2005) showed English language learners as young as five years old can acquire and produce emotion metaphor through the experience of shared reading of authentic children's literature during an English language development or English language arts instructional block.

In the children's literature surveyed and, not coincidentally, children's usage, the conceptual metaphor anger is a dangerous animal occurred with greater frequency than other metaphors for anger. This conceptual metaphor is thought to occur in languages other than English, including Spanish (Soriano, 2003) and Korean (Song, 2004). Because this metaphor is easily acquired by young learners and crosses language and culture barriers (creating the opportunity for positive transfer between English language learners' L1 and English), it is an appropriate tool for teaching the skill of anger management to young English language learners.

However, adults often wish to avoid discussing negative emotions with young children. When surveyed, parents, English teachers, and classroom teachers of English language learners indicated they felt it was more important that children acquired language to express positive emotions including confidence, acceptance, happiness, and love. The absence of negative-valence emotions in their responses may be due to a fear of anger or a fear of a loss of control (Whitehouse, 1996). While caregivers often celebrate and encourage the expression of positive emotions, they encourage children to suppress and change or eliminate their negative emotions (Sorin, 2003). When adults tell children not to experience or show negative emotions, they minimize the children's emotional experience, invalidating the emotions and sending the message that the children's own understandings about their emotions are erroneous.

When learners are enabled with permission and the necessary skills to freely express their true emotions using metaphor or other strategies, they lower their affective filters and are better prepared to learn. Young children may experience a decrease in social capabilities when they are angry or upset

and students who can understand and express their emotions have better social experiences and present fewer discipline problems at school. Moser (2005) presented anecdotal evidence demonstrating this effect. Following exposure to anger metaphor through shared reading of authentic children's literature, two students had an encounter in the school hallway. While disagreeing about who would stand in line next to a mutual friend, one student who had not shown any productive acquisition of emotion metaphor scratched a second student across the face, leaving reddened welts. The second student, who had demonstrated the use of anger metaphor, maintained control over her emotions and was not upset by this negative interaction. The first student was extremely upset, screaming and crying and running away from the teacher. Unable to express her overpowering emotions through language, she resorted instead to physical violence. Students who have alternative and appropriate means for expressing and managing their emotions have more positive and successful educational experiences.

Other research studies conducted over the past 20 years have shown that those children who experience difficulty in paying attention, following directions, getting along with classmates, and controlling their negative emotions like anger and distress do not do as well in school as their peers who have these skills. Raver (2003) and Park (2006) found that students who were aggressive towards, as well as victimized by, their peers in the first grade had higher mental health symptom levels than normal children by the third grade. They also demonstrated lower academic competence and school engagement in the third grade.

Learners who have not yet acquired emotion metaphor also blamed outside influences for their anger. These outside influences were often siblings, teachers, or parents, which learners described using language such as "when they say in *la escuela* (=the school), clean up," and "when my sister say 'gimmie' all my things" (Moser 2005). There may well be negative consequences for the child who identifies other people as their anger triggers. Students who are beginning to develop a metaphor for anger use different figurative outside influences from which they feel safe from censure or negative repercussions. When they express their anger using conceptual metaphors such as anger is a dangerous animal or anger is a natural force, they do not have to fear retaliation from animals or from nature. Students may use metaphor to alleviate threats to their self-esteem resulting from expressions of disapproval from adults or peers (Cameron, 2003). Using this affective function of metaphor, children mediate their expression of anger in a way that is socially acceptable and leads to positive interpersonal relationships. When students have the ability to examine and discuss their emotions metaphorically, they avoid placing blame on themselves or others and can come to see anger as an entity that is within their control.

GUIDING LEARNERS TO ADOPT A DANGEROUS ANIMAL

Sorin (2003) emphasizes the need for parents and caregivers to accept and help children to work through their negative emotions. Sorin (2003) and Whitehouse (1996) both provide suggestions for adults to model appropriate

emotional expression and anger management. Park (2006) calls for the consideration of classroom processes that shape the adjustment of children who are aggressive towards their peers and/or victimized by their peers.

Greif (1993) gives suggestions for adventure therapy practitioners to create a safe environment where people can develop personal metaphors. The activities that create personal metaphors create an atmosphere which is conducive to trust and honest communication. This leads to acceptance and understanding people who can communicate their emotions. When they have the ability to safely share their emotions, personal growth and learning can result.

Greif describes an extension to an activity called "Wish You Were Here," in which photographic postcards of animals can be used. Group members pick an animal that represents their emotions at present and then one that represents the emotions they want to experience at the end of their program.

In classroom practice, students who had participated in Moser's study where they were exposed to emotion metaphor through shared reading of authentic children's literature revisited the topic one year later, between the ages of six and eight. After reviewing the literature through shared and independent reading, the students were asked to choose an animal that shows how they feel when they are angry. The teacher then helped them to choose an appropriate photograph from the Internet, printed it out, and asked the children to write and dictate about the animal they had chosen.

The dangerous animal photographs, students' writing, and posed photographs of the students showing angry facial expressions were then made into a classroom book, which was read and re-read by the class with great enthusiasm. This allowed the students to identify with the dangerous animal they had chosen and learn their peers' personal anger metaphors as well.

Because the students had already shown they had acquired the conceptual metaphor anger is a dangerous animal, they were given the opportunity to innovate in their choice of Vehicle. The emphasis was not on "dead metaphors," or frozen, conventional usages, but on the learners' own expression within the constraints of the conceptual metaphor. In their metaphorical innovations, some students explicitly stated the Topic and the Vehicle: "When I'm angry, I'm a lion." Others stated only the Vehicle: "I'm a wild dog." However, the majority of students explicated some features of the Vehicle: "I use my sharp teeth when I'm angry," and "I howl like a wolf. Ow-hoooo! I eat you! I eat all the people!" All students chose Vehicles that conformed to the domain of dangerous animal and therefore, while innovative, were available to be interpreted by adults and other children who understand the underlying conceptual metaphor.

Permitting students to freely create original metaphors enabled real ownership of the personal anger metaphor, allowed for cultural differences between the learners and the teacher, and gave additional insight into the learners' life experiences. One student chose a wild dog as her dangerous animal and found a photograph she felt was appropriate. While the teacher reserved comment on the student's choice at the time, it was thought that perhaps this Vehicle did not clearly exhibit the features of the dangerous animal domain. The student's choice became clear when the animal photographs were later displayed in the classroom, without any label or other indication

that they were being used to discuss anger. When the student's older brother saw the photograph, he immediately told the teacher that it looked just like his uncle's dog, which had attacked his young cousin at a recent family gathering. By allowing learners complete autonomy in choosing their personal anger metaphor Vehicle, the teacher, who might not actually know what makes particular young learners angry, allowed them to address pertinent issues in their own lives.

Some parents expressed concern that all animals are part of the natural world and are not inherently dangerous. However, the decision was made to let children develop a metaphor for anger using their own experience and judgment. Children's developmental view of their world may differ from adults'. One student chose a shark as his Vehicle: this may indicate not only his understanding of the conceptual metaphor anger is a dangerous animal, but also a preference for a secondary anger metaphor anger is cold over anger is heat or fire. While the literature created by adults for children uses some imaginary or extinct Vehicles, including monsters, dragons, aliens, and dinosaurs, these Vehicles were typically not chosen by children themselves. For them, anger is not imaginary; rather, it is a very real and living thing. Allowing and encouraging children to choose and adopt their own metaphor Vehicle is much more effective than having one assigned to them according to an adult's perception of a dangerous animal.

Winner (1988) explains that the links between Topic and Vehicle domains develop in sequence: Children first make perceptual and sensory connections, then relational and functional connections, and finally physical and psychological connections. In order to process metaphor, children must construct links between the Topic and the Vehicle domains. In developing a metaphor for anger, six- to eight-year-olds chose Vehicles that express the uncontrollable, violent, and destructive features of the Topic.

DEVELOPING A CONTROL MODEL

Adults as well as children can develop the understanding necessary to realize that emotions are inevitable, inalterable, and beyond our influence (Marrero, 2002). Rather than telling young children "Don't be angry!" adult caretakers need to enable them with tools to manage their anger and learn how the uncontrollable can be controlled. Rybski Beaver (1997) describes coping as "the individual's cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage internal and external demands that are judged as a threat or challenge to that person's resources." Rybski Beaver found that 81% of the coping strategies used by elementary-school students involved problem-solving, or changing the situation by altering one's self or the environment, while only 19% of the children's coping skills incorporated emotion management. The environmentally-focused coping strategies were more frequently used in situations involving anger than those with other emotions like fear or sadness. A metaphorical control model is one skill young learners can use to balance the demands of appropriate classroom behavior with the instinct of self-preservation when students are faced with a frustrating or threatening situation.

As learners increase the sophistication of their knowledge of the domain

of the Vehicle dangerous animal, this understanding can be extended to the Topic anger. When children see their anger as a dangerous animal, and then learn that this animal can in fact be controlled and is not necessarily dangerous, they can extend this understanding to their own emotional states as well. This domain knowledge development can be facilitated through educational activities, media exposure, and personal experience.

After students adopted their own dangerous animal and reinforced their personal anger metaphor through the use of their classroom book, the next step was to introduce a control model. Cut-outs of the photographs of dangerous animals chosen by the students were mounted on foam board for durability, attached to magnets and placed in a corner of the classroom whiteboard. A simple paper “cage” was displayed as well. (With the objective of making the metaphor more tactile for the learners, a model using a wire cage and small stuffed animals was considered. However, the stuffed animals available were too cute and not at all dangerous in their appearance, so instead a two-dimensional model was adopted.) When students began to show anger in class, the teacher intervened and instructed them to put their dangerous animal in the cage.

The use of metaphor mediates values and attitudes (Cameron, 2003). Rather than the teacher taking the lead in discussing and judging or evaluating the place and appropriateness of anger in an educational setting, a positive non-personal suggestion or command to control the external force invading the security of the language-learning classroom can be invoked. By asking the student to put the dangerous animal in the cage, the teacher can avoid threatening the student’s face. When used in this way, metaphor has a distancing effect and makes the conflict that triggered the anger seem less personal. The use of metaphor implies that the problem of anger in the classroom does not come directly from the students themselves, but rather from an external force. This affective use of metaphor maintains the learners’ dignity and integrity, lowering their affective filters, maintaining the language learning classroom as a safe environment, and keeping learners receptive to language input.

PRACTICING USING PHYSICAL AND INTERNALIZED CONTROL

In classroom practice, the cage model was placed away from the usual center of activity; when students went to put their dangerous animal in the cage, they also had to physically remove themselves from the situation that triggered their anger. Students soon learned to identify their own feelings of anger and put their dangerous animal in the cage independently or with a reminder from a peer, rather than with prompting from the teacher. Through this, we can see a shift from a teacher-centered, dictatorial classroom where emotions are controlled through fear to a student-centered, self-directed learning environment where students take responsibility for their own emotions. The adult relinquishes control over the child’s emotions and encourages autonomy in emotional regulation, leading to autonomy in learning and social interactions.

When the teacher models the use of anger metaphor in the classroom,

two-way communication of negative emotions can occur. Raver describes interventions that parents and other adults can use to reduce the use of strict and severe discipline and classroom management practices when the adults themselves experience anger (Raver, 2003). In actual classroom practice, the students eventually learned to cue their teacher to put her dangerous animal in the cage when she began to show anger in the classroom. Due to the teacher's practice of the technique she wished for the students to acquire, the students learned that not only their own anger but also that of people around them can be examined, discussed and controlled in a non-threatening manner using metaphor.

Over time, the students began to show signs of avoidance towards the act of putting their dangerous animals in the cage. When prompted by their teacher or peers, they indicated that they had their emotions under control and did not need to cage their dangerous animals. This is the beginning of the internalization of emotional control; while they are still using the metaphor, they are breaking away from the physical representation of their anger and instead using language for emotional mediation.

Children learn to explore their emotions independently and develop a better understanding of the situation, and then suitable means for expressing their negative-valence emotions (Sorin, 2003). When learners internalize metaphorical control over their anger, they are learning a strategy they can use outside the classroom, where they lack access to the physical dangerous animal model and an adult is not available to help mediate their strong emotions or protect them. While this emotional control is essential in the language-learning situation of the classroom, it is a transferable skill, which is also useful in a Korean or Spanish L1 environment where the metaphor is also applicable. In this way, the English language teacher is also connecting with and validating the home culture.

CONCLUSION

Control over negative emotions in an educational setting is an important skill for young learners to acquire, especially as they navigate the cross-cultural experience of second language learning. Through the experience of shared reading, even very young English learners can acquire metaphorical language to use to express negative emotions in a non-threatening way, eliminating the need to blame others, or use violence to communicate their feelings.

By helping learners to develop and adopt their own personal metaphor for anger, and then extending that metaphor through the concept of control, English language teachers can enable students with powerful tools for understanding, expressing, and controlling their emotions in socially acceptable ways.

Future investigations might explore the use of an emotional post-mortem, where teachers and students take an opportunity at the end of class to take their dangerous animals back out of the cage and examine what triggered their anger in the first place and possible resolutions. Reliable measurements of social interactions before and after emotion metaphor development could

give quantitative support to this technique. Park (2006) uses the MacArthur Health and Behavior Questionnaire, the Berkeley Puppet Interview, and the Teacher Rating of School and Social Adjustment for similar purposes. Other negative emotions that can adversely or negatively affect the learning environment (as suggested in Kort, Reilly, and Picard, 2001) can also be submitted to a metaphorical treatment.

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SELECTED CHILDREN'S LITERATURE RELATED TO THE METAPHOR ANGER IS A DANGEROUS ANIMAL

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Examining Korean University Students' Expectations of Native-Speaker English Teachers

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ABSTRACT

The study examined how Korean college students in an English classroom expected their native speaker English teachers to be. A sample of 386 students was administered a Teacher Expectation Scale (TES). The questionnaire included 25 items in three dimensions: qualifications, personality, and appearance. Students in all four years of school and studying a variety of majors at four universities in Choongnam province were asked to rank the importance of each item. Collected data was subjected to descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients, t-test, and ANOVA to address the research questions. The results of the study showed the same expectations regardless of the students' demographic background. Teachers' personality was determined to be the most important, closely followed by qualifications. Appearance was always ranked the lowest. Although the ranking of three dimensions was the same, statistically significant differences were found between schools, majors, ages, gender, and year in school. The differences were then analysed and discussed. An open-ended follow-up question was also included in order to verify the results from the statistical analyses. Suggestions were made for utilizing the findings and improving the quality of English education at universities across Korea.

INTRODUCTION

Native Speaker (NS) English instructors in South Korea face a number of hurdles before they can be successful in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. Not only must they be well versed in current teaching methodologies but they must understand how to apply them in the classroom. Additionally NS English teachers must understand what attributes Korean university students value in their NS English instructors and what factors motivate Korean university students to participate actively in language classes.

What is a teacher's job? Pollock (2003) wrote that teachers are responsible for facilitating, counselling, and motivating in addition to teaching. Helping students learn the curriculum is often secondary to helping them learn about life. In the same vein, Park (1999) stated that the goals of teaching English in Korea are to help students 1) acquire the four language skills in English, 2) appreciate Korean culture through the understanding of English speaking cultures and 3) understand the global society. Teaching culture also has value and should be taught hand-in-hand with the curriculum. Brown

(2000) believed that teachers must understand how learners learn and then create a learning environment that best suits the students' needs. Relationship building is paramount to successful teaching and will guide the instructor in creating a suitable learning environment.

A teacher might feel that possessing a teaching certificate or having ten years of classroom experience in their home country makes them eminently qualified to teach English in South Korea, but that is not necessarily the case. If the teacher's expectations for the class do not match well with the students' expectations, serious problems can arise. Research has shown that differences in culture can cause students to harbor negative feelings towards their foreign instructors (Ryan, 1998; Li, 2004). Differences in culture are also one of the factors that cause differences in expectations. Korean students have had Confucian traditions ingrained in them from childhood. These traditions affect the way that they approach education and their relationships with their teachers and classmates (Ho, Peng, & Chan study; as cited in Han, n.d.). Therefore, some knowledge of Korean culture and language can help a Western NS English teacher be more successful in the language classroom in a Korean school (Cronin, 1995). Since Korean students generally expect teacher-centered lessons (Lacina, 2001), a successful Western NS English instructor should explain to the students that the next exercise might be strange or uncomfortable for them before attempting group work or a class discussion. Explaining the rationale behind certain lessons will reduce the level of discomfort that activities, such as debating or making a presentation to the class in the second or foreign language (L2), cause students who aren't used to active classes that they are expected to participate in.

Hadley and Evans (2001) found that Japanese students' expectations were very different from their teachers'. These differences can affect student motivation, not only in the classroom but to continue studying the language (Shimizu study; as cited in Hadley & Evans, 2001). Differences in culture can turn subtle stylistic differences into points of contention. Differences between teaching styles and learning styles can actually keep students from succeeding in the language classroom (Oxford & Lavine, 1992). NS English instructors must take their students' expectations and learning styles into consideration in order to be successful as language instructors. Understanding that what works in one learning environment might not work in another is the first step toward success in the EFL classroom. By attempting to understand students' expectations for NS English teachers, the teachers have a better chance of meeting their students' expectations.

In Korean high schools, students are motivated to study English because English makes up a large part of the university entrance exam. What motivates them to continue studying English at the university level? Researchers recommended motivating university students through classroom activities that make them more comfortable (Lim, 2003; Norris-Holt, 2001; Niederhauser, 1997). Good teachers find out what makes their students comfortable. Motivation is essential for learning to take place. However, motivational factors can be as diverse as students' individual learning styles. English majors or students who plan to use English for their job or life after university might have made their goal to master the language and will be motivated intrinsically. Students who don't plan to use English in a practical capacity

after university will only be interested in their grade and will be motivated extrinsically. Regardless of the type of motivation, what is constant is the need for motivation to exist in the students in some form and be fostered by the teacher. By understanding our students and their individual needs and expectations, teachers can do a better job of motivating them to participate and develop in the language classroom.

Reasons have been discussed for why a NS English instructor may succeed or fail in a Korean university English classroom. However, one of the most under-researched areas is Korean university students' specific expectations for their NS English instructors. This study was designed to examine Korean university students' opinions regarding what factors are most important in a good NS English teacher. Three specific factors: a teacher's personality, qualifications, and appearance were examined in order to determine how best to reach across the cultural divide and motivate Korean learners. Based on the research outcomes, the study offers some practical suggestions for teaching English in the South Korean tertiary education system.

The following research questions formed the basis for this study.

1. What do Korean university students feel is most important in a good NS English instructor: qualifications, appearance or personality?
2. What do Korean university students feel is least important in a good NS English instructor: qualifications, appearance or personality?
3. What differences exist between Korean university students' preferences in relation to their demographic information (gender, school, major, and year in school)?

RESEARCH DESIGN

PARTICIPANTS

The subjects of the study were four hundred and two Korean university students who have studied or are currently studying English with NS English instructors at the university level. Undergraduate students from four universities in Choongnam province, 386 in total, took part in the study. Thirty-two students omitted at least one survey item and the mean score of each omitted item was inserted in order to validate their surveys. Of the 386 valid participants, 235 (61%) came from Private University 1. Thirty-seven (9%) came from Private School 2. The National University had 61 participants (16%) and the Education University had 53 participants (14%). Table 1 shows the distribution of participants based on their school, gender, major and year in school.

Table 1. A Description of the Research Participants' Demographic Information

School	Gender		Major				Year in School			
	M	F	Tech.	Lib.	Ed.	Eng.	1	2	3	4
Private 1	140	95	121	59	0	55	23	145	46	21
Private 2	21	16	0	6	0	31	0	29	4	4

National	30	31	41	18	0	2	54	2	3	2
Education	16	37	1	0	51	1	1	52	0	0
Total	207	179	163	83	51	89	78	228	53	27

M=Males, F=Females, Tech.=Technical, Lib.=Liberal Arts, Ed.=Education, Eng.=English

INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

A survey (see Appendix B) which consisted of twenty-five items which described aspects of a NS English instructor was also administered. Subjects rated the importance of each item on a 7-point Likert scale with one being not important at all and seven being critical. An open-ended follow-up question requesting additional items that were important to the participants was also included to validate the survey items. One hundred eighty six participants (48%) answered the optional follow-up question. Both the information page and the survey were administered in Korean to ensure students understood the survey items (see Appendices C & D). The survey that was administered consisted of a demographic information page (see Appendix A) which asked the participants' age, gender, school, year in school, major, number of years they had students with a NS English instructor, and whether or not they had a NS instructor in high and in middle school.

For the purpose of simplification, majors were divided into four categories: technical, liberal arts, education and English. Technical majors included computer science, Internet commerce, business, engineering, medicine, and science. Liberal arts majors included music, history, religion, tourism, and social studies.

DATA ANALYSIS

For an analysis of the data, descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients, t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) including Tukey's test were used. Reliability for all 25 survey items and all participants was .85. Factors were combined into three categories: qualifications, appearance and personality, which will be referred to as QUAL, APP, and PERS. QUAL consists of questions 1-11 and 24-25. APP consists of questions 16-18. PERS consists of questions 12-15 and 19-23. The reliability coefficients for QUAL, APP, and PERS were .76, .73, and .83 respectively. The relatively high alphas indicate that the participants' feelings regarding what they consider important in an NS English instructor are quite consistent.

RESULTS

Results of the survey will be described and the responses to the open-ended follow-up question will also be discussed. The results are separated based on the research questions.

What do Korean university students feel is most important in a good NS English instructor: qualifications, appearance, or personality?

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for QUAL, APP, and PERS

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
QUAL	5.02	.75	2
APP	3.46	1.34	3
PERS	5.47	.88	1

Table 2 shows that for all Korean university students surveyed, the PERS factor was the most important in determining a good NS English instructor. All four schools ranked the PERS factors highest, followed by QUAL.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Each Survey Item

Description	Mean	SD	Rank
1. Plans every minute of class	5.96	1.21	2
2. Uses a variety of activities	5.56	1.42	9
3. Doesn't hesitate or say "ummm"	3.55	1.82	23
4. Explains things clearly	5.95	1.23	3
5. Answers questions immediately	5.31	1.43	14
6. Answers questions with confidence	5.79	1.32	5
7. Is an expert in his/her field	5.64	1.44	8
8. Has a Masters degree	3.82	1.71	21
9. Has a PhD	3.64	1.61	22
10. Has more than five years of experience	4.67	1.52	17
11. Has more than ten years of experience	4.34	1.61	20
12. Speaks to students in a friendly manner	6.26	1.06	1
13. Chats with students before or after class	5.48	1.40	11
14. Talk to students outside of class	5.24	1.46	15
15. Smiles often	5.75	1.34	6
16. Dresses neatly	4.56	1.65	18
17. Is handsome/pretty	3.35	1.73	24
18. Wears a suit/dress	2.48	1.60	25
19. Makes the students laugh	5.39	1.46	13
20. Entertains the class	5.89	1.14	4
21 Has a lot of energy	5.70	1.31	7
22. Moves around a lot	4.51	1.55	19
23. Uses big gestures	5.04	1.46	16
24. Gives prompt feedback on assignments	5.44	1.30	12
25. Corrects mistakes in a non-threatening manner	5.54	1.57	10

Rankings were also tabulated based on the mean scores for each item as displayed in Table 3. Two of the five highest means and six of the ten highest means were personality-related items. No personality-related items were in the lowest five means. Qualification-related items made up three of the five highest but also three of the lowest five. Item 12 "A good teacher speaks to students in a friendly manner" had the highest mean score and was the only mean above six. How a teacher interacts with the class (Item 12) and makes him/herself available to the students (Items 13 & 14) ranked higher than the teacher's academic achievements (Items 8 & 9) or even experience in the classroom (Items 10 & 11).

In addition, the most common response to the open-ended follow-up question describing a good NS English teacher was "is kind, friendly, cares about students." Other answers included: understands about Korean culture, will teach about their own culture, should recognize and pay attention to students' different English speaking ability levels in their classes, is patient and will not give up when trying to explain something to the students, has good pronunciation/is easy to understand, makes the students comfortable or relaxed, and is witty or funny. The majority of open-ended responses dealt with a NS English teacher's personality.

What do Korean university students feel is least important in a good NS English instructor: qualifications, appearance, or personality?

Table 2 showed that Appearance-related items (Q16-18) were dramatically less important than qualifications and personality. Table 3 shows that the APP group had two of its three items in the bottom five. Out of all twenty-five items, Item 18 "A good teacher always wears a suit/dress" was the only item with an average below three. The highest ranking Appearance item, number 16 "A good teacher dressed neatly," was ranked 18 out of 25 with a mean score of only 4.56, demonstrating that teachers are expected to dress appropriately.

The low mean and rank for Q17 speaks to Korean university students' casual attitude towards the way their teachers look. This comes as a surprise considering the number of comments teachers hear regarding their appearance or the appearance of other foreign teachers. Teachers who are often compared to Western movie stars and singers will likely be surprised that their supposed resemblance is not what causes them to be or not to be a good teacher in the minds of their students.

What significant differences exist between Korean university students' preferences in relation to their background information (gender, school, major, and year in school)?

Based on the QUAL, APP, and PERS factors, significant differences were noted between schools, majors, ages, genders, and years in school.

SCHOOL**Table 4A. Descriptive Statistics for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' School**

School	QUAL		APP		PERS	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	5.08	.76	3.74	1.41	5.60	.90
2	5.16	.71	3.19	1.19	5.38	.70
3	4.77	.70	2.63	.96	5.36	.70
4	5.03	.77	3.49	1.03	5.13	.96

Table 4B. ANOVA for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' School

	F	Significance
QUAL	4.874	.002
APP	13.972	.000
PERS	4.455	.004

Analysis of the Tukey's test revealed that the importance of a teacher's qualifications (QUAL) was significantly different between Private University 1 and the National University (=.002) as well as between Private University 2 and the National University (=.018). Significant differences regarding appearance (APP) existed between Private University 1 and the National University (=.000) and the National and Education Universities (=.001). Significant differences regarding the importance of a teacher's personality (PERS) existed between Private University 1 and the Education University (=.003).

Overall, the four school ranked the items virtually identically. Every school's results had Items 1, 4, 6, and 12 in the top six mean scores and Items 3, 9, 17, and 18 in the bottom six means.

MAJOR**Table 5A. Descriptive Statistics for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' Major**

Major	QUAL		APP		PERS	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Technical	4.99	.76	3.47	1.46	5.68	.79
Liberal Arts	4.91	.77	3.65	1.39	5.52	.91
Education	5.02	.78	3.48	1.02	5.10	.94
English	5.14	.73	3.29	1.24	5.29	.87

Table 5B. ANOVA for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' Major

	F	P
QUAL	1.298	.275
APP	1.1018	.384
PERS	7.698	.000

Comparing majors, significant differences were found between Technical majors and Education majors (=.000) as well as between Technical majors and English majors (=.003) regarding the importance of a teacher's personality.

AGE

Based on age, a significant difference (=.037) in the importance of a NS English teacher's appearance was detected. 20-year-old students (M=3.15) felt that a teacher's appearance was less important than 21-year-old students (M=3.78).

GENDER

Table 6. Independent t-test Based on Gender

Gender	t	P
QUAL	.008	.994
APP	-.204	.837
PERS	2.887	.004

Based on gender, the QUAL and APP factors were virtually identical and there were no significant differences. However the PERS factor was significantly different, with means of 5.60 for males and 5.34 for females and an alpha of .004. Inexplicably, males rated all nine PERS items higher than females.

YEAR IN SCHOOL

Table 7A. Descriptive Statistics for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' Year in School

School	QUAL		APP		PERS	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Freshman	4.76	.75	2.92	1.30	5.47	.85
Sophomore	5.08	.75	3.68	1.35	5.53	.89
Junior	5.12	.74	3.29	1.20	5.39	.89
Senior	5.02	.83	3.63	1.24	5.23	.79

Table 7B. ANOVA for QUAL, APP, and PERS Based on Students' Year in School

	F	P
QUAL	3.672	.012
APP	6.899	.000
PERS	1.171	.320

Based on students' year in school, significant differences existed based on the QUAL and APP factors as shown in Table 7B. Regarding qualifications, the differences were significant between freshmen and sophomores ($=.009$) as well as freshmen and juniors ($=.042$). Based on the importance of appearance, significant differences occurred when comparing freshmen and sophomores ($=.000$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has demonstrated that Korean university students feel that personality is the most important factor in determining a good NS English teacher. This was true across schools, majors and class (year in school). While some significant differences existed regarding students' preferences, NS English teachers' personalities and qualifications were considered to be a great deal more important than their appearance.

The differences between the private universities and the national university regarding qualifications can be explained by the high number of freshmen surveyed from the national university. Freshmen ranked the importance of a teacher's qualifications lower than sophomores, juniors, and seniors. Freshmen also ranked appearance (APP) lower than the other classes. The education university's participants were over 95% education majors. Education majors ranked personality-related items much lower than the other majors which accounts for the difference in mean scores. Note that education majors and English majors also rated the importance of qualifications higher than technical majors. Students who are studying education or English expect their English teacher to be more qualified and professional since the subject is relevant to their majors. Students with technical majors want to have more fun and thereby prefer a teacher with a more engaging personality.

The difference between 20- and 21-year-old students mirrors the differences observed between freshmen and sophomores' opinions regarding appearance. Freshmen rated all three APP factors significantly lower than sophomores. Freshmen gave lower scores to both QUAL and APP factors than the other three classes. They appeared to have reserved higher scores for PERS factors.

The results aren't surprising if one considers the Korean education system. Secondary schools in Korea are very formal and students are often at school until late at night as well as on weekends. They endure a rigid curriculum, the goal of which is to maximize their test scores to enter university. Once the students have entered university, the pressure to study hard is re-

duced and the students' expectations for their university experience are focused more on social activities and less on tests. Students who feel like they need English proficiency to succeed after university will still demand that their NS English teacher have appropriate qualifications but as the research has shown, being friendly is even more important.

Based on the research results, the researcher recommends the following in order to improve university English classes in Korea taught by NS English teachers:

Understand students' expectations. Conduct a needs analysis.

Surveys such as the one used for this research should be administered to determine what students expect from their NS English teachers. Different schools, majors, year in school create significant differences in the expectations of the students. Knowing who your students are and what they expect will help build rapport between teacher and students.

Don't hire teachers based solely on their resumes.

Require face-to-face interviews to judge a prospective NS English teacher's personality. If sample lessons are used during the interview process, have students sit in and watch how they respond to the teacher. Qualifications are important but teachers who genuinely enjoy forming relationships with their students are the most likely to be successful in the classroom. School administrators who hire teachers based on expectations that are dramatically different from that school's students' expectations are setting up the new teacher to fail.

Let students know who you are and where you are coming from.

Successful EFL teachers enjoy a positive relationship with their students. They show an interest in who the students are as individuals and share their experiences with their students. By forming relationships and showing students that their teachers care about them, what is accomplished in the classroom goes beyond teaching English grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

By explaining the purposes of certain lessons and teaching methods, teachers gain students' trust and improve their relationship with students. McKenna (1999) advocates bringing items from your personal life and native country to class to help students get to know you better.

Understand that students' expectations for NS English teachers are not necessarily the same as for their Korean English teachers.

Students don't always expect their NS English teachers to behave the same way that their Korean teachers do. Differences in teaching style, dress code, and expectations regarding the teacher-student relationship may exist in Korean university students' minds. We are, after all, from different cultures.

By understanding Korean university students' expectations, NS English teachers can take steps to focus on what is most important to them. This in-

creases the students' motivation and enables the NS English teachers to meet and exceed their students' expectations. While a background in teaching methodologies and practical classroom experience is important, the way a teacher interacts with the students as a class and individually is vital.

The limitations of this study include: unequal sample sizes (gender, school, year), some confusion regarding how to correctly fill out certain sections of the survey, as well as geographical and cultural limitations. Ideally, all four schools would have had an even number of participants with an even number of majors, genders, and years in school. Some students checked the first line of the survey which said "A good teacher is . . ." and that error may have caused the remaining answers to have been one line off. However the high alpha for the 25 survey items makes that unlikely. Finally, the scope of this research was limited to Choongnam province. Therefore, assumptions stemming from this research cannot be made for all Korean students. Likewise, the focus on Korean students means that all non-Korean ESL learners are excluded from the findings of this research.

The following are recommendations for future research studies in order to learn more about Korean university students' expectations:

1. Studies conducted on a national scale covering more of the Korean provinces.
2. Studies conducted exploring the differences in students' expectations between their NS and Korean English teachers.
3. Studies examining differences between students' expectations and school administrators' expectations regarding NS English teachers.

Learning more about students' expectations will allow teachers to better motivate our own students in future classes.

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APPENDIX A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION PAGE OF SURVEY

Age:

Year in university:

Gender:

Major:

University:

APPENDIX B. SURVEY QUESTIONS

How many years have you studied with a native speaker English teacher?

Did you have a native speaker English teacher in middle school?

Did you have a native speaker English teacher in high school?

Research Items

1-7 Scale Not important - Critical

For native speaker English teachers

Topic 1 Planning /Preparation

1. A good teacher has every minute of class planned.
2. A good teacher uses a variety of activities to help students learn the material.
3. A good teacher doesn't hesitate or say "ummm" and "uhhh".

Topic 2 Ability to explain

4. A good teacher explains things very clearly.
5. A good teacher answers questions immediately.
6. A good teacher answers questions with confidence.

Topic 3 Overall knowledge of topic/Qualifications

7. A good teacher is an expert in his/her field.
8. A good teacher has a Masters degree
9. A good teacher has a PhD.
10. A good teacher has more than five years of experience.
11. A good teacher has more than ten years of experience.

Topic 4 Friendliness/Smile

12. A good teacher speaks to students in a friendly manner.
13. A good teacher makes time before or after class to chat with students.

14. A good teacher stops to talk with students if they meet outside of class.
15. A good teacher smiles often.

Topic 5 Appearance

16. A good teacher dresses neatly.
17. A good teacher is handsome/pretty.
18. A good teacher always wears a suit/dress.

Topic 6 Sense of humor

19. A good teacher makes the students laugh.
20. A good teacher entertains the class.

Topic 7 Liveliness/Energy level

21. A good teacher has a lot of energy.
22. A good teacher moves around a lot.
23. A good teacher uses big gestures.

Topic 8 Error Correction/Feedback

24. A good teacher gives prompt feedback on assignments.
25. A good teacher corrects my mistakes in a non-threatening manner.

Are there any other factors that would make a good teacher in your opinion?

APPENDICES C AND D. ACTUAL SURVEY IN KOREAN

- 나이 :
- 학년 :
- 성별 :
- 전공 :
- 학교 명 :
- 위국인 영어 교사(교수)에게 영어 수업을 받은 기간은 얼마나 됩니까? _____
- 나는 중학교에서 한국인 영어 선생님에게 수업을 받았다. 예 / 아니요
- 나는 고등학교에서 한국인 영어 선생님에게 수업을 받았다. 예 /아니요

- 설문에 답해주셔서 감사합니다-

설문지

본 설문은 영어를 공부하는 대학생들의 영어교사 또는 교수(위국인) 선호도를 알아보기 위한 것입니다. 아래 각각의 문항에 전혀 중요하지 않다고 생각하는 부분1에서부터 매우 중요하다고 생각하는 부분7까지를 본인의 생각에 따라 체크해 주시기 바랍니다.

질문내용	전혀 중요치 않다	1	2	3	4	5	6	매우 중요 하다
좋은 영어 선생님은								
1. 항상 수업을 계획한다.								
2. 학생들의 이해를 돕기 위해 다양한 교실활동을 사용한다.								
3. 수업을 진행하는 동안 '흠-' 또는 '어-'라고 말하지 않는다.								
4. 설명을 명쾌하게 해준다.								
5. 질문에 즉각 대답한다.								
6. 질문에 자신감 있게 대답한다.								
7. 자신의 분야에 관하여 전문가 이다.								
8. 석사학위가 있다.								
9. 박사학위가 있다.								
10. 5년 이상의 교육경력이 있다.								
11. 10년 이상의 교육경력이 있다.								
12. 학생들에게 친절하게 대한다.								
13. 수업 전 또는 후에 학생들과 이야기 하는 시간을 마련한다.								
14. 교실 밖에서 만났을 때 잠시 멈춰 서서 이야기 한다.								
15. 자주 미소 짓는다.								
16. 깔끔하게 옷을 입는다.								
17. 외모가 잘 생겼다/예쁘다.								
18. 항상 정장을 한다.								
19. 학생들을 재미있게 한다.								
20. 수업을 재미있게 한다.								
21. 에너지가 풍부하다.								
22. 수업시간에 교실 안을 많이 돌아다닌다.								
23. 제스처를 많이 사용한다.								
24. 즉각적인 피드백을 제공한다.								
25. 위협적인 방법으로 학생들의 실수를 지적하지 않는다.								

♦ 이밖에 좋은 원어민 영어 교수가 꼭 갖추어야 할 조건은 무엇이라고 생각하십니까?

Curriculum & Materials Development

Reading in the Content Areas

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ABSTRACT

In schools worldwide, English language instruction is increasingly focusing on academic content in order to prepare learners for higher education in English, education abroad, and for participation in the global economy. Successful professionals in business, scientific, and technical fields need to be able to access information in their fields in English. Even in lower grades, content matter learning is increasingly used as a means for acquisition of English. In English-speaking countries, especially those with high levels of immigration, schools need to mainstream English language learners as quickly as possible, so teachers in these schools adapt grade-level content to meet English language learners' special needs. Yet teachers and learners continue to struggle with content-matter subjects. This paper examines reasons learners find reading in content matter subjects difficult and identifies specific techniques to help English language learners develop strong reading skills in their new language in all content areas, including math, science, and social sciences, using a science lesson as an example. A model lesson plan will provide a generic lesson plan template as well as specific activities for each part of the lesson. Teaching activities include using hands-on demonstrations, activating background knowledge, preloading content and general academic vocabulary, and using graphic organizers. Teachers can use both the lesson plan template and suggested activities to design instruction to help learners improve their reading skills in key content areas.

INTRODUCTION

Learning to read in a new language is a challenging process. Learners grapple with decoding text, understanding unfamiliar vocabulary, and understanding the meaning of sentences, paragraphs, and complete texts. In EFL settings, content-matter learning has advantages of preparing learners for studies in future college majors in English at home and abroad. In addition, content-matter learning can give learners valuable language skills and content knowledge that will be of assistance in the global economy as they interact with customers, suppliers, and colleagues in English. Even in lower grades, content matter learning is increasingly used in EFL settings as a means of acquiring English. In English as a second language (ESL) settings, especially in countries with high levels of immigration, content-matter learning prepares K-12 learners for smooth transitions from special services for language learn-

ers (ESL and bilingual education) to mainstream classrooms. Instructional models such as SIOP (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004) and CALLA (Uhl Chamot, & O'Malley, 1996) outline research-based methods for teaching content to language learners. Studies such as Reiss (2005) and Fathman and Crowther (2006) offer specific advice to teachers on teaching content matter to language learners. These studies all address the content matter instruction comprehensively, and focus on all four language skills. The purpose of this paper is to offer solutions to the special challenges of teaching reading skills in the content areas.

Reading in the content areas is challenging to learners because of the difficult content, the heavy concept load, the unusual and specialized vocabulary found in many academic subjects, and the sophisticated reading skills required to comprehend academic text (such as distinguishing main idea and details, comparing and contrasting, making inferences and drawing conclusions, and so on). To help learners develop the skills necessary for reading in the content areas, teachers need to dedicate time and energy to intensive reading instruction (in which teachers provide skill-based instruction to learners) in academic content areas. This paper aims to help teachers develop learners' ability to read text in academic content areas (including math, science, and social sciences) by providing a template lesson plan and specific teaching techniques for each part of an intensive reading lesson.

INTENSIVE READING

Intensive reading is teacher-led, skill-based instruction in reading comprehension. Studies such as Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2004), Fathman and Crowther (2006), Carr, Sexton, and Lagunoff (2006), Crowther, Robinson, and Edmondson (in press), and Douglas, Klentschy, Watts, and Binder (2006) recommend a number of techniques for scaffolding academic content for language learners. These techniques include:

- Building on students' prior knowledge.
- Using hands-on inquiry and activities.
- Introducing key vocabulary in context.
- Providing scaffolding for learning complex content and vocabulary.
- Developing key content concepts.
- Building knowledge based upon big ideas.
- Using cooperative groups.
- Integrating content and language instruction.
- Developing students' graphic literacy, vocabulary skills, and academic vocabulary.
- Using a variety of techniques to check comprehension, including verbal and nonverbal tasks.
- Incorporating reading, writing, listening, speaking and critical thinking into every lesson.

These scaffolding techniques can easily be integrated into a lesson format with distinct prereading (preparing to read), reading (reading the text), and

postreading phases (follow-on activities, including comprehension checks, extension activities, projects, and more). Table 1 shows how scaffolding techniques can be integrated into the prereading, reading, and postreading phases of an intensive reading lesson.

Table 1. Phases of a Reading Lesson and Scaffolding Techniques

PHASE	SCAFFOLDING TECHNIQUES
Prereading	Building on students' background knowledge (pictures, discussion, demonstrations, and hands-on inquiry). Preloading content vocabulary. Preloading academic vocabulary. Developing vocabulary skills (prefixes and suffixes, word origins, etc.). Developing reading comprehension skills (e.g., making inferences, drawing conclusions, distinguishing fact and opinion, etc.). Developing students' graphic literacy skills.
Reading	Developing reading fluency. Using read-alongs (questions interspersed in the text to ensure comprehension).
Postreading	Checking comprehension (verbal and nonverbal). Extension activities and projects. Independent or guided inquiry and research.

The following three sections will discuss in detail each of these phases and the activities in them, using as an illustration a hypothetical reading on the composition of Earth's atmosphere that students might encounter in a textbook or a magazine article.

PREREADING

The purpose of prereading is preparing students to read. These preparations should include both activating background knowledge, prior learning, and known vocabulary, as well as preteaching key new vocabulary. When reading, whether in the first or second language, readers use their background knowledge to help them understand the new information in the text. Reading becomes exponentially easier the more the reader already knows about the topic. Yet, readers, especially when reading in a new language, may not recall background knowledge, nor may all learners in the class have the same background knowledge. Activating background knowledge ensures that everyone in class has the same knowledge about the reading topic and that this knowledge is forefront in their minds as they begin reading.

There are many ways to activate learners' background knowledge. One way is photos. In the case of the hypothetical reading on the composition of the atmosphere, the teacher might show photographs of the sky or sources of air pollution, such as a chimney releasing smoke, and ask students to talk about what they see. Another technique is guided elicitation, which involves asking questions such as, "What is air? What is air made of?" Another good way to activate background knowledge is with a hands-on activity. In science, carrying out simple experiments can build interest, activate background knowledge, and clarify vocabulary. For example, in the case of the atmos-

phere reading, the teacher might bring in a glass, a saucer, and a candle and have students speculate about what will happen if the empty, overturned glass is placed over the lit candle on the saucer. Students would learn or review key vocabulary, such as *gas*, *oxygen*, *carbon dioxide*, and so on, while activating background knowledge about gases in the atmosphere, the properties of the gases, and more. In this kind of hands-on activity, students also gain experience with related science concepts and practices, such as hypothesizing, testing hypotheses, and drawing conclusions from experimental data. The benefits of using inquiry-based approaches, as well as effective methods for using them with language learners, are discussed in sources such as Fathman and Crowther (2006), Crowther, Robinson, and Edmondson (in press), and Amaral (2002).

Two kinds of vocabulary need to be developed when dealing with content-based reading: content-specific vocabulary and academic vocabulary. The difference between these kinds of words is often compared to “bricks” and “mortar.” Content words are words that are specific to the subject matter or topic. In a reading on the composition of the atmosphere, the brick words are lexical items that refer to the actual components of the atmosphere, such as *gas*, *carbon dioxide*, *oxygen*, *trace gases*, and *water vapor*. Mortar words are lexical items that are used join the content words together in scientific discourse. In a reading about the composition of the atmosphere, the mortar words would most likely be words useful to describing the parts of something, such as *components*, *composition*, etc. In general, content words are specific to a particular topic, while academic vocabulary is used across many specific topics within a discipline and among several or all disciplines. Learners need instruction in both kinds of vocabulary, and teachers should identify the academic and content words most important to understanding the reading and then provide appropriate clarification to the learners. Ideally, when teachers activate prior knowledge, they will determine which words the learners already know, and will deal with only unfamiliar words when pre-loading vocabulary. Teachers can present this new language inductively or deductively. They might present the new words to the students using visual aids. Alternatively, they might task students with finding out the meanings themselves. There are many learning tools available to students and teachers to help build vocabulary, such as flash cards, picture dictionaries, and electronic dictionaries. In many cases, content words have specific meanings in academic contexts that differ from their meanings in regular speech. For example, in life sciences, the word *kingdom* refers to “a group of living things,” while in non-scientific contexts, this word refers to “a country ruled by a king or queen.” Teachers need to provide clarification of both meanings and indicate when each one is appropriate. Last, teachers should teach students vocabulary skills, such as using word parts (such as prefixes and suffixes), using word origins (such as Greek and Latin roots), understanding synonyms and antonyms, and so on, that learners could use independently to understand new vocabulary. Teachers should present one or two of these skills with each reading text. For example, for a reading on the atmosphere, students might learn the word parts that constitute the word *atmosphere* and then identify other words that use these parts, such as *astronaut* or *hemisphere*.

In order to build students’ higher-level reading skills, prereading in-

struction should develop at least one reading comprehension skill (such as skimming for the main idea, scanning for detail, comparing and contrasting, analyzing, or relating part to whole) that is related to the content of the reading. In the case of the reading on the composition of the atmosphere, teachers would most likely develop the reading skill of analysis, since the reading focuses on the parts or components of the atmosphere. Teachers can teach the selected reading skill by modeling with brief readings, providing examples, or other teaching techniques.

Finally, because academic text contains numerous graphics, teachers should teach a graphic literacy skill related to the graphics in the text. This way, students can interpret the information in graphics easily and use that information to help them read the entire text. If the reading on the atmosphere contains a pie chart showing the gases in the atmosphere, for instance, the teacher might focus on helping students interpret pie charts.

READING

The reading phase of instruction is the heart of the lesson. During this phase, learners put to task the knowledge and skills they gained in the preceding phase of instruction. In general, the reading phase should encourage reading fluency. For this reason, it is recommended that learners read silently in class, rather than reading for homework. In-class reading lets the teacher supervise directly and ensure that students do not linger excessively, translate every word, or give up in frustration. For this reason, teachers should remind students they do not need to know every word to understand. (To prove this to learners, teachers might provide them with a text in their native language(s) with every seventh word deleted, and have students read and discuss the main idea. Students will quickly realize that good readers do not need to know every word to understand the text.) When students are ready to read, the teacher should set a time limit. Sometimes, the best way to set a time limit is for the teacher to read along with the students, and then allow students a bit more time to finish after the teacher finishes. To ensure comprehension as students read, teachers may want to use the “read-along” technique. In this technique, students answer questions at key points in the reading. For example, at a point when students need to relate information in a pie chart to the main text, a relevant question might be posed. Teachers can add questions to published readings easily by using Post-It notes. Teachers can either insert the entire questions or just the question numbers and provide all the questions on the board or in a handout. Answering these questions ensures that students understand key points before they continue reading. Not all teachers want to use the read-along technique because it interrupts the students’ reading. Teachers will need to decide whether this technique is appropriate for their learners and their teaching styles. When students have finished reading, they are ready for the postreading phase.

POSTREADING

The postreading phase of instruction contains all of the follow-up activities. In this phase, the teacher should check comprehension and skill

mastery and provide extension activities. The most usual way to check comprehension is through comprehension questions, typically short answer, multiple choice, or true-false items. Teachers whose students face standardized tests might want to add multiple-choice questions to their comprehension checks if their textbooks do not provide such questions, in order to prepare learners for coming assessments. In addition to these questions, teachers should consider non-verbal comprehension checks, particularly for learners at lower levels. There are many nonverbal tasks students can complete to demonstrate comprehension, such as ordering pictures or drawing diagrams. For example, to check comprehension of the reading on the atmosphere, students might use data in the pie chart to draw a bar graph with the same information. Students could also draw a picture of the sky near their school, and indicate sources of pollution, as well as locations of plants (such as parks) that provide oxygen. They could add a pie chart in a corner showing the gases in the atmosphere. Students with limited productive skills also might be more comfortable answering true-false or yes-no questions at first. Another way to check comprehension is through a graphic organizer, such as a Venn diagram, T-chart, or timeline. A graphic organizer is valuable in that it allows students to depict information graphically without using a lot of language.

After checking comprehension, teachers should assess mastery of the target reading skill and graphic literacy skill. They can use simple related readings and additional graphics or questions to do so. For example, a reading on the composition of the ozone layer might be used to check the skill of analysis, while more questions could be used to assess understanding of pie charts. Or the teacher could ask questions about a completely new pie chart on a related topic, such as sources of air pollution, to check this graphic literacy skill.

Finally, teachers should use extension activities to encourage students to apply their knowledge and skills in new contexts. Students might investigate online, in the library, or in their textbooks. In the case of the atmosphere, students might search online for pollution levels in their locales. Alternatively, they might investigate environmental problems such as the ozone hole. Other possible extension projects include labs. Students might complete another hands-on experiment. For example, in the case of the atmosphere, students might replicate the initial demonstration with the candle and the glass. Students might also try a related experiment, such as forming a cloud in a bottle, which helps students understand how clouds form from water vapor in the atmosphere. This experiment requires a large, plastic multi-liter soda bottle. The experimenter places enough warm water in the bottle to cover the bottom, and then puts some smoke in the bottle by lighting a match, blowing it out, and holding the smoking match in the bottle. Then the bottle is capped and the sides are pressed together a few times. Finally, the sides are pressed together, held for a few moments, and released. A cloud should form inside the bottle. This experiment shows that water vapor in the air can form a cloud when it condenses.

CONCLUSION

Developing reading skills in content matter subjects is not easy, but can be facilitated by providing appropriate scaffolding. The prereading, reading, and postreading activities in this article provide a framework for teachers to build effective intensive reading instruction for all their learners.

THE AUTHOR

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Making Quizzes: A Source for Empowering Teachers' Imagination and Creativity

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ABSTRACT

Making weekly small tests or quizzes is a routine activity for teachers. This workshop demonstrated how important it was for teachers focusing on the training effects on the part of teachers. It also emphasized the importance of making open-book style weekly quizzes for both teachers and students. This article contains sample class materials and quizzes discussed in the workshop with some new additions for the further reference.

INTRODUCTION

An easy, and therefore most often used way of conducting tests or quizzes is by giving closed-book, memory-based tests. I showed in this workshop however, open-book style quizzes are more challenging for teachers to make, inevitably being content-based or topic-centered, and therefore more inspiring and effective for empowering the creativity and imagination of teachers. Quiz making can be an effective day-by-day or class-by-class self-training method for teachers of all levels of career and experience.

I would like to emphasize that above all, the most important goal of any kinds of teacher training is enrichment of teachers' imagination and creativity. These two, I believe, are the essential sources of good teaching, and yet, they cannot easily be enhanced in short-term training. The teachers must go beyond just learning techniques or new ideas from somebody else. Making quizzes is contained in our usual chores of teaching activities, and it can be a continuous empowering practice. It is very important to take it consciously as a positive and active teaching practice, not as a time-consuming required duty or something that is given or ready-made.

EFFECTS ON THE STUDENTS

On the students' side, solving open-book, content-based quizzes can stimulate their minds and can develop more imaginative and creative language use, which tends to be submerged under heavy memorizing task loads. Well-made open-book quizzes will have students engage in active thinking necessary for expressing something novel out of something they have learned.

On the contrary, answering memory-based quizzes tends to be a passive activity.

IMPORTANCE OF SELECTING MATERIALS OF TEACHERS' CHOICE

I also emphasized the importance of developing teaching contents based on materials of teachers' own choice as another part of self-training, which is often neglected under the course-book-based teaching situation. The reason for promoting this practice is that the same spirit underlies constitution of effective teaching contents as well as making of quizzes. Selecting reading materials, for example, out from masses of authentic writing requires a lot of reading. This is already a very important self-training method especially for teachers whose education background is not entirely English-based as being common for Japanese or Korean non-native English teachers including myself. It also requires insights into judging what is suitable for your students or what is not. Teachers are able to gain this knowledge only through long-term self-endeavor. What was suggested in the workshop can be a part of this endeavor.

SAMPLE MATERIALS AND QUESTIONS

In the workshop, the participants made their own quizzes based on only a few lines of a teaching material, and experienced how it could inspire their creativity and imagination. I will show below some examples such as materials with sample quizzes and relevant discussions. Some actually appeared in the workshop, and others are added afterwards for the purpose of further demonstration.

PICTURE ARTICLES IN MAGAZINES

The following two examples are sentences or paragraphs accompanying pictures appeared in magazines.

(1) NAMIB DESERT, NAMIBIA

[Photograph: A scaly viper covered under the yellowish desert sand with perfect protective coloration. Only the black tail tip visibly stands out.]

[Text]

Camouflaged by sand and scales, a Péringuey's adder hunts in almost stillness, twitching only its black tail to attract prey. When it does move, this viper slips sideways across the dunes. (National Geographic Magazine, July, 2006)

I picked up this text because the picture looked unterrestrial, yet was depicting natural beauty. In addition, I found it contain a typical and perfect

example of participial construction with both a past participle and a present participle.

In the workshop, participants, who were asked to make open-book quizzes out of these sentences, proposed to make a kind of questions concerning the meaning of words or sentences such as paraphrasing the initial sentence. These can be a good test for checking the students' understanding of a sentence with participles.

What I actually made for my class was based on visual clues instead. Following are the examples.

- (Q1) Why is the tip of the tail black?
 (Q2) Draw a picture of the snake moving on the sand.

In order to make a question such as (Q1), the teacher must understand the paragraph not only by the meaning of each sentence but also by the idea of what this animal is like or what this scene is like; this is a hunting scene. The students are required to undergo the same process when they answer the question.

As in (Q3), asking to draw a picture is a very effective way of checking the students' overall understanding of a paragraph or a text. I have experienced some students showing reluctance to draw anything to show to somebody. I usually encourage them to draw anyway by showing my immature sample drawings.

The next one is another paragraph about nature with a photograph.

(2) LOGGERHEADS' JOURNEY

TURTLES FEAST ALONG A PACIFIC PLANKTON TRAIL

[Photograph: A loggerhead turtle swimming in a backdrop of blue water with small silvery fish accompanying on the back.]

[Chart: A colored satellite image of the surface water temperature of the Pacific Ocean.]

[Text]

Young mackerel escort a Pacific loggerhead turtle off Baja California. Many of these 300-pound sea turtles are born on Yaku Shima in southern Japan, says Wallace J. Nichols, a California Academy of Sciences biologist.

Over the next two to six years the turtles cross the Pacific along a line, says Jeffrey Plovina of the National Marine Fisheries Service, that runs between cool water rich in plankton (green in the satellite image below) and warmer water low in plankton. As the cool water sinks beneath the warm, it traps buoyant creatures like jellyfish, a favorite food of turtles.

Once the turtles reach Baja, they gorge on pelagic red crabs. Some loggerheads make the return journey. A few months ago, Nichols tracked a female as she swam back toward Japan. (National Geographic Magazine, December, 2000)

This is a caption of a picture with a strikingly beautiful blue back drop. The eye-catchiness helps to invite students into more serious reading. The article contains some objective facts. I therefore decided to ask the students to present these facts on the chart reprinted from the article. Below are the sample questions.

- (Q1) Indicate the following facts on the chart of the Pacific Ocean.
- a. The place they are born.
 - b. What and where they eat.
 - c. Draw the migration route.

One of the surprising and important findings after conducting this test was that 40 to 50 percent of the students failed to choose (c), which was lowest compared to the other two. The students seemed to fail to understand the meaning of the word *migration*. In the actual test, I gave the questions in Japanese, but they did not think very much about the connotation of the word, which is circular or round trip of animals going back and forth. The failed student indicated only one-way; they did not indicate the route of the returning trip even though the text clearly mentions it using the words *return journey*. They were also not able to relate these words with *migration*. The result revealed the weakness of some Japanese students, whose learning activities had not gone through memorization practice to the next step of active learning and understanding by way of reading something meaningful.

NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

Here afterwards, I will add a few materials from my actual teaching. These were not discussed in the workshop.

The first one is a newspaper article. It is sometimes far overdue for our freshman students to read actual newspaper articles on politics, international affairs, and editorials. For easier reading, I usually use something about local topics with photos. These photos are usually accompanied by a very short paragraph consisting of a few to several lines. The following is an example.

(3) IN TRAINING FOR THE TITLE OF MAN'S BEST FRIEND

[Photograph: Close-up of lovely dogs looking into the camera with a few children and day-care center staffers.]

[Text]

Once abandoned, three dogs are now being trained as therapy dogs at a facility in Itami, Hyogo Prefecture. The program was started in 2003 by the Japan Rescue Association to comfort children or help elderly people feel more cheerful. Stray dogs and puppies raised by homeless people are trained by association staffers to obey commands and to not bark or bite. Ten dogs so far have been accepted by nursing homes and kindergartens, with eight more in training. (The International Herald Tribune/The Asahi Shinbun, 2006/09/10)

Out of this paragraph, you will be able to make some questions asking when the program started, what organization has been involved in the program, and what the dogs will have to learn after the training. These questions will make a very good scanning practice.

In addition to those questions, I also made a question asking *what the background of this dog training program could be*, expecting that the students would refer to the fact that the abandoned pets and their slaughter by the public hygiene authority had been a social problem, or to the fact that more people had been needing mental comfort than before. Contrary to my expectation, however, most of the students gave answers referring to the *purpose* of this program such as in order to save stray dogs, or in order to help people in need. The purpose is written in the text, but the background is not.

It seems to be the case that the students are so used to *finding* the answer in the text instead of *thinking* and trying to *express* their thoughts in their own words that most of them did not even consider the meaning of *background*. This finding shows the need for the thinking-type questions rather than search-and-find type of questions.

READING STORIES

I believe no English learning is successful without enjoying reading stories or paperbacks. Even though it is impossible to finish reading a book during class, I try to introduce the students into the joy of reading stories by taking up a part of up-to-date bestseller fictions and popular fantasies.

For reading in class, I usually explain words and sentences, and translate if necessary. I never ask students to translate sentences because it is time consuming, and ineffective. One of the important goals of reading I set in my class is to enable the students to create their own visual images of the scene according to the text. I have found many of the students lack this practice even when they read in Japanese, or they lack a habit of reading anything for the worse. My hope is that they experience a joy of reading both in Japanese and in English through reading something fascinating in English.

The following are two sample types of open-book quizzes. Both of them are essential to overall understanding the story.

(4) a. Drawing a picture of the scene.

This is a very basic test for understanding a story and having the students have their own image of the scene. Some of the important elements will be the interior of the room, positioning and posture of the characters, garments and belongings.

b. Ordering.

Chronological ordering of the events in the scene. Who spoke first in the scene.

Age ordering of the characters. Sometimes age relation is complicated in a story, yet very important, such as among brothers and sisters, who is younger, youngest, or elder, eldest.

CONCLUSION

Teachers need constant training in order to achieve the best ever performance in every class they teach, and we know it takes time to improve ourselves little by little. Yet, very often at times, teacher training programs are given by somebody else on a short-term basis, and we find it difficult to engage ourselves in long-term constant training. After finishing formal training, we have little time available to spare for other training purposes. In this workshop, I have demonstrated an importance and a possibility of finding opportunities of self-training in our usual teaching practices.

THE AUTHOR

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ESP for Global Companies in EFL Settings

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ABSTRACT

How do ESP instructors determine curriculum and materials selection criteria in EFL training of global companies? The presenters will share their experiences in developing tailor-made English programs for European companies in the semiconductor industry that also have subsidiaries in Asia.

INTRODUCTION

A key factor of the success of any company is efficient communication among all employees. This is difficult enough to achieve with employees of the same cultural background. In the case of a global company where employees with many different language backgrounds have to work together, language barriers may become one of the greatest challenges to master. This paper focuses on how language experts have worked together with European global companies on projects to develop specific English language programs to improve the English language skills of their employees. The cases referred to deal with global companies of the semiconductor industry that are based in Austria and that have subsidiaries or business units all over Asia. The authors will show how a long process of collaboration between language experts and company representatives has contributed to the development of tailor-made language programs, including special curricula, syllabi, learning materials, and e-learning tools. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) primarily deals with addressing immediate needs of a learner and therefore offers the ideal theoretical background and practical methods to develop English language programs for companies that are, above all, interested in employees who learn fast to communicate job-related contents efficiently. For all companies in question, the major part of company-related communication happens in English between non-native speakers in European and Asian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings.

NEEDS ANALYSIS

Before developing specific courses, a thorough needs analysis dealing with the companies' expectations, the employees' needs, available materials and e-learning systems, as well as level systems was necessary. The companies want to measure ability and improvement and want these measurements to be applicable to all business units or subsidiaries. For language trainers, the levels should also give a more detailed picture of the training needs in order to place employees in the right language course. Recognized level tests such as TOEIC proved to be impractical for companies with a few hundred employees for several reasons. These tests are too costly, take too much time to implement, and cannot easily be coordinated among all business units of one company. It proved to be useful to introduce a company-specific English test that consists of a so-called e-test and a face-to-face communication check.

Figure 1. E-Test

The screenshot shows the 'intac e-Test' interface. At the top, it says 'Logged in as: ROMEO OBANE JR.' and has a 'Logout' button. The main content area is titled 'Gap Test' and contains a reading passage with several dropdown menus for selection. The passage is as follows:

1. In all meetings there is a [dropdown], who has to conduct the [dropdown] of the meeting.

SAMPLE

She/he ensures that the meeting's [dropdown] are met. Before the meeting it is helpful to have an [dropdown], on which the points to be discussed are listed. The agenda usually is given to the [dropdown], so they can prepare for the meeting. If there are too many [dropdown] on the agenda, it is inevitable that the meeting will be over-long and so less effective.

After formal meetings the secretary writes up the [dropdown], which is an [dropdown] of the discussion that has taken place. If you cannot take part at a meeting, it is customary to send your [dropdown] to the chair person. Usually the chair person reads out the names of any [dropdown] at the beginning of the meeting.

On the right side, there is a 'Completion Status' section with a progress bar. Below it, it shows 'Time remaining: 04:56' and 'Levels passed:' with two checked items: 'Basic English 1' and 'Basic English 2'. Under 'Test Level:', there is an unchecked item: 'Gold Business I - Part I'.

Another major problem of global companies operating in Austria and in Asia is not only to introduce minimum English requirements for each of the groups but also to have the two different groups adapt to each other's varieties of English. Asian visitors in Austria must communicate in English with Austrians. To heighten awareness, specific communication courses in English were introduced for Asians while they are in Austria, and in addition to English language courses in their home countries. Furthermore, each successful language course consists of texts or communicative situations that are as relevant as possible for the respective employees. This is a major motivator to achieve desired success rates. Company specific terminology, manuals, forms,

and other documents were analyzed, and a pool of texts was chosen in collaboration between company representatives and language experts. These original texts were to be adapted to different language levels and made available as language learning materials for all business units. An analysis of available coursebooks and standardized materials brought to light that their use was very limited considering the specific needs of companies and employees. Coursebooks were either too wide in their choice of texts, or the texts and language tasks did not fit requirements without necessary adaptations. For these reasons, specifically chosen company texts professionally adapted proved to be superior. Available standardized e-learning systems or software do not have the flexibility to use the tailor-made, standardized materials that were to be developed for companies. Open-source solutions were considered but did not prove as safe, flexible, or efficient as a proprietary system that was specially developed for this project. Both content and presentation in books and e-learning modules are important, as are language levels, which also play a major role in the development of a course.

The level system that has become standard in Europe, called the Common European Framework (CEF), describes each of the four major skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking), and specific communicative needs of companies can easily be mapped onto that system. The CEF is therefore most useful for evaluating the level and the training needs of employees. As the terminology of CEF (from A1 referring to an absolute beginner to C2 referring to a native like speaker) appeared too “technical,” the companies decided to adapt their own terminology for each level. Finally, companies now try to avoid showing their employees’ English knowledge on certificates. Moving away from internationally recognized terminology for the levels limits competitors, especially in the Asian market, from opening doors to a new job more readily.

Table 1. Example for Level Adaptation

Levels Silver	Level of Knowledge
A1	- Can give very basic information and interact in a simple way Can ask and answer simple questions Can introduce himself/herself and give basic information about his/her job
A2	- Can communicate in a simple way about familiar topics and activities can handle short social exchanges, uses a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms his/her own and other people’s job environment
Gold	
B1	- Can deal with most situations, can enter conversations of topics that are familiar unprepared, can connect phrases in a simple way to describe experiences, events, hopes, ambitions etc., can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans,
B2	- Interacts with an adequate degree of fluency, can take an active part in a discussion with familiar contexts, accounting for his/her views, can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to his/her field of interest

Platinum	
C1	- Can express himself/herself fluently, can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes, can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects
C2	- High degree of fluency and accuracy, can take part effortlessly in any conversation and discussion, use of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms

DEVELOPMENT

The development of the program concerned the curricula, syllabi, e-tests, materials, and the e-learning components. The authors had developed curricula and syllabi for ESP for participating companies before the program started. Those curricula and syllabi and respective materials were adapted according to the results of the needs analysis. The close collaboration with different departments of the companies yielded a great pool of text materials. The generated learning material also had to be structured so it would fit the new e-learner. The e-learner is meant as part of the blended learning approach rather than a stand-alone component.

The materials are specifically tailored for professionals, with more emphasis placed on technical and business communication. The e-learner consists of several modules and the trainer can decide which modules are available for individual employees. A specific management tool showing e-test results and course histories of each employee lets trainers and personnel view their progress.

IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation of the program consists of setting up the e-test and e-learner, training the trainers and personnel working with the management tool, the first e-test phase, communication checks, training phase, feedback, and the next e-test phase as the last stage of the old, or the first stage of the new cycle.

CONCLUSION

Currently, corporate language training is a huge and fast growing sector in Europe and in Asia. Unfortunately, many of the programs offered do not adhere to best practice standards, and are not coordinated well. One reason for this is the myth that a language trainer primarily needs to be a native speaker; another reason is that educational issues such as methodology, classroom management, linguistic ability, theoretical background, and many others are secondary considerations for companies. In addition, many language institutes have a high turnover of language trainers, do not train them thor-

oughly or properly, or cannot train them sufficiently because the hired trainers lack the necessary background and skills. In addition, renowned commercial language institutes focus more on the packaging than on the contents. Most of those so-called “proven systems” offer standard language learning materials; they are sold as tailor-made and offer a nice look, an enormous and costly marketing machinery to push their products (that then generates many costs that have to be paid by participating institutes). Consequently, this leaves little money to spend on well-educated and experienced trainers. Professional bodies like TESOL provide a platform that assures professional excellence. This project relied on language experts who know how to adapt curricula and syllabi to specific needs, to not only choose but also design adequate learning material, teach face-to-face, and integrate modern methodologies such as e-learning components efficiently.

The companies that are in need of the English skills of their employees must also take an active role in enforcing a language policy showing the importance they place on language. The authors have worked with companies that not only offer incentives for improved language skills but also threaten employees with punishment for their lack of improvement. Testing is always a sensitive issue in any company, and testing for language skills even more so, as language is hardly seen as a core competence by most. With great effort from the management of the companies in question, human resources departments, and other language experts, the authors were able to design unique language programs. The companies have a tool to measure language competence relevant to their specific work environment; language programs are implemented that gradually improve the language skills of the companies' employees relevant to their job emphasis (business, or technical); e-learning platforms are in place that are constantly updated with relevant texts; all trainers of the companies form a platform and work as team to constantly improve the successful program.

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Cultural Imperialism and Representation in ESL Textbooks: A Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a case study that examines a mainstream ESL textbook for adult learners from a critical discourse analysis perspective. Given the outcomes of the current study, ESL textbooks may promote Western cultural imperialism, the idea of the economic superiority of its products and brands, and the misrepresentation of other cultures in both linguistic and non-linguistic (visual) perspectives. After critically analyzing the textbook, it presents suggestions for teachers to avoid the influence of textbook biases in their language classroom.

INTRODUCTION

There are many crucial elements for effective language classrooms: teachers' roles, students' attitudes, teaching methodologies, assessments, classroom environments, proper textbooks, etc. It is extremely difficult to identify the most important among them, but we all agree that the proper function of each element is a key for successful language learning. As English has become one of the most significant international languages and the numbers of adult learners of the English language have increasingly overtaken child learners, there are numerous studies related to this field. However, there have been only a handful of studies on ESL/EFL textbooks, even though the roles and impact of textbooks are crucial for language learners and teachers in both overt and covert ways. For teachers, textbooks are a "central guiding force" (Skierso, 1991, p. 441) for teaching. Textbooks also contribute to shaping students' identities, worldviews, and perspectives of social powers (Canagarajah, 1999; Grady, 1997; Ndura, 2004a).

Under these circumstances, the content of instructional materials for language teaching is very important for learners, in that it affects their development of knowledge, identity, and new viewpoints. Because ESL textbooks are a primary trustworthy resource for learners, the content of ESL textbooks influences the building up of their perceptions of the new culture and societal values. Therefore, careful examination of ESL textbooks is essential to creating well-balanced education, avoiding influences caused by biased content.

Adams (1996) reports the findings from an analysis of ESL textbooks published in the United States from the 1950s through the late 1980s. According to his article, the content of ESL textbooks contained pervasive social messages including restrictions to white and male-dominated class populations,

underrepresentation of cultural minorities and their life experiences, and sexism. Although some positive substantial changes were found in the content of ESL textbooks after the 1970s because of social and political factors such as the Civil Rights Movement, ESL textbooks and instructional materials published in the 1990s and 2000s are still plagued with such biases as omission, incorrect information, and stereotypes.

Ndura's (2004a) examination of six widely used ESL textbooks in US schools reveals stereotyping of gender roles. For example, male scientists are more represented than females. Girls are portrayed in the kitchen cooking with mom and tending a baby while boys are gardening and playing ball with dad. From the stereotypical images presented in the ESL textbooks, students learn that males succeed with science and technology and are good at building and fixing things, while females are only able to deal with light work such as cooking and tending babies. This perception of gender roles will affect the students' worldviews and professional careers. Ndura points out that students and teachers must be aware of textbook biases and their effect on learning and the teaching process (Ndura, 2004b).

Grady (1997) also addresses the issue of cultural fairness in ESL textbooks. Most of the stories in instructional materials represent happy, white middle class families. They are portrayed as living in a problem-free society. Some textbooks contain a few lessons with minority groups such as Africans. These lessons contain Egyptian mummies and chimpanzees. It is hard to find textbooks representing cultural fairness.

Because of the uniqueness of ESL classrooms in reflecting a diversity of cultures and life experiences, it is essential that ESL classes be inclusive for effective education (Ndura, 2004a). However, as Wong (2000) mentions, social order and organization characterized in *textbook societies* are often at odds with that of real contexts. Therefore, it is important to investigate and suggest strategies for dealing with stereotypes and other cultural biases in ESL textbooks.

This paper will use Fairclough's framework for text analysis based on critical discourse analysis (1989, 2003), which addresses textual features which are most significant for critical analysis. According to Roger (2004), critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a theoretical framework and a method at the same time because it can describe, interpret, and explain the relationships of language, power, culture, and society in education. Corson (2000) also mentions that CDA investigates "hidden power relations between a piece of discourse and wider social and cultural formation" and has an interest in "uncovering inequality, power relationships, injustice, discrimination, and bias" (p. 95).

Fairclough (1989) explicitly discusses the three stages of critical discourse analysis: "Description is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of the text. Interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction. . . . Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context" (p. 26). As given in his definitions of the three stages, CDA describes how the text is organized and presented and tries to understand the meanings of the text and its interactions. Furthermore, it explains how interactions affect social context and structure. This is a crucial point in understanding ESL textbooks in terms of their organization, content,

scope, and effect. Through the theoretical tools of CDA, I will investigate a mainstream ESL textbook and provide an explanation of how to deal with analytical interpretations in ESL teaching and learning.

DESCRIPTION: THE ESL TEXTBOOK, *QUEST 2* READING AND WRITING

The first edition of *Quest: Reading and Writing in the Academic World* (Hartmann, 1999), published by McGraw-Hill has been widely used in ESL programs. I will analyze *Quest 2 Reading and Writing* (2007), which is designed for students at an intermediate level of proficiency. Each chapter of the text consists of five parts: Part 1, Introduction; Part 2, General Interest Reading; Part 3, Academic Reading; Part 4, The Mechanics of Writing; Part 5, Academic Writing. An overview of each chapter in terms of its organization and features is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. A General Description of Each Chapter: The Organization and Features

Title	Features
(A front page of each chapter)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A photograph more than half the size of the page with each chapter title. • Discussion questions below the photograph.
Part 1: Introduction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before Reading • Reading • After Reading 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One or a couple of photographs with discussion questions. • Easy reading passages with photos. • Checking activities related to the reading.
Part 2: General Interest Reading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before Reading • Reading • After Reading 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prediction questions for discussion and vocabulary activities before reading (photos are sometimes provided.) • A high-interest reading with photos • Reading comprehension and vocabulary check activities.
Part 3: Academic Reading <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Before Reading • Reading • After Reading 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary activities before reading. • A reading from academic textbooks. • Reading strategies for academic use (ex. finding a main idea, scanning for specific details, etc)
Part 4: The Mechanics of Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific explanations of grammar and lexical points and practice drills.
Part 5: Academic Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing strategies such as developing ideas and writing topic sentences. • Writing practices of different rhetorical styles.

The following are examples from the textbook to describe each part. Figure 1 is the front page of chapter 1. It shows a photograph, more than half the size of the page, to get readers' attention. The photo has a traditional Asian building with a Starbucks logo and three discussion questions under

the photo. The questions are designed for readers to narrow down to a more specific element of the photo.

The introduction part can be divided into two sections: 1) a topic opening with visual materials, and 2) a topic opening with written materials. The introduction activity, which involves visual materials, presents discussion questions for a pair or group activity called "Thinking Ahead." It is designed for readers to project the chapter topic. The other introduction activity is much more involved with written materials. Some of the activities provide reading-related photos but put weight on written materials. Because it is an introductory reading activity, the reading passages are relatively easy and are designed to get readers interested in the chapter topic.

The general interest reading drives readers to think about familiar sub-topics of the chapter topic. It provides visual cues for learners' understanding. It is still a casual reading, yet it is a more in-depth reading compared to the previous reading in the introduction.

Then, it moves to academic reading. Because the reading is mostly from a formal selection, it sometimes requires learners to understand complicated tables and charts representing research data. Vocabulary and comprehension check activities follow the reading.

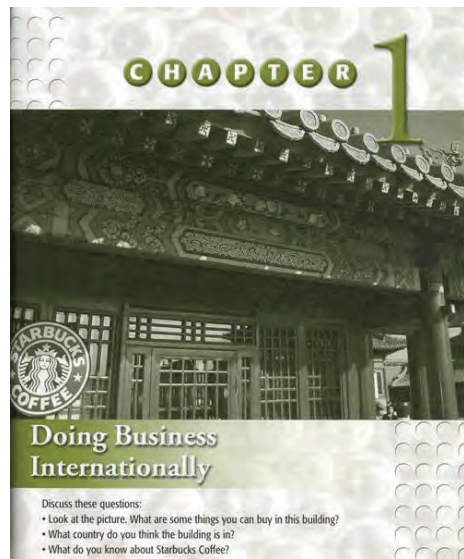
The next two parts, "the mechanics of writing" and "academic writing," are related to writing practices. As the title indicates, the mechanics of writing explains some points of grammar, lexical, and writing mechanics, including punctuation. It also has exercise drills that learners can use to practice the points of the chapter, such as filling in the blanks with right verb tenses, combining sentences, and finding parts of speech.

The academic writing part focuses on developing writing skills by composing different rhetorical writings. It often presents example paragraphs of a rhetorical style. Some of the activities are involved with preparing for essay exams such as TOEFL writing.

INTERPRETATION AND EXPLANATION: THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM

The next stages of CDA are interpretation and explanation, which allow one to investigate the hidden curriculum of the textbook. The hidden curriculum refers to the way in which textbooks are designed, which is not presented explicitly or overtly. This is why it is called the *hidden curriculum*. Therefore, the textbook should be examined in order to investigate the hidden curriculum. Fairclough distinguishes the features of text as linguistic features

Figure 1. The Front Page of Ch. 1



and non-linguistic features (visual cues). It is a good way to analyze the hidden curriculum of the ESL textbook because both visual and written texts include important contents of the textbook. This paper will first discuss the hidden curriculum through linguistic features, and then will analyze the hidden curriculum of the ESL textbook through non-linguistic features (visual cues).

THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM THROUGH LINGUISTIC FEATURES

Linguistic features represent the hidden curriculum of the textbook in three ways. First, when the textbook shows examples, it only presents examples of American culture in many cases. For example, the reading passage “International Culture” on page eleven talks about five elements of culture: language, religion, values, customs, and material elements. This passage mentions that in order to be successful in international business, people must understand the culture of target countries. At the beginning, the tone of passage sounds very neutral: “One cause of misconceptions is ethnocentrism, the belief that one’s own culture’s way of doing things is better than the way of other cultures. . . . To avoid ethnocentrism, it’s necessary to study the different elements of culture” (Hartmann, 2007, p. 11). Then, the passage explains the five elements in order. When it provides examples, however, its ethnocentrism is apparent. The textbook provides only examples of American culture in some sections. In the section, “Values and Attitudes,” it offers one example, that American preference of chocolate from Switzerland. According to the passage, Americans believe that Swiss chocolate is better than others and purchase a lot of it.

Besides the written example, a small table is shown. The table expresses American business values: “Common Idioms That Express U.S. business values: *Time is money; When in Rome, do as the Romans do; Let’s get down to business.* It only presents American business values in terms of how they value time and money and what their attitudes toward business are. The examples of American preference of Swiss chocolate and the common idioms in business focus on only American values and attitudes, not others.

Second, when the reading passages need to provide more examples of different cultures (or countries,) they present examples of American culture first, and then examples of other cultures follow. When several items are listed, putting one in the first position is another way to show its importance or superiority. This is an invisibly accepted notion. When several authors write a book together, for instance, the names of authors are not listed in an alphabetical order. In most cases, the first listed author is the most important contributor to the book. The first one on a list generally gets more attention compared to things coming after it.

In the same vein, putting American examples first in order is a way to promote American culture. When the textbook discusses religion as one of the cultural elements, for example, it mentions three work ethics to address how religion influences people’s lives. The work ethics are put in order: first, the Protestant work ethic for Americans; second, the Confucian work ethic for people from Asian countries; and third, the Shinto work ethic for Japanese people.

There are other instances of American examples being first in order. In the section, "Customs and Manners," American table manners are mentioned first, and then manners of "some countries," which are not even identified by name, are discussed. It ends with an example of American customs that Americans drink orange juice with breakfast. Therefore, American orange juice companies in other countries like France need to be aware of the customers' customs to be successful in the market because the French do not drink orange with breakfast. As seen from the examples above, examples of American culture are intentionally presented first and more emphasis is placed on them compared to examples of other cultures.

Finally, in some cases, the textbook presents reading passages and exercise drills discussing American culture and values as better than other countries, which overtly shows cultural imperialism. Wikipedia, the on-line encyclopedia, defines cultural imperialism as "the practice of promoting, distinguishing, separating, artificially injecting of the culture or language of one nation in another. It is usually the case that the former is a large, economically or militarily powerful nation and the latter is a smaller, less affluent one" (n.d., para. 1). White (2001) also cites Mattelart's 1994 book, *Mapping World Communication*, which points out that cultural imperialism is nowadays very much related to consumerism. According to Mattelart, cultural imperialism is "soft power," which is not physically visible power, but invisible power promoting its culture and language with consumerism.

Evidence of cultural imperialism in the ESL textbook is clear. In part three, the reading passage, "Improving CQ: Understanding Cultural Values," discusses cultural values with a table titled "Examples of Hofstede's Scores." This table shows statistical research results by social scientists. The research data are provided in the academic reading part of the textbook. The social scientists measure the cultural intelligence of each country based on elements of cultural values: individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity. They give countries a score in each area. According to the statistical results, the United States has the score of 62 in masculinity, which is the third position from the top. This means that the US is a masculine society.

However, the writing mechanic exercise on page 25, "Equality in the Workplace," talks about a company from another country in the United States that was sued because the managers did not treat female and male workers equally. In American culture, workers, regardless of their genders, are treated equally, which is not the case in many work places and even idealizes the cultural value of American work places.

As seen from the examples above, the hidden curriculum of the textbook from the perspective of linguistic features is represented in several ways. First, it only shows examples of American culture in many cases. Second, when it provides several examples, it puts examples of American culture first, and then shows some other examples from other countries. Finally, it includes reading passages and activities that show cultural imperialism in terms of attempting to present the superiority of American culture and values.

THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM THROUGH NON-LINGUISTIC FEATURES (VISUAL CUES)

Fairclough's distinction of features of text brings out a critical analysis of the non-linguistic features of the textbook. Mattelart points out that one characteristic of today's cultural imperialism is that it is very much connected with consumerism. Therefore, this paper will analyze the hidden curriculum through non-linguistic features (visual cues).

According to the textbook section of features entitled "Welcome," photos and graphics are one of the main strengths of the text: "Captivating photos and graphics capture students' attention while introducing each academic topic" (Hartmann, 2007, p. xv). As it mentions, many realistic photos are contained in the text and they play an important role in "hooking" readers and providing an impression of each topic.

For example, chapter 1 includes ten visual cues: nine photos and one cartoon-like sketch picture. Among them, five photos are related to business products and logos, and the five others are connected to cultural issues. All of the photos related to products and logos represent American products. The front photo showing an archaic Asian building (see Appendix A) has a Starbucks Coffee logo in the left-bottom corner with the chapter title "Doing Business Internationally." This mismatched photo and the title clearly present that America's typical coffee brand "Starbucks" is now even available in unique and traditional places in Asian countries.

The front page, "Getting Started," is designed to make readers think about this issue by asking the three discussion questions under the photo: "Look at the picture. What are some things you can buy in this building? What country do you think the building is in? What do you know about Starbucks Coffee?" (Hartmann, 2007, p. 3). The questions are directing readers' attention to Starbucks Coffee. The third question even asks learners to discuss the Starbucks brand itself. While discussing these questions, students spontaneously assimilate the idea that American products are everywhere, which makes them easily accept American products.

In the next page, two advertising photos (see Appendix B) are introduced: a Tide ad and a Coca-Cola ad written in two different foreign languages. These two advertisements show representative products from the United States and allude to worldwide products. The discussion activity "Thinking Ahead" under the ads also leads students to accept that America's popular products are used around the world. These three questions ask more directly about the producing country of the products ("1. Which country produces these products?"), their success in other countries ("2. What languages are in the ads? In which countries might you see these ads?"), and popularity ("3. Which of these products have you seen or used?). This has the same format and function as the front page. It introduces readers to the brands for those who have not known or used them. For those who have seen or used the brand, it also makes them recall the experience of using them. By discussing Question 2 in particular, learners should guess what the foreign languages are, which means that learners should think about which countries use the products. Also, the tone of Question 3 encourages readers to use, or at least know about, the products.

There is another reading passage related to international businesses. It covers five international companies that made marketing mistakes. These are the passage subtitles for each company: “Chicken in China” for Kentucky Fried Chicken; “Mineral Water” for Traficante, an Italian brand of mineral water; “Nike Shoes” for Nike; “Samarin for Upset Stomachs” for a Swedish medicine brand; “Gerber Baby Food” for Gerber baby food. Although the passage is about “International Marketing Mistakes,” the reader’s first hook is the photo on each page. Among the five international companies, the text provides only two photos, for KFC and Gerber baby food, which are both American brands. From the point of view that photographs in the textbook deliver content of each topic, the photos of American brands deliver a strong message in the section.

The symbol of KFC (Colonel Sanders) with Chinese letters grabs students’ attention (see Appendix C). The photo subtitle reads “A Kentucky Fried Chicken restaurant in China.” Another photo on the next page shows a stack of Gerber baby food with English labels and the trademark of the baby portrait. The photo itself does not provide a subtitle, but it is right next to the passage subtitle “Gerber Baby Food,” so students cannot fail to recognize the symbol of Gerber baby food. This baby food may not be familiar to ESL students mostly raised in foreign countries or without their own children. As the text introduces this baby food brand, students may feel familiar with the brand when they come across it in a supermarket. It makes them easily accept American brands without resistance.

The analysis of the non-linguistic features reveals that there is content bias in the ESL textbook. Visual cues have the hidden curriculum that misrepresents cultures and values. They fail to reflect the variety of students’ cultures and lives.

CONCLUSION

Among the many crucial elements for an effective English language classroom, textbooks are one of the most important, because they significantly affect language teaching and learning. First, a textbook is a central guiding force for teaching, which means that both the teacher and students rely on textbooks in important ways (Skierso, 1991). In addition, the teacher and students trust what the textbook says because it is considered a trustworthy resource (Ndura, 2004a). They believe the textbook’s information. Especially for ESL learners, this is very critical because, most of the time, they are first exposed to ESL textbooks without prior knowledge of English spoken cultures. Therefore, ESL textbooks significantly shape students’ identities, worldview, and perspectives of social power (Canagarajah, 1999; Grandy, 1997; Hirschfelder, 1982; Ndura, 2004b). Accordingly, it is important to understand roles and influences of textbooks in the ESL classroom.

In order to analyze ESL textbooks, this study uses Fairclough’s framework and method for text analysis based on critical discourse analysis. This research is a case study that examines a mainstream ESL textbook for adult learners. Given the outcomes of the current study, ESL textbooks may promote Western cultural imperialism, the idea of the economic superiority of its

products and brands, and the misrepresentation of gender roles and other cultures in both linguistic and non-linguistic (visual) perspectives.

Teachers and students should be aware of these characteristics of ESL textbooks, which are presented in both overt and covert ways, because the biased contents and approaches affect students' attitudes and worldviews of people and society. Most importantly, teachers should be aware of textbook biases and evaluate instructional materials. Since textbook biases are "hidden" in many forms, they are not easy to notice by educators who do not have keen knowledge of it. Teachers and educators developing teaching materials should improve their awareness of textbook bias and have a multicultural perspective.

It is also effective for teachers to prepare supplementary teaching materials that can provide multicultural perspectives. There are various resources and additional instructional materials for English teaching. For example, they can watch news or video clips together, and have open discussion about their impressions and thoughts. Nowadays, there are many foreign newspapers and broadcasting systems providing English version Web sites. They may be sources providing diverse perspectives. In addition, inviting a guest speaker or arranging to attend a special lecture can be a breath of fresh air to students. These are only a few examples of various resources that provide students inclusive learning opportunities.

Furthermore, in considering teaching materials and discussing topics in textbooks, teachers' respect for students' experiences and knowledge are essential elements in creating a well-balanced English education. Every learner should be respected as a different individual who has his or her own perspectives, voices, and experiences. In particular, adult language students have developed their thoughts and knowledge, even though they sometimes have difficulty expressing their opinions due to language barriers. Teachers should respect students' experience and knowledge, rather than enforcing their own values and experience. This is a fundamental foundation to create a well-balanced education, which avoids potential negative influences caused by biased contents.

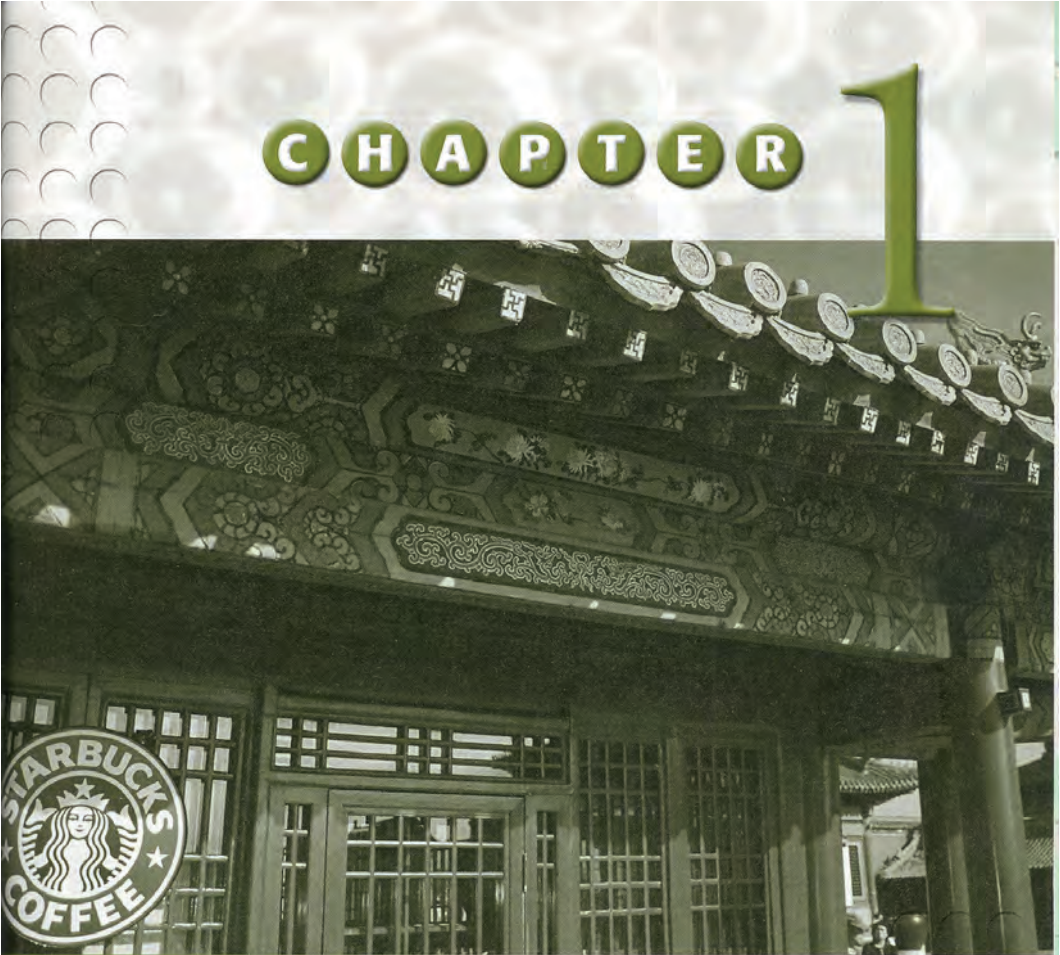
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APPENDIX A



CHAPTER 1

Doing Business Internationally

Discuss these questions:

- Look at the picture. What are some things you can buy in this building?
- What country do you think the building is in?
- What do you know about Starbucks Coffee?

APPENDIX B

BEFORE READING



A Tide ad



A Coca-Cola ad

THINKING AHEAD Look at the advertisements (ads) above. Discuss these questions with a partner.

1. Which country produces these products?
2. What languages are in the ads? In which countries might you see these ads?
3. Which of these products have you seen or used?

APPENDIX C



Task-Based, Content-Based Materials for University EFL Reading Courses

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ABSTRACT

The use of task-based, content-based materials developed in-house for reading courses is gaining widespread use within Asian university EFL programs. This paper will first examine the results from two studies that examined how both students and teachers thought a coursebook based on this approach could best be improved. In the first study, open-ended questionnaires asked both students (N = 264) and instructors (N = 7) to identify areas for possible revisions. The results from the two groups varied and the majority of the student feedback commented on the overall length, level of difficulty, and content choice of the reading passages. Comments from instructors related to the types, quantity, and quality of vocabulary exercises and comprehension questions. Extensive revisions were made based on responses from both groups. A follow-up survey a year later solicited opinions from the students (N = 279) who used the revised course materials. The results were similar to those from the previous survey and this paper will demonstrate how these responses were analyzed to make further improvements to the course book.

INTRODUCTION

The popularity of the task-based language-learning framework (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004) has influenced the direction of university-level content-based EFL reading courses. In an integrated approach, teachers have started to supplement classes with speaking, listening, and writing activities for students to convey meaning from reading passages to demonstrate and assimilate both world and language knowledge without an initial focus on form.

The theme-based model for content-based instruction (Brinton, 2003; Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989) is often used in university-level EFL reading courses in Japan. In an attempt to follow-up on skills-based reading instruction, which students usually acquire prior to university entry or in their first tertiary-level reading courses, an emphasis is placed on language learning for a meaningful purpose (Krashen, 1982; Mohan, 1986). The themes that are used are related to the interests of the students, teachers, or department. Typical units of study often follow a three-part format with the reading passage presented first, followed by vocabulary, comprehension, and opinion-based questions to check student understanding of the article and to personalize and expand on the information presented. The authenticity of the passages and real-world applicability of the exercises varies, and a level of

difficulty is often selected according to instructor interpretations of student ability and needs.

This paper will discuss the development and revision processes surrounding a set of course materials used in a large task-based, content-based reading program. The reasons why this approach is used will be discussed before describing how this collection of materials went through two major revisions based on instructor and student feedback.

BACKGROUND

As part of a general studies curriculum, the students in a competitive science and engineering department at a large private university in western Japan are required to take 10 semester-long English courses during their first two years. These classes are taught entirely in English and meet for one 90-minute period a week for 15 weeks. Their language instructors are all native English speakers and class sizes range from 28-35 students. As the curriculum is unified, all students use the same course materials and syllabi.

Reading II is the seventh English course students take and is the second of three reading courses. It is offered in the first semester of the second year. The first university-level reading course, Reading I, is taken in the first semester of the first year. It is primarily skills-based, using a commercial textbook (Mikulecky & Jeffries, 2005) supplemented with timed science-based reading passages developed by the faculty. To apply these skills to real-world student needs, Reading II is designed to be content-based using a collection of authentic science-based materials that are also prepared by the faculty.

To aid in learning the Reading II articles, a number of task-based comprehension and opinion-based questions are included at the end of each unit. This approach was employed partly due to the presence of inexperienced course instructors in the department from the 2006 school year who have no formal TEFL training. While qualified as researchers in their respective scientific fields and employed by the university primarily for this reason, they are also required to teach a number of English courses. The task-based approach focuses primarily on the conveyance of meaning, which is within the capabilities of these instructors. While the focus on form in Reading II is limited in written and verbal output, students receive an adequate amount the next semester with Reading III, a more advanced content-based course taught by trained and experienced EFL teachers.

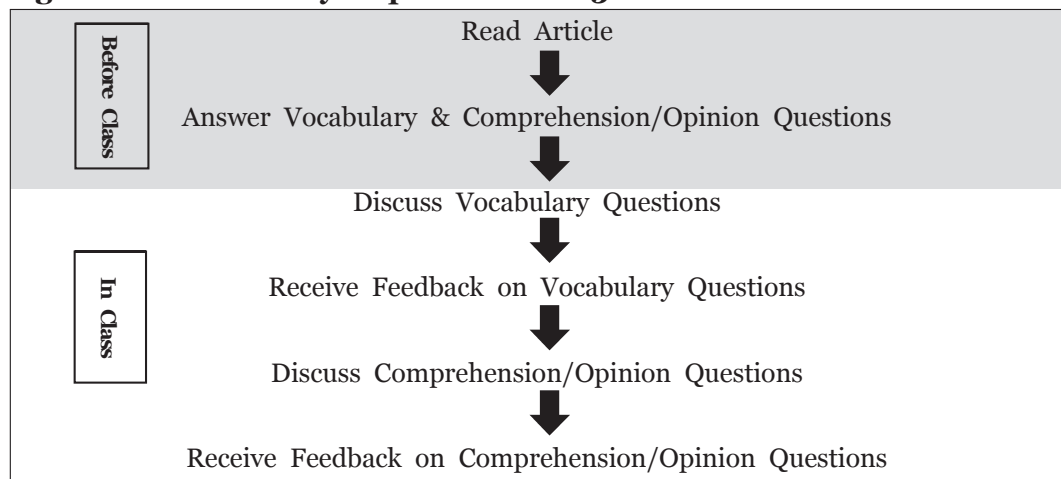
The original course book was first developed after identifying student needs for a department-wide curriculum renewal that took effect in 2000. It was also in direct response to a widely publicized report on the decline of English ability among science and engineering majors in Japanese universities (Suzuki, Arai, & Yanai, 1999). Minor revisions later replaced two units for the 2003 school year. The most recent revision occurred in 2005 for the spring 2006 semester.

The Reading II course book used between 2003-2006 contained 10 units that followed a uniform three-part format. A two or three-page reading passage of approximately 2100-2300 words was followed by 14-16 multiple-choice cloze vocabulary exercises. Six to eight comprehension questions

came next, with one-third to half being opinion-based. All of the reading passages were found through online media sources and were used for educational purposes as described under fair use copyright law (Copyright Research and Information Center, 2006; UK Copyright Service, 2004; U. S. Copyright Office, 2006).

Figure 1 shows the study sequence for Reading II classes using the 2003-2006 course materials. Students were required to read an article and to answer the vocabulary, comprehension, and opinion-based questions in the text as homework. Completion of the exercises was visually checked by the teacher at the beginning of class, and one point was deducted from the final score of each student who did not finish the assignment. Two or three students neglect the homework in the first few weeks of the course, but all regularly complete each week's assignment by the middle of the semester. Students were first asked to form pairs or small groups to discuss their answers to the vocabulary questions. When about 20 minutes had passed, the teacher would either forcibly or voluntarily elicit answers. After answering any related questions, students were then instructed to discuss their responses to the comprehension and opinion-based questions. The instructor went from group to group to give hints and advice on how to answer questions that troubled them. After all students had thoroughly discussed the questions, the teacher would call the class together and have a whole-class discussion by providing feedback on the article based on the questions. A portion of the vocabulary and comprehension items would later appear on one of three periodic quizzes taken during the semester, which accounted for 40% of the final grade for the course.

Figure 1. Student Study Sequence for 2003-2006 Materials



O'Neill (2006) used two open-ended surveys that asked both students (N = 264) who used the Reading II materials revised for 2003 and the teachers (N = 7) who taught it to identify areas for possible revisions. Based on responses to a question asking how the course book could best be improved, extensive revisions were made including the replacement of a unit with outdated content, the inclusion of visual aids such as maps and graphs where

appropriate, the rewriting or deletion of some opinion-based questions so as to put more emphasis on comprehension-based questions, the inclusion of a fill-in-the-blank vocabulary exercise to accompany each unit's existing cloze vocabulary exercises, the replacement of certain cloze exercise distractors that were too easy or difficult, the rewriting or replacement of certain comprehension-based questions that were poorly written, and a standardization in the number of opinion and comprehension-based questions per unit. The unit study sequence, however, remained unchanged.

The same survey method was again used at the end of the spring 2006 semester to see how a new group of Reading II students with the same Reading I background as those in the previous study reacted to the revised course book. The participants in this study were given the same anonymous questionnaire that asked in their native language how they thought their course book could best be improved. Ample writing space for any responses, to be written in Japanese, was provided on the forms. This data was collected at the same period during the semester as the previous year. Participation in the survey was again completely voluntary and all data was collected in an ethical manner (American Psychological Association, 2002).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the responses to the survey. Of the 631 students who took Reading II during the 2006 academic school year, 357 were surveyed and valid responses were received from 279. Of the 78 disregarded responses or questionnaires, 43 were either completely off-topic or blank and 35 students had written that the textbook did not need to be improved. All valid responses were individually documented and tallied. The numeral on the left indicates the total number of occurrences of each response. Approximate translations of the student feedback are included for reference purposes. The total number of responses received is a proportional representation of the target population (Borg & Gall, 1996; Oppenheim, 1992). In the previous study (O'Neill, 2006), 293 out of 648 students were surveyed, and valid responses were received from 264.

Table 1. Student Survey Results

#	Responses (Original)	Responses (English translation)
95	文章が長い	Articles are too long
71	価格が高い	Textbook is too expensive
51	内容が難しい	Articles are too difficult
27	解答が欲しい	Want answers to exercises in textbook
16	重要語句の意味 (譯) が欲しい	Include a glossary
15	本文・問題を別々の本に	Separate books for articles, questions
11	もっと興味を持てる内容の文章に	Want more interesting articles
9	単語の穴埋問題が難しい	Cloze exercises are too difficult
8	解説が欲しい	Want hints for answering questions
8	単語が難しすぎる	Vocabulary is too difficult
7	問題数が多い	Too many questions
6	図や絵を入れて欲しい	Include more visual aids
6	内容の改善 (理工學部に合っていない)	Want more scientific articles

6	日本語訳が欲しい	Want Japanese translations of articles
6	問題が難しい	Questions are too difficult
5	色々な分野の話に	Want non-scientific content
5	同じ形式ばかりでつまらない	Include variety in unit format
5	カラーにする	Want textbook in color
4	テキストのサイズを小さく	Want smaller textbook size
4	問題の改善 (穴埋が多すぎる)	Too many cloze exercises
4	問題の改善 (自分の意見を書くように)	Include more opinion-based questions
3	単語の問題を増やす	Want more vocabulary exercises
3	問題の改善 (意見を書かないように)	Include fewer opinion-based questions
3	問題の選択肢が多すぎる	Want fewer multiple-choice distractors
2	単語のレベルを上げる	Want more difficult vocabulary
2	内容についての質問を増やして欲しい	Want more comprehension questions
2	内容の改善 (簡単すぎる)	Articles are too easy
2	文法の問題を増やして欲しい	Want grammar exercises
2	Unitによって難しさにばらつきがある	Units need uniform difficulty
1	各unitの内容を要約し載せて欲しい	Include unit summaries
1	図やグラフから読み解く質問を欲しい	Include questions related to visual aids
1	内容の改善 (新しい話題を)	Want more up-to-date articles

N = 279. Some students provided more than one response.

The ten most common student suggestions for improving the coursebook accounted for 79% of the total and these were examined for the next revision. The most common response, that the articles were too long, is a complaint often heard from students by teachers of the course. The articles are each between 2100 and 2300 words in length. This is approximately double the length of the supplemental reading activities students encountered in Reading I. The key difference is that the articles in Reading II have to be read for homework, while 45 minutes of class time was used for the reading exercises in their previous reading course. Many Japanese university students also believe extracurricular activities, active social lives, and part-time jobs to be more important than serious study and resent having to do homework (Deiters, 1992; McVeigh, 2002), especially the amount that Reading II requires. The length of the articles contained in the course book is significantly shorter than what students will see the next year in their specialized upper-division courses and in graduate school, to which approximately half will attend. These students will be required to read and disseminate numerous articles taken from international scientific research journals. Reducing the length of the articles in the Reading II course book will therefore not adequately prepare them for their future academic studies.

The second most common answer, that the textbook was too expensive, is valid. Students were required to purchase the course book (Arase et al., 2006) from the university bookstore before the beginning of the school year for 2700 Japanese Yen, which is approximately 21,800 South Korean Won or 23.50 United States Dollars. While this is within the price range of other EFL textbooks commonly used in Japan, the main reason why students reacted so strongly to the cost is that it was the first time that the textbook had to be purchased. The previous versions had been printed by the university and distributed free of charge. Budget restraints required a commercial publisher to print the materials for the 2006 school year, and university regulations required the student cooperative to distribute it. No profit was made by the authors of the textbook or by the university itself, but because of its limited au-

dience, the price cannot be lowered.

The third and tenth most common responses, that the articles and vocabulary are too difficult, are not surprising because the previous revision did nothing to address this. However, because of the high number of students who have consistently identified this as a point for improvement, an attempt has been made to address it in this revision (see below). Many respondents also requested answers to the exercises to be included in the course book. While some students may legitimately perceive this to be a useful study tool helping them better understand the reading passages, it would not be advantageous, as many would be tempted to cheat if given the opportunity (Diekhoff, Labeff, Shinohara, & Yasukawa, 1999; Johnson & Sheehan, in press).

Requests for the addition of a glossary are new, and no students thought that this would improve the course book in the original survey (O'Neill, 2006). While this request is one reason that led to the inclusion of a new vocabulary section in the beginning of each unit (see below), it may also be a response to a new department requirement for all students to purchase an imported English-English dictionary for their reading courses. The failure to bring one to class would result in one point being deducted from a student's final score for the course.

The number of students requesting separate books for the readings and exercises is similar in the two surveys (O'Neill, 2006). This request, while easy to accommodate, would significantly increase the printing costs of the required course materials. It is for this reason that the suggestion will be ignored.

Appeals for more interesting articles and themes to be included in the course book, while seemingly high with 11 incidences, is much lower than in the previous survey, in which it was mentioned 76 times (O'Neill, 2006). This may have been due to the timing of the survey, which was conducted at the end of the last class before the final examination. Students had at that time just completed studying a tedious, outdated unit on three Internet megasearch engines, two of which no longer existed (Notess, 1998). As the unit was replaced with a more interesting and up-to-date unit based on a speculative science project (Daily Mail, 2005), fewer students may have perceived the course book as a whole to require improvement in this category.

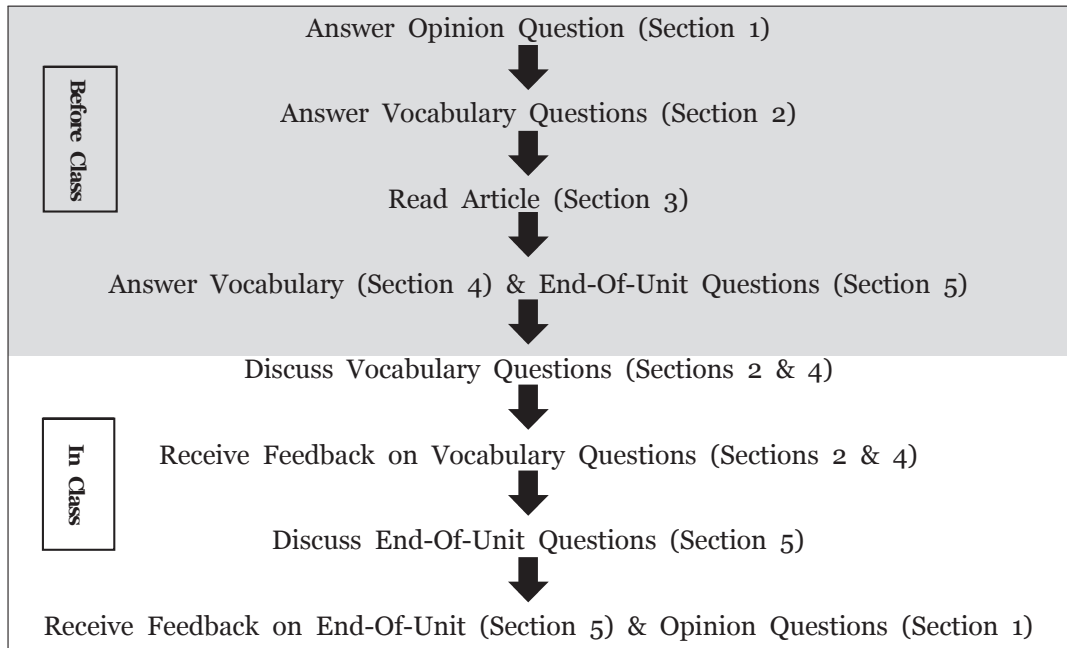
The number of students who wrote that the cloze exercises were too difficult is consistent in both surveys (O'Neill, 2006). Even though an attempt was made in the previous revision to have the vocabulary exercise distractors seem less difficult, the current survey shows that a high level of dissatisfaction still exists. To address this, a new vocabulary exercise will be introduced into each unit (see below).

Eight students in the survey requested hints for answering the questions to be included in the course book. This is compared with three who requested it in the previous survey (O'Neill, 2006). While the number did increase, guidance on how to answer questions cannot be given, as students will receive no such help when required to read articles for content courses their junior year and, for many, in graduate school. One of the purposes of Reading II has always been to prepare students for their future needs.

REVISIONS FOR 2007

By taking into account the student survey responses from the current survey and after recognizing that the 2006 revisions did not entirely address student concerns, adjustments were made to the Reading II course book. Figure 2 shows an outline of the study sequence to be used from the spring 2007 school year.

Figure 2. Student Study Sequence for 2007 Materials



Each unit has now been divided into five sections (See Appendix). Section 1 consists of an opinion-based, warm-up question, which was added to the beginning of each unit for students to answer before reading the article. This was done to address concerns about the difficulty of the articles by providing the benefits of a top-down processing capability (Nunan, 1991; Rumelhart, 2004; Smith, 1971) and to raise schemata (Anderson & Pearson, 1988; Carrell, 1984; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). In Section 2, a new vocabulary matching exercise was introduced that features 10 common words from the article that students were not exposed to in standard Japanese high school curriculums and were not previously studied in other Reading II vocabulary sections (Shawback, 2006). The word is written on the left with English definitions on the right. This section was included to respond to concerns about the difficulty of the vocabulary in the articles and requests for the inclusion of a glossary. Knowing the key vocabulary before attempting to read the article will aid in comprehension (Laufer, 1992; Samuels & Flor, 1997). It is only after completing the two exercises that students should read the entire article. While there is no assurance that these procedures will be followed in this exact order, students will find the reading passages easier to understand should they attempt it. Finally, after reading the article, students will work on

the end-of-unit Sections 4 and 5, which comprise of vocabulary exercises, and comprehension and opinion-based tasks. Because of individual learner differences (Skehan, 1989), students will complete these either during or after reading the article.

Once class starts, the sequence of study will be the same as that of the 2003-2006 materials. The Cooperative Learning framework (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991; Joritz-Nakagawa, 2006) was never criticized or cited as an area for improvement in any of the three surveys. As before, students will confer with each other on their answers to vocabulary exercises before receiving feedback from the teacher. Students will then discuss their responses to the questions before having a whole-class discussion. This learner-centered approach develops a sense of autonomy in the students, which will assist them with their future needs (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 1995).

CONCLUSION

This study sought to investigate how revisions made to a collection of task-based, content-based materials was received by the students who used them. The previous study attempted to make several changes by examining student and teacher feedback. This revision was conducted a year later and was guided by comments solicited from the students who used the revised materials. A change was made to the study sequence of the units in the textbook. Two new sections were added to the beginning of each unit to aid in comprehension of the articles.

Materials revision is a cyclic process that requires continuous development and evaluation (Stern, 1992). The interpretation of the survey results presented in this paper were those of the author alone. Different ideas may have been implemented if the Reading II materials revision project had been a collaborative work. All changes made in this revision were based on the top ten student responses. The other 21% could have been examined to make further improvements to the course book. A follow-up survey will also need to be conducted in the future to measure the appropriateness and validity of the revision described in this paper. Unlike the previous study, the collected data did not include any feedback from the instructors who used the revised materials. Input from this group can be used as a factor in future revisions.

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APPENDIX A. SAMPLE UNIT FOR 2007 COURSE BOOK

Unit 10

Reading II

[Section 1]

Answer the question before you start reading.

1. Do you think it is possible to predict the future? Why/Why not?

[Section 2]

Match the words with the definitions.

1. Churn out	a. To give an early warning.
2. Phenomenon	b. The thoughts, feelings, and awareness of a person or group.
3. Forewarn	c. A difference from what is considered normal.
4. Predict	d. To be unpredictable and change without a pattern.
5. Consciousness	e. To produce automatically, mechanically, and rapidly.
6. Generate	f. To produce as a result of a physical or mechanical process.
7. Deviation	g. To know about the future.
8. Sceptic	h. A person who doubts the authenticity or truth about something.
9. Fluctuate	i. Something extraordinary, unusual, and extraordinary.
10. Random	j. To change back and forth continuously.

[Section 3]**Can This Black Box See Into the Future?**

Daily Mail, UK

Deep in the basement of a dusty university library in
5 Edinburgh lies a small black box, roughly the size of two
cigarette packets side by side, that churns out random
numbers in an endless stream.

At first glance it is an unremarkable piece of equipment.
Encased in metal, it contains at its heart a microchip no more
10 complex than the ones found in modern pocket calculators.

But, according to a growing band of top scientists, this box has
quite extraordinary powers. It is, they claim, the 'eye' of a
machine that appears [A] of peering into the future and
predicting major world events.

15 The machine apparently [B] the September 11 attacks on
the World Trade Centre hours before they happened - but in
the fevered mood of conspiracy theories of the time, the
claims were swiftly knocked back by sceptics. But last
December, it also appeared to forewarn of the Asian tsunami
20 just before the deep sea earthquake that precipitated the epic
tragedy.

Now, even the doubters are acknowledging that here is a
small box with apparently inexplicable powers.

'It's Earth-shattering stuff,' says Dr Roger Nelson, emeritus
25 researcher at Princeton University in the United States, who is
heading the research project behind the 'black box' [C].

'We're very early on in the process of trying to figure out what's
going on here. At the moment we're stabbing in the dark.' Dr
Nelson's investigations, called the Global Consciousness
30 Project, were originally hosted by Princeton University and are
centred on one of the most extraordinary experiments of all
time. Its aim is to detect whether all of humanity shares a
single subconscious mind that we can all tap into without
realising. And machines like the Edinburgh black box have
35 thrown up a tantalising possibility: that scientists may
have [D] discovered a way of predicting the future.

Although many would consider the project's aims to be little
more than fools' gold, it has still attracted a roster of 75

respected scientists from 41 different nations. Researchers
40 from Princeton - where Einstein spent much of his career - work
alongside scientists from universities in Britain, the Netherlands,
Switzerland and Germany. The project is also the most rigorous
and longest-running investigation ever into the potential powers
of the paranormal.

45 'Very often [E] phenomena evaporate if you study them for
long enough,' says physicist Dick Bierman of the University of
Amsterdam. 'But this is not happening with the Global
Consciousness Project. The effect is real. The only dispute is
about what it means.' The project has its roots in the
50 extraordinary work of Professor Robert Jahn of Princeton
University during the late 1970s. He was one of the first modern
scientists to take paranormal phenomena seriously. Intrigued
by such things as telepathy, telekinesis - the supposed psychic
power to move objects without the use of physical force - and
55 extrasensory perception, he was determined to study the
phenomena using the most up-to-date technology available.

One of these new technologies was a humble-looking black box
known as a Random Event Generator (REG). This used
computer technology to generate two numbers - a one and a
60 zero - in a totally random sequence, rather like an electronic
coin-flipper.

The pattern of ones and noughts - 'heads' and 'tails' as it were -
could then be printed out as a graph. The laws of chance
dictate that the generators should churn out equal numbers of
65 ones and zeros - which would be represented by a nearly flat
line on the graph. Any deviation from this equal number shows
up as a gently rising curve.

During the late 1970s, Prof Jahn decided to investigate whether
the power of human thought alone could interfere in some way
70 with the machine's usual readings. He hauled strangers off the
street and asked them to concentrate their minds on his
number generator. In effect, he was asking them to try to make
it flip more heads than tails.

It was a preposterous idea at the time. The results, however,
75 were stunning and have never been satisfactorily explained.

Again and again, entirely ordinary people proved that their
minds could influence the machine and produce significant
fluctuations on the graph, 'forcing it' to produce unequal
numbers of 'heads' or 'tails'.

According to all of the known laws of science, this should not have happened - but it did. And it kept on happening.

Dr Nelson, also working at Princeton University, then extended Prof Jahn's work by taking random number machines to group meditations, which were very popular in America at the time. Again, the results were eye-popping. The groups were collectively able to cause dramatic shifts in the patterns of numbers.

From then on, Dr Nelson was hooked.

Using the internet, he connected up 40 random event generators from all over the world to his laboratory computer in Princeton. These ran constantly, day in day out, millions of different pieces of data. Most of the time, the resulting graph on his computer looked more or less like a flat line.

But then on September 6, 1997, something quite extraordinary happened: the graph shot upwards, recording a sudden and massive shift in the number sequence as his machines around the world started reporting huge deviations from the . The day was of historic importance for another reason, too.

For it was the same day that an estimated one billion people around the world watched the funeral of Diana, Princess of Wales at Westminster Abbey.

Dr Nelson was convinced that the two events must be related in some way.

Could he have detected a totally new phenomena? Could the concentrated emotional outpouring of millions of people be able to influence the output of his REGs. If so, how?

Dr Nelson was at a loss to explain it.

So, in 1998, he gathered together scientists from all over the world to analyse his . They, too, were stumped and resolved to extend and deepen the work of Prof Jahn and Dr Nelson. The Global Consciousness Project was born.

Since then, the project has expanded massively. A total of 65 Eggs (as the generators have been named) in 41 countries have now been recruited to act as the 'eyes' of the project.

And the results have been startling and inexplicable in equal measure.

For during the course of the experiment, the Eggs have 'sensed' a whole series of major world events as they were happening, from the Nato bombing of Yugoslavia to the Kursk submarine tragedy to America's hung election of 2000.

The Eggs also regularly detect huge global celebrations, such as New Year's Eve.

But the project threw up its greatest enigma on September 11, 2001.

As the world stood still and watched the horror of the terrorist attacks unfold across New York, something strange was happening to the Eggs.

Not only had they registered the attacks as they actually happened, but the characteristic shift in the pattern of numbers had begun four hours before the two planes even hit the Twin Towers.

They had, it appeared, that an event of historic importance was about to take place before the terrorists had even boarded their fateful flights. The implications, not least for the West's security services who constantly monitor electronic 'chatter', are clearly enormous.

'I knew then that we had a great deal of work ahead of us,' says Dr Nelson.

What could be happening? Was it a freak occurrence, perhaps?

Apparently not. For in the closing weeks of December 2004, the machines went wild once more.

Twenty-four hours later, an earthquake deep beneath the Indian Ocean triggered the tsunami which devastated South-East Asia, and claimed the lives of an estimated quarter of a million people.

So could the Global Consciousness Project really be forecasting the future?

Cynics will quite rightly point out that there is always some global event that could be used to 'explain' the times when the Egg machines behaved erratically. After all, our world is full of wars, disasters and terrorist outrages, as well as the occasional global celebration. Are the scientists simply trying too hard to detect patterns in their raw data?

The team behind the project insist not. They claim that by using scientific techniques and powerful mathematics it is possible to exclude any such random connections.

'We're perfectly willing to discover that we've made mistakes,' says Dr Nelson. 'But we haven't been able to find any, and neither has anyone else.'

Our data shows clearly that the chances of getting these results by are one million to one against.

That's hugely significant.' But many remain sceptical.

Professor Chris French, a psychologist and noted sceptic at Goldsmiths College in London, says: 'The Global Consciousness Project has generated some very intriguing results that cannot be readily dismissed. I'm involved in similar work to see if we get the same results. We haven't managed to do so yet but it's only an early experiment. The jury's still out.' Strange as it may seem, though, there's nothing in the laws of physics that precludes the possibility of foreseeing the future.

It is possible - in theory - that time may not just move forwards but backwards, too. And if time ebbs and flows like the tides in the sea, it might just be possible to major world events. We would, in effect, be 'remembering' things that had taken place in our future.

'There's plenty of evidence that time may run backwards,' says Prof Bierman at the University of Amsterdam.

'And if it's possible for it to happen in physics, then it can happen in our minds, too.' In other words, Prof Bierman believes that we are all capable of looking into the future, if only we could tap into the hidden power of our minds. And there is a tantalising body of evidence to support this theory.

Dr John Hartwell, working at the University of Utrecht in the Netherlands, was the first to uncover evidence that people could sense the future. In the mid-1970s he hooked people up to hospital scanning machines so that he could study their brainwave patterns.

He began by showing them a sequence of provocative cartoon drawings.

When the pictures were shown, the machines registered the subject's brainwaves as they reacted to the images before them. This was to be expected.

Far less easy to explain was the fact that in many cases, these dramatic patterns began to register a few seconds before each of the pictures were even flashed up.

It was as though Dr Hartwell's case studies were somehow seeing into the future, and detecting when the next shocking image would be shown next.

It was extraordinary - and seemingly inexplicable.

But it was to be another 15 years before anyone else took Dr Hartwell's work further when Dean Radin, a researcher working in America, connected people up to a machine that measured

their skin's resistance to electricity. This is known to fluctuate in tandem with our moods - indeed, it's this principle that underlies many lie detectors.

Radin repeated Dr Hartwell's 'image response' experiments while measuring skin resistance. Again, people began reacting a few seconds before they were shown the provocative pictures. This was clearly impossible, or so he thought, so he kept on repeating the experiments. And he kept getting the same (N) .

'I didn't believe it either,' says Prof Bierman. 'So I also repeated the experiment myself and got the same results. I was shocked. After this I started to think more deeply about the nature of time.' To make matters even more intriguing, Prof Bierman says that other mainstream labs have now produced similar results but are yet to go public.

'They don't want to be ridiculed so they won't release their findings,' he says. 'So I'm trying to persuade all of them to release their results at the same time. That would at least spread the ridicule a little more thinly!' If Prof Bierman is right, though, then the experiments are no laughing matter.

They might help provide a solid scientific grounding for such strange phenomena as 'deja vu', intuition and a host of other curiosities that we have all experienced from time to time.

They may also open up a far more interesting possibility - that one day we might be able to (O) psychic powers using machines that can 'tune in' to our subconscious mind, machines like the little black box in Edinburgh.

Just as we have built mechanical engines to replace muscle power, could we one day build a device to enhance and interpret our hidden psychic abilities?

Dr Nelson is optimistic - but not for the short term. 'We may be able to predict that a major world event is going to happen. But we won't know exactly what will happen or where it's going to happen,' he says.

'Put it this way - we haven't yet got a (P) we could sell to the CIA.'

But for Dr Nelson, talk of such psychic machines - with the potential to detect global catastrophes or terrorist outrages - is of far less importance than the implications of his work in terms of the human race.

For what his experiments appear to demonstrate is that while we may all operate as individuals, we also appear to share something far, far greater - a global consciousness. Some might call it the mind of God.

'We're taught to be individualistic monsters,' he says. 'We're driven by society to separate ourselves from each other. That's not right.'

We may be connected together far more intimately than we realise.'

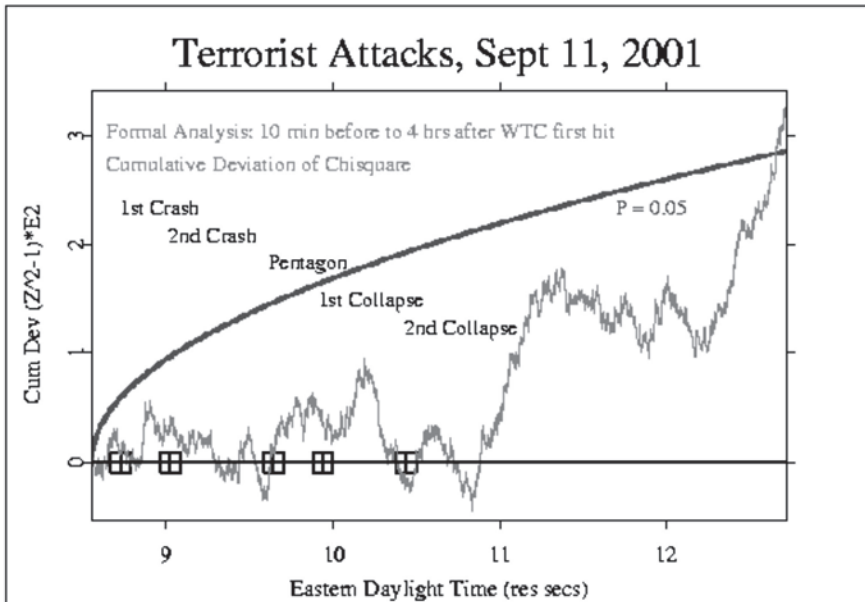
50 -----

On the Net:

Global Consciousness Project (<http://noosphere.princeton.edu/>)

Princeton University

(<http://www.princeton.edu/>)



[Section 4]

Choose the most appropriate item from the following to fill in each blank.

- | | |
|---|---|
| A) 1. able
2. capable
3. detectable
4. knowledgeable | I) 1. believed
2. detected
3. dismissed
4. imagined |
| B) 1. churned
2. flipped
3. sensed
4. stunned | J) 1. amateur
2. questionable
3. rigorous
4. unsound |
| C) 1. influence
2. meditation
3. phenomenon
4. term | K) 1. fluke
2. lab
3. skepticism
4. shift |
| D) 1. knowingly
2. swiftly
3. unremarkably
4. unwittingly | L) 1. change
2. foretell
3. implicate
4. influence |
| E) 1. intellectual
2. paranormal
3. scientific
4. truthful | M) 1. calmly
2. thinly
3. strongly
4. weakly |
| F) 1. analyzing
2. blocking
3. disputing
4. generating | N) 1. expectation
2. optimism
3. outrages
4. results |
| G) 1. extraordinary
2. fluctuation
3. norm
4. unlikely | O) 1. dispute
2. enhance
3. fluctuate
4. predict |
| H) 1. findings
2. future
3. measure
4. mind | P) 1. conspiracy
2. jury
3. machine
4. psychic |

Choose the most appropriate item from the above to fill in each blank.

1. I _____ the steak over to cook the other side.
2. I was _____ when I heard the bad news.
3. My parents do not believe in the _____.
4. The cloud is _____ the sun.
5. There was a power _____ when lightning struck my building during the storm.
6. I _____ in Santa Claus when I was a kid.
7. My brother is a player on _____ basketball team.
8. The organic science _____ has a bad smell in it.
9. I think it is impossible to _____ the future.
10. The _____ told the man that he would win the lottery.

[Section 5]

Answer the following questions based on your understanding of the article.

1. What is Unit 10 about? Write a brief summary.

2. Do you believe in *omikujī*? *Rokuyo/rokki*? *Seimeihandan* (name divination)? *Teso* (palm reading)?

- 3a. What is a Random Event Generator (REG)/Egg?

- 3b. What happened to REGs/Eggs around the world on September 6, 1997?

- 3c. Compared to September 6, 1997, what was different about what happened to REGs/Eggs around the world on September 11, 2001 and in the closing weeks of December 2004?

4. What do cynics say about the Global Consciousness Project? What do you think?

- 5a. Describe Dr. John Hartwell's "image response" experiments.

- 5b. Did researcher Dean Radlin and physicist Dick Bierman find similar results?

- 5c. According to Bierman, other mainstream laboratories have not released their findings after conducting similar experiments. What is the reason he gives for this? Do you agree with him? Explain.

6. Do you believe in a global consciousness? Explain.

Content-Based Instruction: Curricular Design and Materials Development

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ABSTRACT

The trend of incorporating academic content-based courses into English language programs at the university level has created a need for level and language appropriate English curriculum for the wide range of university majors. While an array of commercially made EFL/ESL materials exist for Business related majors, teachers will have much greater difficulty finding level-appropriate materials for other majors such as Law, International Relations or Economics. Therefore, many teachers, when faced with teaching a course where no text exists, must create and write their own content-based curriculum. This paper will address the basic steps needed to effectively design and create a content-based curriculum for a university-level EFL/ESL classroom. Included in these steps will be the varying definitions of a content-based course, the common challenges faced while writing a content-based curriculum, important guidelines to follow as the curriculum is written, and methods to gather and utilize teacher and student feedback for revision after the course has been taught.

PURPOSE OF THE PAPER

The purpose of this paper is to identify and discuss four areas that are essential for designing effective content-based curriculum. These areas include 1) Defining Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and considering the balance between language and content; 2) Recognizing the challenges and factors involved prior to writing the curriculum; 3) Developing clear, concise, sequential and level-appropriate lesson plans; and 4) Collecting and incorporating teacher and student feedback into the revision of the curriculum.

DEFINING CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION (CBI)

Varying views on the definitions of *content* and *content-based instruction* exist. However, a key step in designing an effective curriculum that meets the needs of students, the instructors and specific program will be to identify and

agree on a working definition of these terms. Chaput (1993) defines *content* as “any topic of intellectual substance which contributes to the understanding of language in general, and the target language in particular.” In this view, the goal of utilizing content in a classroom would be for learning the language. Crandall and Tucker (1990) describe *content* as “academic subject matter” while Curtain and Pesola (1994) express *content-based instruction* as “curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language.” These particular views represent a contrasting aspect of CBI in which the content itself is emphasized in a language-learning context. In light of these two perspectives, it will then be important for curriculum developers to answer the following questions before designing curriculum: Will the course be a content-driven course where learning the content is the priority? Will it be a language-driven course where language learning tasks take precedence? On the other hand, will it be a course that aims to emphasize both the language and content? A framework provided by Met (1999), in Table 1, provides curriculum developers a scheme to consider the balance between language and content that is appropriate for each individual context. This continuum can assist teachers in determining overall course objectives as well as the specific language and content goals of each lesson.

Table 1. Continuum of Content and Language Integration

Source: M. Met. (1999)

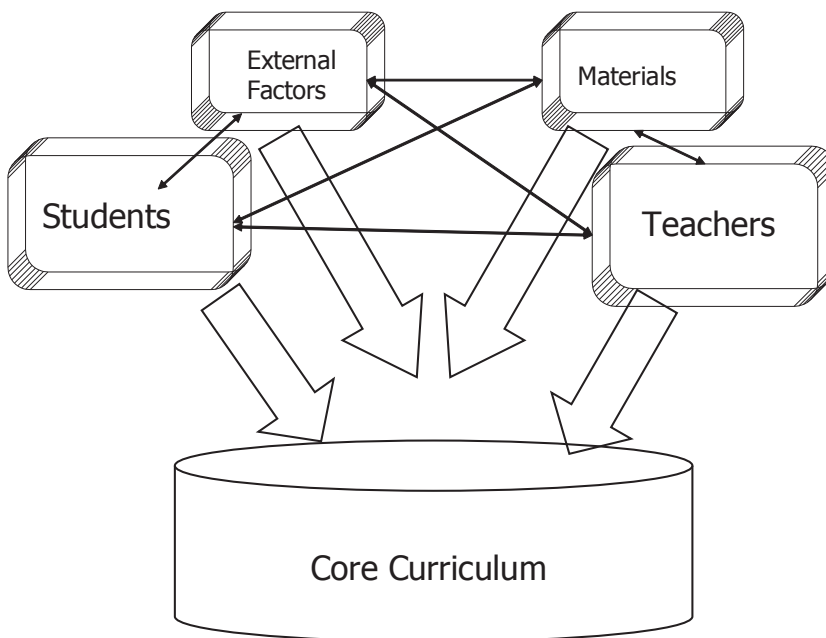
Content-Driven	Language-Driven
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content is taught in L2. • Content learning is priority. • Language learning is secondary. • Content objective determined by course goals or curriculum. • Teachers must select language objectives. • Students evaluated on content mastery. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content is used to learn L2. • Language learning is priority. • Content learning is incidental. • Language objectives determined by L2 course goals or curriculum. • Students evaluated on content to be integrated. • Students evaluated on language skills/proficiency.

All forms of CBI in essence will be an integration of both language and content. However, one of the greatest challenges in CBI will be achieving the balance that is appropriate to a particular context that includes the teacher and students. Murphey (1997) indicates, “The hardest task for most teachers seems to be in making their content area comprehensible and in avoiding the two extremes (p. 123).” It will be important to consider this balance while establishing course goals and objectives during the lesson writing process.

RECOGNIZING THE CHALLENGES AND FACTORS INVOLVED PRIOR TO WRITING THE CURRICULUM

When creating curriculum for a content-based course, every teacher will be approaching a different context for writing. Teachers write content-based curriculum for diverse situations. Curriculum committees or individual teachers may be writing curriculum for a whole faculty of teachers and students or may simply be writing curriculum for their own courses. In any situation, the context will, necessarily, dictate much of the style and content included in the curriculum.

Diagram 1. Challenges of Developing Content-Based Curriculum (Brooks, 2004)



Four areas present challenges prior to curricular development. As seen in Diagram 1 (Brooks, 2004) these factors include areas related to students, teachers, materials and external factors.

One of the first challenges facing curriculum writers will be to consider the varying language proficiency levels of the students. If possible, the students should be placed into classes according to their English abilities. Simultaneously, scheduling and class size should be arranged to reflect the overall goals and objectives of the course. Prior content knowledge of the students will be another factor to consider as the students may or may not have a solid foundation in the content that is going to be taught in their first language let alone their second language. Student interest and motivation should also be taken into account prior to curricular development.

A second area of contextual challenges will relate to teachers and the instruction of content-based curriculum. It will be important for the curriculum developers to recognize the varying teaching styles of instructors and their prior knowledge of the content. Some teachers may be intimidated by teaching a content-based course if they have little or no prior knowledge. This means it will be vital to orient instructors in both approach to CBI as well as the content that will be taught. It also suggests that lesson plans that are later developed need to be written clearly, concisely and consistently so instructors can focus on learning and teaching the content itself.

Locating materials for content-based courses can pose another set of challenges. Depending on what content is going to be taught, it may be difficult to find an appropriate textbook for the course due to difficulty of the text and/or the relevancy of topics within a textbook. Curriculum developers will need to consider multiple factors in selecting what kind of themes or topics to teach.

The final area that needs to be examined will be external factors, such as scheduling, budgeting, how students are organized, and goals of the university or department that the content is related to. The curriculum developers cannot directly control many of these influential factors. However, it will be important to communicate with the administration about essential needs (e.g., Funding, time for curricular development, number of people involved) and to discuss goals and objectives of the course.

GUIDELINES FOR WRITING AND DEVELOPING CURRICULUM

The following sections are meant to provide advice for curriculum writing that was applied by the authors for their specific context but could be easily adapted and applied to a variety of CBI writing situations.

Before beginning the writing process, creating a set of formatting guidelines to follow will ensure consistency, clarity and continuity for individual lessons and the overall curriculum. Adopting clear writing guidelines is especially important when a committee is developing lessons. Lessons should incorporate a uniform style with clear instructions for any teacher to be able to pick up, preview and teach. The lesson objectives should accompany activities that are used to achieve those objectives and sufficient background content information should be included to provide adequate support for teachers.

Students making the leap from a traditional, four-skills English class into a content-based course will invariably need vocabulary support for the countless words specific to the intended content. While writing content-based curriculum, it is important to identify key vocabulary and create a bank of words that students will need to learn in order to understand each lesson. Kate Kinsella notes, "Instructors in content-based classrooms can do their English language learners an immeasurable service by introducing them to a systematic and pedagogically sound method of vocabulary expansion" (Kinsella, 1997, p. 64). Writers should keep in mind that students must learn the essential vocabulary *prior* to the target lesson. Explicitly teaching the students strategies for learning vocabulary, stressing the importance of consistent study and using vocabulary assessment regularly will greatly increase the likelihood that students will be able to understand the content of the lessons.

When writing curriculum for content-based courses it is imperative to limit the amount of material covered in the course so that students have sufficient time and opportunities for repeated exposure to grasp the intended topic. Varying the activities and modes of instruction for one topic helps to keep students engaged. As Stoller and Grabe write, "It is important not to overwhelm students with too much content. There are usually many ways to exploit interesting content for language learning purposes without moving through large sets of resources too quickly" (Stoller & Grabe, 1997, p. 93). For example, one lesson in a unit may include activities that focus on reading and making written responses to a content-based article, while the next lesson asks students to interpret charts and graphs and interact in small groups using the same content from the previous week. The content-specific language written and read in the first class gets "recycled" by the speaking and listening in the second class. Changing the tasks but working with similar content over a series of classes allows students the time necessary to comprehend and use language specific to the content.

FEEDBACK AND REVISION

No curriculum is perfect in its initial form, so teachers creating a content-based course should be prepared to make significant revisions after the first lessons have been taught. Once the initial writing process has been finished and the piloting of lessons has begun, gathering feedback from both teachers and students is critical to the overall curriculum revision process. Planning and creating opportunities to gather different types of feedback both during and at the end of the course is vital to receiving the input needed for proper revision.

Anonymous surveys that ask students and teachers specifically about activities, assignments, vocabulary and provide space for written comments are helpful to gauge the overall perception of the curriculum and to find common areas of concern. This type of feedback allows students and teachers to be frank about curriculum without fear of offending the teachers or curriculum writers. Formal surveys of this type can be done several times over the course of the school year.

In addition to the formal, traditional survey format, more informal but equally valuable opportunities for feedback exist. Creating a "posting" space for comments online allows teachers to make remarks about lessons immediately after they have taught the lesson - while curriculum problems are still fresh in their minds. This also benefits the curriculum writers who can quickly and easily gather feedback about specific lessons. Furthermore, one to one interviews or informal questioning with both teachers and students can also provide helpful feedback, but, in these situations, it is important to make a written record of comments so that they can be easily accessed and not forgotten when the time comes to begin re-writing the curriculum. Having frequent group meetings with teachers also allows for valuable discussion and gives opportunities for curriculum writers to collect teacher-generated ideas that will be helpful for later revision. Regardless of the methods used, it is essential to gather feedback throughout the school year, listen carefully to

both teacher and student suggestions, and to be astute enough to make changes to the curriculum when necessary.

SUMMARY

The ancient Chinese saying, “The longest journey begins with a single step,” is an apt proverb for curriculum writing. Developing a content-based course can be a challenging and time consuming task for any curriculum writer. Establishing where the program will fit along the content/language continuum and how to balance language and content within the course should be the first step in this journey. Defining this first step allows teachers to then identify and address the challenges common to most content-based programs such as the disparity in language proficiencies of students, lack of level-appropriate materials and the varying degrees of prior content knowledge of teachers. Once the writing process begins, curriculum writers would be wise to limit the amount of material presented to students and to find activities that allow students maximum exposure to course vocabulary and content. Lessons should be written clearly, uniformly and include background information so that teachers with less prior content knowledge can feel confident when presenting the curriculum to their students. Finally, as the course begins, curriculum writers should collect as much student and teacher feedback as possible to aid in their ongoing revision of the curriculum.

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Korean English Villages: How Experiential Learning Is Challenging Korean ELT

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ABSTRACT

As Korean families continue to send more and more of their children abroad for overseas English education, local governments have been under pressure to provide alternative English language instruction. Among these, Korean English Villages have come up with a novel, if partial, solution. Combining elements of content-based language immersion and non-formal, experiential learning within multicultural theme parks, the English Village concept represents a marked shift in educational policy, theory, and practice towards a more global, progressive, and particularly constructivist view of learning in general, and English language learning in particular. Nevertheless, while English Villages as educational policy may not completely address the problems of increasing education migration, the hype and controversy surrounding them has nonetheless obscured their novel pedagogical value. The following discussion paper, borrowing from critical pedagogy, outlines the essentially experiential, constructivist nature of English Village methodology as an important alternative to traditional Korean English language instruction. The paper argues for an understanding of the potential of English Villages as a model source of transformative pedagogy. Future research directions are also considered.

BACKGROUND: POLITICS AND PEDAGOGY

The increases in recent years in the number of Korean children sent abroad for English-based education has contributed to a welcome debate about the need for more alternative and affordable English language programming locally. Indeed, the push to globalize Korea's human capital has resulted in an increasing number of parents (Bae, 2006) seemingly rejecting Korea's high-stakes, exam-oriented English education in favor of more progressive, humanistic educational environments that foster those creative and practical skills needed for global competitiveness (Kim-Renaud, 2005, p. vii). According to the Korean government's latest figures, the number of school-aged children studying abroad in 2005 reached 20,400, a 24% increase from the previous year, with an estimated 60% of these going to English-speaking countries (Bae, 2006). Representing an over ten-fold increase in since 1999 (Faiola, 2004), the annual cost of overseas education to parents has now surpassed \$4 billion (extrapolated from 2004 figure of \$3.37 billion dollars and the recent increased value of the won; Cho, 2006).

Meanwhile, for those families unable to participate in this accelerated globalization of the privileged, local private tutoring and a variety of summer/winter immersion camps offer the next best thing, while still costing Korean parents over \$7 billion a year (Choe, 2006).

In an effort to accommodate this urgent demand for more equal access to quality English language instruction—not to mention stem the record outflow of trillions of Korean won abroad, government leaders have called for more drastic measures to make intensive English programs more widely available. Underscoring the failure of current English language programming, Korean lawmakers recently pointed out that not only has Korean education “failed to provide ample opportunities for students to become immersed in English speaking environments,” but “the polarization in English capabilities is also becoming evident in our society (English promotion, 2006). This increasing gap is of particular concern, given Korea’s longstanding ideological commitment to equality of opportunity in education (Abelmann, Kim, & Park, 2005, p. 36). Consequently, it is against this strong egalitarian tradition that English Villages were originally conceived as a local alternative to overseas English study. The brainchild of Gyeonggi Province Governor Sohn Hak-kyu (founder of the Gyeonggi English Cultural Foundation), the original English Village concept was primarily developed as a means of providing quality, learner-friendly English immersion programs to students from families of more limited means (Faiola, 2004), the ultimate goal being to narrow the so-called English divide (Chung, 2006).

Clearly, as instruments of English language education policy, English Villages have achieved a certain measure of political legitimacy and acceptance among the public, if not the academic community (Lim, Hong, quoted Chung, 2006). At the heart of the controversy, English Villages—which exist both as privately run, profit-driven language schools (e.g., Korea Herald English Village) and/or as quasi-governmental educational institutions (Seoul English Village, Gyeonggi English Village-Ansan and Paju Camps)—have often been used politically as English language policy footfalls (Cho, 2006). Certainly, the ongoing development of EVs provides a certain amount of socio-educational redemption for governments under increasing pressure to deliver locally affordable English immersion.

Beyond the politics, hype, and controversy that continue to surround them, English Villages have managed to introduce novel, progressive pedagogical approaches into Korean English language education. Consistent with the Ministry of education’s five-year plan to introduce more experience-based language learning programs, the uniquely non-formal, constructivist nature of EV pedagogy has the potential to act as an important catalyst for reform within Korean English language teaching (ELT).

ENGLISH VILLAGE METHODOLOGY

In contrast to traditional ELT, the English Village (see Notes) concept represents a significant shift in educational policy, theory, and practice towards a more global, progressive, and humanistic view of EFL. Combining elements of multi-cultural theme parks and experiential learning, the EV con-

cept attempts to bridge the longstanding cultural, curricular, and instructional gaps in current Korean ELT by offering a range of non-formal, content- and activities-based language immersion within a dedicated multicultural theme park.

Most importantly, EVs claim to provide, content-based, immersion learning environments, where all instruction is in the second language (English) and all teaching is organized around specific content information that learners acquire while engaged in collaborative learning projects/activities, rather than around any particular language-based curriculum (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 204). Ultimately, this means that the focus of all communication is on meaning rather than form (Krashen, 1982), an approach which contrasts significantly with the kind of traditional form-focused, test-driven approaches of Korean ELT. Of course, cognitive learning theories have long informed us that the best learning is the result of meaningful interaction and interpretation, and not merely the recording of facts and information (Resnick, 1987, p. 2). Unfortunately, when the ultimate goal of learning English for classes of 40+ students (middle/high schools) is test scores, the resulting competition and individual performance anxiety can significantly increase learners' affective filters (Krashen, 1985), contributing to greater learner stress and reduced self-confidence. At its worst, the zero-sum competition that characterizes Korean education discourages the very attributes that we value most in education and life: democracy, social cooperation, and collaboration leading to educational and affective growth (Finch, 2005, p. 60). In contrast, not only are EV classes limited in number (maximum of twelve at the Paju Camp), but more importantly, their immersion approach typically emphasizes English not as an end in itself, but rather as a means to more cooperative and communicative ends, and not as an end in itself. Such kind of the content- and activities-based approaches are intentionally designed to allow the learner's second language (L2) to perform the role of a functional link between English as a subject (as it is treated in traditional Korean ELT) and 'English as a tool of meaningful communication' (Paju Camp Program Overview, 2006, p. 5).

Secondly, and more central to this paper's focus, the most important distinguishing aspects of EV methodology are the learner-directed features of its curriculum and the many opportunities for informal learning to take place. For example, within the Kyeonggi English Village-Paju Camp's one-week program, (middle-school) learner-participants are allowed to choose both a study major (Science, Music, Entertainment, and Drama) and associated content areas (Robotics, Speechcasting, Global Awareness, Creativity, Broadcasting, Music Video, etc.). Within the two-week program (elementary and middle school), participants are additionally provided many informal language practice opportunities through participative games (Evening Program) and several experiential outings (Weekend Program). Outside of the relative structure of these various project-based classes, participants are free to partake in a variety of quasi-authentic cultural experiences: from basic interactional language practice with on-site Village residents (street entertainers, ground staff, etc.) to more purposeful, transaction-type exchanges involving resident teacher-entertainers (English Village officials restaurant staff, street entertainers, etc.).

However, regardless of the specific activity (structured, less structured) or program length (weekend, weeklong), the important point is that the entire EV concept is based on radically different assumptions about what learning should be. At its best, and in contrast to existing Korean ELT, EV pedagogy is founded upon learner-centered, process-based instructional methodologies whose novel pedagogical value cannot be overstated within the wider context of traditional EFL.

A CONSTRUCTIVIST INTERPRETATION OF EV METHODOLOGY

Although hardly a new concept since Dewey (1938), Piaget (1955), Vygotsky (1978) and, more recently, Wells (1995) proposed their respective versions, constructivism has continually re-emerged in educational circles following the rise in humanist psychologies in the 1960s and 1970s (Fenwick, 2001, p. 5). In simple terms, constructivism is the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves, both individually and through social interaction (Hein, 1991, p. 1). With applications in both epistemology (the nature of knowing) and learning theory (how humans 'construct' knowledge), constructivist learning theory views existing knowledge as relative (to its end use) and provisional (Russell, 1996, p. 3), and knowledge formation as a process driven largely by individual experience (thus the importance of learner-centeredness in contemporary educational discourse). In both cases, learning is said to occur when learners are free to interact meaningfully with sensory data (i.e., linguistic, social, multi-cultural input, entertainment), thus allowing the latter to actively construct and re-construct their internalized versions of the surrounding world (Hein, 1991, p. 2). As we can see, constructivism has little in common with the priorities of traditional classroom-based Korean ELT.

In terms of psychology of knowing, the constructivist learning philosophy which underlies English Village pedagogy has much to offer traditional Korean ELT (and Korean education in general). Of course, since various historical, socio-educational, and institutional factors have continued to emphasized learning here as a means to an end (access to elite colleges) as opposed to an end in itself, test results have continued to be emphasized over actual proficiency. The practical implications for EFL has been that the resulting lack of meaningful, classroom-based language practice continues to make it very challenging for Koreans to develop, much less maintain, much beyond basic English language ability (Park, 2004; Li, 1998; Lee, 1991, quoted in Finch, 2005, p. 278). Consequently, current classroom-based approaches to EFL (particularly in the upper school years of public school) help to perpetuate a distinctly behaviorist notion of knowledge formation, where learning is the result of an infinite number of mental associations (memorization, rote learning of vocabulary, and grammatical elements, etc.), and where knowledge is simply an aggregate of these smaller elements (Hein, 1995, p. 1).

While little comprehensive research exists on Korean English Villages per se, we may look to the literature on museum learning theory, constructivism (also referred to as experiential learning), and particularly out-of-school learning as useful frames from which to better appreciate what English Villages bring to Korean ELT. Among the principal authors, George H. Hein (1991,

1995, 1998) has written extensively on the subject, and his oft-quoted diagram, *Summary of Approaches to Learning* (Figure 1), may be useful in contrasting English Village pedagogy with the more traditional EFL approaches being practiced within Korean ELT:

Figure 1. Hein's Summary of Approaches to Learning in the Educational Literature

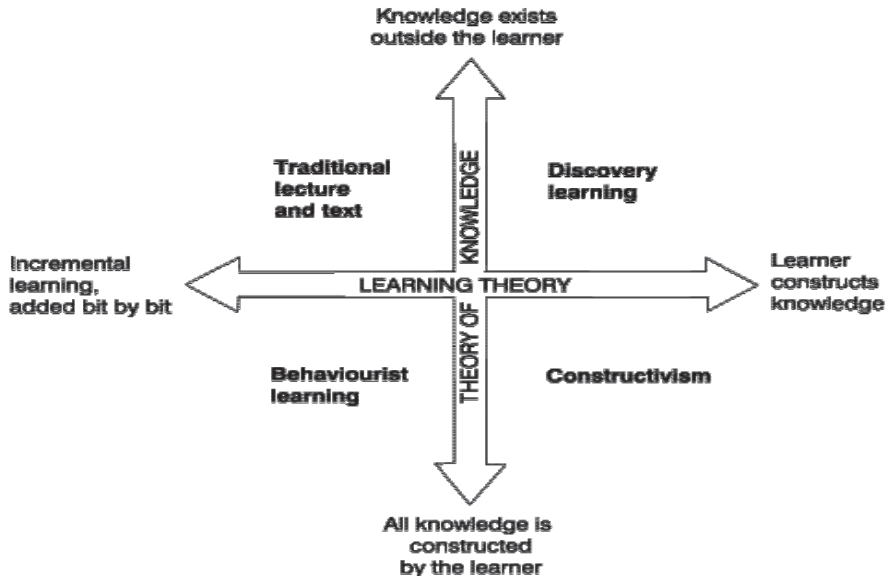


Figure 1

(From Hein, 1998, p. 24)

As outlined above, beliefs about the nature of knowledge and knowledge formation are important in the sense that they inform our choices of specific teaching methodologies. Referring to Figure 1 (Hein, 1998, p. 24), these beliefs help explain the essential differences between the four quadrants.

Traditional classroom-based EFL in Korea typically employs behaviorist approaches to knowledge acquisition, which effectively reduce English to little more than just another subject to be mastered. Referring to Figure 1, the types de-contextualized, teacher-sourced discrete knowledge (memorization of grammar rules, vocabulary, and other superficial language manipulation) required for successful English study—particularly in the upper years—reflects a positivist perspective on knowledge as represented by the upper-left Didactic/Expository quadrant (and occasionally the lower-left Stimulus-Response quadrant, in which English ability is characterized by an automaticity of response of the *Fine, thank you, and you?* type). A slight improvement on the two latter approaches is the Discovery approach. While allowing for the learner's mental construction of knowledge, discovery learning is nonetheless rooted in the same positivist beliefs in the need to present content in a pre-determined, linear sequence. The only difference is that the learner is encouraged to discover knowledge through concrete, personal experience (personal experimentation, independent field trips, etc.; Hein, 1995, p. 2). Moving to the

lower-right quadrant, Constructivism represents an idealist approach to knowledge formation, whereby both knowledge and the way it is acquired are dependent on the will of the learner (p. 3). Proponents of the constructivist view suggest that learning is characterized by “the active process involved in building knowledge,” as opposed to “knowledge as a set of unchanging positions which merely need to be understood and memorized.” (Somekh & Lewin, 2005, p. 344).

Hein’s diagram is particularly instructive in drawing the contrast between the two diametrically opposed conceptions of knowledge-formation as practiced by both traditional Korean ELT and English Village methodology. In contrast to the former, English Villages offer a novel opportunity for learners to directly impact their individual learning processes and social-cultural experiences by engaging in a self-directed approach to both subject content and unscripted socio-cultural interaction (through informal interaction with other students, instructors, and Village residents-actors). For example, student participants within both the one-week and two-week programs are allowed to choose among four major subjects (science, music, entertainment, and drama), within which more specific content areas (robotics, cooking, speech-casting, creativity, global awareness, etc.) are offered (Gyeonggi English Village Paju Camp, 2006, p. 25). Equally important to the learner-directed, content-based nature of the program are the instructional techniques and project/activities-based methodologies that drive the experiential features of the program. To use another example, the creativity content area offers a hands-on, project-based curriculum in which students cultivate their English language skills through a complete process of scriptwriting, directing, costume making, set design, puppet making rehearsals, and actual performance (p. 28). When looked at through this perspective, the experiential learning can be seen to contrast dramatically with the traditional high-stakes, test-driven, and teaching-centered methods, which persist in Korean ELT (Finch, 2005, p. 278).

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING: FOCUSING ON THE PROCESS OF LEARNING

In the same way that learning is not simply about answers, constructivist, or experiential, approaches to learning are not results- or test-driven. Rather, they are based on a developmental concept of learning (Piaget, 1955; Vygotsky, 1978) which, in contrast to traditional classroom-based Korean EFL, places the learner and the learning process at the heart of the activity (Russell, 1996). Therefore, any appreciation of English Village methodology must begin with a more holistic appreciation of its effects on learner-participants as opposed to learning outcomes alone. In other words, if English Villages are to establish any kind of pedagogical legitimacy in their own right, their potential effects need to be considered beyond the mere (and understandable) expectation of increased English proficiency. Here, again, we may look to the literature for some guidance.

In recent decades, various modes of informal and experiential learning (interactive science and art museums, humanistic adventure weekends, etc.) have been the subject of a growing body of research seeking to measure their

educational value mainly by a) gauging attitudinal changes in learner-participants, and b) identifying those pre-and post-learning conditions which help ensure that the residual benefits of such experiences remain after their novelty wears off (Anderson, 1999; Russell, 1996). Indeed, given the novel and as-yet untested mix of education and entertainment (“edutainment”) offered by EVs, future research would benefit from approaching the EV phenomenon from a wider educational perspective. Here, the possibilities are many. For example, Renkel et al. have identified four key structural deficits of the type of test-driven, de-contextualized, compartmentalized learning that characterizes much of traditional English learning in Korea. In addition, the latter underscore important aspects of intrinsic motivation which emerge when the (English) knowledge in question is called upon within authentic learning situations (such as within the kind of informal, collaborative, project-based activities found within the EV curriculum). Clearly, and as Pea has also noted (1987), context plays a crucial role in determining how and when new and existing knowledge is used, or transferred. Others have identified the important increases in metacognitive awareness (Prawat, 1989; Renkel, 1996) as a result of experiential-type learning, where engagement in the learning activity increases because of students becoming more aware of what they do or do not know. While not exhaustive, the above are just a few of the many benefits that result from a shift in pedagogical focus from mere outcomes to the process of learning.

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The emergence of English Villages has no doubt added a novel alternative source of EFL to the test-driven methodologies of classroom-based Korean ELT. Along with the growth in after-school programming and summer/winter immersion camps, the growing interest in more informal, experiential EFL signals a promising shift in educational policy, theory, and practice towards a more progressive, humanistic, and learner-centered view of learning in general, and EFL in particular. In this sense, the transformative potential English Villages as agents of change within Korean cannot be underestimated, regardless of their original *raison d’être* (simply, as a dubious alternative to overseas English education). However, the institutional inertia that helps maintain those test-driven policies and methods that presently characterize EFL education here make it very rather difficult for educators to consider alternative methods, especially in the upper years of public education (i.e., where emphasis on discrete-point tests such as the famed Korean *seuneung*, or college SAT, takes precedence over communicative ability). Meanwhile, along with the ongoing hype and controversy of English Villages, public reaction to the (still) growing phenomenon (see the latest English Town project being considered for Cheju Island) continues to be mixed, with critics questioning the very legitimacy and ability of EV to deliver on their expensive and ambitious mandates (Krashen, Taipei Times).

One unfortunate result of the tremendous hype surrounding EVs has been the expectation that they can actually improve EFL proficiency after one or two weeks’ participation. Whether or not the result of excessive promotion,

this is precisely where the politics of English Villages need to be distinguished from their pedagogy. Indeed, according to professor Lim Hee Jung, of Seoul National University's Department of English Education, although English Villages have certainly had a positive impact on those students who otherwise cannot access effective English learning environments, "the artificial environment of English Villages, with their short-term experience leaves a lot to be desired in actual improvements in English language ability." (Chung, 2006, p. 3). Still, educational researchers have only scratched the surface in terms of properly evaluating the effectiveness of the English Villages. For example, in one of only two (known) comprehensive assessments of any English Village, Professor Lee Byung Min (2006) of Seoul National University, conducted an in-program survey of 600 middle-school participants at the Gyeonggi English Village-Ansan Camp.

Not surprisingly, survey results showed a general satisfaction rate (around 60%) with the program. Notably, learner-participants were not stratified to reflect socio-economic background, something that could be considered key to further establishing the important socio-educational legitimacy of EVs as tools of English language policy. Since EVs were (supposedly) developed to accommodate students whose families could not afford overseas immersion, future surveys would do well to distinguish responses according to socio-economic background. In addition, the Ansan Camp surveys were conducted in-program. Of course, in order to properly control for what the literature refers to as novelty effect (see Hurd, 1997, for a discussion of novelty in terms of a hierarchy of variables), participants would have to be surveyed pre- and post-program in order to grasp the before-and-after effects of EV participation. Furthermore, given the short-term nature of EV programs (one/two weeks), follow-up surveys could be useful in measuring their residual effects ("transfer") on learners in subsequent English learning contexts (classroom, private study, encounters with foreigners, etc.). Anything less risks ignoring the important developmental aspects of learning mentioned above.

Clearly, when compared to the effectiveness of overseas immersion, EVs cannot possibly compete, and it would be irresponsible for anyone to claim that a one or two weeks of immersion program could have any significant effect on one's English language proficiency. Then again, English Villages could be forgiven for promising so much. But beyond the inevitable politics of such a bold educational endeavor, and after what may be referred to as a series of hyped-up promotional missteps, English Villages would do well to de-emphasize their programs as an effective alternative to overseas immersion and focus on what they do offer: an engaging alternative source of English immersion which may ultimately increase learner motivation by helping to break down learner anxiety about English (Paju Camp Program Overview, p. 12)

CONCLUSION

While English Villages may not quite fulfill the promise of their original mandates, they do represent a bold new approach to EFL whose symbolic value within Korea education overall cannot be ignored. Their more globalized, progressive, learner-friendly methodologies—while perhaps not so

revolutionary in the West—are an important extension of what Brown calls “a new learning ecology” (2000, p. 5). Although Brown refers specifically to the digital revolution currently underway, English education may not be far behind when learners no longer feel restrained by physical, cultural or—more importantly for Korean learners—institutional boundaries (outdated educational policies) which stand in the way of more informal, self-directed learning experiences. Notably, educational field trip programs are gaining in popularity as Korean families continue to enjoy more and more leisure time together (Chung, 2006). In this sense, educational stakeholders and researchers alike have a responsibility to expand their conceptions of informal, EV-type learning beyond being mere entertaining alternatives to formal learning.

Indeed, if the transformative pedagogy (Freire, 1970; Banks, 1996; Fay, 1987) that EVs represent is to have any significant impact on Korean ELT, then governments, the public and the (English) educational community need to better understand what they offer. At their best, English Villages (e.g., Paju Camp program) provide a variety and breadth of multi-cultural English immersion experiences that few, if any, local institutions can match. However, as of yet, little empirical research has been carried on them. In addition, while the literature has clearly established the various metacognitive benefits of out-of-school learning experiences (Russell, 1996; Anderson, Falk, & Dierking, 2000), as Georgiades (2000) notes, there has been astonishingly little research on the influence of such programs on learners’ subsequent everyday experiences (p. 122). Clearly, a more comprehensive approach is warranted, and EVs themselves have a stake in providing better access to the local research community in order to more clearly establish their various merits. Until the educational research community begins to investigate such questions, measuring EV program effectiveness will forever be doomed to before-and-after type user satisfaction surveys, which of course are more about marketing than actual research.

Specifically, in order for English Villages to play a more legitimate and influential role within Korean ELT, there will need to be:

- 1) More independent, authentic appraisals of their ability to increase English proficiency, given limited program durations;
- 2) More comprehensive, and empirical research into both the immediate (in-program) benefits (i.e., metacognitive, affective) of EV participation and its residual (post-program) effects (attitudinal, socio-affective) on subsequent English learning and experiences;
- 3) Better integration of EV-type content, methodology and instructional techniques into mainstream (classroom-based) ELT.

Once again, despite the perhaps limited ability of EVs currently to deliver immediate English proficiency gains, the literature on ‘informal learning’ suggests that the developmental nature of experiential, constructivist pedagogy offers both immediate and residual benefits. Assuming these various benefits are real and that they extend beyond the (short) program duration, then EVs

may eventually consolidate their growing influence as a catalyst for transformational change within Korean education generally and Korean ELT in particular. Conceivably, increased program collaboration between EVs and public schools, coupled with greater integration of EV-type instructional content and methods into existing EFL curricula, could eventually see EVs play an integral role in helping to shake current ELT from its institutional inertia and bring it into the 21st century. Realistically, of course, little change is likely as long as English-testing results continue to be more important than actual communicative proficiency (Finch, 2005). However, with better research English Villages hype and controversy may yet subside as educational stakeholders come to a better understanding of what they mean for Korean education overall.

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NOTES

For the purposes of this paper, any detailed discussion of EV methodology is limited to information on, and observations of, the Gyeonggi English Village, Paju Camp facility. As the largest and most elaborately designed facility, it is considered most representative of the many English Villages now operating in Korea.

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Developing Materials, Developing Yourself

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ABSTRACT

For many EFL teachers, materials development is all too often an unfamiliar concept. While the selection and development of effective materials should be a main preoccupation of all EFL professionals, the reality is that commercially prepared and/or in-house coursebooks often make up the bulk of material resources. In other cases, where teachers enjoy freedom of selection, materials choices may more often reflect individual teacher characteristics than learner preferences. To underscore the influence of teacher personality traits on materials selection, the workshop began by exploring those ideal teacher characteristics commonly identified by EFL learners. Workshop participants were then presented with sample materials that helped to illustrate how specific materials choices can help reinforce, and even develop, these ideal characteristics within teachers.

MATERIALS SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT: WHAT ARE MATERIALS?

Of course, for most teachers of EFL, materials mean little more than commercially prepared/in-house coursebooks and the tapes/videos that accompany them. In reality, materials are described as anything (corpus data, newspapers, food packages, photographs, movie listings) that can be exploited (even your native-speaking foreign colleagues!) for the purposes of language learning (Tomlinson, 1998).

As EFL professionals, broadening our view of what materials are can do wonders in terms of providing learners (and teachers!) with a richer variety of materials and, thus, more varied sources of authentic input. Unfortunately, materials development represents perhaps one of the most neglected aspects of our profession. The goal of this workshop, therefore, is to demonstrate some of the reasons materials development should be a primary focus of all EFL professionals:

- 1) Materials selection, adaptation, and development reflect directly on one's personal and professional abilities;
- 2) Exploring materials selection and development helps develop professional skills and practical knowledge, which continue to benefit the instructor throughout his/her career;
- 3) Learning to develop materials can lead directly to increased teacher confidence and investment in the learning process.

MATERIALS CHOICES AND THE GOOD LANGUAGE TEACHER

While the EFL literature contains sufficient information on EFL materials selection and development (Tomlinson, 1998, 2003a; McDonough & Shaw, 2003), there appears to be little research on the relationship between teacher characteristics and materials choices. Of course, EFL professionals take great interest in those characteristics that make up a good language learner. While learners make up an important part of the teaching equation, teachers and materials make up an equally important part, and thus merit as much attention. Until recently, however, seldom has a causal link been established between the two. As Tomlinson (2003a) states, becoming a good language teacher involves examining our own individual characteristics and preferences, and reflecting on how these influence our instructional choices regarding materials. The workshop will be based largely on the work of Tomlinson and Bao Dat, as their work in the field of teacher characteristics has productive implications for materials choices and development.

In 2003, while attending a MELTA conference in Subang, Malaysia, Tomlinson had conference participants complete a questionnaire indicating the five most important characteristics of the good language teacher. Interestingly, Tomlinson's results closely matched those of Bao Dat, a colleague of his who had included the results of his own study in his PhD thesis on learner reticence (Dat study; as cited in Tomlinson, 2003b). Of particular interest are the results of 15 teacher characteristics that study participants were asked to rank:

Figure 1: Characteristics of the “Good Language Teacher”

Rank	Characteristics of the “Good Language Teacher”	
	He or she . . .	Grade
1	has positive self-esteem [is confident enough to try new things, like songs?]	92%
2	takes initiative [tries new approaches to teaching & learning]	92%
3	bases their teaching on the needs and desires of learners [student-centered content]	92%
4	is flexible	88%
5	is creative [explores new forms or art, music & other expression]	88%
6	is patient	88%
7	has a good sense of humor [not taking oneself too seriously]	84%
8	is well-organized	84%
9	is an expert on the target language	84%
10	has a large and varied repertoire of pedagogical procedures [materials driven?]	80%
11	makes principled selections from their repertoire in relation to their own personality, beliefs and teaching style preferences	72%

12	provides thorough preparation for exams	71%
13	times their lessons well	70%
14	has authority	68%
15	is able to cover the coursebook in the time allocated [low priority?]	52%

(From Dat, 2002)

DEVELOPING MATERIALS, DEVELOPING YOURSELF: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS AND MATERIALS SELECTION

Q1: What does the Dat study mean for teachers and the materials we select?

When allowed to do so, teachers will tend to choose materials that reflect their individual characteristics and preferences; consequently, materials choices may not necessarily reflect those characteristics that learners consider important in a teacher. Indeed, while personality traits tend to be stable, materials selection, adaptation, and development open up unlimited instructional choices for teachers. In this way, by simply providing a greater variety of materials and activity types, teachers help ensure that a greater variety of individual learner needs and preferences are satisfied (Gardner, 1983, 1997). Consequently, choosing materials according to what learners feel are important teacher characteristics not only increases motivation and respect towards the teacher, but equally important, it can indirectly reinforce and even help develop those traits.

Looking at the top seven survey answers (positive self-esteem, initiative, sensitivity to learners, flexibility, creativity, etc.), we quickly realize that those characteristics preferred by students have little to do with professional training and everything to do with a teacher's personality. For those teachers locked into the habitual selection of the same old materials (like movies, or pop songs, or dictations), does this mean that they are doomed to experience a career of professional stagnation? Not necessarily. A closer look at how these individual characteristics translate into specific materials choices is both revealing and instructive.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTIC 1: POSITIVE SELF-ESTEEM

According to the Cambridge International Dictionary, self-esteem is about having "*belief and confidence in your own ability and value.*" In terms of materials selection, then, if a teacher is solely dependent on commercially prepared textbooks, tapes and video, this suggests the teacher may not see him or herself as an authentic, or even worthwhile, source of cultural input (i.e., singing songs, modeling role-plays, joke-telling, or even using one's voice for a storytelling). Although this writer comes from a varied performance background as a drummer, singer, and amateur actor, many (but not necessarily) younger, inexperienced teachers may not be able to approach such performance-related materials and activities with as much confidence. In fact, years of anecdotal evidence (this writer's TESOL teacher training experience)

suggests that Korean EFL teachers may be especially intimidated by the idea of hamming it up in English. Therefore, positive self-esteem must be seen as key to getting teachers to develop materials that challenge themselves to take the kinds of risks in teaching that we ask learners to take in learning.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTIC 2: TAKES THE INITIATIVE

Closely related to characteristic number 1 is the importance of taking the initiative. Once again, referring to the Cambridge International Dictionary, initiative is “*the ability to use your judgment to make decisions without needing to be told what to do.*” Of course, initiative as an inherent personality trait may not exactly be taught, it can be developed if teachers see a pay-off for their efforts, take the time to explore new materials, and discover the wealth of activities that they suggest. While commercially prepared textbooks, for example, may mostly eliminate the need for any kind of initiative, the good language teacher will at minimum be interested in supplementing coursebooks with alternative materials.

SOME EXAMPLES OF TAKES THE INITIATIVE

Realia:

- Picking up English language travel brochures, guides and subway maps
- Using English-language newspapers (especially the Junior Herald)
- Looking for novelty materials, like the English Starbucks coffee order form
- Going to the American, British, or Canadian Embassy for interesting material
- Bringing an English-speaking colleague to class for culture study

INFORMAL LEARNING

- Taking the class outside for some informal learning (using Insa-Dong tourists as ideal English language learning materials!)
- Using school buildings as materials (architecture, nature, location study)
- Using ‘reflexivity’ (learning journals) as a material
- Encouraging participation in English-speaking events (i.e., contests) and rewarding it (This writer gives participation marks in class to students who volunteer for legitimate English activities, i.e., KOTESOL conferences.)

One of the best examples that comes to mind which incorporates characteristics 1 and 2 is the way I sometimes use a lovely little historical booklet put out by the Canadian Embassy, immodestly entitled *Illustrious Canadians in Korea*, which I obtained on one of my yearly trips to the Canadian Embassy in Seoul. The booklet features the surprising and little-known contributions of a handful of Canadians, from Dr. Oliver R. Averson, who in 1908 trained the very first group of Koreans in Western medicine (Severance

Medical College), to Dr. Francis W. Schofield, who, as a result of his ardent support of the *Samil Independence Movement*, became one of the very few non-Koreans buried in the National Cemetery. These materials represent a modest source of pride for any Canadian teacher. Especially considering the (understandable) abundance of materials centered on the American cultural experience, taking the time to find and develop English-language materials from one's native country can be an important source of comfort and (national) self-esteem while living in a foreign culture. Lastly, the use of such inclusive materials helps to establish important cultural and/or historical links with the host country.

Another important teacher characteristic is number 5: *Is creative*. The best example the writer can provide of this are activities that involve the exploration of pop songs, which share common themes between Korea and the West. One example regularly used in our program is John Denver's folk-country hit, *Take Me Home, Country Roads*. The song features the singer's home state of West Virginia, an area dominated by a particular mountain and its associated mining culture. Mountains are of course both a common sight and experience for Koreans; and so besides the more obvious possibilities for English study (i.e., gap-fill, vocabulary), a more creative approach allows the teacher to provide English language practice through the cross-cultural exploration of 'mountain' as a metaphor. In one class, we even had students change the lyrics to accommodate the local geography.

To illustrate the power and impact of combining self-esteem, taking the initiative, and being creative, the following is an actual unedited journal entry recently submitted by one of HUF'S TESOL Certificate teacher-trainees. While trainees are asked to submit regular reflective journals on topics of their choosing, they were specifically asked to respond to the particular materials/activity choices within our TESOL training program:

View Message: Journal-1 [Back to Topic: "STUDENT JOURNALS" |
[Edit | Delete] FROM: K. S. Kim (09/28/06)
SUBJECT: Journal-1

Two weeks ago, Professor Michel brought his guitar to the class. We were supposed to talk about the second article "Materials should help learners feel comfortable and at ease." Easiness and a guitar . . . Is Michel he going to sing a song? Maybe not . . . but at the end of the class, he really did. And every students enjoyed the John Denver Take me Home'. It was a strange experience. But it was fun.

These kinds of things hardly happen in my middle school, and especially in high school. Students have to study English only for "suneung," the College Scholastic Ability Test, because it is very important to enter university. When I was a high school student, English teachers read English texts, translated them and explained English grammar. Students took notes and nobody talked in the class.

I had quite different experiences in the U.S. I was shocked. Classes [there] were very different from the classes in my high school.

Classes were not based on books only. We talked about current issues, different cultures, and so on. Teachers didn't control everything, but sometimes participated as a group member. This was very new. All these things help students feel at ease, we concentrated on the classes without difficulty.

CONCLUSION

The above are just a few examples of how developing EFL materials contributes directly and inevitably to one's own development as a teacher. From the simple act of supplementing coursebooks to actively seeking authentic materials that one would not normally employ, any attempt to select, develop, and adapt materials contributes directly not only to learner motivation and interest, but equally to the teacher's professional development (in particular, resourcefulness and self-confidence). Indeed, the good language teacher is someone who takes the time to reflect on his/her personality characteristics in order to understand how these influence his/her teaching style and priorities. Since these individual factors have a direct bearing on materials choices and associated activities, they can have a significant impact on "what gets taught and what gets learned" (Finch, 2005, p. 122). Considering that learning is far more important than teaching, do we not owe it to our students to keep developing ourselves just as we expect them to?

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Using Self-Reported Experience as a Tool to Assess Writing Level

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ABSTRACT

Previous writing experience is an important factor in assessing the writing level of first-year university students. This paper reports on a questionnaire that was administered to first-year students in two English writing classes at a Japanese university (N=66). The questionnaire identified significant differences in writing experience concerning maximum length of English composition within each class and provided additional data about the types and topics of English compositions that students had written in their high school study.

INTRODUCTION

Assessing the writing experience of first-year university students presents a challenge to the EFL instructor. Students come from a variety of high school backgrounds and may not have much English writing experience. This is especially true in Japan, where high school English instruction often focuses on grammar, translation, and test preparation. Even in university programs where students are separated into levels determined by a placement or standardized test, there may be significant differences in writing experience within a single class of students.

Understanding the background and experience of students is an important part of assessment for both L1 and L2 (Kobayashi, 2002). In some second language programs, self assessment questionnaires have been used instead of testing as placement instruments to assign students to course levels (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985). In programs where test scores have already determined student placement, investigative questionnaires and surveys can be effective tools when used along with results of test scores to evaluate students (Finch, 2003). In particular, a questionnaire can be a valuable way to get more information on the writing experience of students (Fujioka, 2001). In this study, a questionnaire was administered to two classes of first-year Japanese university students to collect data on English writing experience. Additional information that could assist the teacher in determining student writing experience and needs was also collected.

THE PARTICIPANTS

The questionnaire was administered to a total of 66 students in two first year classes in the Department of Cultural Studies at a private university in Japan. Students completed the questionnaire in the first writing class of the 2006 academic year. All first-year students in the department were divided into 7 classes of 30 to 35 students, based on a department English placement test. Although the placement test only measured reading and listening ability, the same classes were used for reading, listening, writing, and speaking course placement. The two participating classes ranked 1 and 4 on the placement test and are hereafter referred to as Class 1 and Class 4. ITP Pre-TOEFL scores were also available as an indicator of English ability for both classes, with Class 1 having an average score of 415.03 and Class 4 an average score of 394.93. Below is a table expressing this and other student profile data (Table 1).

Table 1. Class Profiles

	Class 1	Class 4
Total Students	34	32
Public High School	21	21
Private High School	13	11
Study Abroad Experience	4	8
ITP Pre-TOEFL Average Score	415.03	394.93

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire contained questions about both English and Japanese language writing experience. It was administered in Japanese to ensure comprehension and facilitate responses (see Appendices A & B). Also, responses were made anonymously to reduce student anxiety and elicit honest answers. Students were asked to report on the maximum length of compositions that they had written during their high school English study. The categories of length were divided into sentence level, paragraph level, multiple paragraph essay/report level, and two-page or more report level of writing. Additional questions concerning types of writing, writing topics, teacher feedback, and rewriting experience were included to provide more insight into student writing experience. The questionnaire also contained questions about Japanese writing experience, type of high school, study abroad experience, and attitude toward writing. This data was collected for future research regarding possible correlations between these factors and writing ability.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The greatest number of students in both classes had experience writing at

the paragraph level in English (30), with lesser numbers having only sentence level (18) and multiple paragraph or longer writing experience (18). The number of students with multiple paragraph or longer experience was higher than expected and countered the common assumption that most Japanese high school English classes only focus on translation exercises at the sentence level. The number of students with paragraph or longer writing experience in English was higher than a similar survey of Japanese university student writing experience (Takagi, 2001). The results by class are expressed in the following table (Table 2).

Table 2. English Writing Experience

	Class 1 N=34 (%)	Class 4 N=32 (%)
Sentence Level	8 (24)	10 (31)
Paragraph Level	18 (53)	12 (38)
Multiple Paragraph Level	3 (9)	8 (25)
2-Page Report Level	5 (15)	2 (6)

Class 1 had fewer students at the sentence level and more students at the two-page or longer level of experience, but the differences between the two classes are not as significant as the differences within each class. A department placement test had been used to determine English proficiency levels and the results correlated with pre-TOEFL scores. However, both tests are reading- and listening-based and may not be indicative of student writing ability and experience. Although the results of the questionnaire show that significant differences of writing experience exist in these classes, caution should be used in drawing conclusions from this data because self reported experience does not necessarily correlate to actual writing ability. Additionally, the length of a composition does not reflect on the quality of the writing.

Students reported having written various types of English compositions during their high school study. The results are shown in the following table (Table 3).

Table 3. English Writing Composition Types

	Class 1	Class 4
Reflections	9	10
Diary/Journal	3	3
Short Story/Poetry	2	0
Opinion Essay	10	14
Research Paper	2	2
Letter	10	12
Self Introduction	3	0

The students reported the following topics for paragraph or longer compositions:

A Letter to a Foreign Teacher
A Picture I Like
About English Class
Bad Points of Cellular Phones
English Education in Japan
High School Life
Introducing Japanese Culture to Foreigners
Japanese Culture
Japanese Sports
My Favorite Season
My Future Dream
My Life as a Child
My Mother
My Study Abroad Experience
Priority Seats on Trains
Summer Vacation Diary
The Problem of Suicide

Since the questionnaire was only completed by two of the seven levels of classes, the number of participants is too small to make any generalizations about the experience of students in the other classes in the department. To gain more information the questionnaire should be administered to all seven levels of classes and the results analyzed to see if significant differences also exist in the other levels. In addition, the questionnaire was only administered once; therefore, the results may reflect the particular experiences of students who entered university that year. The questionnaire will be administered to future entering classes and the results compared with this year's results. Another limitation of this questionnaire is that it was administered anonymously. Although it indicated a number of students who had not written above the sentence level in English, the teacher could not identify these students and therefore could not use it as a tool for assisting them. If the students had recorded their names on the questionnaire, it could have been kept on file and examined along with a writing sample to provide more insight for giving assistance to individual students.

Information about the types of writing and topics from the students' experiences could be used for determining a suitable first assignment. For example, twenty-four students in these two classes reported having written an opinion essay in English. Also, *English Education in Japan* and *About English Class* were reported as topics that many students had written about in high school. Therefore, a short essay about high school English experience would make for an appropriate first writing assignment.

CONCLUSION

First-year Japanese university students have significant differences in writing experience. A questionnaire is a valuable tool for the teacher to identify these differences and collect other important data about student experience and background. This study identified significant differences of

writing experience within two classes of a university program that had been assigned to different levels by an English placement test. Although the participants constitute too small a sample to generalize the results, important information was gained about the participants' writing experience and about the types and topics of assignments they had written in high school. This questionnaire will be used again to determine if similar differences exist in future entering classes, and it will be administered to all class levels in the program.

THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX A: ORIGINAL JAPANESE QUESTIONNAIRE

文章を書くことに関するアンケート調査

このアンケートは、大学に入ったばかりの一回生の皆さんが、その前の教育（高校教育）でどのような日本語や英語の文章を書く経験をされてきたかを理解し、より良い教授法を考察する研究に役立てるために実施しています。匿名で結構ですので、アンケートに協力して下さい。

- 1 どのような高校を卒業されましたか？
私立・公立
普通・通信制・単位制・大検・その他 _____
- 2 留学経験はありますか？
ある ・ ない
ある場合、国名 _____
留学期間 _____
- 3 高校での、日本語の文章を書いた経験について下記の質問に答えて下さい。
★日本語の文章では、どのようなタイプのものを書いたことがありますか？当てはまるものに○をしてください。（複数回答あり）
・読書感想文、 ・発表や講演などを見た感想文、
・自分の意見を書いた作文（エッセイ） ・調べてまとめた作文（研究文）
・その他（簡単に説明して下さい） _____

- ★上の文章は、どの教科で書きましたか？（複数回答あり）
（例：国語、社会） _____

- ★上の文章は、どんなテーマ、または、内容について書きましたか？
（覚えているだけで結構です）
（例：体育祭の感想文、クラブの体験について、環境問題についての調査等）

- ★自分の意見や気持ちを日本語の文章で書くことに対して、どのように感じますか？（例：自信をもっている、楽しい、難しい）

- ★高校の授業で上記のような作文を提出した時、どのようなフィードバックを先生からもらいましたか？（例：誤字脱字の指摘、書き方についてのアドバイス、あるいは、修正等）

★上記の場合、それを書き直して、再提出していましたか？

4 高校での、英語の文章を書いた経験について下記の質問に答えて下さい。
 (これは、英訳ではなく、自分の言葉で文章を作る経験について答えて下さい)

★高校の英語の文章を書く授業では、最大どのぐらいの長さの文章を書きましたか？

- 単文 (一つ二つぐらいの文章)
- 5、6文の短い文章 (パラグラフ)
- いくつかの段落の文章 (レポート用紙一枚程度)
- レポート用紙2枚以上の長文

★パラグラフや長文を書いた経験がある場合、それは、どのようなタイプの文章ですか？当てはまるものに○をしてください。(複数回答あり)

- ・感想文
 - ・自分を意見を書いた作文 (エッセイ)
 - ・調べてまとめた作文 (研究文)
 - ・手紙 (ペンフレンドやホストファミリーらへの手紙など)
 - ・その他 (簡単に説明して下さい) _____
-

★パラグラフや長文を書いた経験がある場合、どのようなテーマ、または、内容について書きましたか？ (覚えているだけで結構です)

★自分の意見や気持ちを英語の文章で書くことに対して、どのように感じますか？ (例：自信をもっている、面白い、難しいと思う等)

★高校の授業で英語の作文を提出した時、どのようなフィードバックを先生からもらいましたか？ (例：スペルミスや単語の誤用の指摘、書き方についてのアドバイス、あるいは、修正等)

★上記の場合、それを書き直して、再提出していましたか？

以上

アンケートに協力して頂き、ありがとうございました。

APPENDIX B: ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

WRITING EXPERIENCE SURVEY

This is a survey to help understand the writing experience of first year university students in both Japanese and English. The results will be used make a better writing class for you. This survey is anonymous. Please answer the following questions.

1. What type of high school did you attend?
private / public
regular / correspondence /credit qualification school (*tanisei*)
University Entrance Qualification Examination (*daiken*) /other _____

2. Have you studied abroad?
yes / no
If yes, which country did you study in? _____
For how long?_____

3. Please answer the following questions about your Japanese writing experience in high school:

What type of writing in Japanese have you done? (circle all that apply)

- book report
- reflections
- diary/journal
- short story/poetry
- opinion essay
- research paper
- other (briefly explain _____)

What classes did you do this writing in? (write all that apply)
(for example, Japanese, Social Studies)

What themes or content did you write about? (Whatever you can remember is fine.)
(for example, reflection on the school sports festival, club experience, about the environment)

How do you feel about writing your opinion in Japanese?
(for example, I have confidence. It's fun. It's difficult.)

What type of feedback did you receive from the teachers in your high school classes when you handed in your Japanese writing?
(for example, character mistakes, writing style advice)

Did you rewrite and resubmit the above papers?

4. Please answer the following questions about your English writing experience in high school:
(Please answer about original writing in your own words, not about translation.)

What is the longest English writing passage that you have written in high school?

- one or two sentences
- five or six sentences (paragraph)
- multi paragraph paper (one page report)
- 2 or more page report

If you have written a paper of a paragraph or longer, what type of writing was it?

(Circle all that apply.)

- reflections
- diary/journal
- short story/poetry
- opinion essay
- research paper
- letter (to a pen friend or host family)
- other (explain briefly) _____

If you have written a paper of a paragraph or longer, what themes or content did you write about? (Write as many as you can remember.)

How do you feel about writing your opinion in English?

(for example, I have confidence. It's fun. It's difficult.)

What type of feedback did you receive from the teachers in your high school classes when you handed in your English writing?
(for example, spelling and vocabulary correction, writing style advice)

Did you rewrite and resubmit the above papers?

End

Thank you for completing this survey.

Professional Development

Elementary School English Instructional Supervision Group: Its Challenges and New Directions

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ABSTRACT

In the fall semester of 2001, English instruction became compulsory for fifth and sixth graders in Taiwan elementary schools. In the fall semester of 2005, all provinces in Taiwan launched English education programs in elementary schools, which began in the third grade. The Elementary School English Instructional Supervision Group (ESEISG) aims to implement successfully the English curriculum in practice. This paper aims to introduce and analyze the problems and challenges of, and suggest new directions for, ESEISG.

INTRODUCTION

The Ministry of Education (MOE) implemented the Nine-Year Curriculum in the 2000 academic year. In order to put the Nine-Year Curriculum into practice successfully in elementary and junior high school education, the MOE has formed the Elementary and Junior High School Nine-Year Curriculum Instructional Supervision Groups under the Bureau of Education of each local government, such as Taipei City and Taipei County. The curriculum for elementary school education is divided into subject areas, including languages (Mandarin Chinese, dialects, English), math, science and technology, social studies, integrative course, health and physical education, and arts and humanities. The Elementary School Nine-Year Instructional Supervision Groups are also divided based on different subject areas. The Elementary School English Instructional Supervision Group (ESEISG) is one of the Elementary School Nine-Year Curriculum Instructional Supervision Groups in Taipei County. The ESEISG aims to give elementary school English teachers guidance in curriculum, teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessments. It is expected that English teachers' teaching will be more effective and their teaching quality will be improved with the guidance of the ESEISG.

This paper aims to discuss the following issues: a brief introduction on ESEISG will be given; requirements for membership; members' responsibilities and rights; major tasks for the academic year of 2005 to 2006; performance assessment; problems or challenges facing ESEISG members; and new directions for the ESEISG.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Bourke (2001), Gebhard (1991), Inman (1993), and the National Council of State Supervisor for Languages (2003), a foreign language supervisor must possess specialized knowledge of language acquisition, materials, methodology, second language learning styles, and best practice knowledge. The district foreign/second language supervisor performs the following services:

1. Provides leadership in the ongoing implementation of the foreign/second language program that meets the needs of all students, as well as the critical language needs of the United States.
2. Provides professional development for instructional improvement based on current research, trends in language teaching, and district needs.
3. Is knowledgeable about the development of learning materials by publishers and others, as well as supervising the selection and acquisition of appropriate textbooks, ancillary materials, and technology.
4. Provides leadership in developing and carrying out district-wide co-curricular and extracurricular foreign/second language activities for students.
5. Serves as a resource on effective language instruction, national issues, and related legislation for all district staff and the community.
6. Stays abreast of trends and issues in language education and brings innovation and renewal to instruction.
7. Collaborates with teachers to promote instructional consistency and a shared direction with colleagues in other content areas on interdisciplinary curriculum and staff development.
8. Develops appropriate budget, seeks additional funding, and manages grants to bring innovative programs, courses, and techniques to the district.
9. Serves as a liaison to appropriate district, state, and national agencies and universities.
10. Stays actively involved in foreign/second language organizations and provides up-to-date knowledge to the district.
11. Serves as a source of specialized information on language teachers and learning for district staff, board members, and the community.

CURRENT SITUATIONS OF THE ESEISG

QUALIFICATION REQUIREMENTS OF THE ESEISG MEMBERS

Anyone who meets the following qualifications can apply as a member of the ESEISG: current English teachers with at least two years' teaching experience, a bachelor's degree from local colleges or colleges abroad, enthusiasm, and stamina or fortitude to perform the role. Previous members of the ESEISG must submit their personal portfolio and be given an oral interview. The applicant must submit a personal portfolio, give a ten-minute teaching demonstration, and then undergo an oral interview.

Chuwei Elementary School is the leading school for the ESEISG. The principal is the convener and the dean of the night school program is the vice-convener. The ESEISG has twelve members, including four core ESEISG members.

RESPONSIBILITIES AND BENEFITS OF THE ESEISG MEMBERS

The responsibilities of the members of the ESEISG include: to attend the committee meeting every Wednesday; to implement the educational policies; to hold at least one seminar per year; to hold at least ten hour-long workshops for English teachers; to give elementary school English teachers guidance in curriculum, teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessments; to offer counseling services on the *Easy Go* Web sites; and to submit personal portfolios.

Any member of the ESEISG gains the following benefits: to reduce teaching periods each week by three; to avoid being a homeroom teacher; to receive citation; and to attend any workshops and seminars of his or her choice.

The responsibilities of these four core ESEISG members include: to implement the educational policies; to train other members of the ESEISG; to offer courses on the Web; to be the instructor in the workshop or seminar; to understand the roles of the ESEISG in other cities in Taiwan; to offer samples on alternative assessments; to provide two to four teaching demonstrations; to analyze the textbooks; to provide at least six lesson plans; and to share their teaching experience.

TASKS OF THE ESEISG

The tasks for the ESEISG in Taipei County between the fall semester of 2005 to the spring semester of 2006 include: to design Standardized English Achievement Tests for the fourth and sixth graders; to complete educational Web sites; to offer courses on the E-School; to publish *Taipei County English Teaching Counseling Newsletter*; to hold English workshops; to have professional dialogues with junior high school English teachers; to evaluate the English curriculum plans; to be judges for English teacher screen tests; and to visit local schools and provide them with guidance.

PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT ON THE ESEISG MEMBERS

At the end of June, each member of the ESEISG will be evaluated based on his or her accomplishments. The member receives: one point for visiting a school and providing the school with guidance on curriculum and teaching, as well as being an instructor for a workshop; 0.5 point for each research paper submitted to the *Easy Go* Web site; two points for being an instructor in the K12 E-School; three points for participating in the committee meetings; and three points for handing in personal portfolios. The member will get one citation for accumulating three points, two citations for accumulating six points, or one small merit for accumulating nine points.

PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGES FACED BY THE ESEISG

While the ESEISG has been involved in implementing the Nine-Year Curriculum for several years, it has faced many problems and challenges.

First, many tasks the ESEISG has completed were actually assigned or decided by the Bureau of Education or the vice-convenor, such as designing Standardized English Achievement Tests for the fourth and sixth graders, evaluating the English curriculum plans, and so forth. The ESEISG plays a passive role in English education rather than taking the initiative in policy-making for elementary school or junior high school English education in Taipei County.

Second, the number of teachers who attended ESEISG workshops declined. Professional development sessions are necessary to change teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and classroom practice, and to enable them to deliver the revised curriculum effectively. Teachers were not amenable to theoretical learning; however, they accepted readily anything that could be filed away immediately as being potentially useful. An analysis of English teachers' need for professional development should be carried out in order to design appropriate professional development that caters directly to teachers' needs.

Third, Taipei County has dimensionally wide areas, ranging from rural, urban, mountain, and coastline, to remote areas. It is impossible for the ESEISG to visit all 206 schools and provide assistance or guidelines to all English teachers in these schools. Furthermore, English teachers, particularly in remote areas, lack opportunities to connect with other teachers and teacher trainers because of their extensive and required participation in daily school activities (e.g., student guidance, school sports/culture club advising, PTA activities, etc.). Professional development focusing on connection and collegiality should be the major concern, because teachers learn more effectively from one another than individually.

Finally, issues such as compensatory instruction, bimodal distribution, and the transition between elementary and junior high school curricula are crucial in elementary school English education in Taipei County. Unfortunately, the ESEISG has not been able to come up with solutions on bimodal distribution of learners' English performance, nor can it offer appropriate models on compensatory instruction or transition between elementary and junior high school curricula.

NEW DIRECTIONS FOR THE ESEISG

Teachers' expertise is a critical factor in students' achievement. The ESEISG should play the role as a facilitator for English teachers' professional development and a promoter of elementary school English education in Taiwan. The blueprints for new directions for the ESEISG are outlined as follows.

First, the ESEISG should take on a leadership role in the ongoing design and implementation of elementary school English education, curriculum, and policies. Furthermore, the ESEISG should take the lead in developing and carrying out English extracurricular activities for students.

Second, the ESEISG should stay abreast of trends and issues in English

education and bring innovation and renewal to all the English teachers in Taipei County through lectures, conferences, workshops, professional journals, seminars, school visits, study groups, Web sites, and so forth.

Next, the ESIESG should help teachers to seek out opportunities to grow professionally through reflective practice. The ESIESG should work with teachers on improving methods, techniques, and skills, through professional development for instructional improvement based on learners' needs, district needs, and trends in language education.

Finally, as a leading professional group for elementary school English teachers in Taipei County, the ESIESG should take the initiative to identify problems occurring in the classroom and take the initiative to conduct action research. Conclusions drawn from the research can provide a principal basis for making decisions about English education, understanding language and teaching and making improvements to the processes, outcomes, and conditions for language teaching.

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The Role of the Employment Exam in Selecting Quality EFL Teachers

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ABSTRACT

Findings of an exploratory questionnaire administered to 130 current Japanese secondary school teachers of English for the purposes of identifying problems with the first-stage written test of the English Teacher Employment Exam are reported in this paper. In addition, directions for its improvement are explored. To this end, the Japanese and Korean first stage-written tests were compared. The results of the comparison suggest that it is necessary to enhance authenticity of content on the Japanese test and to increase the proportion of cognitively demanding questions on the test. The results also suggest that it is important to base the test on the notion that test takers are not passive recipients of theory but its potential users.

INTRODUCTION

There has been considerable debate among researchers and teachers alike, about whether or not the present employment examinations for Japanese secondary school English teachers function as a means of selecting quality teachers (Shimizu, 2005). The employment exam consists of a written and a practical test. For those who want to become English teachers, the first-stage written test is a major hurdle to clear since many candidates are eliminated at this stage in the recruitment process. The failing candidates cannot advance to the more practical second stage, which focuses on interviews, discussions, and mock lessons. It is not unusual for even fluent speakers of English to lose the chance to demonstrate their advanced oral communication skills because they cannot pass the first-stage written test. The failing candidates must wait another year before they are eligible to try again. Although such a high-stakes decision is made on the results of a first-stage written test, a number of researchers and practitioners have seen the test content as problematic. Furuya (2005) pointed out, for example, that it is unclear what the test is designed to measure, and hence, that there is no clear way of preparing students in teaching certificate programs for the test. Unfortunately, however, due to the dearth of empirical research aimed at the improvement of the first-stage written test, it is not known in what respect or in what di-

rection the test content should be changed.

THE STUDY

The study reported here is part of a large-scale comparative study between Japan and Korea, the purpose of which was to explore the development of a new employment exam. The rationale for the comparison of the Korean and Japanese first-stage written tests was that the test content is significantly different between the two, although both tests have, as a major objective, selecting quality teachers who are capable of developing students' basic communicative competence in the EFL classroom (see Butler, 2005, for a summary of educational policies in the two countries). It was assumed that the content of the Korean test would serve as a useful reference when exploring the direction in which the content of the Japanese test should be improved.

SOCIOPOLITICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Japan, like many other EFL countries in Asia such as Taiwan and Korea, has implemented a variety of reforms to English education policies and relevant action plans in an effort to promote oral communication skills (Kwon, 2000; Lamie, 2004). In 2002, the Japanese Ministry of Education set the desired standard level of English proficiency for secondary school English teachers at a minimum of 550 points in the TOEFL and 730 points in the TOEIC. In addition, all English teachers are now required to take intensive in-service training for five years in order to improve their overall English proficiency and practical teaching skills (The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2006).

Despite these growing demands for quality teachers, recruiting such teachers has become increasingly difficult for several reasons. First, the overall academic level of Japanese university students is expected to get lower and lower due to the implementation of more relaxed educational policies in secondary schools. Those who are enrolled in teacher preparation programs are no exception. Second, there are a large number of baby-boomer teachers who will retire in several years, which will naturally lead to a high demand for English teachers. This demand will further expand, particularly when English education is implemented in elementary schools. Given these sociopolitical changes, what matters is the increased demand for English teachers together with the limited supply of high-quality teachers, resulting in a situation in which even low-quality teachers could be easily hired. Therefore, it is critical to investigate what role the employment examinations should take to assure the selection of quality teachers. An examination of the first-stage written test is the first step in that investigation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Two research questions were posed in order to identify what the problems are with the content of the first-stage written test and explore the direction in which the test content should be improved:

Research Question 1: What skills and knowledge *are* measured in the first-stage written test for Japanese secondary school teachers of English?

Research Question 2: What skills and knowledge *should be* measured in the first-stage written test for Japanese secondary school teachers of English?

DATA COLLECTION

Participants in the present study were 130 current Japanese secondary school English teachers ranging in age from the early 20's to the late 50's. Some had passed the employment exams in one try while others had taken the exams several times before they passed.

For the purpose of the study, a 48-item questionnaire was developed and mailed out to the 130 teachers, accompanied by a copy of the Korean first-stage written test in which the Korean language was translated into Japanese (19 questions, 140 minutes) and the Japanese first-stage written test (9 questions, 100 minutes) together with a copy of the model answers to the respective tests. The Korean and Japanese tests used in the study were those administered in 2003. Unlike the nationwide unified first-stage written test in Korea, the making and administering of the test in Japan is autonomous to each municipal or prefectural board of education. The Japanese test used was the one administered in the prefecture in which the participants of the study worked. The questionnaire consisted of items related to these tests, items concerning participants' educational backgrounds, and items asking about their daily classroom teaching practice. Completed questionnaires were received from 89 teachers.

DATA ANALYSIS

To explore the research questions above, the participants' answers to the following items in the questionnaire were analyzed:

Question: Which do you think are good questions on the Japanese and Korean tests for the purpose of selecting quality teachers of English? Please choose a maximum of three questions on each test.

Question: Which do you think are bad questions on the Japanese and Korean tests for the purpose of selecting quality teachers of English? Please choose a maximum of three questions on each test.

Some space was provided for each question in order to elicit detailed comments on their choices. Their choices for good and bad questions were tallied separately on each test. On the Japanese test, a total of 103 and 144 data points for good and bad questions, respectively, were missing from the possible 267 points (3 choices X 89 participants), suggesting that quite a few

questions were considered neither good nor bad and that a number of participants chose less than three questions. As for the Korean test, a total of 59 and 158 data points for good and bad questions, respectively, were missing from the possible 267 points. The comparison of the missing data between the two tests revealed that the Korean test contained a larger number of good questions than the Japanese test because the smaller number of missing responses in their choices of good questions indicated a larger number of questions being chosen as good. In a similar vein, the Korean test contained a smaller number of bad questions than the Japanese test because the larger number of missing responses in their choices of bad questions indicated a smaller number of questions being chosen as bad. In the results section below, we focus on the questions they chose as good or bad on the two tests and examine what skills and knowledge were assessed in those questions.

RESULTS

GOOD AND BAD QUESTIONS ON THE JAPANESE TEST

Table 1 summarizes the content of each question on the Japanese test and the number of responses that 89 participants made for good and bad questions. The categorization of content for each question on the Japanese and Korean tests was performed by two instructors in the teacher preparation program. All but Q7 were the questions that test takers could answer in Japanese.

Table 1: Frequencies of Teachers' Responses for Good and Bad Questions on the Japanese Test

Q#	Content of Question	Good	Bad
1	(J) Grammar & vocabulary quizzes (multiple-choice)	7	18
2	(J) Grammar & idioms quizzes (multiple-choice)	6	12
3	(J) Reading comprehension (multiple-choice)	4	9
4	(J) Reading comprehension (multiple-choice & translation into Japanese)	17	16
5	(J) Reading comprehension (multiple-choice & gap-filling)	20	8
6	(J) Knowledge of teaching methods (multiple-choice)	32	10
7	(E&J) Knowledge of government's action plans (translation into English & gap-filling)	18	18
8	(J) Knowledge of teaching skills related to CALL (making lesson plans)	19	20
9	(J) Knowledge of teaching skills related to oral communication (making lesson plans)	41	12
Total		164	123

Note. (J) denotes the question to be answered in Japanese, whereas (E&J) denotes that the question has items to be answered in both English and Japanese.

The results shown in Table 1 indicated that about 43% and 36% of the participants chose Q9 and Q6 as good questions, respectively. Q9 was the question that asked respondents to make lesson plans that focused on oral communication activities in the classroom. This question was designed to measure the respondents' pedagogical knowledge that serves as the basis for their classroom behavior and teaching acts, such as setting goals, checking procedure, allocating time, and monitoring progress, to name a few (Gatbonton, 1999). The other good question, Q6, was a multiple-choice question about teaching methods (e.g., TPR, Audio-Lingual Method, and Natural Approach). In this item, they were given a list of classroom activities and were asked to choose one teaching method that best fit each activity described. It was apparent that this question was designed to examine whether respondents could situate their knowledge about theories of language teaching in real-life classroom practice.

As for bad questions on the Japanese test, the results shown in Table 1 indicated that more than 20% of the participants regarded Q1 as a bad question. Q1 consisted of 10 multiple-choice grammar and vocabulary quizzes. Test takers were asked to choose the correct or most appropriate answer from the response options given in each quiz. Most quizzes in Q1 were designed to test syntactic accuracy and cohesive form. Some teachers commented that although such discrete-point grammar questions still dominated the Japanese test, it was not necessary to set up an independent question solely to measure knowledge of grammar because it could be measured in such questions as essay and summary writing.

The results also indicated that opinions were split over the appraisal of Q7 and Q8. As with Q1, more than 20% of the participants regarded Q7 and Q8 as bad questions. Unlike Q1, however, almost the same number of participants regarded these two questions as good. In Q7, respondents were asked to write a Japanese-to-English verbatim translation of part of the government action plan. Q8 asked them to make lesson plans to utilize fully net surfing in a CALL environment. Interestingly, the making of lesson plans was considered good if it was related to oral communication activities as in Q9, whereas it was considered bad if it was associated with CALL as in Q8. The comments from those who chose Q8 as a bad question revealed that most were not familiar with CALL. They stated that their schools did not have the labs or facilities to implement computer-assisted instruction and that they had never experienced teaching English in a CALL environment. It seemed apparent that their lack of experience and unfamiliarity led them to regard Q8 as being irrelevant to the reality of teaching in their secondary schools, and therefore to rate it unfavorably.

GOOD AND BAD QUESTIONS ON THE KOREAN TEST

Table 2 presents the content of each question on the Korean test and the number of responses that 89 participants made for each question. In contrast to the Japanese test, 13 out of 19 questions must be answered in English.

Table 2: Frequencies of Teachers' Responses for Good and Bad Questions on the Korean Test

Q#	Content of Question	Good	Bad
1	(E) Reading comprehension (finding a key word)	3	9
2	(K) Reading comprehension & writing (summarizing a passage)	15	1
3	(E) Reading (information-gathering)	15	4
4	(E) Reading comprehension & discourse analysis (finding keywords)	3	3
5	(E) Reading comprehension & writing (making interview questions)	17	0
6	(E) Reading comprehension (gap-filling)	5	2
7	(E) Reading comprehension & writing (summarizing a passage)	26	1
8	(E) Knowledge of the Input Hypothesis (gap-filling)	1	9
9	(E) Knowledge of testing & teaching skills (finding problems)	30	7
10	(E) Knowledge of teaching methods (gap-filling)	10	13
11	(E) Knowledge of communication strategies (gap-filling)	9	12
12	(K) Knowledge of teaching skills related to listening (explanation)	14	3
13	(E) Discourse analysis (finding keywords)	6	5
14	(K) Knowledge of teaching methods (writing definitions of terms)	10	7
15	(K) Phonetics (explanation)	6	12
16	(K) Syntax (explanation)	5	10
17	(E&K) Pragmatics (explanation)	14	4
18	(K) Poem (interpretation)	9	5
19	(E) Essay (discourse completion)	8	2
Total		206	109

Note. (E) and (K) denote the questions to be answered in English and Korean, respectively, whereas (E&K) denotes that the question has items to be answered in both English and Korean.

The results shown in Table 2 indicated that about 34% and 29% of the participants regarded Q9 and Q7 as good questions. Specifically, Q9 was a question about testing that asked respondents to find out problems with the vocabulary quiz given. A number of teachers who favored this question commented that knowledge of testing, the making of good question items in particular, was essential because it was common practice in secondary school to evaluate students' performance and progress by test. Some teachers emphasized the importance of including a question about testing in a first-stage written test, lamenting that they had little opportunity to study about testing in the teacher preparation programs and that they tended to make quizzes and tests similar to those they had experienced as test takers in the past.

In the other good question, Q7, respondents were asked to read a 150-word passage and summarize it in English without using four consecutive text words. Those who chose this as a good question stated that it was a cognitively demanding question that integrated various components of English proficiency such as reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary usage,

and composition, and that the Japanese test should include more questions of this kind, rather than those that can be answered by guessing.

As for bad questions shown in Table 2, the Korean test, unlike the Japanese test, contained no questions that more than 20% of the participants rated unfavorably. The biggest discrepancy in the number of responses for good and bad questions was observed in Q8 in which only one teacher chose it as a good question whereas nine teachers considered it a bad question. Q8 asked respondents to fill in the blanks in the description of Krashen's Input Hypothesis with the terms "comprehensible input" and "silent period." Neither choice of a correct answer nor distracters were given in this question. The question that arises here concerns why the participants favored the question pertaining to teaching methods (i.e., Q6) on the Japanese test and why not the similar questions (i.e., Q8) on the Korean test. Inspection of the comments from the teachers who chose Q8 as a bad question revealed that they appreciated the inclusion of a question about teaching methods itself in the test but deemed the format of this question problematic. Specifically, Q8 was offered in an all-or-nothing manner so that remembering or not the technical terms about the Input Hypothesis was the key to answering this question. Those who rated it unfavorably suggested that such a question should be avoided because it promotes nothing more than memorization of the technical terms used in academia.

DISCUSSION

The present study has demonstrated several important points in improving the content of the Japanese first-stage written test. A first point concerns "authenticity of content" (Purpura, 2004). It was found that the teachers in the present study considered lack of authenticity of content problematic, as evidenced by the fact that they rated the question about communicative language teaching (i.e., Q9) favorably and the question about CALL (i.e., Q8) unfavorably on the Japanese test, depending on the teaching situations they were in. Since the purpose of the test is to select teachers, one way of enhancing authenticity of content is to match the questions included on the test to the tasks found in the real-life classroom. There were several questions on the tests used in the present study that did have authenticity of content, namely the question about teaching methods on the Japanese test (i.e., Q6) and the question about testing on the Korean test (i.e., Q9). Indeed, both questions were rated highly. Given these findings, caution should be taken in using a standardized test (e.g., the TOEFL or the TOEIC) as an alternative to the first-stage written test, although some boards of education in Japan have allowed that alternative. As discussed elsewhere (e.g., Freeman and Johnson, 1998), it should be acknowledged that those who have a good command of English are not necessarily good English teachers.

A second point in improving the test is to increase the proportion of more cognitively demanding questions. Given the high rating of the question about summary writing on the Korean test (i.e., Q7), the questions to be included on the test should be those which require an integration of such skills as reading, inference, evaluation, and application. Moreover, given the low rating

of the multiple-choice question on the Japanese test (i.e., Q1), its replacement may also be needed even at the expense of the efficiency of marking. Another way of making the question more cognitively demanding is to require individuals to answer in English. As far as this requirement is concerned, the Japanese test is far less cognitively demanding than the Korean test as shown in Tables 1 and 2. It is apparent that the Japanese test is not sufficient to measure test takers' productive English proficiency.

A third point worth noting is concerned with the question format. It was found that the teachers did not appreciate questions requiring rote memorization, as observed in the low rating of the question about technical terms of the Input Hypothesis on the Korean test (i.e., Q8). Questions requiring rote memorization are problematic from the perspective of authenticity of content. That is to say, simply asking technical terms in a discrete manner does not entail the component linking between theory and practice. The purpose of the test is not to check explicit knowledge of a particular theory but rather to make inferences about test takers' ability to use it in real-life teaching situations beyond the test (see Bachman and Palmer, 1996, for a detailed discussion about the correspondence between the test tasks and the target language use). Clearly, questions that can be readily answered by rote memorization of theories do not fulfill this purpose. It is thus important to base the test on the notion that test takers are not passive recipients of theory but its potential users.

Finally, two limitations of the present study and future direction of the study of the first-stage written test should be noted. First, only 89 secondary school English teachers participated in this study, and therefore the findings should be considered tentative. Much more data are needed to support the findings. A second limitation is related to the tests used. As stated above, the Japanese test was the one administered in 2003 in one prefecture of Japan. It was not necessarily representative of the Japanese first-stage written tests. Since the making of the test is autonomous to individual boards of education, variation of the content exists between tests. Therefore, the test was selected with the intention of serving as stimuli to elicit teachers' opinions about the improvement of the test. Further research using other versions of the test administered in different years and/or in other areas is necessary to support the findings. This holds true for the Korean test as well.

CONCLUSION

It is obvious that there is plenty of room for improvement in the content of the Japanese first-stage written test, as shown in the lower identification of good questions and the higher identification rate for bad questions. This is not to suggest, however, that the test content has thus far remained unchanged. It is changing. A number of teachers commented that there was no question related to teaching methodology when they took the test. From their comments, there is no doubt that the test has been changing for the better. Unfortunately, however, change has come very slowly. Since the era of mass hiring of English teachers is just around the corner in Japan, the improvement of the employment exam must be accelerated. It is hoped that the

findings of the present study have shed some light on the direction in which the first-stage written test should be improved, and in a broader sense, will be of use to other EFL countries in Asia that implement the development and improvement of the employment examination.

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The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT): An Administration Tool for Evaluating Teaching Staff

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ABSTRACT

For administrators working in the EFL field, they must inevitably face the difficulty of properly assessing the performance and needs of teaching staff. If there is no accurate evaluation tool or other means of assessment, administrators cannot fully monitor, measure, nor properly assess the productivity of individual teaching staff. This then can lead to a general lowering of professional standards. In situations where no accurate measure of assessment exists, there can be no clearly defined professional standard for teachers to follow. In addition, administrators have no means to measure and monitor the level of staff performance over time in order to establish whether it is, in fact, deteriorating or improving. In this presentation, we will present an evaluation tool, The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers (AASLT) and introduce this as the means to help administrators more accurately evaluate teaching staff while simultaneously providing a clearer picture of the challenges they face. Moreover, we will examine how the AASLT can be used to diagnose and address problematic circumstances with teaching staff, as well as how it can assist administrators in defining the boundaries of professionalism for teaching staff through the framework the AASLT provides.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to introduce an evaluation measure called *The Annual Activities Survey for Language Teachers* (AASLT). This is for the purposes of showing how this can be used by administrators to diagnose and address problematic circumstances by assessing the professional development activities of teaching staff, defining the boundaries of professionalism, and evaluating whether teaching staff are functioning within these professional boundaries.

Initially, some current concerns found in the area of professional development research will be examined and some recommendations to counter these. Then, in order to highlight the use of the AASLT, a description of the current communication channels of one anonymous English language center will be

explored to understand the particular channels of communication and how they are specifically used for collecting information on an individual teacher's professional development, committee activities, and non-committee activities. This is undertaken as the means to illustrate the gaps in communication and the shortcomings in the guidelines, which are a direct result of the former.

In the last section of this paper, the AASLT will be introduced along with an explanation of what it is and how it improves an administration's method of collecting information on an individual teacher's professional development committee and non-committee activities. Finally, some considerations for the future of AASLT will briefly be discussed.

CONCERNS WITH PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

While a teacher often sees professional development as just an addition to one's workload or just an initiative from above (Stir, 2006) and/or feel there is little support for it from administration, there is an awareness of the lack of professional development undertaken and one's weaknesses in it. However, in the EFL profession today, there is little motivation and action taken to improve upon these. Many may question just why this is. Yet, the reasons are often inter-related and, in many ways, compounded by one another. In order to fully grasp and understand the concerns with professional development in EFL today, it is important to look at the rationale and what research shows.

To begin with, it is significant to state that the weaknesses in professional development do appear to start during one's initial teacher training period. Based on a study done by Stir (2006), it was reported that 90% of student teachers during their training do want to become more aware of their practices, but that the same percentage, take no action. As a teacher progresses past the training stage and further into the teaching profession, the lack of effort put into professional development continues and is often justified by positive student opinions (Marsh, 1984; Kulik, 2001). This, along with the failure of the teacher to consider the social context that one works in is often not accounted for (Stir, 2006). Moreover, Cortese (1998) writes that the unwillingness of universities to respond to the challenges of sustainability and the rate at which professional development needs to occur, suggests that universities themselves have only succeeded in compounding this ongoing dilemma.

There also appears to be a lack of accountability for professional development in the workplace due to a common misconception as to who is actually responsible for it. More often than not, confusion arises as to whether it is the responsibility of the teacher or the administration. What is more, when professional development is seen as optional, there is usually little or no follow up on it. This is believed to be the direct result of the image professional development has in the EFL field, of a one-time activity that is not continuous, and not subject to reevaluation. In some cases, teachers can even develop a fake sense of competence completion, believing they know enough and therefore have reached their element of expertise. (Williams & Berry, 1999) This can have a profound effect on teachers, as over time, they can

mistakenly come see all members of their staff as professionally equal in every aspect when, in truth, they are not.

What this suggests is most concerning. Teachers are potentially prone to manifest an imagined level of professionalism beyond which they feel they need not go. They come to believe they have reached the length of their expertise and consequently, become comfortable with that and plateau in their teaching. This confusion between professionalism, or current expertise, and professional development, the ongoing development of expertise (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005) is inevitably responsible for the misnomer that there is a community of professional practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

It should also be pointed out that professional development is often not included as an aspect of hiring practices (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005). This has been perpetuated by the current trends in flexible and casual practices in professional recruitment, which can, in the long run, hinder opportunities for professional development (Gleeson, Davies, & Wheeler, 2005). Moreover, when there is no teacher control of professional development, a feeling of stress and dissatisfaction can settle in, which can lead to disinterest. These latter points only serve to negate the process of continuing to develop professionally in the minds of teachers. Other limitations like those relating to contracts and employment time and can also decrease the level of motivation related to professional development because of the little long-term benefits for a teacher. Increasing internal instability in the workplace due to consistent employee turnover creates an even greater need to re-evaluate professional development continuously, as such political imperatives of this kind deeply limit control, and/or impede it.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In order for professional development to be more effective, there are several recommendations that are worthy of consideration. It should be acknowledged that professional development is a daily practice that is ever evolving. This is necessary in order to address current and anticipated practices while, in turn, promoting the development of these. In relation to this, EFL teachers should be involved as active agents of change to raise their awareness of the need to take control of their own professional development. Such involvement can positively contribute to organizational commitment (Tzeng, 2004) and inevitably motivate teachers to take interest in professional development for the purposes of advancing their own knowledge and practice. This will help make professional development in the workplace as stress free as possible and make it easier to for teachers and administrators to set learning objectives as a measurement of growth.

It is also important to recognize that professional development should be the primary component of every teacher and administrator's responsibilities. One study suggests that 50% of a teacher's workload should directly deal with it alone (Sparks, 1994). This is significant, as it suggests that professional development is meant as something for betterment of practice rather than extra workload. In addition, as an essential part of the workplace environment, professional development should be a component of the overall assessment of

all teaching during and after the hiring process. However, it should be at all times definitively distinguished as different from student opinions and not mistakenly confused with professionalism.

Finally, as every administrator and teacher should to take the social contexts of the work environment into account, it is relevant that all teachers and administrators make assurances to adapt their needs to their specific social context(s).

TYPICAL STRUCTURE OF A UNIVERSITY ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER IN JAPAN

In order to illustrate how the AASLT can be implemented to improve the assessment of professional development, and other related activities, it is first important to describe the typical structure of an English Language Center at a university in Japan. Diagram 1, (see Appendix A, Diagram 1) is a graphic representation of this common structure. The staff at this center is composed one full-time director and 22 foreign lecturers on five-year contracts. The director is chosen from a pool of full time university staff and the position at the center is a revolving one that usually changes every three years. Below the director, is the vice-director, a position, which is filled by one of the 22 foreign lecturers. This position rotates sporadically depending on what year the lecturer is in according to his/her contract. The other 21 positions are broken down into committees, and are filled by the remaining foreign lecturers. There are approximately nine committees and each has a chair and corresponding members.

Diagram 2 (see Appendix A, Diagram 2) shows the channels of communication at this same English Language Center. This has been included in order to highlight the gaps in communication, which can lead to gaps in information. Between lecturers and committee chairs, there is one channel of communication where, in the individual committee meetings, committee responsibilities are allocated by the chairs to the committee members. Communication between committee chairs and the vice-director are represented by three channels of communication; weekly memo topics sent to the vice-director once a week by the individual chairs, faculty meeting topics sent to the vice-director once a month by the chairs, and an end of year report detailing committee activities sent to the vice-director by the chairs once a year. As for the communication between the vice-director and lecturers, there are three channels of communication: a weekly memo sent to the lecturers, a monthly faculty meeting attended by all lecturers and the director, class observations and a follow-up meeting between vice-director and individual teachers, which occurs once a year. Finally, between the director and the vice-director, there are a weekly meetings held throughout the year.

THE GUIDELINES AND THEIR SHORTCOMINGS

The following guidelines are intended to be used for the evaluation of

professional development, and other inter-related activities. There are seven particular guidelines that have been identified as having significant shortcomings, which negatively affect the collection of accurate information on lecturer activities. These shortcomings are as follows:

Guideline 1: "The following conditions and assumptions are offered to clarify as much as possible the terms and the nature of the evaluations."

Guideline 2: "The use of just such an evaluation to "assist the University in deciding which and how many Lecturers receive the offer of a contract for the new academic year."

Guideline 3: "The three principle sources of evaluation material, written and/or otherwise, are the Lecturer, The Vice-Director, and the Director."

Guideline 4: "In the event of significant shortcomings or deficiencies in the Lecturer's performance or behavior, there will be a meeting . . . to ameliorate the situation."

Guideline 5: ". . . the director, in consultation with appropriate university faculty and administrators, will maintain evaluative information in such a way that only relevant and properly documented materials are used for determining when a meeting . . . needs to be held."

Guideline 6: "In situations in which evaluation material is used uniformly . . . the guidelines and checklists will be used in a uniform manner."

Guideline 7: ". . . every effort must be made to eliminate misunderstandings as early as possible"

The first two guidelines use assumptions as the sole basis to clarify, evaluate, and/or measure teacher performance or as the baseline for an extension of contracts. The third is also concerning because like the first two, it is subjective in nature and the three stated positions have little contact with each other. As for Guideline 4, there is currently no means to determine what is a significant shortcoming or a deficiency. Yet, Guideline 5 paradoxically implies that there is already a standard form of evaluation in place when in fact there is not. Guideline 6 is exceptionally vague and it is difficult to pinpoint what it actually suggests, so one is left to his or her devices to allocate an interpretation. Finally, Guideline 7 is significant, because it is one of the fundamental reasons why the AASLT was developed and why its introduction has the potential to resolve many of these issues (shortcomings) by providing a framework of clarity in teaching staff evaluation.

Although, the guidelines presented are all vague and unrealistic, common to all of them is the lack of accurate and objective information essential to proper evaluation. This is due in part to current communication gaps, where the means to collect accurate information is not structurally present. This, in turn, leads to a failure to evaluate adequately professional development or to ensure the fulfillment of the responsibilities of teaching staff.

THE AASLT: WHAT IS IT?

The AASLT is a measure specifically designed to resolve the inadequacies and non-existent forms of professional development evaluation and imple-

ment a clear standard of professionalism. It is not a measure used to evaluate classroom teaching. Instead, the AASLT functions to *evaluate the non-teaching related activities of an individual teacher, particularly those related to professional development, committee(s) and non-committee(s)*.

HOW DOES THE AASLT WORK?

There are three distinct gaps in communication that are specifically identified and accounted for on the AASLT, as the means to collect accurate information on a teacher's non-teaching related activities that were previously undetermined. These gaps in communication specifically relate to the Committee Activities, Non-Committee Activities and External Activities of an individual teacher.

By identifying and accounting for these communication gaps, the AASLT serves to *raise awareness of unknown weaknesses in an individual teacher's professional development, committee and non-committee activities*. Moreover, it *aims to draw an individual teacher's attention to known weaknesses* in these same areas. Consequently, in doing so, the motivation for a teacher to improve upon such weaknesses is believed to be promoted and encouraged.

THE THREE GAPS IN COMMUNICATION: HOW DOES THE AASLT ACCOUNT FOR THESE?

The first communication gap identified and addressed by the AASLT relates to a teacher's *Committee Activities*. The survey moves to collect information on what committee responsibilities a teacher completed or did not complete and the reasons why for those that were not. Moreover, it aims to identify what current position a teacher holds on a committee and if he or she has made any specific improvements to the latter which specifically resulted in an improvement in the overall committee's function. To add, it looks to account for any inter-committee activities a teacher was involved in by asking one to identify and explain whether he/ she worked on or with another committee.

The second gap in communication focuses on a teacher's *Non-Committee Activities*. The AASLT aims to gather information on whether a teacher produced any non-refereed work, specifically internal journal articles, and/or reports. It also looks to collect information on whether a teacher presented or attended any departmental seminars, made any changes or specific contributions to the general running of the department and its curriculum. What is more, the survey specifically asks a teacher to identify his or her teaching (class) load, including the classes and major(s) taught, and whether he or she functioned as an academic advisor for any student(s). It also requests that the teacher state who the student(s) was/were, including the year(s) of the student(s) and major(s).

The third communication gap identified looks at *External Activities*. The survey asks a teacher to list any published works, including books, articles,

and conference proceedings. It also requires a teacher to state any presentations, including those related to articles written or co-written, invited lectures given, and any external lectures given. Moreover, it aims to gather information on what external events including conferences, workshops, and seminars a teacher attended. A teacher is also asked to list any upgraded qualifications, including completed degrees, certificates, or other similar qualifications; achievements, including awards, honors, and grants; and finally, memberships in any academic society and positions held (e.g., Chair, Organizer, Committee Member, Article Referee, etc.).

By accounting for all three of these identified gaps in communication, the AASLT provides an improved means to collect accurate information, which, in turn, improves the chances of an accurate assessment of a teacher's non-teaching related activities.

THE FUTURE OF THE AASLT

The AASLT has yet to be implemented and tested to determine whether it actually functions as an accurate assessment measure of non-teaching related activities. Consequently, through trial and error, a refinement of the survey may be necessary and remains a possible future endeavour. Currently, there is a need to identify the specific parts of the survey that are ineffective. However, in order to anticipate what those may be, it will be necessary to get substantial feedback and reaction to it. Therefore, the next step in the development of this measure is to devise the means to collect opinions on its effectiveness and ineffectiveness from teachers and administrators. This will be essential in establishing the overall validity of the AASLT and the direction it takes in the future.

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APPENDIX A: DIAGRAM 1

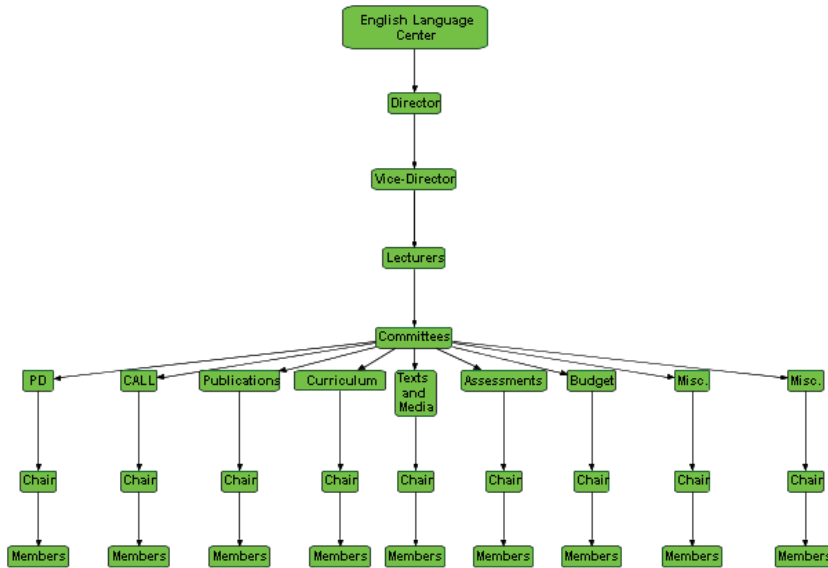


Diagram 1: The Structure of a University English Language Center

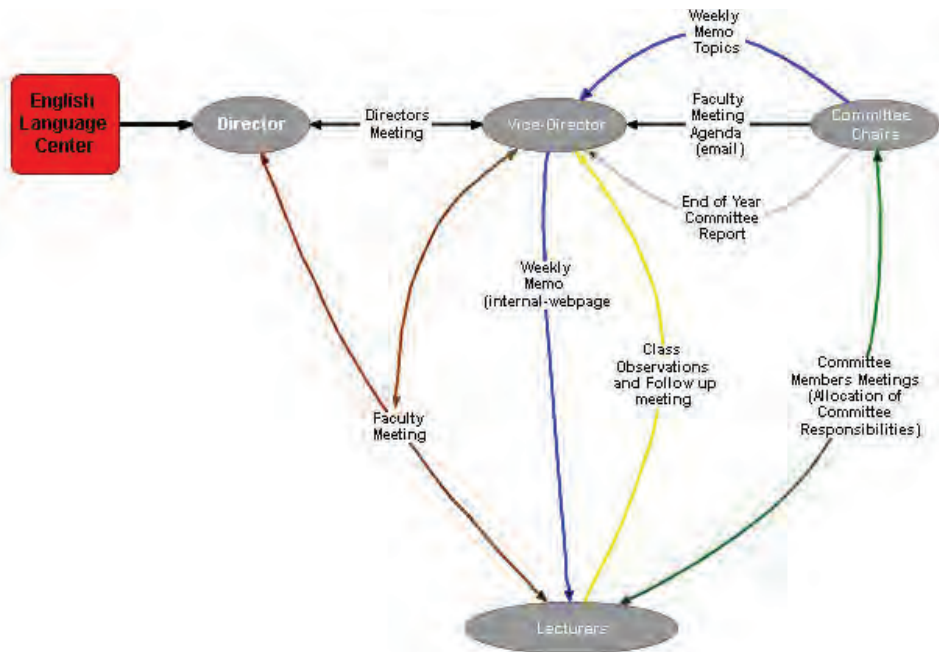


Diagram 2: Communication in an English Language Center

Changing the Focus: From Teacher to Learner - A Writing Course

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ABSTRACT

Flexibility is a necessary component in education, and it is especially needed in a writing class. In our context, EFL, classroom time is quite limited and the instructor is at times hard put to maximize the benefits of it. Along with this, constant reflection is required to accurately assess the progress (and at times the lack of it) of one's students. This paper details the ongoing trials, tribulations, insights, developments, additions, deletions, modifications, successes, not quite successes, materials development, and evaluation of a writing course over five semesters at the tertiary level. These classes are required for English Language and Literature majors, and have either by evolution or intelligent design moved from extremely instructor-oriented to extremely learner-oriented and learner-responsible, and have also progressed from the extremely formal academic paragraph to the multi-page creative short story.

INTRODUCTION

Occasionally an instructor finds himself in the enviable position of being able to implement a curriculum of a course to affect maximum development of his students. That was the situation the author found himself approximately five plus semesters ago. The course was an introductory university composition course in the English as a Foreign Language context, and the design of the course was directed with the goal of achieving student improvement in the following areas: clarity of expression, logical development of ideas, non-violation of readers' expectations, adherence to acceptable stylistic norms, use of standard written grammar, and written fluency. Each semester produced significant changes in instructional methodology, material, assignments, and evaluation.

OVERVIEW

The courses examined are sequential one-credit university classes offered in successive semesters in the English Language and Literature Department. They are required for all majors of that department and of all English Education majors. However, classes are open to all majors. Class time consists of one two-hour period per week, and semester length follows the usual

16-week schedule, with the first beginning in March and the second in late August. For major students, these are normally taken in the freshman year, but that is not mandatory. Enrollment averaged approximately 55% first year students.

CLASSES

2004 Spring This was the initial class of the study. It consisted of three sections. The enrollment was 82, of which 36 were freshmen. The textbook used was *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, 2003). The compositions were of the length of one paragraph. Each class had the following assignments: Write a one paragraph composition on a new topic assigned by the instructor (usually a choice of three). These were submitted, corrected by the instructor, and returned to the students the following class. Revise the corrected previous week's composition. These were submitted, corrected, and returned the following week. Lastly, produce a final copy of the previous week's first revision. This second revision would not be submitted during the regular class, but be added to the portfolio which would be submitted at the end of the term.

Peer reviews were conducted midway through the course following the model in *Teaching ESL Composition* (Farris & Hedgcock, 1998, pp. 194-195) with a form provided (see Appendix A). Each student assembled a portfolio of their work throughout the semester which consisted of the first draft, the revision, and the final copy of each assignment. These were graded, but not corrected, and returned to the students.

2004 Fall This was the second class of the study, and again it consisted of three sections. The enrollment was 81, of which 36 were freshmen. The textbook used was *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, 2003). The compositions were again of the length of one paragraph. Classes had the following assignments: One week, write a one-paragraph composition on a new topic assigned by the instructor (again usually a choice of three). These were submitted, corrected by the instructor, and returned to the students the following class. The following week, revise the corrected previous week's composition. These would be submitted, corrected, and returned during the next class. The third week, a paragraph was to be written on a new topic, and the final copy of the previous week's revision to be completed. This second revision would not be submitted during the regular class, but be added to the portfolio which would be submitted at the end of the term, as per the previous term.

Peer reviews were not performed this semester due to the unsatisfactory results obtained in the preceding semester (see Conclusions). A portfolio was again assembled, collected, graded, and returned, as was done previously.

2005 Spring This was the third class of the study, and again it consisted of three sections. The enrollment was 75, of which 48 were freshmen. The textbook used was again *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, 2003) and material based on the first five chapters of *The Practical Writer* (Bailey & Powell, 1992). The compositions were again of the length of one paragraph.

The assignments followed a similar format as the Fall 2004 class. One week, write a one-paragraph composition on a new topic assigned by the instructor (again usually a choice of three). For the first few weeks of the class these were submitted, corrected by the instructor, and returned to the students the following class. After this initial period, a new topic would be assigned again usually with a choice of three. These would be peer reviewed, but not submitted. The following week, students were to revise the corrected previous week's composition. These would then again be peer reviewed, but not collected. For the third week, students would produce a new paragraph on a new topic and write the final copy of the previous week's revision. This second revision would be submitted during the regular class. It was then corrected and scored by the instructor and returned to the student. A final version of this was to be added to the portfolio which would be submitted at the end of the term, as per the previous term.

Peer reviews were reinstated but with a proofreading and editing focus rather than one of content review, and a form was provided for guidance (Bailey & Powell, 1992, p. 68) (see Appendix B). The students again created and submitted a portfolio, as was done previously.

2005 Fall This was the fourth class of the study, and again it consisted of three sections. The enrollment was 76, of which 49 were freshmen. Again the textbook used was *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, 2003). The compositions were of the length of one paragraph. The assignments followed a similar format as the Fall 2004 class. For example: The first week, write a one-paragraph composition on a new topic assigned by the instructor (following the usual choice of three). The second week, the composition assigned the week previous would be peer inspected (see below) and returned to the authoring student to be revised. The following week, the revised paragraph would again be peer inspected and returned to the authoring student to be revised. The class following that, the final copy of the assignment would be submitted which would be scored and corrected by the instructor and returned to be revised and added to the portfolio, and the sequence would repeat.

Peer inspections were continued, again with focus on proofreading and editing. However, no form was provided as there were a significant number of continuing students who were familiar with the task. The students once more created a portfolio, as was done previously.

2006 Spring This was the fifth class of the study. Again it was composed of three sections. The enrollment was 80, with 50 of them in their first year. The textbook departed from the one which had been employed for the past two years, to one produced by the instructor, and which was available online on the class Web site. Composition length increased from the single paragraph of past years to five and one half to six pages and three and one half to four pages. Class assignments began with a generalized topic supplied by the instructor and with a beginning length of one and a half pages. Following each week's revision, the assignment length was increased by one page until the previously stated limit was reached. Upon reaching the final addition and revision, the compositions were submitted for evaluation. These were then corrected, scored, and returned. The second topic was assigned and the pro-

cedure repeated.

Peer inspection without checklists, as performed in the classes of 2005, continued on all but the final copy of each assignment. Literary readings were added as models of compositions. Grammar instruction was added with short literary examples. As the portfolio had proved ineffective (see Conclusions), it was discontinued.

2006 Fall This was the sixth class of the study (incomplete at the time of the conference). It varied from the norm as it consisted of only two sections. Enrollment was 46, with 31 students in their first year. Assignment length was fixed at two and one half pages for each assignment. Three generalized topics were assigned sequentially by the instructor. The students were to write the full length for each of the versions of each of the compositions (i.e., first draft, revision, and final copy). As with the previous semester, only the final copy was submitted for evaluation, correction, and return.

Peer inspections were performed on the first draft and the revision. Literary readings were used as compositional models and as samples for grammar instruction. Vocabulary instruction was also added. Again, there was no portfolio.

DIRECTIONS

2004 The motivating idea of this period of instruction was that of the academic rhetorical style. Instruction focused on various patterns of organization as reflected in the textbook, *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, 2003). Topic choice was quite restricted to coordinate with the organizational principles of the text. The short length of the assignments, one paragraph, resulted in an intensive compositional and instructional focus. There was a very high level of instructor intervention, and a low level of peer interaction and feedback.

2005 The academic rhetorical style persisted with instruction following the text with its continued focus on varying organizational patterns. Topic choice was similar to the year before, and focus quite intensive. The level of instructor intervention began to be reduced in the first semester, and in the second was reduced even more with peer interaction and response increasing proportionally.

2006 The focus shifted from the academic rhetorical style to creative fiction. Less formally structured organization was featured. Students were given a more open choice of topic within a generalized framework. The compositions were of significantly greater length and hence more extensive in the instructional and compositional approach. Instructor intervention was at a low level, and peer interaction at a high level.

INDUCEMENT FOR CHANGE

The program was functioning well enough as originally designed and implemented, but there were several problematic areas that the author felt required attention.

Plagiarism In the current context, students seem to be generally unaware of the seriousness of plagiarism, or for that matter what plagiarism is. This became manifest in an assignment on paragraphs organized by time. The instructions were to find any person, past or present, which interested the student, and using the Internet or library find some information about the person and extract seven or eight important dates in the subjects life, and write a paragraph using those dates in some sort of time order employing a list of temporal transitions (Blanchard & Root, 2002, p. 26).

The results were eye-opening. Students did in fact research their selected individual. Approximately 10% of them pasted large amounts of what they had found on the Internet directly into their compositions. A few included hyperlinks and Web page formatting. When confronted with evidence of their plagiarism, the general reaction was a questioning disbelief of any wrongdoing.

Student Apathy In the first year of the study, students were provided with frequent feedback in the form of instructor corrections and suggestions. These were effected to the improvement of the compositions, but in an overwhelming number of instances, those were the limit of revisions that were effected. Great efforts were made to encourage creative revisions, to motivate the students to improve upon the idea and the way in which they were trying to communicate it, all to little avail.

Time Limitation The distribution and amount of class time was extremely limited. Classes were held once per week for two contiguous 50-minute periods. This resulted in a week delay from the submission of a paper to its return. Additionally, this necessitated material being presented in large blocks, with little to no reinforcement.

Lack of Quality Although this is quite subjective, the general quality of student papers was fairly low. With few refreshing exceptions, most compositions were mechanical and uninteresting. Students seemed to be searching for a formulaic method of producing a composition which would result in a high score with minimum effort.

Short Length The single paragraph, while a good starting point, was too little to develop connected ideas. The class hours and their distribution hindered transitioning to longer works.

Disconnected A notable feature of a large quantity of student work was that points made within a composition were not cognitively well connected. This improved with revision, but remained evident in the initial production phase.

THE EPIPHANY

In the second year, when the time for the assignment mentioned above using time organization approached, something needed to be done. Wishing to avoid a repetition of articles lifted from the Internet, an inspiration came upon the author. Rather than choose a famous person and finding information on his life, students were instructed to make themselves the important person and to use significant dates from their own lives to write the composition.

The resultant papers were a delight. They were, by default, original. In addition, they were very interesting, and, on the whole, they were of superior quality. What had initiated as a ploy to eliminate plagiarism had served to generate a significant improvement in all of the compositions.

This personalized topic approach was again applied to another assignment, that of writing descriptions. The assignment from *Ready to Write* (Blanchard & Root, p. 71) was to select a family member, create a list of descriptive details of that person, then write a paragraph using this list. This quite frequently produced a large quantity of mediocre paragraphs describing mother.

The students in the second year were instructed to use themselves as the family member. Additional instructions were to write in the third person and to use only glowing terms in their descriptions. Papers again were very original, very interesting, and of superior quality. (It should be noted that it was necessary to provide somewhat detailed instruction on what “glowing terms” were.)

TRIALS AND FEEDBACK

The personalized creative approach was yielding positive results, and toward the end of the second year, short in-class creative writing was tested. Normally, there was little writing done in the classroom, and taking that into consideration, the samples were fairly well written.

An informal survey was conducted among the students regarding the personalized topics and the creative writing. Both were well received, with no complaints registered.

CREATIVE WRITING

The 2006 year brought about a shift in the design and implementation of the writing course. Composition focus went from intensive to extensive, and with that, the length of the assignments increased dramatically. Students were required to develop a story that carried through many paragraphs and several pages. They were also enjoined to keep the story interesting, and to keep it logical (i.e., understandable to the reader).

Readings of literature were provided as models of composition, particularly selected to emphasize a point of instruction. Peer review (in its true

sense of offering suggestions for improvement), peer editing, and peer proofreading were employed as classroom activities. Basic grammar instruction relative to student errors was also introduced midway in the first semester using additional literary samples.

An online textbook of the author's own device was used for the class. It contained particular points compositional instruction, a style sheet, problematic areas of grammar and style, observed student errors, and class assignments. It was adapted to the needs of the class as they presented themselves.

Spring 2006 The first assignment of the term was quite long, five and one half to six pages. It began as a one and one half page paper and grew at the rate of one page per week until its full length was achieved. Each week had a different element of focus (i.e., setting, characters, plot, point of view, resolution) to be incorporated into the paper.

The second assignment was shorter, two and one half to three pages. It also followed the progressive length development of the first. And as in the first paper, different compositional elements of the story were highlighted each week.

In both of the assignments, students were checked as to completion of intermediate assigned work, but no scores or corrections were made by the instructor. The final versions were both scored, corrected, and returned. Each week, peer review, editing, and proofreading were done in-class.

Results In the first assignment, better students wrote very well, as would be expected. They produced interesting well-formed stories. Weaker students did poorly, at times producing incoherent assemblages of words that defied comment. This was partially from their lesser ability, but more from their failure to approach the task with a serious attitude. On the second assignment (half length of the first) results paralleled the first but with some notable improvement of the less proficient members of the class.

Lessons Learned Shorter assignment length produced better results for mid-level students. Upper level students displayed significant development. Weaker students had improvement similar to those achieved with the previous method of instruction (the academic style). It was quite obvious from observation of reoccurring student errors that more grammar instruction was needed. Additionally, it was also determined that vocabulary instruction was in order.

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Lessons Applied Considering the results of the previous semester, assignment lengths were shortened to two and one half to three pages. The total amount of writing remained the same as the number of assignments was increased to three. With the additional composition, an additional literary reading was also added. To increase connectivity, grammar instruction used the literature readings as samples for examination and demonstration. These readings were also used as the basis for vocabulary instruction.

TRIBULATIONS

THEIRS

Plagiarism was still rearing its ugly head. Rather than the Internet, some students copied wholesale from the reading. Strong threats and huge deductions in scores reduced it significantly, but did not entirely eliminate it.

Perhaps more worrisome was the students' continuing habit of procrastinating. The distribution of class hours (once per week) contributed to this, but as it persisted, it resulted in poorly proofread papers with significant amounts of obvious errors. It also left students poorly, if at all, prepared for class.

MINE

The biggest problem to date has been the development of an effective scoring rubric. These are graded major classes, and assigning equitable scores can be quite perplexing at times. For example, should a student who followed a safe conservative path in his composition, wrote the minimum, took no exploratory chances, and made few errors receive a higher score than one who wrote much more, dared new frontiers, took bold risks to express his ideas, and made more errors?

Grammar instruction is a second area of concern. Although the students have studied grammar, most of it has been in the area of error recognition and little to none in the area of production. Considering the limited amount of class time, this instruction needs to concentrate on what will best benefit the students' writing efforts.

The last major area of concern is that of maintaining a reasonable credit/workload balance: Too little work and the students fail to progress as much as they could; too much and the students consider the tasks impossible and abandon reasonable effort and progress even less.

CONCLUSIONS (HAPPY DISCOVERIES AND NOT-SO-HAPPY DISCOVERIES)

Writing done with a creative focus does produce better results than that with an academic focus. This was found in both short and long compositions which were more coherent and interesting.

More writing results in better writing. This was observed from the first class, Spring 2004, when students would have three paragraphs to write (or revise) each week. It was also visible in the creative focused classes of 2006. The more the students wrote, the better they wrote. This suggests a possible parallel with extensive reading.

Grammar instruction is necessary. Most students lack the meta-vocabulary to discuss problems with their work, and are often unaware of a particular error they have made, or why it is an error. Also being in an EFL situation, their overall exposure to English is usually limited to the classroom and assigned texts.

Vocabulary instruction is also necessary, both in the acquisition of unfamiliar items and deepening the knowledge and usages of words the students already possess.

Literature readings are highly beneficial. Although advanced, they are excellent writing models. Using them as samples for examination and study for grammar places it in the context of real usable language. The vocabulary is also advanced, but as it occurs in a natural authentic context, it serves the students well.

Topics selected with a strongly personalized aspect produce vastly superior results from the impersonal selection available in textbooks. This seems to cause the students to focus more intently on the content of their compositions in a more intense manner.

On the down side, it appears that peer reviews in the traditional sense (Farris & Hedgcock, 1998) have little benefit for all but the most advanced students. Other than responses to the purely mechanical items, little was offered in the subjective parts of the review. Peer editing and proofreading are not quite as effective as one would expect or hope. Students were familiar with error recognition, but this was only applicable to a multiple choice format. In the open-ended situation of examining a composition in toto, glaring errors were frequently invisible and overlooked.

Student portfolios were also ineffective in this limited situation. In general, students viewed them as a make-work exercise which forced them, quite unwillingly, to retain all of the work they had produced during the term. Final entries displayed no final polish or improvement, other than marked error correction, than the previous versions. When used as an element of student evaluation, their scores mirrored the scores on the individual compositions and provided no discriminatory capability.

Instructor intervention is very effective. But if it is done without lengthy individual consultation with the student, only the indicated areas receive attention, and the reasons for the correction or suggestion are not comprehended or investigated.

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APPENDIX A. PEER REVIEW FORM

Writer _____ Peer Editor _____

1. What is the topic sentence? _____

2. What supporting details did the writer use in this paragraph?

3. What are the strengths of this paragraph? _____

4. What did you like about it? _____

5. What weaknesses did you find? _____

6. What suggestions for improvement can you offer? _____

<H>Appendix B. Paragraph Checklist

Writer _____ Student Number _____
Checker _____ Student Number _____

Y - Yes, the item is correct
N/Y - Not Yet, the item is not yet correct.

Topic Sentence

_____ Does the paragraph begin with a topic sentence?
_____ Does the topic sentence have a limited subject?
_____ Does the topic sentence have a precise opinion?

Support

_____ Does the support begin with the second sentence of the paragraph?
_____ Is the support detailed enough?
_____ Do all the items of support clearly belong with the topic sentence?
_____ Is the support fully explained so the relation to the topic is clear?
_____ Are there transitions at the critical locations?
_____ Does each item of support include a reminder of the opinion in the topic sentence?

Conclusion

_____ Does the last sentence of the paragraph reword the topic sentence?

Other

_____ Is the paragraph convincing?
_____ Is the paragraph interesting?
_____ Is the paper neatly done so its easy to read?

Mechanics

_____ Formatting:
_____ Margins: Top, bottom, left, and right
_____ Line spacing: Single space for name, double space everywhere else
_____ Title centering
_____ Left alignment
_____ 12pt. Times New Roman font
_____ No **bold** or underline font styles
_____ Title Capitalization?
_____ Sentence Capitalization?
_____ Spelling?
_____ Grammar?
_____ Punctuation?
_____ Correct form of words?
_____ Sentence fragments?

Conference Overview

Presentations of The 14th Korea TESOL International Conference

Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners

October 28–29, 2006, Seoul, Korea

The 2006 Korea TESOL Conference Committee gratefully recognizes the following people for presenting research papers, conducting workshops, and leading discussions at the 14th Korea TESOL International Conference. Listings are in alphabetical order by surname, followed by the title of the session; co-presenters are listed separately.

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- | | |
|-----------------|---|
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| Sara Davila | Class Survival/Class Management: Approaches and Practices from a Teacher in the Field |
| Ayesha Kamal | The Right to Remain Silent |
| Adriane Moser | Enabling Young Learners to Manage Anger: Extending the DANGEROUS ANIMAL Metaphor |
| Jinkyu Park | Adjustment Problems of Young Second Language Learners |

Computer-Assisted Language Learning

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| Paul Alexander | Developing ESL Communities of Practice Between Japanese and Korean Students |
| Andy Burki | Using Corpora in ELT: A Few Ideas |
| Christopher Chase | Developing ESL Communities of Practice Between Japanese and Korean Students |
| Jocelyn Hubert | Utilizing Videos: A Powerful Medium for Innovative ELT |
| Andrew Johnson | More ICT, Less Work: A Collaborative Pilot Project |
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| Ariel Sorensen | Digital Whiteboard: Supercharging the Learning Environment |
| Thomas Webster | More ICT, Less Work: A Collaborative Pilot Project |
| Xunfeng Xu | The Use of Learner English Corpora for Teaching Grammar |

Conversation / Pronunciation

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
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| Hye-won Lee | Drama English in the EFL Classroom |
| Ella Leung | Teaching Group Discussion and Presentation Skills in a University Pre-sessional Program |
| Bryon O'Neill | The WebLinks Project: Schema Building for EFL Conversation Courses |
| Shelley Price-Jones | Group Work for Large Classes |
| Mark D. Sheehan | The WebLinks Project: Schema Building for EFL Conversation Courses |
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